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DU TRAVAIL

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE

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TWELFTH SESSION
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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE
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INTRODUCTION

1. — The present Report of the Director of the International Labour Office to the Twelfth Session of the International Labour Conference deals with the work of the Organisation from 1 January to 31 December 1928. As in previous Reports the information given on some questions which the Conference may be likely to discuss overlaps into 1929.

The plan of the Report is exactly the same as for last year. Part I reviews the general activity of the Organisation. Part II gives a summary of the annual reports which, under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, the Governments are required to submit on the measures taken by them to give effect to Conventions to which they are parties.

Part I consists of the usual two Sections. Section I deals with the general working of the Organisation, and is subdivided into three Chapters:

I. Questions of organisation.
II. International information.
III. Relations.

Section II reviews the results obtained. The plan of the Section follows the lines adopted last year:

I. Working conditions.
II. Social insurance.
III. Wages.
IV. Possibilities of employment.
V. Protection of special classes of workers.
VI. The workers' living conditions.
VII. The workers' general rights.

This retention of the same plan for the annual Report will, it is hoped, facilitate references to and comparisons with previous Reports.

The summary of the reports furnished by the Governments given in Part II is followed, as in the case of previous Reports, by an appendix in which the conclusions of the Article 408 Committee are reproduced after their submission to the Governing Body.
FIRST PART

General Activity of the Organisation
CHAPTER I

QUESTIONS OF ORGANISATION

2. — There has been no change during 1928 in the composition of the International Labour Organisation. The list of the States Members remains as follows:

- Abyssinia
- Albania
- Argentina
- Australia
- Austria
- Belgium
- Bolivia
- Brazil
- British Empire
- Bulgaria
- Canada
- Chile
- China
- Colombia
- Cuba
- Czechoslovakia
- Denmark
- Estonia
- Finland
- France
- Germany
- Greece
- Guatemala
- Haiti
- Honduras
- Hungary
- India
- Irish Free State
- Italy
- Japan
- Latvia
- Liberia
- Lithuania
- Luxembourg
- Netherlands
- New Zealand
- Nicaragua
- Norway
- Panama
- Paraguay
- Persia
- Peru
- Poland
- Portugal
- Rumania
- Salvador
- San Domingo
- Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes
- Siam
- South Africa
- Spain
- Sweden
- Switzerland
- Uruguay
- Venezuela

3. — Attention was drawn in last year’s Report to the special position of Spain and Brazil, which had decided to withdraw from the League of Nations but had manifested their intention to remain Members of the International Labour Organisation. It was pointed out that this situation had given rise in some quarters to doubts as to the legal position of these States, but the opinion was expressed that there was no definite rule of positive law which prevented the Governments of these countries from continuing to belong to the International Labour Organisation in spite of their decision to withdraw from the League. At the same time, the hope was expressed that Spain and Brazil would before long reconsider their attitude towards the League of Nations. This hope was rapidly fulfilled in so far as Spain is concerned. On 22 March 1928 the Spanish Government informed the Council of the League of Nations that it had decided to return to the League. The Brazilian Government, however, has maintained its original decision, and, consequently, Brazil has ceased since 13 June 1928 to be a Member of the League of Nations.

As far as the Office is concerned, it is a matter for satisfaction to note the loyalty which the Brazilian Government has manifested towards the International Labour Organisation. Although it has withdrawn from the League, the Brazilian Government still continues to collaborate with the Organisation. A Brazilian delegation took part in the discussions and votes of the last Session of the Conference right up to the closing of the last sitting, and Brazil’s contribution towards the expenses of the International Labour Office has been paid in full. These are gratifying indications of the value which Brazil attaches to the cause of international social progress.

4. — As in previous Reports, a reference should be made to the position of the Republic of Costa Rica. It is probable that the Office will soon have occasion to re-include Costa Rica in the list of Members of the International Labour Organisation. Costa Rica withdrew some years ago from the League of Nations and did not manifest any intention to remain a Member of the International Labour
Organisation. The Office accordingly felt bound, without prejudice to the legal question raised by the withdrawal of Costa Rica, to note that Costa Rica no longer took an active part in the work of the Organisation, and this State was therefore struck out from the list of Members.

Last summer, however, the Government of Costa Rica requested the Council of the League to furnish it with certain explanations as to the extent of the reference to the Monroe Doctrine contained in Article 21 of the Covenant. Following the explanations given to it on this point by the Council, the Government of Costa Rica in a telegram dated 6 September 1928 announced its intention to rejoin the League. At the time of writing the legal procedure for re-establishing Costa Rica in the League has not yet been set in motion, but there is every reason to hope that in the near future Costa Rica will have resumed its place in the League and in the International Labour Organisation.

5. — There is no event of any importance to record for 1928 which could be regarded as detracting from the unity of the 55 States Members, or indeed as indicating any serious scepticism or discouragement. As a matter of fact, there are many indications that the collaboration of the States Members is increasing from year to year. As will be seen later on, the practice of sending complete delegations to the Conference is gradually spreading, and public Departments are becoming accustomed to replying without hesitation or reserve to the requests which the Office has to address to them. Even the procedure for the ratification of Conventions has almost become ingrained in national custom.

The permanent delegations of the different States in Geneva have been maintained. There is hardly more to record than a few changes as regards the persons in charge of them.

In 1928 the Danish Government established a permanent delegation at Geneva in charge of Mr. William Borberg, who has been accredited to the Office as well as to the League of Nations. The place of Mr. Akio Kasama, the Japanese Government delegate to the Governing Body, has recently been taken by Mr. Shunzo Yoshisaka. Mr. Eric Sjöstrand, Social Adviser to the Swedish Government, is still established in Geneva as the representative of his Government specially accredited to the Office.

Canada, Colombia, Cuba, Finland, Hungary, the Irish Free State, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Rumania and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom have in Geneva permanent representatives or delegations to the League of Nations and the International Labour Office. Quite recently Mr. MacWhite, who represented the Irish Free State Government at Geneva, was appointed Minister of the Irish Free State in Washington. Mr. Constantin Fotitch, the permanent delegate of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Government, will shortly be taking up an important administrative post in Belgrade. Argentina, Bulgaria, China, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Italy and Venezuela have diplomatic or consular representatives, at Berne or Geneva, who have special instructions to keep in touch with the League or with the Office alone. The Government of Uruguay has appointed Mr. O. Deffeminis, its Consul-General in Geneva, as permanent delegate to the Office, representing the National Labour Office in Montevideo, the Department of the Government of Uruguay which deals with labour questions and acts as the medium of liaison between the Government and the International Labour Office.

In most of the larger industrial States, where the public Departments have manifold relations with the Office, special committees are being set up to co-ordinate the work of the different Departments concerned. Such committees have already been in existence for some considerable time in Great Britain and in France. Reference was made in last year’s Report to the re-establishment of the Swedish Delegation for International Collaboration in Social Politics. During 1928 Italy set up a permanent co-ordination committee for international labour questions under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. This Committee is presided over by the Minister himself or one of his delegates, and consists of the Under-Secretaries of State for Foreign Affairs, for National Economy and Corporations, the representative of the Italian Government on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, the head of the Department in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs which deals with questions affecting the League of Nations, the Directors-General of Labour and Social Affairs and the administrative services of the Corporations. The business of the Committee is to give its opinion on questions which come within the range of the International Labour Organisation, and, in particular, on the desirability of ratifying or approving Conventions and Recommendations, communications to be addressed to the Office in regard to items on the Agenda of the annual Session of the Conference, and on the application in the Kingdom of Italy of Conventions ratified and Recommendations approved by the Government. The Committee is provided with a secretariat which has to maintain liaison between the different State Departments on matters affecting international labour questions.

The first meeting of this Committee took place in Rome on 5 December 1928. Mr. Grandi, Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, in opening the meeting, stated: “It is
important that the different State Departments should have, in a consultative body on which they are represented, the means of collaborating methodically for the purpose of ensuring that Italy takes an active and effective part in the work of the International Labour Organisation.

The parts of this Report in which the results obtained in the different countries are considered will be the best means of bringing out the value of the collaboration of each State in the work of the Organisation. It would be too delicate and complicated a task, as has been pointed out in previous Reports, to endeavour to give a general review of the collaboration of the individual countries, and such a review in any case would involve a certain amount of repetition. However, there are each year certain features of this collaboration which should be brought to the attention of the Conference.

In last year's Report the Office expressed its satisfaction that certain misunderstandings or misinterpretations of its work which had arisen in Italy had been completely removed. During last year the pendulum has almost swung too far in the other direction. After the Director's return from his visit to Italy, where he was courteously and cordially welcomed by the Fascist Government and the industrial organisations, he was rather bitterly accused from outside the Organisation not only of having been false to his own personal opinions but even of having departed from some of the principles enshrined in the International Labour Charter. The personal opinions of the Director do not come into question here. But the Director sincerely feels that he properly carried out the duties which his position lays upon him. Perhaps the Italian press was too ready to transform into eulogies the objective statements which he made on Italy's social legislation and its ratification policy. It is not felt, however, that these statements were full of flattery. Similarly, it was not the business of the Director to discuss the nature of the workers' organisations which are represented at the Conference when he was present at their Congress. The credentials of the Italian workers' delegate have been approved by the Conference and in those circumstances there was nothing for the Director to discuss. It may be added, moreover, that it would hardly be dignified in a Director of the International Labour Office to shut his eyes to the social experiment which Fascism is working out in Italy or to its systematic policy of construction. However strange and open to criticism this policy may be, it is none the less necessary to understand it and to make it understood. The international point of view cannot be political, or, rather, partisan. It must to a large extent be historical. Distance, like lapse of time, should make the judgment more objective, and much objectivity will be required for the building up of international peace.

There was no appreciable criticism to answer in respect of the Director's visit to Spain. In Barcelona and Madrid the Director had occasion to note the new system of joint committees and mixed commissions, which, if it is less systematic than the Fascist scheme, is none the less interesting, and has been created without any opposition on the part of the traditional workers' organisations. It would appear, moreover, that this new organisation is likely to give a fresh stimulus to labour legislation and the labour movement and to strengthen the bonds which unite Spain and the Office. The same ideas which led to this new system have also no doubt been responsible for the internal re-organisation of the Spanish Departments and the substitution of a special Labour Ministry for the previous Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry.

There are also some interesting developments to record for the Balkan countries.

In Greece, where the present Prime Minister, Mr. Venizelos, was the originator of the first ratifications received from that country, a new desire is being manifested for a stricter application of the reforms which have already been approved and for adherence to other Conventions. The interest which is being given to matters of social hygiene will also draw further attention to the reforms in favour of women and children.

In the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, the Government which was established towards the end of last year is fully aware of the importance of international labour legislation to a constructive and progressive national policy.

As regards Poland, the Office owes it to that country to mention the proof it gave of its attachment to the Organisation in the reception accorded by it to the Governing Body in October 1928. Not only the Government, but also all the industrial organisations, public opinion, the press and the universities gave the Governing Body a most friendly and confident welcome. This, indeed, was only to be expected of a country which regularly sends students, voluntary workers and others to gain experience in the Office, publishes Office publications in Polish, frequently asks for or supplies information, and in many other ways constantly maintains close and effective collaboration with Geneva.

In Northern Europe, in some of the Scandinavian and Baltic countries, the
small number of ratifications might give the impression that labour legislation is slow in developing. As a matter of fact, the creation of the International Labour Organisation gave a fresh stimulus to methods of collaboration on labour questions between these different countries which were already taking form before the war. This collaboration has become closer and more systematic year by year, for the special purpose of preparing for the International Labour Conference and applying its decisions. In 1928 it was decided to celebrate the tenth anniversary of this collaboration. The celebrations took place on the occasion of the annual conference of the Ministers of Social Affairs for the Scandinavian countries. Meetings of specialists, publicity conferences and a large labour exhibition were organised in Helsingfors from 20 to 25 August. Representatives from Estonia, Latvia and Iceland were there for the first time with representatives from Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden, and the Office received a special invitation. It is true that this sort of special union between particular countries sometimes causes the Office difficulties: when one Scandinavian country, for example, objects to ratifying a Convention, the others are likely to be affected with similar hesitations. On the whole, however, in spite of the difficulties which arise from the special conditions in these different countries, the Conference and the Baltic countries have joined in the movement, the mutual collaboration which these countries have instituted can only help to promote social progress in the North.

Ideas are very active in this part of Europe. The great dockers' dispute which broke out in Finland last summer and which had not yet been settled at the end of the year, had repercussions in almost all the Scandinavian countries. The controversy to which this dispute gave rise in regard to the practice of collective agreements spread to Sweden and Denmark. Further, the efforts made for industrial peace in Sweden reveal an intensity of social life which is of the greatest interest to the Office. And yet, paradoxical as it may seem, some of the unmerited criticisms directed at the Organisation during the last Assembly of the League of Nations came from representatives of these countries. There is a considerable amount of fresh progress to record for Latin America. In Cuba important steps have been taken for the creation of the Cuban Labour Council, and a systematic survey of economic and social problems has been undertaken by the Committee on National Economic Protection which was set up by a Decree of 29 March 1928. In the untimely death of Mr. Loveira the Organisation has lost a real friend, who had since 1919 devoted his energies to strengthening the relations between his country and the Office and whose work has produced such fruitful results. In the Republic of Panama a Labour Code has been drafted and submitted for consideration to the technical services of the Office. In Paraguay a new President has been elected in the person of Mr. Gugiar, who has stated that he regards it as one of his duties to endow his country with a body of labour legislation which will guarantee the rights of the workers. In Uruguay a Pensions Act has been passed and a Minimum Wages Bill prepared. In Peru a Labour Code is being prepared, in the drafting of which the President, Mr. Leguia, has asked the Office to lend its assistance. Last year Ecuador sent one of its representatives to follow the work of the Eleventh Session of the Conference, and is now taking steps to regularise its relations with the League of Nations and the Office. The loyalty of Brazil has already been referred to; the Office is in constant relations with the National Labour Council in that country. The rumours which were current regarding the attitude of Chile have proved unfounded. The Chilian Government has instructed its representative to inform the Office of the importance it attaches to the ratification of a number of new Conventions. As regards the Argentine Republic perhaps the situation is rather more uncertain. At present, however, in spite of the steps repeatedly taken by the Government, Parliament has not taken any decision on the International Labour Conventions. Nor has any definite decision yet been reached as to the regular participation of the Argentine Republic in the work of the League of Nations. The question seems to have been re-opened by the election of Dr. Irigoyen as President of the Republic. On the proposal of the Finance Committee, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, when passing the budget for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, struck out the total contribution of Argentina to the League of Nations. The Office trusts that this is only a provisional measure until the question has been cleared up constitutionally. It is hoped that this young and vigorous democracy in South America will realise that, in
view of its high legal traditions, its industrial power and its intellectual achievements, it has an important international position to occupy.

Lastly, it was a new experience for the Director to come in contact, during his recent visit, with the important countries in the Far East which are Members of the Organisation.

China, the country of more than 300 million inhabitants and immense industrial possibilities which has become so politically active and alive, has hardly been more than a formal Member of the Organisation from the beginning. Since 1921 its delegates to the Conference have generally been diplomatic representatives in Europe. In 1923 the first tentative steps to regulate conditions of work were taken by the Pekin Government. Nevertheless, general working conditions are still low and the position of women and children calls for urgent measures. In view, however, of the prospects of unifying China under the Nankin Government, it may now be expected that the necessary action will be taken. The Nationalist Government, acting on Sun Yat Sen's third principle that the welfare and prosperity of the people are to be among the first considerations, has drafted a body of labour legislation, and is considering the possibility of sending complete delegations to future Sessions of the Conference. It may therefore be hoped that in the near future some considerable progress will be made in the protection of the workers in this immense country.

It was a great pleasure, too, to the Director to come into contact with Japan, the Member which is so exact in the fulfilment of its obligations, so loyal to the work of the Office and so ready to respond to the action taken by it. The Director had no hope of bringing back from Japan a batch of fresh ratifications. Japan has regularly ratified the Conventions when it considered it possible to do so. The considerable economic difficulties which it considers make it impossible for the time being to ratify some important Conventions, such as the Conventions on the eight-hour day or on the night work of women, could hardly be expected to be removed by a mere visit to the country. The Director had the satisfaction, however, of winning for the Organisation the confidence of statesmen who perhaps still felt some apprehensions towards it. It was also a considerable satisfaction to be able to show to Japanese employers the regard which the Organisation has for the special economic and psychological conditions particular to each country, and to help to strengthen the position of the workers' organisations in the eyes of the general public.

The Director hopes that his visit to the East has helped to bring home to those far-off parts of the world that consciousness of the reality of the existence of the Organisation which must be felt if social reform is to be more than a matter of ephemeral aspirations. To ensure its universality, the Organisation needs more than the formal adherence of its Members, it needs internal vitality.

6. — There are unfortunately no additions to report for 1928 to the Membership of the Organisation. The United States of America, Mexico, the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, Turkey, and Egypt are still not Members. As regards the United States, this Report can only record once more the instances in which co-operation has been possible with that country.

The Office's Washington Branch has continued its activities and has noted with satisfaction in its annual report the increasing cordiality of the replies to its requests for information both from the public administrative departments and from the employers' organisations. A spirit of friendly interest in the work of the Office has spread and grown more active in certain university circles and in public opinion. Co-operation with the Industrial Relations Counsellors has continued. Mr. T. Spates has succeeded Mr. Olzendam as the representative of that organisation in the Office and has given valuable assistance to the work of the Office on the subject of industrial relations, on which the United States is so fertile in experiments and suggestions. Indirect co-operation has been continued with the Twentieth Century Fund, through the International Management Institute. Certain difficulties have arisen here: Mr. Percy Brown, the Deputy-Director appointed by the American founders, has resigned, and Mr. Devinat, the Director, has taken the same step. The value of international co-operation for the rationalisation of industry is so obvious, however, that Americans and Europeans have agreed to continue the work and to sink their individual preferences regarding methods of organisation or working. Professor Joseph Chamberlain, of the University of Columbia, has been appointed, with the approval of the United States Government, to the Native Labour Committee. Mr. William H. Cameron, Director of the National Safety Council, was present at the Eleventh Session of the Conference and put at the disposal of the Office the results obtained in the United States by the Safety First movement.

This seems to be a complete account of the Office's relations and contacts with the United States in 1928. It is scarcely possible to include the visit of Mr. Robe Carl White, Under-Secretary of the Department of Labor, who was in Geneva and attended several meetings of the Eleventh Session of the Conference, for it was definitely stated
that this important official of the United States, the first to visit the Office, had come only in the course of a trip to Europe, and would not be taking any part even as an observer in the work of the Organisation. The same applies to the visit of Mr. John Walker, President of the Illinois State Federation of Labor, who has published friendly reports and articles on the work of the Office; in his case also it was stated that he was not officially representing the American Federation of Labor and that he was here only as a member of the League of Nations Association.

It must be recognised that the work of the Washington Branch Office and the visits of innumerable Americans every year have contributed little to improve the position of the Organisation in public opinion, and more particularly in the general opinion of workers and employers, in the United States. While invariably cordial and friendly in its attitude to the Office, the American Federation of Labor scarcely seems to feel the need for any closer fact-finding and research activities. It is to be hoped that Mr. Walker's work will bear fruit.

On the employers' side, the National Industrial Conference Board, which published a very complete study of the Organisation a few years ago, a study which was somewhat critical, if not actually hostile, has published a further work last year. This study frankly recognises that the Office has become "an agency for the centralisation of information concerning all phases of the labour problem. Prior to its organisation there was no medium through which interested persons and organisations could keep in close touch with the development of labour legislation and the changes in the broader fields of employment relationships. The special investigations of the Office have assembled information which would not otherwise be available."

As a fact-finding and research agency, the International Labour Office has functioned as satisfactorily as the breadth of its field of investigation in comparison with its resources permits." The report concludes that "co-operation in the research activities of the International Labour Office and in an exchange of information and views is not only practicable but also desirable and should be encouraged." At the same time, while recognising that from an economic point of view some degree of international standardisation of labour conditions is desirable and that the Organisation may assist in overcoming "the inertia which still prevents general adoption of reforms that experience has definitely shown to be socially and economically desirable", it nevertheless definitely expresses the opinion that the activities of the Office in the sphere of international Conventions is harmful and that "the affiliation of the United States with the International Labour Office does not at present seem necessary or desirable".

In 1922-1923, the work of the Director to the United States, Mr. Hoover, who was then Secretary for Commerce, let it be understood that, failing definite adherence by the United States Government to the International Labour Organisation, important private organisations might take an unofficial share in its work, and he even recommended the United States Chamber of Commerce to consider whether it could not render a service to the country by acting in this connection in the place of America. Had the employers or workers continued to develop an interest in or sympathy for the work of the Organisation, then this method of collaboration might have been followed. In point of fact, however, there hardly seems to be any likelihood of this at present.

The only hope still is, therefore, that, if at any time political circumstances or economic exigencies induce the United States to develop their international relations, they will, in the end, as a result of these new relations, become a Member of the International Labour Organisation.

It was noted in last year's Report that certain indications of such a widening of the foreign policy of the United States were to be found in their participation in the Naval Disarmament Conference, their participation in the work of the Economic Conference, and the statement made by President Coolidge at the Pan-American Conference in September, that an international agreement for the maintenance of peace may be expressed this year at the renewed activity of American diplomacy — the signature of the Kellogg Pact for outlawing war, and the meeting of the Committee of Jurists which prepared amendments to the rules of the Permanent Court of International Justice with a view to making it possible for the United States to join. The Office has also followed with interest the new activities undertaken by President Coolidge at the Pan-American Conference, and the statement made by President of the United States, Mr. Hoover, in his speech accepting the presidential nomination — "We cannot isolate ourselves from the world" — and in his inaugural message, where he said more definitely that "our people has determined that we should make no political engagement such as membership in the League of Nations."

They adhere to the belief that the independence of America from such obligations increases its ability and availability for service in all fields of human progress", and, again, "We ought, in our life-time, to find a way to permanent peace.

The possibility of further developments in the future would also seem to be anticipated by certain observers of American economic prosperity, alert and well-informed let us note, that both on questions of tariffs and on questions of immigration, which are essentially international problems, as well as for the
purpose of finding the necessary markets for their products, the United States will have to adopt a broader international outlook.

In a recent article a faithful friend of the Organisation, one of those who shared in its foundation, James T. Shotwell, emphasised this view. He went further and stated that in his opinion, after the years of conservatism and political inertia which have followed the war, the pendulum was going to swing in the direction of a more energetic and more far-seeing policy; that the adventure-loving American people was chafing at inaction; that any ideas of self-sufficiency were disappearing; that the American citizen whose small capital was invested in Europe or in South America was taking a broader view, and that considerable and far-reaching changes were forthcoming even in the diplomatic and administrative machinery of the United States of America.

It is indeed possible that, without any change in the official attitude, 1929 may see some further co-operation between the United States and the League of Nations, either on economic or on humanitarian questions. But there is no use disguising the fact that so far as the Labour Office is concerned there are special difficulties to be met: the prejudices of employers and workers in the new world against the preoccupations of those in the old world; the strict obligations involved in the working of the International Labour Conference, which in fact is less accessible to outside countries than the conferences or special commissions of the League of Nations, etc. All the energy and tenacity of the Organisation will be required to pave the way for closer relations with the most highly industrialised, but at the same time perhaps, despite appearances, morally the most isolated country in the world.

7. — There is no change to record with regard to Mexico. The Mexican authorities still provide the Office with the information for which it asks. But the political events of recent months — the assassination of General Obregon, the election of a provisional President, and the rebellion — give little hope of any increased interest in international affairs.

On labour questions, however, certain steps have been taken which are deserving of attention.

President Obregon had promised the country an Act to carry out Article 128 of the Mexican Constitution, which gives a more or less complete outline of the social policy of the Government.

The provisional President, Dr. Portes Gil, has adhered to the policy of President Obregon and, by a Decree of November 1928, convened a National Congress of representatives of workers' and employers' organisations, as well as of technical bodies, to consider a draft Federal Labour Code which had been framed to give effect to Article 129.

The Congress met in November and discussed this draft at considerable length; and the Government has announced that it will take into account the opinions expressed by the Congress and will submit a Bill to the Chamber of Deputies early in 1929.

The draft contains a very detailed system of regulations on the contract of employment, not only on its legal but also on its social aspects. It prescribes that contracts are to be drawn up in writing. Special tribunals and a court of appeal are to be created to settle difficulties which may arise in the application of the regulations. It also deals with collective agreements, which are extensively used in Mexico. It further provides for the eight-hour day, the forty-eight-hour week, a weekly rest, the principle of a minimum wage and participation in profits, and recommends the formation of occupational trade unions and the creation of special courts for dealing with collective disputes.

8. — The Union of Socialist Soviet Republics shows perhaps the most interesting progress made in 1928 in the external relations of the Office, at least in the field of scientific information.

The general attitude of Soviet Russia to the League of Nations and the International Labour Office certainly shows no change. In newspapers and official Soviet speeches the Office is still denounced as "an annex to that imperialist centre, the League of Nations", an instrument in the hands of the capitalist for deceiving the working class by a pretext of "love for the workers" and of "defence of the workers' interests". According to Tribul, the International Labour Conferences are nothing more than "a swindle organised by the imperialists of the world". These quotations might be multiplied. Their number at any rate proves that the Soviet administrators and leaders are following attentively the Sessions of the Conference, the discussions of the Governing Body, and even the journeys of the Director.

The Congress in July 1928 defined more clearly the attitude of Communism towards capitalist States.

According to the report submitted by the President, Mr. Boukharine, world capitalism is at present in the third stage of its evolution since the war. The main feature of this stage is not merely the stabilisation of capitalism, but its reconstruction. According to this view, the capitalist system has now passed, both in quality and quantity, the pre-war level. According to the report, the stabilisation which is taking place is not merely of a

provisional kind or limited to one or two countries, but is a general phenomenon extending to the economic system of the whole world. It is this general and universal stabilisation of capitalism and its improvement which explain the reformist attitude of the working class throughout the world, under the direction of the Socialists and the leaders of the Amsterdam Trade Union International. The economic reconstruction of world capitalism, however, is being accompanied by the reconstruction of the Soviet State. It is just this fact which accentuates the existing antagonism between the two systems. The very existence of the U. S. S. R. means that post-war world capitalism is involved in an internal crisis, because at present it carries within itself a foreign body which is hostile and opposed in principle to the whole system of world capitalism. The struggle which the Soviet Union has to carry on against the system which prevails in the rest of the world renders it impossible to make any distinction between capitalist bourgeois elements and reformist Socialists. The struggle against the latter must be intensified. This in itself explains the attitude of the Soviet Government to the League of Nations and the International Labour Office.

Fortunately, it is generally agreed that even the supporters of antagonistic theories can maintain relations with each other in the field of science and in the search for accurate knowledge; and the Office can record with satisfaction that it has been able to continue and develop such relations with the U. S. S. R. during 1928.

Previous Reports have frequently mentioned the regular exchange of publications with the various Soviet institutions, and it is therefore unnecessary to refer further to the matter here. By means of this exchange, the Office’s information on present-day Russia has been organised on a sound basis and its studies on Russia have won recognition as being authoritative.

The new feature, however, is the extension in the course of the past year of the direct exchange of information. This exchange has developed to such an extent that the Office regularly and rapidly receives on the various questions affecting labour conditions in Russia the information it requires for its own publications or to meet demands from without.

Moreover, the relations established more particularly between the International Labour Office and the Labour Commissariat have for the first time been mentioned in this year’s printed report presented by the Labour Commissariat to the last (eighth) Trade Union Congress in December 1928. The Labour Commissariat has provided the Office with detailed information on seamen’s insurance; the report prepared by the Office on this question was sent to the Commissariat, which communicated its observations. This last procedure is now being more frequently used.

The Labour Commissariat has also provided statistics of real wages in Moscow, and, in agreement with it, the Office has been able to introduce data concerning the wages of Russian workers in its international statistics of wages in the principal cities.

In the report just mentioned the Labour Commissariat itself refers to its participation in compiling international statistics of wages (page 31):

Steps have been taken to include data concerning the U.S.S.R. in the international statistics of wages according to the method adopted by the International Labour Office of the League of Nations. The calculations were in the first place carried out by ourselves (i.e. by the Scientific Office of the Commissariat), the original data were sent to the International Labour Office to be dealt with, and when it was found that the two assessments were more or less in agreement, the International Labour Office included data concerning Moscow in its international survey.

Lastly, apart from special communications, the Labour Commissariat regularly sends to the Office its multigraphed Bulletin, containing current information on the whole social policy of the Soviet Government which is used in the Office’s publications.

Thus the Office’s information on industrial conditions in Russia is no longer based solely on publicly issued documents, but also (as for all other countries) on information directly supplied by the Government services.

In return the Office endeavours to reply to any requests for information sent by Russian institutions whether official or private.

In the course of the past year requests for information have been sent on a great number of subjects: the situation and labour conditions in the transport industry in Italy, France and the United States; the compiling of workers’ budgets in Japan; bibliography on labour law in France, Great Britain and the United States; mobility of industrial labour, etc.

The Government itself has applied to the Office for information and sometimes expresses a favourable opinion on its publications. Thus, the Office’s study on sickness insurance was considered as “a valuable guide on account of the wealth of legislative and documentary material which it contains” (Insurance questions, 1928, No. 48).

The Director passed through Moscow on his journey to the Far East last winter. This visit was of a purely personal and private nature. The Director had no wish to raise any political problem, or
to commit the International Labour Office in any way.

All the same the Director took advantage of his visit to Moscow to develop the relations which had been instituted in recent years between the services of the Office and those of the U.S.S.R. He got into direct touch with the administrative departments with which the Office had already corresponded: the People's Labour Commissariat, the People's Commissariat for Public Health, the Confederation of Trade Unions, and the co-operative organisations (Centrostosoyus).

It was arranged that the exchange of information in the various branches of the work of the Office should be continued. A copy of the draft Questionnaire prepared in response to a wish expressed by the Joint Maritime Committee on the hours and organisation of work on board was given to the People's Labour Commissariat and a reply was promised. A request for the possible co-operation of Russia in an enquiry into the textile industry met with favourable consideration. Mr. Phelan devoted a whole morning to studying the internal organisation of the Labour Commissariat. The Director of the Statistical and Research Branch has also paid several visits to Geneva and is well acquainted with the services of the Office.

The Health Commissariat is prepared to assist the Office in studies in social insurance, particularly in relation to public health. The Confederation of Trade Unions has instituted a valuable information service with which the Office can keep in touch. For a long time past the Centrostosoyus has been in touch with the co-operative section of the Office. Collaboration in scientific matters will thus assume a more intensive and definite form than in the past.

Whether circumstances will permit any further development in the relations between the Office and the U.S.S.R. is a more difficult question. Any premature step would probably encounter difficulties from different directions. The fervent desire of the Office for universality must be its excuse for referring to certain events in the international policy of the past year or in the economic development of Russia which alternately strengthen and weaken its hopes for the future.

As regards the League of Nations itself, it is to be noted that during the past year the Soviet Government continued to take part in the work of the Preparatory Committee of the Disarmament Conference. Before the opening of the Fifth Session the Soviet Union had sent a first Draft Convention on disarmament. When the first draft was rejected, the Russian Delegation submitted a second draft during the Session, which, however, was not discussed at that meeting. Later, the People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs took the matter up again directly or indirectly with a view to having this second draft examined as quickly as possible (telegrams of 20 August and 6 December). The most striking fact, however, has been Russia's signature of the Kellogg Pact. The Soviet Government, bowed by the French Government at the end of August, has signed the Pact and justified its action by stating that "all the signatory powers had taken on themselves certain moral obligations".

At the very end of 1928, again, the Soviet Union entered into negotiations with certain of its western neighbours with a view to putting the Kellogg Pact into force immediately between the latter countries and the Union. The first step in this direction was taken on 29 December 1928, when two notes were handed to the Ministers of Poland and Lithuania, along with a draft protocol. In the succeeding weeks an exchange of notes (especially between the U.S.S.R. and Poland) led to widening the circle of the States participating in this diplomatic move, with the result that on 9 February 1929 the final protocol was signed at Moscow by representatives of the Governments of Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Romania, and the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics. It should be added that a few days later the Turkish Government informed Moscow of its adherence to the protocol, and quite recently Lithuania has followed suit.

Thus Russia is happily entering into the system of international agreements which has recently developed and which aims at organising the international community on new bases.

Apart from this active participation in a policy which more or less centres round the League of Nations, the Soviet Government as in previous years, has continued to develop its relations with foreign powers. During the year 1928 the Soviet Union had an exchange of notes with Lithuania on the application of the most-favoured-nation principle. After long negotiations a new economic agreement has been signed with Germany. Agreements have been concluded concerning fishing (with Japan and Norway), veterinary supervision (with Turkey), industrial patents (with Norway and Estonia), the settlement of minor litigation (with Turkey), frontier communications (with Estonia, Persia and Turkey), railway transport (with Finland), the distribution of the profits of the Manchurian railway (with China), and the rights of the Soviet Commercial Delegation (with Sweden). Lastly, the Treaty of 1 October 1927 with Persia has been ratified, and the King and Queen of Afghanistan paid an official visit to Moscow.

It may also be said perhaps that practical exigencies and economic needs are also impelling Russia to develop more and more its relations with the world economic system, though it is difficult to
estimate how far the facts warrant such a statement. Russia herself proves that economic needs are frequently subordinated to political feelings. But, as the brief statistical information generally introduced in these Reports has been particularly appreciated in preceding years, an attempt will again be made to provide material on which a judgment may be formed on this point. The following paragraphs accordingly indicate the economic position of Russia at the end of 1928.

(1) Agricultural output decreased considerably during 1928. The area sown with cereals, for which the State plans in "Official Forecast" (Konirolnyé Tsijry) provided for an increase of 5.5 per cent., has decreased by 3.6 per cent. in comparison with the preceding year (as against an increase of 2.6 per cent. in 1927 and 7.7 per cent. in 1926).

The cultivation of industrial plants increased by 18.9 per cent. (as against 6.5 per cent. in 1927). The area sown with cotton increased from 655,000 hectares in 1926-1927 to 752,000 hectares in 1927-1928, but the area for flax decreased by 5.1 per cent. (1,228,000 hectares, as against 1,295,000 in 1926-1927), and the area for hemp from 956,300 hectares in 1926-1927 to 950,100.

The development of live stock has also shown a certain falling-off. The number of horses increased by 4.5 per cent. as compared with 8.1 per cent. in 1927 and 8.8 per cent. in 1926, and that of draught animals by 1.1 per cent. (as compared with 4.6 per cent. in 1927 and 5.8 per cent. in 1926).

The harvest of cereals amounted to 4,535 million poods (as against 4,464 million in 1927 and 4,747 in 1926). The harvest of the two chief cereals used for bread (wheat and rye) has shown a decrease of 200 million poods as compared with the preceding year.

The average harvest of cereals per desiatine was 52.9 poods (as against 50.8 in 1927 and 55 in 1926). The average harvest per head of the population was 30.6 poods (as against 33.3 in 1927 and 32.4 in 1926).

For industrial plants, the flax harvest was 245,000 tons, as compared with 261,000 in 1927 and 314,000 in 1926.

The purchase of grain by State organisations and co-operative societies, even though purchasing by private traders was forbidden, decreased by 12.8 per cent. as compared with the preceding year, amounting to only 9.6 million metric tons as against 11 million in 1926-1927. The purchases of flax amounted to 121,700 metric tons as against 125,000 in 1926-1927.

The exports of cereals amounted to 391,024 tons as against 2,243,579 in 1926-1927. At one point, indeed, the Government was even obliged to import 250,000 tons of corn. The export of flax amounted to 27,876 tons as against 43,015 in 1926-1927, and that of oil cake to 193,569 tons as against 352,250.

(2) The production of the more important State industries amounted to 9,745 million chervone roubles as against 8,237 million in 1926-1927, representing an increase of 18.3 per cent.

The total output of coal was 34.8 million tons as against 31 million in the preceding year and was 3 per cent. lower than was expected. The production of naphtha amounted to 11.5 million tons as against 10.1 in 1926-1927 and exceeded the forecast by 1.9 per cent. This increase is entirely due to the output from spouting wells, while the amount of boring decreased from 372,000 metres to 346,000, i.e. was 7.1 per cent. lower than was forecast. The production of cast-iron was 3,583 million tons as against 2,961 in 1926-1927, being 8.2 per cent. below the forecast. The output of steel increased from 3.4 million tons in 1926-1927 to 4.1 and the output of Rolled iron from 2.7 million to 3.4 million tons. The output of cotton fabrics amounted to 2,571 million metres as against 2,389 in 1926-1927; that of woollen fabrics was 97.3 million metres instead of 84, and that of linen fabrics was 175 million square metres as against 180.6 in 1926-1927.

The average number of workmen employed in the more important State industries was 1,919,000 in 1925-1926, 2,014,000 in 1926-1927 and rose to 2,158,000 in 1927-1928. The increase during the past year was 7.1 per cent. instead of 4.9 per cent. as had been expected. The individual output of the worker increased by 14.6 per cent. (forecast 17.6 per cent.), wages increased by 11 per cent., (forecast 7.2 per cent.). The average cost price for the whole of industry has decreased by 5 per cent. (forecast 6 per cent.) as contrasted with the preceding year; this decrease varies from 15.5 per cent. in the rubber industry to 1.1 per cent. in the naphtha industry.

The total number of unemployed was 2,300,000 in 1927-1928, including 1,873,000 trade unionists. The number of unemployed industrial workers rose from 206,700 in 1926-1927 to 250,900 in 1927-1928.

(3) The total home trade amounted to 35.9 milliard roubles as against 29.1 in 1926-1927, being an increase of 26.1 per cent. State trading increased by 16.9 per cent., co-operative trading by 46.1 per cent., and private trading decreased by 29.5 per cent. The State share of the total amount of trade was 32.2 per cent., that of the co-operative movement 57.9 per cent., and that of private trading 9.8 per cent. In wholesale trade the State share decreased from 2.8 per cent. in 1926-1927 to 2.9, that of co-operative trading increased from 16.6 to 30.2, and that of private trading fell from 22 to
1.4. In retail trade the State share was 13.5 per cent. Instead of 15.5 in 1926-1927, that of the co-operative movement was 62.4 as against 49.2, and that of private trading 24.1 as against 35.3.

Towards the end of the year the total length of the railway system was 73,919 kilometres as against 74,662 in 1926-1927. The amount of goods transported during the first ten months of the year was 111.7 million tons, which was approximately the same as for the corresponding period of the preceding year. The number of trucks loaded daily was on the average 31,186 as against 27,868 in the preceding year; in the case of grain, however, the average daily number in 1928 was 2,683 as against 2,859 in 1926-1927.

Imports increased from 718 million roubles in 1926-1927 and 756 in 1925-1926 to 945 million. Exports amounted to 774 million roubles as against 771 and 677 in the two preceding years.

While exports in 1927-1928 increased by 14.3 per cent. as compared with the year 1925-1926 but remained at the same level as in 1926-1927, imports in the past year showed an increase of 25 per cent. as compared with 1925-1926 and 32.5 per cent. as compared with 1926-1927. In 1927-1928 there was an unfavourable balance of trade of 171 million roubles (in 1926-1927 there was a favourable balance of 57.8 million and in 1925-1926 an adverse balance of 79.7 million). For the last three years there is a total adverse trade balance of 198 million roubles.

(4) Foreign trade amounted to 1,717 million roubles as against 1,483 and 1,372 respectively in the two preceding years. The increase in 1927-1928 was thus 36 per cent. on the preceding year (in 1926-1927 the corresponding increase was 8.4 per cent.).

The cost of living (index numbers for the cost of the minimum budget) increased according to the prices for all branches of trade from 213 (1 October 1927) to 221 (1 October 1928). The corresponding figures in private trading are 230 and 260.

(6) The currency in circulation has increased from 1,628 million roubles on 1 October 1927 to 1,971 million on 1 October 1928, being an increase of 343 million roubles or 21 per cent. (the increase expected was 200 million or 12 per cent., while for the preceding year it was 337 million or 26 per cent.).

The issue of banknotes showed an increase from 900 to 1,064 million, i.e. 74 million or 7.4 per cent. (as against 220 million or 28.6 per cent. in 1926-1927).

The issue of treasury bonds rose from 461 to 711, i.e. by 250 million or 54 per cent. (as against 87 million or 23.2 per cent. in 1926-1927).

The reserves in metal and in foreign bills amounted to 279 million roubles and the percentage of the note issue covered fell from 26.2 to 25.6 per cent. (according to law 25 per cent. must be covered). The purchasing power of the chervonez roubles calculated in gold kopecks (1 chervonez rouble = 100 kopecks) was 56.7 gold kopecks on 1 October 1928 (according to wholesale prices), 46.9 gold kopecks (according to the retail prices for trade as a whole) and 38 gold kopecks (according to retail prices in private trading).

(7) The total balance of the chief credit institutions whose activities extend to the whole territory of the Union rose from 7,174 million roubles (1 October 1927) to 9,945 million roubles (1 October 1928), i.e. by 87 per cent. (31 per cent. in the preceding financial year). Discount and loan operations increased by 1,715 million roubles (forecast at 1,175 million), rising from 4,804 to 6,519 million roubles.

Short term operations increased from 2,855 to 3,413 million, i.e. by 558 million or 19 per cent.; long term operations from 1,725 to 2,841 million, i.e. by 1,116 million or 64 per cent. Advances to organisations entrusted with the purchase of grain rose from 228 to 363 million (an increase of 40 million or 18 per cent.).

The commercial deposits and current accounts of State undertakings increased by 76 million or 8 per cent., rising from...
950 to 1,026 million. The current account of the Finance Commissariat, on the other hand, fell from 836 to 314 million (the forecast was an increase of private deposits and current accounts of 160 million and an increase of 100 million in the account of the Finance Commissariat). The special resource centre long-term credits increased from 1,906 to 2,813 million (an increase of 907 million or 47 per cent.). The deposits in the savings banks rose from 187 million on 1 October 1927 to 814 on 1 October 1928, being an increase of 73 per cent. as against 100 per cent. in the preceding year.

(8) The State Budget for 1927-1928, as was foreseen, amounted to 6,088 million roubles as against 5,002 in 1926-1927 and 4,089 in 1925-1926. The increase was therefore 21.6 per cent., as against 23.8 per cent. in the preceding year.

In 1927-1928 the State Budget constituted 23.5 per cent. of the national revenue as against 21.2 per cent. and 17.9 per cent. in the two preceding years. The receipts from the transport services and the postal, telegraph and telephone services rose from 1,793 in 1926-1927 to 1,857 million. The income from direct taxation was 1,183 million (as against 773 in 1926-1927) and that from indirect taxation and customs duties 1,640 (as against 1,386). The income from the State monopoly for the sale of vodka was 725 million as against 552 in the preceding year.

The amount of the State loans was 325 million as contrasted with 220 in 1926-1927. The total amount of the internal loans of the State since 1922 amounted on 1 December 1928 to 3,121 million roubles of which 1,372 has been redeemed. The present public debt amounts to 1,750 million; during the past year it has increased by a milliard of roubles.

A careful examination of these figures will show that progress has certainly been made. But the economic revival is still very uneven. There is a very great disproportion between the development of various branches of industry, and this was acutely felt during the past year.

Agriculture, for example, has not yet got back to its pre-war level, and the year 1927-1928 was marked by an intense agricultural depression. Similarly, while industrial production as a whole exceeded the pre-war level in value, certain branches are behind hand in regard to the quantity of their output. The production of cast-iron is only 78 per cent., that of rolled iron 91 per cent., and that of steel 98 per cent. of the pre-war figure. The number of blast furnaces working in the Donetz Basin is 30 as against 45 before the war. Rationalisation is not enough, as the central advisory committee of the Communist Party has itself pointed out. Again, the increase in middlemen's trading has been greater than the increase in the value of the goods marketed, and the same goods pass through a greater number of hands.

Last year, in fact, witnessed a particularly acute economic depression.

The revival of agriculture observed up till 1926 suffered a check after that year, and in some respects has given place to a decrease in producing power. The central committee of the Communist Party noted in November that agricultural production was lagging behind the other branches of the national economic system, that the expectations according to the State plan were far from being realised in agriculture in general and that this was still more the case in the production of cereals.

There is no doubt that this falling-off in agriculture must be explained by the backward state of this industry, by the subdivision of the land into a large number of very small peasant holdings, by the very low standard of technical methods, and also by the bad economic conditions of the past year.

During the first nine months of the year the most notable feature of these conditions was a fall in the purchasing prices of cereals fixed by the State as compared with the prices of industrial plants and animal produce.

As a result of the disproportion between the prices for different products, the peasants were in no hurry to deliver their produce to the State organisations or the co-operative societies which had to make the purchases on the home market. These purchases fell during the first quarter of the year 1927-1928 to 2.4 million tons as against 4.6 million in the corresponding quarter of the preceding year. The peasants in a comfortable situation, the "kulaks", were accused of speculating and condemned by the courts; their reserves of corn were confiscated. The local authorities re-introduced the measures applied in the early years of the Bolshevist regime; armed detachments held up the convoys of peasants and free sale on the local markets was abolished. As a result of this administrative and political constraint, the purchases of wheat rose during the second quarter to 4.3 million tons as contrasted with 2.5 million for the corresponding period of the preceding year. At the same time measures were taken to prevent the leasing of land belonging to poor peasants by peasants in better circumstances and to restrict the employment of wage-paid labour. The supply of corn was thus increased, but the result was a certain discontent among the rural population. In July the Government was forced to repeal the orders issued in April (orders, however, which had been merely "emergency and provisional"), and at the same time to raise the purchasing price for cereals. Although the central Govern-
ment did away with these emergency measures, however, they were still applied by the local authorities, and this led to abuses which affected not only the kulaks but also the poorer peasants. In the end, as the increase in prices could not take full effect during the current agricultural year, the purchase of wheat in the second half of the year again fell and reached a figure of 2.0 million tons as against 3.7 million in the second half of the preceding year.

At the same time the peasants and particularly those in easier circumstances reduced the amount of grain sown, thus contributing to a considerable extent to the decrease in agricultural production. In order to reduce the power of the kulaks and meet the difficulties experienced by small peasant holdings the Government has decided to encourage by all possible means the development of collective holdings on the one hand, and on the other the creation of large State farms. In addition to the decrease in agricultural production the difficulties of provisioning the distant regions in the interior, which are the chief consuming districts of the country, have been aggravated by the unfavourable geographical distribution of the harvest. While the harvest in Siberia was good but difficult to transport, that in the Ukraine and the northern Caucasus was almost a total failure on account of climatic conditions. Further difficulties in provisioning have been caused by the too sudden abolition of private trading, which was not followed immediately by a corresponding development of State trading and distributive co-operative societies. While the Government policy led to the closing of 90,000 private shops in 1927-1928, the distributive co-operative movement was only able to set up 15,000 fresh shops.

Further, while the worker expends 52 per cent. of his income in the purchase of foodstuffs, these goods form only 81 per cent. of the total goods sold by the co-operative societies. In the working man's budget, animal products constitute more than half of the food products consumed, while they form only a third of the amount sold by the co-operative societies. In addition to the dearth of bread and flour, there was a lack of other foodstuffs, and the question of provisioning the urban districts became very critical at the beginning of winter. Standing in queues for hours in front of the shops became a normal phenomenon and fresh measures for distribution had to be taken.

In accordance with the policy of forced industrialisation of the country, the financing of industry from the State budget has grown to considerable proportions, particularly as the insufficient reduction in cost prices, the high cost of fresh construction and the inadequate increase in the individual output of the worker have not permitted the State industries to continue the internal accumulation of their capital. The internal loans which should be used for financing the various branches of the national economic system and State industry are not sufficient; while the income from these loans in 1927-1928 was 706 million roubles, the corresponding expenditure was 298 million. The expenses for industry in the State budget were more than 447 million in excess of the income from industry; as the total amount required for financing industry amounted to 1,384 million roubles, the State had to meet the deficit by note issues leading to inflation, which in turn helped to increase the cost of living and to lower real wages.

In view, moreover, of the fact that the accumulation of national capital is still quite inadequate and that the increased difficulty of balancing international payments makes it impossible to import either the requisite tools or the requisite raw materials, the prices of industrial products have not been able to be reduced as far as necessary. While remaining almost at the same level as in the preceding year, the deficit in the necessary goods for consumption by the population is estimated at 700 million roubles. In order to enable industry to accumulate capital it is provided for the current year that prices shall be maintained and that the increases in wages shall be cut. The same lack of capital which makes it impossible to undertake the necessary reconstruction work is being felt more and more strongly in other branches of the national economic system and particularly in municipal affairs. In order to meet this lack of national capital the Government has again appealed for foreign capital by publishing in July 1928 regulations concerning concessions to foreign capitalists, in which the branches of the national economic system in which private foreign capital is allowed have been considerably extended.

Thus both as a result of the disproportion between agricultural and industrial development and in view of the lack of credit and capital, the Soviet Government has been led to pay more attention to its relations with foreign Powers. Last year's Report noted that this movement had decreased to some extent. It has again been the subject of discussion and controversy within the Communist. In place of the opposition of the Left, arrested last year, there is now opposition from the Right, which claims that particular attention should be paid to the individual peasants and calls for a restriction of the industrial policy. The leaders of the Party, on the other hand, still insist on the necessity of developing the industrialisation of the country in order to create a sound basis for the revival of agriculture. Everyone agrees, moreover, in recognising that the solution
of the agricultural problem is a necessary prelude to an improvement of the economic condition of the nation as a whole. Mr. Staline’s conclusion is “that there are conditions existing in the land of the Soviets which would make it possible to restore capitalism,” and that capitalism “has got a foothold in small-scale urban production and more particularly in rural production”.

Whether this theoretical conclusion is right or not need not be considered here. What seems of real importance, from the Office’s point of view, is that in this persistent effort, which, however incoherent and confused by overmuch theorising it may sometimes be, is nevertheless not without its courageous side, the Soviet Government should recognise the value of new contacts with foreign Powers, and should not be averse from assuming certain elementary obligations which present conditions render indispensable, while the other Powers with a will for peace between country and country should not hesitate to resume those relations from which alone such peace can come.

9.—Although Turkey is not yet a Member of the Organisation the cordial relations instituted in recent years between that country and the Office have been continued. The tradition of unofficial representation at the Conference now seems to be established. At the last Session, His Excellency Mehmed Munir Bey, Minister Plenipotentiary at Berne, was sent by his Government as observer and was welcomed by the President in the name of the Conference. In his reply, Mehmed Munir Bey emphasised the value which the discussions of the Conference had for States which were not Members, since they provided them with a valuable source of information and study. He added that this source was of special importance for Turkey, which was at present engaged in dealing with its labour problems and which would certainly find assistance in the solutions adopted by the Conference.

10.—As has been pointed out in previous Reports, the question of Egypt’s membership of the League of Nations and consequently of the International Labour Organisation depends on the negotiations which are still pending between the British and Egyptian Governments.

Pending the decision which it hopes will soon be arrived at, the Office continues to maintain cordial relations with the Egyptian Government. These relations consist essentially in an exchange of information. During the year 1928 the Government continued its efforts to ensure better health conditions for the workers: prophylactic measures in unhealthy and dangerous industries, hygienic measures in factories for cotton breaking, the construction of healthy dwellings for workers, etc. The Government has also opened in certain centres evening courses for giving workers elementary instruction in and general ideas of personal hygiene.

The Director, on his return from the Far East, interviewed His Excellency Rida Pasha in Cairo, and was able to appreciate the work which has been done in preparing the Labour Code referred to in last year’s Report. Considerable progress has been made. Chapter by chapter the Director was informed of the general conclusions which the Codification Committee had already reached;—actual working hours to be limited to nine per day; minimum age of twelve years for children; eight-hour day for persons between twelve and sixteen years of age; prohibition of night work for young persons from 10 p.m. to 5 a.m.; freedom of association; workmen’s compensation, etc.

In the same way as other Governments have done, the Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Justice has accepted the Office’s proposal to have the draft Code examined by the technical services of the Office after it has been definitely drawn up by the Committee. The Office must express its appreciation of the Egyptian Government’s confidence in it and the continued co-operation given to it.

Composition of the Conference

11.—In 1928, forty-six States Members sent delegations to the Conference. This figure has only once before been reached and has never been exceeded. The forty-six delegations consisted of 388 delegates and advisers.

The last Session of the Conference, like most of its predecessors, had to deal with certain cases of objections to the credentials of employers’ and workers’ delegates. The protests in question were raised against the credentials of the Estonian employers’ delegate and those of the workers’ delegates from Czechoslovakia, Italy and Portugal. On the proposal of the Credentials Committee, however, the credentials of these four delegates were approved by the Conference.

Incomplete Delegations

12.—Out of the forty-six delegations sent to the Conference thirty-five were complete in terms of the Treaty of Versailles, i.e. they included not only Government delegates, but also delegates of the employers and workers. This is a step forward: in 1927 there were only thirty-

1 Speech of 19 Oct. 1928 to the Central Organising Committee of the Party in Moscow.
two complete delegations out of a total of forty-three.

The following table shows the proportions for each year:

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<tr>
<th>SESSION</th>
<th>Number of States represented by complete delegations</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Washington, 1919</td>
<td>24</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geneva, 1920</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>Geneva, 1921</td>
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<td>Geneva, 1925</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td>Geneva, 1926</td>
<td>28</td>
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<td>(Ordinary Session)</td>
<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geneva, 1926</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Maritime Session)</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geneva, 1927</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geneva, 1928</td>
<td>35</td>
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</tbody>
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The question of incomplete delegations again attracted the attention of the Credentials Committee, which, noting that the situation might be considered as favourable, decided that it was not necessary on this occasion to ask for explanations from delegates from countries which had not sent complete delegations. It expressed the hope, however, that circumstances would permit these countries to send representatives of their employers and workers to future Sessions of the Conference.

As usual, the Office did all in its power to induce the Governments of the States Members to send complete delegations, and special mention may be made of the complete delegations sent by Brazil and Venezuela.

13. — In 1928, as in previous years, several delegations were presided over by the heads of the Departments in their respective countries which deal with labour questions: Bulgaria, Canada, Latvia, Luxemburg and Rumania were represented by their Ministers of Labour or of Social Affairs.

Legal Questions Raised by the Working of the Organisation

14. Questions decided at the Eleventh Session of the Conference. — In last year's Report reference was made to a number of legal questions raised by the working of the Organisation. Four of these questions were settled at the Eleventh Session of the Conference.

(1) The Governing Body had suggested that Labour Ministers should be admitted to the sittings of the Conference and be allowed to speak without its being necessary to appoint them as delegates or advisers. The Conference approved this suggestion, and consequently a small change was made in Articles 8 and 10 of the Standing Orders, in regard to the right of admission to sittings of the Conference and the right to address the Conference.

(2) At the Tenth Session of the Conference a resolution was proposed by Mr. Giri, Indian workers' delegate, with the double object of providing for the representation of workers in colonies and mandated territories where questions affecting them were to be discussed by the Conference, and of securing the inclusion of coloured workers in delegations from countries where coloured races constitute the majority of the population. It was mentioned in last year's Report that the Governing Body, after examining Mr. Giri's proposal, came to the conclusion that it was primarily of a political nature and not suitable for legal settlement by means of a change in the Standing Orders. At the Eleventh Session of the Conference Mr. Giri's proposals were again brought forward by Mr. Chaman Lall, who represented the Indian workers on that occasion. In accordance with the conclusions of its Standing Orders Committee, however, the Conference adopted the opinion which had been expressed by the Governing Body. While recognising the interest of Mr. Giri's proposals and the advantage of taking them into account as far as possible, the Conference did not think that they were such as to justify an amendment to the Standing Orders.

(3) It was mentioned in last year's Report that Mr. Oersted, Danish employers' representative, had made a number of proposals, some of which were designed to improve the procedure followed in drafting Conventions. In particular, Mr. Oersted proposed, first, that the Drafting Committee of the Conference should be enlarged in order to ensure its technical competence and a fuller representation on it of the non-Government sections of the Conference, and, secondly, that a special drafting sub-committee should be appointed for each committee of the Conference whose preliminary work would simplify the task of the Drafting Committee of the Conference. These two proposals were approved by the Conference, which gave effect to them by means of an amendment to Article 7, Section A, of the Standing Orders. The new clauses require each committee to appoint a special drafting sub-committee consisting of a Government delegate, an employers' delegate, and a workers' delegate, together with the reporter of the committee and the legal advisers of the Conference, and provide that these special sub-committees are to assist the Drafting Committee of
the Conference when the latter is considering the proposals of the committees which appointed them.

This apparently minor reform is of considerable importance for the working of the Conference. Before its adoption the Drafting Committee received the proposals of the committees at the last moment and had to examine them with a speed which was incompatible with the nature of the work which it had to do. The French and English texts of Conventions had been drafted separately and thus altered in their drafting through being rapidly revised and hastily compared in this way, and this defect has on occasion caused real difficulties of legal interpretation. No doubt, the new procedure suggested by Mr. Oersted will not in itself be a complete remedy. Nevertheless, it is highly desirable that the work of the Conference should be so arranged that the Drafting Committee has sufficient time to examine—without delay but with proper attention—the texts submitted to it, and the mere appointment of a special drafting sub-committee for each committee of the Conference will greatly reduce and simplify the work of the central Drafting Committee. It may be said, in the light of the first trial of the new system at the last Session of the Conference, that a considerable improvement has been made in the technical procedure of drafting Conventions.

(4) As a result of a further proposal made by Mr. Oersted, the Conference proceeded at the Eleventh Session to undertake a complete revision of the "formal clauses" which complete the technical clauses of Conventions on such essential matters as the conditions for the coming into force of the Convention, denunciation of the Convention, etc. No change in the Standing Orders was required for this purpose, as the Standing Orders always imposed on all matters affecting the content of Conventions. The Conference, however, considered a detailed report by its Standing Orders Committee, adopted the conclusions of that Committee and embodied formal clauses in the new form proposed by the Committee in the Convention on minimum wage-fixing machinery. The time which the Conference when adopting future Conventions will desire to maintain the important decisions taken in this connection at the Eleventh Session, and it may therefore be desirable to refer to them here.

In the first place, the Conference entirely abolished two clauses which appear in previous Conventions, i.e. the Articles fixing the latest date for bringing the provisions of the Convention into operation and providing for the application of the Convention to colonies and protectorates. The first of these provisions was considered to have no legal effect, since States are only bound by the act of ratification which they are free to withhold until such date as commends itself to them. With regard to the second provision, this merely repeated the obligation arising out of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles, and it was therefore considered redundant.

Secondly, two other Articles were considerably altered. The Article relating to the conditions of the coming into force of a Convention was amended by reversing, for drafting reasons, the order of the old paragraphs and so that States a period of twelve months between ratification and the coming into force of the Convention. Further, a highly important change was made in the Article dealing with the denunciation of a Convention. The old Article allowed denunciation at the end of a period usually fixed at ten years. While maintaining this provision, the Conference decided to complete it by a new paragraph to the effect that States which do not avail themselves of the right of denunciation within the prescribed period are to be bound by the Convention for a further period.

Lastly, the Conference decided to maintain certain formal clauses without change. For instance, the Article relating to the registration of ratifications, the Article concerning the notification of ratifications, and the Article relating to the authentic texts of the Convention were retained. Further, apart from a slight rectification of the French text, the Conference made no change in the clause providing for the possible revision of a Convention. On this last point, however, the decision of the Conference was provisional only. The Conference declined to go into the merits of the problem of the revision of Conventions, but decided to refer this matter to the Governing Body for examination and report.

15. Revision of Conventions. — The problem of the revision of Conventions was first referred to in October 1927, at the Thirty-Seventh Session of the Governing Body. It was definitely raised at the beginning of 1928, when the British Government representative formally proposed that the Governing Body should prepare the revision of the Washington Hours of Work Convention. On that occasion the Governing Body decided not to consider the British proposal until rules had been laid down as to the general procedure to be followed for the revision of Conventions.

As has already been indicated in connection with the formal clauses of Conventions, the Article which refers to the possibility of revision does not appear only in the Hours of Work Convention, but has been repeated in every Convention hitherto adopted by the Conference. It therefore seemed logical, before proceeding to the revision of a particular Convention,
The discussions which centred around the second point were no less important. In the end, it was considered that, as Part XIII laid a general duty on the Governing Body to fix the Agenda of the Conference, it was for the latter to define the points which should be revisied. It is desirable, however, that it should so draft the Agenda as to make it clear how far it is intended to leave the Conference free to go in dealing with the items on it, whether the item to be placed on the Agenda will be decided by the Governing Body after the Governments have been consulted and their replies “taken into account”.

The decisions of the Thirty-Ninth Session of the Governing Body have been included in its Standing Orders, where they appear as Article 7a. They settle the question of the procedure of revision so far as this question affects the Standing Orders of the Governing Body, but they provide no solution for a considerable number of important points which will have to be settled by the Conference itself. The Governing Body is, however, placing before the Conference a complete report on these points drawn up by the former’s Standing Orders Committee. It is unnecessary, therefore, to enumerate here this rather technical subject and it will be sufficient to indicate the broad outlines.
of the problem which the Conference will have to consider.

There are three groups of questions which remain to be settled in connection with the procedure of revision.

In the first place, the Standing Orders of the Conference will have to be adapted so as to provide for the possibility of Conventions being revised. A draft Article has accordingly been drawn up by the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body and will be submitted to the Conference. By virtue of this draft the double-discussion procedure would not apply in the case of the revision of a Convention. The draft further provides that the Conference, when considering a proposal for revision, can only effect a revision within the limits fixed in its Agenda.

In the second place, it is necessary to settle definitely the legal machinery for effecting a revision properly so called. There is no doubt but that the revision can only be carried out by means of a new Convention but the form to be given to this Convention must be defined. Several systems have been examined by the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body. Two general hypotheses have been considered in particular: (1) that the revising Convention should merely contain within itself both the altered clauses and those which remain unchanged. The Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body decided in favour of the latter system, which was thought to be clearer.

Lastly, the revision of Conventions raises a considerable number of questions as to the clauses to be included in future Conventions, whether ordinary Conventions or revising Conventions. These questions are too numerous and diverse to be reviewed here, and in any case the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body has not yet finished examining them at the time of writing. It need only be repeated that it would appear indispensable to frame suitable clauses to regulate the legal position which will be created by the adoption of a new Convention on a question which has already become the subject-matter of a previous Convention.

As has been stated above, however, it is for the Conference itself to settle these pending matters and there can be no question of proposing solutions in this Report. The preceding observations are only intended to draw attention to the extent and complexity of the problem.

16. Double-discussion procedure. — Although no fresh decision affecting the procedure of the Conference has been taken since last year's Report, it would appear necessary to return to this important point again this year in order to make the present position of the question clear.

The old double-reading procedure decided on in 1924 consisted in the provisional adoption of proposals at one Session of the Conference which were to be finally adopted at the following Session with possible amendments. In 1926 the Conference decided to substitute for this "double-reading" system the "double-discussion" procedure. This latter procedure, like the double-reading system, involves two discussions at two different Sessions of the Conference before a Convention is adopted, but it differs from the double-reading system in that the two discussions are of different kinds: the first is a general discussion, while the second terminates by a vote on a proposed Draft Convention or Recommendation.

The double-discussion procedure appears to have been approved by all groups of the Conference, and the principle of it has not been criticised since its adoption. Some difference of opinion has manifested itself, however, to the mode of its application. The grounds of this difference of opinion were explained in last year's Report. It need only be recalled here that the first discussion (general discussion) leads to the drafting of a Questionnaire by which the Governments are to be consulted. Under the present Standing Orders the drafting of the Questionnaire is to be done by the Conference itself, and from the very first year in which it was applied this method has been keenly criticised. The chief criticism is that the drafting of a Questionnaire could with greater advantage be entrusted to an administrative body such as the International Labour Office than to a debating assembly like the Conference.

In these circumstances a Resolution was adopted at the Tenth Session of the Conference in 1927, by which the Governing Body was requested to consider how the working of the double-discussion procedure could be improved. The Governing Body endorsed the opinion of its Standing Orders Committee on the matter and made no definite proposals for amending the procedure. It suggested to the Eleventh Session of the Conference that a further trial should be made of the existing procedure before any change was considered, but that, if the Conference, in making this second trial, met with difficulties in regard to the framing of the Questionnaire, the Standing Orders should be amended in such a way that the Conference would simply decide the points on which the Governments were to be consulted, while the actual framing of the Questionnaire would be left to the International Labour Office.

In view of this suggestion the Conference applied the existing Standing Orders
at the Eleventh Session, and in accordance therewith proceeded to frame Questionnaires on those items of the Agenda which came up for preliminary discussion. No decision was taken, however, as to the advisability of maintaining the present method and there may accordingly be some doubt as to the present position of the question.

The fact is that there is no formal proposal for the amendment of the Standing Orders before the Conference at the moment, and the Standing Orders will therefore have to be applied as they stand at present. Does this mean that the question of the Conference’s procedure is finally settled? In the opinion of the Office the question is still open.

Admittedly, the Conference did not consider it necessary at its Eleventh Session to alter the Standing Orders on the framing of Questionnaires. It would be difficult to draw the conclusion, however, that the method followed under the present Standing Orders is generally approved. The Chairman of the Committee on minimum wage-fixing machinery, Mr. Gascon y Marin, for instance, stated that the procedure followed in drafting the Questionnaire had hindered to some extent the work of his Committee. The Chairman of the Committee on accident prevention, Sir Malcolm Delevigne, also remarked that the drafting of the Questionnaire had caused a considerable loss of time in the Committee and had modified the general character which its discussions should have had.

In these circumstances it may properly be considered that the application of the present system continues to give rise to objection and some surprise may be felt that the Conference last year expressed no definite opinion on the matter. Possibly the Conference desired to continue the experiment as suggested by the Governing Body. As a matter of fact, however, the chief reason why the Conference refrained from expressing an opinion is that it had no time to do so, as the committees on the items on the Agenda only finished their discussions a few days before the end of the Session. It is for this reason and for those given before the Conference by Mr. Mahatma Gandhi, the Chairman of the Standing Orders Committee, that the Conference decided to adjourn the discussion of the question to the following Session.

The question is thus still unsolved. No solution is recommended here. The foregoing observations are simply intended to explain the present position of the question and to point out that the Conference may be required to take a decision on it.

17. **Election and composition of the Governing Body.** — The question of the election and composition of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office has been raised by Mr. de Michelis, Italian Government representative on the Governing Body, in two proposals for the alteration respectively of Article 20 of the Standing Orders of the Conference and Articles 3 and 4 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body.

(1) Mr. de Michelis proposes that an amendment should be made to Article 20 of the Standing Orders of the Conference so as to define the conditions in which employers' and workers' representatives are eligible for election to the Governing Body. The proposal is that these representatives should be chosen from among the employers' or workers' delegates and advisers at the Session of the Conference at which the election takes place or from persons belonging to the same organisations as the delegates or advisers.

With a few modifications this is the same proposal as one which Mr. de Michelis made in 1925 at the Seventh Session of the Conference. On that occasion the Conference referred the matter to the Governing Body for consideration. As, however, the proposer had alluded to a consultation of the Permanent Court of International Justice, the Governing Body took no decision in the matter, and no proposal on it was accordingly laid before the Conference.

The legal difficulties raised by Mr. de Michelis’s original proposal were explained in the Director’s Report to the Eighth Session of the Conference in 1926. It would appear that the new proposal of the Italian Government representative is likely to raise similar constitutional difficulties, and it is not proposed to discuss them again. In a word, the proposal appears to imply some restriction on the liberty of the delegates to the Conference who have to elect the non-Government representatives on the Governing Body. This delicate question has not been settled at the time of writing. The Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body has refrained from examining it at the request of Mr. de Michelis himself and an exchange of views is to take place on it between the employers' and workers' groups. It would appear that an agreement between these two groups would give satisfaction to Mr. de Michelis without the necessity of making a formal alteration in the Standing Orders of the Conference.

(2) The effect of the proposal made by Mr. de Michelis for the amendment of Articles 3 and 4 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body would be to abolish the deputy members of the Governing Body. The substitute members would remain, but non-Government substitutes would no longer be appointed by the regular members whom they replace, or they would be elected in advance by
the non-Government groups of the Conference in the same way as the regular members.

The examination of this proposal was begun by the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body in March 1929. Mr. de Michelis observed, however, that deputy members would normally disappear when the amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles came into force, and he therefore suggested to the Committee that the discussion of his proposal should be postponed until that amendment became effective.

Although it did not expressly agree with Mr. de Michelis's opinion, the Standing Orders Committee decided, in accordance with his wish, to postpone further consideration of his proposal.

18. Number of advisers at the Conference. — It is provided in paragraph 2 of Article 389 of the Treaty of Versailles that each delegate to the Conference may be accompanied by advisers "who shall not exceed two in number for each item on the Agenda of the meeting". A question regarding the interpretation of this clause has been raised by Mr. Oersted, Danish employers' delegate. In the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body Mr. Oersted asked whether the words "each item on the Agenda" implied simply the questions placed on the Agenda for a formal decision of the Conference or whether they were wide enough to include all matters discussed by the Conference. Mr. Oersted's personal opinion was in favour of the latter interpretation. His argument was that the Conference had each year to discuss important questions, such as reports on the application of Conventions or questions of procedure or standing orders, although these questions were not expressly mentioned in the Agenda. In these circumstances it seemed necessary that the delegates should be accompanied by competent advisers to assist them in the discussion of these important matters.

Admittedly the question is a delicate one. It is obviously desirable that delegations should be so constituted that their members may follow all the discussions at the Conference. The number of advisers is, however, expressly limited by the Treaty and it is clear that Mr. Oersted's interpretation would in practice give delegations the right to include an almost unlimited number of advisers.

The Governing Body instructed its Standing Orders Committee to examine the question and this was done in March 1929. It appeared that two solutions might be considered—either the Governing Body might place on the Agenda of the Conference questions which are not intended to be dealt with by way of Draft Conventions or Recommendations, but which are sufficiently important to justify the presence of specialist advisers, or the delegates might arrange for a system of rotation among their advisers without exceeding the numerical limitation laid down by the Treaty.

In the result, the Standing Orders Committee found that no definite proposal for the amendment of the Standing Orders on this point was being laid before it, and it therefore considered that it was unnecessary for it to take a decision in the matter. The same conclusion was reached by the Governing Body at its Forty-Fourth Session.

19. Content of Conventions. — The question whether the Conference should adopt Conventions containing general principles or detailed provisions has frequently been discussed. At the Tenth Session of the Conference in 1927 Mr. Oersted, Danish employers' delegate, expressed the view that the International Labour Organisation should refrain from adopting detailed Conventions and merely adopt general principles. He made a formal proposal on this point last year to the Governing Body, which referred the matter to its Standing Orders Committee.

The importance of this question is evident. From the legal point of view it is to be noted that there is no rule limiting the liberty of the Conference on the matter. It is for the Conference to decide whether general principles or detailed provisions should be adopted and this proposition was expressly confirmed by the Permanent Court of International Justice in the Preamble to its Advisory Opinion No. 13. The question raised by Mr. Oersted's proposal is consequently not so much a legal question as one of policy. For these reasons the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body simply took note of Mr. Oersted's observations, on the opinion of adopt general principles was approved by the Governing Body, which decided at its Forty-Fourth Session to make no suggestion to the Conference on this point.

20. Number of Resolutions adopted by the Conference. — There remains another legal question in connection with the procedure as such. Further, the advantages frequently associated with the adoption of certain Resolutions by the Conference are well recognised by the Office. In many cases the Resolutions are useful for the decisions of the Governing Body and the planning of the work of the International Labour Office.
In addition, however, to Resolutions which constitute, so to speak, decisions or instructions as to the internal activities of the International Labour Organisation, there is a growing tendency for the Conference to adopt proposals in the form of a Resolution which it has not wished to include in Draft Conventions or Recommendations. Resolutions of this kind have no legal standing and it is open to the States to which they are addressed to pay no attention to them. At the last Session of the Conference no fewer than nineteen Resolutions on the most varied subjects were adopted and, while some of them are of undoubted interest, there are a number which have no very great value.

In the opinion of the Office it would be desirable that the Conference should be more moderate in its use of this procedure, which should be followed in exceptional cases only. In any case the Conference should bear in mind the legal effect of its decisions and should only adopt Resolutions on questions suitable for this form of decision. It may be mentioned in this connection that the Governing Body, when considering at its Forty-Second Session the Resolutions adopted in 1928 by the Conference, found that two of these Resolutions required no further action in the normal course. It may be feared therefore that the Conference may acquire the habit of adopting Resolutions which have no legal or practical effect. Such action could not fail in time to affect adversely the authority of the decisions of the Conference, and it is not thought out of place to put the Conference on its guard against this danger.

Governing Body

21. Sessions. — The following Sessions of the Governing Body were held during 1928:

Thirty-Eighth Session, 1-4 February.
Thirty-Ninth Session, 25-29 April.
Fortieth Session, 28 May-6 June.
Forty-First Session, 14 June.
Forty-Second Session, 5-10 October.

The Forty-Third and Forty-Fourth Sessions of the Governing Body took place in immediate succession from 11-16 March 1929. The reason for this was that the Governing Body had decided as an exceptional measure to defer the January Session and to advance the April Session at which the discussion of the Budget is the principal business.

All the above Sessions took place at Geneva, with the exception of the Forty-Second Session, which was held at Warsaw and Cracow on the invitation of the Polish Government.

22. Re-election of the Governing Body. — According to the regular procedure, the Governing Body had to be re-elected in 1928.

Since the number of ratifications required to bring into force the amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles had not been received, the election was carried out in accordance with the original text of Article 393, viz. for twenty-four members and not for thirty-two.

The election was held on 8 June 1928 and the result was as follows:

Government Group

Eight States of Chief Industrial Importance:
Belgium
Canada
France
Germany
Great Britain
India
Italy
Japan

States elected by the Government Delegates at the Conference, excluding the Delegates of the above mentioned countries:
Argentina
Poland
Spain
Sweden

Employers' Group

Regular Members:
Mr. Forbes Watson (Great Britain)
Mr. Gemmill (South Africa)
Mr. Hodac (Czechoslovakia)
Mr. J. C. van der Linden (Netherlands)
Mr. Curčin (Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom)
Mr. Jules Ribot (France)
Mr. Olivetti (Italy)
Mr. Vogel (Germany)
Mr. Fujita (Japan)
Mr. Gérard (Belgium)
Mr. Oersted (Denmark)
Mr. Tsutsumi (Switzerland)

Deputy Members:
Mr. Cort van der Linden (Netherlands)
Mr. Čurčin (Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom)
Mr. J. C. van der Linden (Netherlands)
Mr. Curčin (Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom)
Mr. Jules Ribot (France)
Mr. Olivetti (Italy)
Mr. Vogel (Germany)
Mr. Fujita (Japan)
Mr. Gérard (Belgium)
Mr. Oersted (Denmark)
Mr. Tsutsumi (Switzerland)

Workers' Group

Regular Members:
Mr. Jouhaux (France)
Mr. Mertens (Belgium)
Mr. Moore (Canada)
Mr. Müller (Germany)
Mr. Poulton (Great Britain)
Mr. Thorberg (Sweden)

Deputy Members:
Mr. Caballero (Spain)
Mr. Hueber (Austria)
Mr. Joshi (India)
Mr. Schüren (Switzerland)
Mr. Suzuki (Japan)
Mr. Zulawski (Poland)

The Governments having seats on the Governing Body appointed the following representatives:

Count de Altea (Spain)
Mr. Betterton (Great Britain)
Mr. Cantilo (Argentina)
Mr. Arthur Fontaine (France)
Mr. Kasama (Japan)
Mr. Mahaim (Belgium)
Mr. de Michelis (Italy)
Mr. Molin (Sweden)
Mr. Sokal (Poland)
Mr. Weigert (Germany)
Mr. Kasama, Japanese Government representative, resigned shortly after the Forty-Second Session of the Governing Body and was replaced by Mr. Shunzo Yoshisaka.

It may be mentioned that, at the Forty-Third Session of the Governing Body, France, Germany and Great Britain were represented by the Minister of Labour in each case: Mr. Loucheur, Mr. Wissel and Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland.

Several Governments have availed themselves of their right to appoint for their regular delegate a deputy of another nationality. The following appointments have been made in this way:

Mr. Brablec (Czechoslovakia), deputy for Mr. Sokal (Poland).
Mr. Mannio (Finland), deputy for Count de Altea (Spain).
Mr. Thorsen (Norway), deputy for Mr. Molin (Sweden).
Mr. Vedel (Denmark), deputy for Mr. Mahaim (Belgium).

At its Forty-First Session (June 1928) the Governing Body re-elected Mr. Arthur Fontaine as its Chairman, and Mr. Hodač and Mr. Poulton as Employers' Vice-Chairman and Workers' Vice-Chairman respectively.

23. Amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles. — It was stated in last year's Report that the amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles had been ratified at that time by thirty-five States, and that forty-two ratifications were required under Article 422 of the Treaty for it to come into force. There had been no change in the situation at the time when the 1928 Conference re-elected the Governing Body. Thus, for the second time since the Conference adopted the amendment at its 1922 Session, the Governing Body has had to be re-elected on the basis of Article 393 in its original form.

Since the last Session of the Conference five further ratifications have been registered with the Secretariat of the League of Nations, by Chile, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Persia and Salvador. This brings the total number of ratifications up to forty. Only two more ratifications are required to bring the number up to three-quarters of the total number of States Members. It is a further condition, however, that all the States represented on the Council of the League of Nations should ratify. Up to the present two of these States, Italy and Venezuela, have not ratified the amendment. The ratifications of these two States are thus necessary in order to bring the amendment into force.

24. — The various Committees set up by the Governing Body have been regularly at work. They include those consisting only of members of the Governing Body, those consisting of outside experts and of representatives of the three groups on the Governing Body, and those composed of experts only. Some new Committees have been instituted, while the composition of others has been modified. It would appear that the Governing Body is more and more in favour of Committees consisting entirely or principally of its own members — Committees whose work has yielded results of the greatest interest.

Since the Governing Body was re-elected by the Conference at its 1928 Session, the members of the various Committees of the Governing Body and its representatives on other Committees have been re-appointed by the new Governing Body.

The Committees now in existence are as follows:

I. Committees of the Governing Body

25.—In addition to its Finance Committee and Standing Orders Committee, the Governing Body has appointed the following other Committees from among its members.

(1) Committee on Conditions of Work in Coal Mines

This Committee was set up to supervise the enquiry which the Office carried out into conditions of work and wages in the coal-mining industry. The report on the enquiry has been completed and approved by the Committee, but it has been decided to continue the investigation, and the Committee will therefore remain in existence.

The Committee was formerly composed of six members, who could appoint substitutes and be accompanied by experts. The number was increased to nine at the Forty-Fourth Session of the Governing Body. The committee is at present composed as follows:

Government group:
Mr. Retterton
Mr. Sokal
Mr. Woiger

Employers' group:
Mr. Forbes Watson
Mr. Lambert-Ribot
Mr. Vogel

Workers' group:
Mr. Jouhaux
Mr. Müller
Mr. Poulton

(2) Unemployment Committee

This Committee, which was appointed to follow the work of the Office in
connection with unemployment, is composed as follows:

**Government group:**
- Mr. Yoshisaka

**Employers' group:**
- Mr. Cort Van der Linden (substitute, Mr. Curčin)

**Workers' group:**
- Mr. Schüreh (substitute, Mr. Hueber)

(3) **Committee on Social Charges**

This Committee, which has to supervise the Office's enquiry into social charges in the various countries, is composed as follows:

**Government group:**
- Mr. Cantilo (substitute, Mr. Yoshisaka)
- Mr. Weigert

**Employers' group:**
- Mr. Forbes Watson
- Mr. Hodac

**Workers' group:**
- Mr. Müller
- Mr. Thorberg

Two new Committees, for considering the questions of the official languages of the Organisation and conditions of work in the textile industry, were appointed at the Forty-Second Session of the Governing Body.

(4) **Committee on the Language Question**

At the 1928 Session of the Conference a Resolution was adopted requesting the Governing Body to consider the whole question of the official languages of the Organisation, both from the technical and financial standpoints. The Governing Body consequently decided to appoint a Committee of twelve members (four from each group) to consider this matter and report thereon.

The membership of the Committee is as follows:

**Government group:**
- Count de Altea
- Mr. Betterton
- Mr. Mahaini
- Mr. Weigert

**Employers' group:**
- Mr. Curčin
- Mr. Oersted
- Mr. Olivetti
- Mr. Vogel

**Workers' group:**
- Mr. Poulton
- Mr. Müller
- Mr. Jouhaux
- Mr. Caballero

(5) **Committee on Conditions of Work in the Textile Industry**

The 1928 Session of the Conference requested the Governing Body to consider the possibility of undertaking an investigation into the wages, hours of work, hygienic conditions and other conditions affecting the employment of men, women and children in the textile industries of the various countries.

The Governing Body discussed this Resolution at its Forty-Second Session, and decided to set up a Committee with instructions to submit proposals to its next Session as to the objects of the enquiry. The Committee was instructed to deal in particular with the branches of the textile industry and the questions (hours of work, protection of women and children, wages, cost of living, cost of production, health, etc.) to be covered by the enquiry.

The committee consists of the following twelve members:

**Government group:**
- Mr. Betterton
- Mr. de Michelis
- Sir Atul Chatterjee
- Mr. Yoshisaka

**Employers' group:**
- Mr. Forbes Watson (substitute, Mr. Khaitan)
- Mr. Olivetti
- Mr. Fujita (substitute, Mr. Miyajima)
- Mr. Hodac (substitute, Mr. Curčin)

**Workers' group:**
- Mr. Poulton
- Mr. Müller
- Mr. Jouhaux
- Mr. Caballero

(6) At the Forty-Fourth Session of the Governing Body a small Committee was appointed to investigate the question of correspondents offices and permanent correspondents, and to propose to the Governing Body the principles which should guide its policy in this matter.

The membership of the Committee is as follows:

**Government group:**
- Mr. Wolfe
- Mr. Yoshisaka

**Employers' group:**
- Mr. Olivetti
- Mr. Curčin

**Workers' group:**
- Mr. Mertens
- Mr. Schüreh

II. **Committees including Members of the Governing Body, Technical Experts, and Representatives of Other Institutions**

26. — The Committees classified under this heading are as follows:

(1) **Joint Maritime Commission**

There have been no changes in the membership of this Commission, other than those resulting from the re-election of
the Governing Body. The representatives of the employers' and workers' groups on the Governing Body are now as follows:

For the employers:
Mr. Olivetti (substitute, Mr. Leccoo)

For the workers:
Mr. Poulton (substitute, Mr. Müller)

The Joint Maritime Commission held its Eighth Session from 20-26 March 1928 and met again in April 1929.

(2) Mixed Advisory Agricultural Committee

There has been no change in the composition of this Committee, except that the place of Mr. Carlier, who is no longer a member of the Governing Body, has been taken by Mr. Hodač.

(3) Permanent Migration Committee

At the Forty-Fourth Session of the Governing Body a change was made in the composition of the old Migration Committee. Until then the Permanent Migration Committee consisted of the officers of the Governing Body and some hundred experts who might be consulted as required, either by correspondence or through a meeting to be called when the officers of the Governing Body considered it advisable.

In actual practice the consultations which have taken place have not always been of value and for a number of years there has been no meeting of the experts attached to the Committee. It therefore appeared that a modification of the Committee was called for. It has frequently been urged that the work of the Office in connection with migration problems should be intensified. For example, the World Migration Congress which was held in London in June 1926, on the initiative of the workers' organisations, called for the creation of an International Migration Office under the International Labour Office. The Governing Body, when considering the steps which might be taken to give effect to this request, asked the Office to invite six workers' representatives to put their case before the Permanent Migration Committee, i.e. the officers of the Governing Body, with a view to a clearer definition of the demands of the organisations represented at the London Congress.

This audience took place in June 1928. The Office then laid certain definite proposals before the Governing Body at its Forty-Second Session (Warsaw, October 1928).

The creation of an International Office was thought by the Office to be difficult and in any case premature. At the same time it was pointed out that, quite apart from the claims of the workers' organisations, important reasons existed which had convinced the Office of the necessity of stimulating and co-ordinating international work, particularly the work of the Office, in the matter of migration.

The second International Conference of Countries of Emigration and Immigration, held at Havana in the spring of 1928, had also demanded that the migration work of the international organisations at Geneva should be intensified. The interest thus shown by the Havana Conference in the work of the Office is a matter for satisfaction, since it finally dispels the slight apprehension which arose a few years ago through the action of countries of emigration and immigration in organising the Rome Conference.

In order to give satisfaction to the various requests thus made to it, the Governing Body decided at its Forty-Fourth Session to set up a Permanent Committee consisting of four representatives from each group, and also of the following permanent experts:

The Presidents of the Rome and Havana Conferences or their representatives:

Two representatives of the Permanent International Conference of private organisations for the protection of migrants:
Mr. Varlez, the former technical adviser of the Office.

The Governing Body considered that, with the appointment of this Committee, which is more important and has greater authority and resources than the former consultations of experts organised under the guidance of the officers of the Governing Body, it should be possible to develop the migration work of the Office and so secure more effective co-ordination of all forms of international action in the matter by associating in the Committee's activities competent representatives of the various bodies working for the same objects.

The members of the new Migration Committee have not yet all been appointed. The Government group and the workers' group of the Governing Body have, however, already made the following nominations:

Government group:
Mr. Arthur Fontaine
Dr. Riddell
Mr. Sokal
Mr. Molin

Workers' group:
Mr. Moore
Mr. Jouhaux
Mr. Poulton
Mr. Zulawski

(4) Advisory Committee on Intellectual (Professional) Workers

This Committee consists of three members of the Governing Body and two

1 This Committee — la Commission consultative des travailleurs intellectuels — has hitherto been known in English as the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers. The expression "intellectual workers", however, has given rise to certain objections, and it is therefore proposed to use instead the expression "professional workers", which is thought better designated in English the classes of workers covered by the French expression.
representatives of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, as well as of a number of experts representing professional workers.

The place of Mr. Oudegeest as representative of the workers' group of the Governing Body has been taken by Mr. Müller. The experts who are to sit on the Committee have been appointed and are as follows:

**International Federation of Professional Workers:**
- Mr. Louis Gallic, Barrister, Secretary-General of the I. F. P. W. (France)
- Mr. G. Nathan, President of the National Federation of Professional Workers (Great Britain)
- Dr. V. Brelil, Engineer, ex-Minister, Vice-Governor of the National Bank, Professor at the Prague Technical School (Czecho-Slovakia)
- Mr. H. Rygier, President of the Governing Board of the Polish Federation of Professional Workers (Poland)

**German Professional Workers:**
- Mr. Wyclard von Möllendorf, Member of the Association of German Engineers and formerly Secretary of State

**Italian Professional Workers:**
- Mr. Giacomo di Giacomo, Barrister, President of the Federation of Fascist Trade Unions of Liberal Professions and Artists

**Representative of Non-European Countries:**
- Dr. Inazo Nitobe, ex-Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, Professor at the Imperial University of Tokyo, member of the House of Peers (Japan)

**International Organisation of Industrial Employers:**
- Mr. Olivetti

**International Federation of Journalists:**
- Mr. Stephen Valot, General Secretary (France)

A second representative of the professional workers of non-European countries and a second representative of the international organisation of industrial employers, have still to be nominated.

The Advisory Committee held its first meeting at the International Labour Office on 22-23 October 1928.

The constitution of the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers has given rise to certain difficulties owing to the fact that a strict dividing line between professional workers, properly so called, and non-manual workers or salaried employees is almost impossible. At the meeting of the Committee itself it was recognised that various questions on the agenda concerned salaried employees' organisations, and the Committee expressed a desire that the Governing Body should find a way of completing its constitution by associating salaried employees' organisations with its activities.

The salaried employees' organisations themselves expressed concern as soon as the Committee was created, and disputed its competence to deal with questions affecting them. After the meeting of the Committee they called attention to the fact that several of the questions discussed, particularly the restraint of trade clause for engineers and technical staff who leave an undertaking and the problems of worker inventors, were of very direct concern to salaried employees. Many urgent claims were made for the appointment of an Advisory Committee for Salaried Employees in addition to the Committee on Professional Workers. The salaried employees repeatedly pointed out that they had powerful and active organisations which in most countries were quite independent of the organisations of professional workers, and that, while the Office appeared to have overlooked to some extent the problems which concern them, it would inevitably have to deal with them more and more. They consequently asked that they should occupy the same place in the International Labour Organisation as the professional workers and that they should be represented on a special advisory committee. Salaried employees are practically unanimous in this demand. Similar requests have been received from the International Federation of Commercial, Clerical, and Technical Employees, the International Federation of Christian Employees' Trade Unions and the International Federation of Independent Trade Unions of Salaried Employees. It should be noted, however, that the professional workers' organisations of Poland and Czecho-Slovakia, the members of which are largely salaried employees, have requested that questions concerning the latter should be dealt with by the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers which should be strengthened by the addition of a suitable number of salaried employees' representatives.

Apart from these claims of the workers' organisations, the German Government, at the Forty-Third Session of the Governing Body, made a proposal for the appointment with the least possible delay of a special advisory committee for questions concerning salaried employees, on which the organisations concerned would be represented. As its agenda was heavy, the Governing Body was unable to deal with the question immediately and deferred its consideration to its Forty-Fifth Session.

The problems of the relations between the International Labour Office and salaried employees' organisations is of the highest importance. It is obviously desirable that such a large and well-organised class of workers should be associated to the largest possible extent with the work of the Office. It is of special importance, moreover, to avoid giving the impression that the Office takes insufficient interest in their problems. Some doubts have been expressed, however, as to the advisability of appointing a special committee for employees. These doubts,
which are quite general in character, centre on the question whether it is in accordance with the spirit of the Treaty of Peace to appoint committees for special categories of workers, in view of the fact that the Treaty appears to assume that the representation of salaried employees in the various activities of the International Labour Organisations is ensured through the representatives of the general body of workers. It has been said that, while it may be justifiable to set up a special body for professional workers and possibly also for persons working on their own account, as these categories of workers do not appear to be immediately referred to in the Treaty of Peace, this would not be the case as regards salaried employees, whose interests are directly dealt with by the Treaty. It has also been pointed out that if arrangements are made for special representation for a particular category of workers, which is also represented by representatives of the workers in general, similar claims might be put forward for other categories — metal-workers, railwaymen, miners, etc.

It will be for the Governing Body to consider what grounds there are for these apprehensions and how far it is possible to satisfy the salaried employees' claims.

(5) Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene and Safety

This Committee now includes, in addition to experts, three members of the Governing Body to deal with industrial hygiene questions, and three to deal with safety questions. The members dealing with industrial hygiene are, for the Government group Mr. Molin, for the employers' group Mr. Gérard, and for the workers' group Mr. Poulton. The members dealing with industrial safety are: Government group, Count de Altea; employers' group, Mr. Tzaut; workers' group, Mr. Müller.

The following additional experts have been appointed to the Committee:

Austria:
Dr. Sternberg, Professor of Social Medicine in the University of Vienna.

Czechoslovakia:
Dr. J. Löwy, Assistant in the University Medical Clinic of Professor R. Jakusch, Prague.
Dr. Joseph Rocek, Professor of Medicine in the Masaryk University of Brinn and Director of the University Hygiene Institute.

France:
Dr. Agasse-LaFont, Chief of the Department for the Study of Occupational Pathology in the Institute of Industrial Hygiene of the Faculty of Medicine, Paris.
Professor Etienne Martin, Professor in the Faculty of Medicine, Lyons, President of the Fourth International Assembly for the Study of Occupational Diseases (1929).

Japan:
Dr. Bogo Koinuma, Chief Medical Inspector of Factories in the Bureau of Social Affairs, Tokyo.
Dr. Teruoka, Director of the Ohara Institute for the Study of Labour Questions, Kurashiki.

Poland:
Professor Karaffa-Korbut, Professor of Hygiene in the Faculty of Medicine of Vilna.

A meeting of the Committee was held from 16 to 18 April 1928.

III. Committees of Experts Only

27. — The following Committees come under this heading:

(1) Committee of Experts on Social Insurance

No change in the membership of this Committee was made in 1928.

In last year's Report reference was made to the advisability of reconstituting or increasing the size of this Committee. After another year's experience no hesitation is now felt in stating definitely that reorganisation is necessary if the constitution of the Committee is to be compatible with the duties which it has to perform and the calls which the International Labour Office must make on it.

In the first place, the Committee is a correspondence committee, from which the Office may, and indeed must, call for information and technical advice on the results of national experience, and this implies the appointment of correspondents in every country where there is a properly developed system of social insurance.

Secondly, the Committee is a committee of experts and must therefore include sufficient members to enable the Office to organise international consultations and, where necessary, meetings of experts on particular problems. Such consultations call for the collaboration of specialists in the different branches of insurance (sickness, accident, invalidity, old age and death), in the various forms of institutions (directors of supervising bodies and managers of insurance funds), and in the different technical insurance services (actuaries and doctors).

During the next few years the Office will have to undertake or continue the study of invalidity insurance, old-age insurance, the organisation of medical services in connection with social insurance, and the maintenance of the right to pension of workers proceeding from one country to another. Numerous and highly technical problems are raised by all these subjects. Consultations and meetings of experts will be absolutely necessary and can only be successfully carried out if a reorganised and larger Committee is available. It is therefore proposed to suggest to the Governing Body before
the end of the year that the Committee should include a number of experts selected on the basis of the variety of national systems, the great number of institutions and the diversity in the technical aspects of social insurance.

(2) Committee of Experts on Native Labour

This Committee held a second meeting in December 1928, during which it was consulted on the draft Questionnaire contained in the Grey Report on "Forced Labour".

The Committee had to deplore the death of one of its members, Mr. Saura del Pan. In his stead the Governing Body appointed Mr. Domingo de las Barcenas, Resident Minister, General Directorate of Spanish Morocco and the Colonies. The Governing Body also appointed Mr. Lodovico Pollera Orsucci, ex-Director of the Italian Colonial Ministry, in place of Commendatore Ostini, resigned. Mr. H. R. Joynt, who was unable to attend the Committee, also resigned.

(3) Committee of Experts on Article 408

This Committee, which exists to examine the annual reports forwarded by Governments in accordance with that Article of the Treaty, was originally set up for a period of two years. This period expired in 1928, but the Governing Body decided to re-appoint the Committee for one year, on the understanding that its mandate should be tacitly renewed from year to year, unless opposition was raised.

At the same time the Governing Body appointed Professor de Koszembar-Lyskowski, late Rector of the University of Warsaw, and formerly substitute member of the Committee, and Professor R. W. Erich, former Prime Minister of Poland, to be members of the Committee. In the place of Professor Carless Davis, of whose death the Conference will learn with regret, the Governing Body has appointed Dr. A. D. McNair, LL.D., C.B.E., Fellow of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge University.

The Committee met on 21 March 1929 and drafted a report which will be submitted to the Governing Body and will then come before the Conference.

28. — It will be seen that the number and activity of the Committees of the Organisation continue to increase, and it may therefore not be out of place to emphasise once more the importance of this phase of the work of the Organisation. These Committees, including those which only comprise members of the Governing Body, are the means by which the most qualified individuals in different countries can be associated with various phases of the work of the Office. The members of the Governing Body are of course entitled to be accompanied or even replaced by experts. It will be understood therefore that in the International Labour Organisation, as elsewhere in international institutions in general, there is a tendency to resort more and more to the appointment of Committees for the examination of particular problems. At present the Governing Body has before it proposals for the creation of further Committees: as already mentioned, the German Government proposes the appointment of an Advisory Committee for Salaried Employees, while the Italian Government is proposing the appointment of an Advisory Committee for workers working on their own account (artisanat)

The Committees enumerated above are those which have been officially created by the Governing Body. It is desirable that there should be no misunderstanding on this point. It happens sometimes that, with a view to helping the Office to plan or carry out its information work or studies, the Director calls a meeting of two or three experts for private consultation. Such consultations have sometimes been confused with Committees, but they in no way resemble the latter and cannot in the least be compared with the regular institutions of the Organisation. Even if such experts occasionally summarise their suggestions in a formal document, such a document can in no sense be compared with the resolutions adopted by the committees of the Organisation, whose work is directly supervised and co-ordinated by the Governing Body.

Organisation of the International Labour Office

29. — One or two changes have been made in the internal administration of the Office which do not, however, affect the general structure of its organisation.

(a) A new Division, the Administrative Division, has been created. This was necessitated for two reasons. In the first place, the Deputy Director, who from the beginning has centralised in his hands the whole of the internal administration, has, through the continual extension of the relations of the Office with the States Members, become more and more closely associated with the direction of the general work of the Office. He therefore required assistance for carrying on the internal administrative work. Secondly, it was necessary to concentrate and co-ordinate the work of the two general administrative sections—the Editorial Section, with its considerable expenditure, and the Administrative Section, which, being in charge of the material services and the registry, is in frequent co-operation with the Editorial Section.
The new Administrative Division has been put in charge of Dr. Ritter, a Ministerial Director in the German Ministry of Labour, of recognised experience and competence. This appointment gives Germany the representation it has desired on the higher staff of the Office.

(b) As Mr. Variez, the Office’s eminent technical adviser and chief of its Migration Service, had to resign on reaching the age limit, the Migration and Unemployment Services have been combined. It had long been felt desirable to combine these services, both because of the close connection between the problems dealt with by them and because a fusion would provide an opportunity of making a more profitable use of their staffs. The departure of Mr. Variez and the recent promotion of Mr. Fuss to Chief of Section have made it possible to carry out this reconstruction. The new Service has been incorporated in the Research Division. It is proposed to transform it into a Section in the 1930 budget, and it will then form the Fifth Section of the Research Division.

(c) As has been explained to the Governing Body and to the Assembly, the functions of the Refugee Service have been gradually changing in character as a result of the normal development of its work of finding employment for the refugees. Originally, this work merely consisted in registering the refugees, giving immediate assistance and carrying out transfers en masse with the help of the States. This work had been carried out by the High Commissioner of the League, Dr. Nansen. At a later stage, when large numbers of refugees had been provisionally accepted in certain countries, the problem arose of finding employment for them. Thousands of refugees had to be found regular and perhaps permanent jobs where labour was needed. It was natural therefore that at this stage the Service should be attached to the International Labour Office. But this work too, which has lasted for three years, is now coming to an end, and a still further stage is being reached. The work now consists, on the one hand, in definitely settling the legal status of the refugees, most of whom appear unlikely ever to return to their country of origin, and, on the other hand, in solving the social problem of finding a means of livelihood for those who are not yet settled. For the refugees who are not yet settled it has become necessary to set up institutions for vocational re-education and, above all, colonisation. This double work, political and financial in character, could no longer be carried out by the Office.

For these reasons the Office proposed, and the Governing Body and the Assembly have agreed, to re-transfer the work to the High Commission, which will henceforth be assisted by an Advisory Committee on which the Office will be represented. The transfer will take place in 1930. It has, however, been arranged between the Office, the High Commissioner and the Secretariat of the League, that the change of control should be effected as soon as the Advisory Committee has been created—i.e. at the end of 1929. Already the political direction of the Service has been placed in the hands of the High Commissioner, and the administrative direction will also be transferred to him on 1 January 1930. The Office retains provisionally only certain administrative functions for which the Refugee Service does not at present possess the necessary staff (accountancy and financial control).

80. National Correspondents. — The system of Correspondents’ Offices and individual correspondents of the Office continues to expand.

The Correspondent’s Office in India, the early creation of which was mentioned last year, has been open since October, under the direction of Mr. Pillai, at Delhi.

On the Director’s return from the Far East, the Governing Body recognised the necessity of creating a Correspondent’s Office in China, the importance of which had been urged on many occasions. An initial credit of 20,000 francs was granted. By utilising further sums from the general credit provided for external collaboration, it will be possible to co-ordinate still further the scientific study and research which have already been started on fragmentary lines in China and from which a certain amount of definite information may immediately be drawn.

It is also hoped that, after a further agreement with the Rumanian Government, and with its assistance, the Bucharest Correspondent, whose appointment was considered last year, may shortly be established.

The programme which the Office was requested by the Governing Body to draw up two years ago is thus being gradually realised. Certainly the system of Correspondents’ Offices is not universally favoured. When the Office asked for credits for the appointment of a correspondent in China, some of the members of the Governing Body raised the question of the utility of Correspondents’ Offices in the great industrial States with which the Office is in constant touch. It was asked whether the credits authorised for these offices might not be employed to greater advantage for the more distant countries for which less information is available as to their working conditions. A Sub-Committee of the Governing Body was appointed to consider the matter. As far as the Office is concerned, it is convinced that the Committee cannot but be impressed by the value of the offices in
London, Rome, Paris, and Berlin. It will certainly appreciate at their full worth the services they regularly render to the Office, in simplifying its relations with public administrations, getting into touch with industrial organisations, obtaining speedy replies to requests for information, keeping the Director accurately informed of important social movements, or in making the work of the Office more widely known and developing the circulation of its publications. Close, direct and permanent contact with the different countries is, it is considered, a necessary counterpart to the centralisation which exists at Geneva.

31. **Staff.** — The staff in 1927 numbered 375 persons, 378 in 1928, and will number 399 in 1929. It will thus be slightly more than in 1928 when there were 389 officials in the Office.

The new posts provided for in the budget for 1929 were required to meet outstanding needs in the Office's regular work, and were asked for solely on these grounds. While efficiency remains the chief preoccupation, however, further efforts will be made to secure representation on the staff of all the States Members of the Organisation. This policy is not always easy to carry out, as one of the essential conditions of efficiency in an international institution created under the Peace Treaty is a complete knowledge of one of the two official languages. The 1929 budget will, however, enable the representation of certain nationalities to be increased or representation to be given to fresh nationalities. For example, Germany, Holland, Hungary, India, Japan, Poland and South Africa will have had more of their nationals on the staff than before. Since 1925 the nations represented on the staff have grown from 32 to 36. All the new officials have been recruited by means of competition.

Throughout 1928 questions of recruitment, classification and promotion of the staff have received further attention, and endeavours have been made to render the regulations clearer and more definite on these matters. The concern and anxiety of the staff have made this course essential. As has been mentioned in previous Reports, the Director attaches great importance to securing definite guarantees for the staff, thus maintaining in it that spirit of emulation and zeal which ensures good work. All the same, none of the anomalies referred to in last year's Report have been corrected. The Office differs from the League of Nations in having a class of auxiliary members of section, whose work, while paid at a lower rate, is generally similar to that of members of section B. The existence of this special category does not satisfy the States which are claiming representation on the staff.

Moreover, complaints are being made by members of section B on the ground that, in contradistinction to the usual practice in the Secretariat of the League, when they reach the maximum salary of their category they cannot in the ordinary way be promoted to the next higher category, member of section A. No doubt, the Governing Body has authorised a few exceptional promotions in the 1930 budget and thus enabled the effects of this anomaly to be corrected in the case of some members of section B. But the adoption of the reform as a general measure depends, in the view of the Governing Body, on the Supervisory Commission and the Assembly of the League, which bodies have already had the problem laid before them. It was decided at the last Session of the Assembly that the Staff Regulations drawn up in 1921 by the Committee of Experts, of which Mr. Noblemaire was chairman, should be revised. This revision was entrusted to the Supervisory Commission with the collaboration of the institutions concerned. The Office has already begun its part of the preparatory work. It has drawn up a memorandum for submission to the Supervisory Commission which reviews the various modifications which it considers necessary, in the light of the experience of the last seven years, for ensuring security of employment and guarantees in case of invalidity, provision against old age and death, regulations for the grading of posts, length of contracts, regulations for promotion, etc. A similar memorandum is being drafted by the Secretariat. Every effort will be made to reach the same conclusions and so remove the causes of complaint which are created by existing differences. The matter will come before and be decided by the Supervisory Commission and then the next Assembly.

It is hoped that, at least as regards the three most important points, stability of employment, prospects of promotion and adequate provision against old age, invalidity and death, the League of Nations will give its officials guarantees equal to those enjoyed by officials of those national administrations which display the greatest regard for their staff. In the Director's opinion the staff of the Office deserves such guarantees.

The Governing Body is also dealing with the problem of indemnities or pensions in case of invalidity, old age or death. It has adopted a report of Mr. Weigert which considers the present Provident Fund inadequate and advocates the institution of a pension scheme worthy of the name. The Governing Body has instructed the Director to press these conclusions upon the Supervisory Commission and the Assembly.

Another problem which was mentioned last year and which was raised a number
of years ago is the stabilisation of salaries. This question was finally settled by the 1926 Assembly which decided to stabilise salaries at the 1921 nominal rates. In coming to this decision the Assembly had regard, first, to the fact that the cost-of-living index for 1927-1928 had risen almost to the level of the 1921 index which had been taken as a basis for a reduction in salaries, and, secondly, to the fact that the reduction which had been made had not always worked out fairly, on account of the imperfection of the methods used in calculating the index.

32. — The Administrative Tribunal, the creation of which was announced in last year’s Report, has had to consider the first case of direct interest to the Office. The Assembly, when instituting the Staff Provident Fund, took two decisions relating to the matter covered by the old Articles 54-61 of the Staff Regulations. These decisions, one of which was supported by the Director and Deputy-Director, was intended to prevent overlapping between the Fund and the indemnity provisions of the Staff Regulations.

The first decision has resulted in the abolition of some of the above-mentioned indemnities and the reduction of others. It was taken on the grounds of the creation of the Provident Fund, and was intended to prevent overlapping between the Fund and the indemnity provisions of the Staff Regulations.

The second decision was based upon quite different grounds. It was considered that the salaries of Chiefs of Division and the length of their contracts put these officials in the same position as Directors in the Secretariat, who were excluded from membership of the Fund, and the Assembly therefore decided that Chiefs of Division in the Office should be excluded from the benefit of the Fund.

The first decision has resulted in the abolition of some of the above-mentioned indemnities and the reduction of others. It was taken on the grounds of the creation of the Provident Fund, and was intended to prevent overlapping between the Fund and the indemnity provisions of the Staff Regulations.

33. — Evidence of the regard entertained for the International Labour Office by the States Members and different organisations is still forthcoming in the form of contributions to the decoration of the building.

The magnificent panels of faience given by Portugal, which depict the three principal aspects of Portuguese industry, viz., fishing, vine culture and agriculture, have been installed and unveiled, and now give an atmosphere of freshness to the hall on the first floor.

Rumania, too, has decorated a corner of the first floor where visitors wait to be received, with two beautiful pictures illustrating the work and leisure moments of Rumanian peasants.

The Office wishes to thank these Governments again for their generosity.

34. — This sketch of the internal organisation of the Office would be incomplete without a reference to the International Management Institute, which the Governing Body helped to found in 1926 and which the Office assists to a considerable extent both in staff and in material.

Mention has already been made, in an earlier passage relating to the United States of America, of the internal difficulties experienced by the Institute in 1928—the resignation of the Director and Deputy-Director. These difficulties have now been overcome. The work is being continued on the constitutional lines laid down by the founders of the Institute and in the spirit which animated them at the beginning.

A new director has been appointed in the person of Mr. Lyndall Urwick, who has had wide experience with the firm of Messrs. Rowntree, of York, and in other industrial undertakings, and who has been at work for some months.

The Governing Body decided, when considering the estimates for 1930, to contribute both staff and material for the next few years to the same extent as previously.

There is no doubt but that the Institute will succeed, as its founders hoped, in spreading the spirit of scientific management which European industry needs, and
Financial Organisation

35. — The International Labour Conference has never touched on the financial questions which affect the working of the Organisation. As a matter of fact, though the Treaty of Peace authorises the Conference to define the fresh tasks which might be entrusted to the International Labour Office, it has not specifically given the Conference any financial powers.

36. Budget for 1929. — In accordance with the usual procedure, the estimates for 1929 were passed by the Governing Body last year and then submitted in the ordinary way to the Supervisory Commission, and then again to the Assembly of the League of Nations (Fourth Committee).

These estimates showed an increase of 526,910 francs, in comparison with those for the previous year. This increase was entirely accounted for by three causes.

In the first place, the statutory charges involved by the Staff Regulations in respect of annual increments, the Provident Fund and travelling amounted to 175,000 francs. Secondly, it was decided that, as an exceptional measure, there should be a double Session of the International Labour Conference in 1929, involving an additional cost of 178,000 francs. Thirdly, the Governing Body, after giving careful consideration to the growth of the work of the Office owing to the increase in the number of ratifications, the various tasks imposed upon it by the Resolutions of the Conference, and the necessary development of its research work, decided to increase the staff by seventeen posts at a cost of 245,000 francs.

The discussions which took place in the Fourth Committee were of unusual length and importance. They centred principally round certain questions of principle. They will be referred to later. The actual examination of the budget of the Office itself occupied comparatively little time. It was mainly devoted to the question of the creation of new posts—and, in particular, the new post of a Chief of Division—and the question whether the two Sessions of the Conference in 1929 should be held consecutively or otherwise. As regards the latter question, the Assembly recognised that there were good technical and political reasons for separating the two Sessions of the Conference—reasons which, as a matter of fact, had already been approved by the representatives of eleven Governments on the Governing Body.

With an eye on the future, however, the Assembly adopted a Resolution recommending that "if in the future the International Labour Organisation decides to hold two Conferences in the course of the same year, the dates may, for reasons of economy, be so chosen that these Conferences may take place consecutively". Nevertheless, the Assembly unanimously approved the Governing Body's estimates and made no reduction in them.

As a matter of fact, it voted an extra credit of 127,360 francs, consequential on its decision to stabilise the salaries of the international staff of the League of Nations at their nominal rates as from 1 January 1929.

The total of the 1929 budget, as approved by the Assembly, amounted to 8,782,640 francs, distributed as follows:

Section I (Ordinary expenditure):
Chapter I. — Sessions of the Conference and the Governing Body 335,000
Chapter II. — General services of the International Labour Office 7,879,640
Chapter II a. — (Extraordinary and temporary expenditure.) Work on behalf of refugees 218,000
Chapter III. — Profit and loss on exchange
Section II (Capital expenditure):
Chapter IV. — Buildings, permanent equipment, etc. 70,000
Total 8,782,640

Deduct: Estimated receipts from sale of publications 170,000
Net total 8,612,640

The net expenses to be distributed among the 55 States Members for 1929 thus are 8,612,640 francs.

It should be noted that if the 218,000 francs under the heading "Extraordinary and temporary expenditure" for work on behalf of refugees is deducted, the budget for the Office's own work for 1929 works out at 8,314,640 francs. In spite of the regular annual increments which have been granted during the last six years, this figure is still more than 400,000 francs less than the 1928 budget.

37. — Some detailed explanations must be given of the discussions which took place in the Fourth Committee and to which reference has already been made. These discussions centred on a number of problems, including the recruitment and position of the staff and the stabilisation of the budget, but the main subject was the question of the constitutional relations in financial matters between the Assembly of the League and the International Labour Organisation.

This question was raised by the Swiss Government representative, i.e. by the representative of a State which has no seat on the Governing Body and which consequently can only take note of the budget of the Organisation when it is submitted to the Fourth Committee. The problem was not, however, solved. As a matter of fact, it was not within the competence of the Fourth Committee, but was rather a matter for the First
Committee (constitutional and legal questions), though it was not referred to this Committee. In effect, the Fourth Committee and the Assembly agreed to continue the restrained and cautious policy which they have so far followed for reconciling the rights of the Assembly with the autonomy guaranteed by the Treaty to the International Labour Organisation. It is possible, however, that further discussions may take place on this important subject in the future, and therefore it seems necessary to indicate briefly how the Office considers the problem should be approached.

Under Article 899, paragraph 2, of the Treaty, the expenses of the International Labour Organisation are to be paid “to the Director (of the International Labour Office) by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations out of the general funds of the League.” Consequently, the International Labour Organisation’s budget forms a special part of the budget of the League. Further, it is the Assembly of the League which has to pass the budget of the League, and the Assembly is therefore competent to discuss it, amend it and even reject it.

The question arises, however, whether internal distinctions should be made in the general budget between the different parts of which it is composed, and, in particular, whether it can be held that the powers of the Assembly in regard to the special budget of the Organisation are less extensive than its powers in regard to the budget of the League strictly so called. This latter question may be approached from two extreme angles. Either the budget of the International Labour Organisation is discussed on the same footing and the same conditions as the budget of the League strictly so called, or the budget of the International Labour Organisation, which is drawn up by the Organisation’s own authorities and under their responsibility, is incorporated in the budget of the League as a matter of form, so that the Assembly cannot exercise any control over it. The Treaty unfortunately is silent on the matter, and to solve it regard has to be had to the constitutional principles of the League and of the International Labour Organisation. These principles appear to be equally incompatible with either of the two extreme propositions indicated above.

If the Treaties had not conferred any special autonomy on the International Labour Organisation, but had put the Organisation on the same footing as any other institution of the League of Nations, it is clear that the first proposition would be a logical conclusion. The Assembly, which is the deliberating body of the League and is invested with the financial powers conferred on it by the Covenant, would then undoubtedly be competent and free to censor and control the budget of the International Labour Organisation. This, however, is not the case.

As a matter of fact, although there is a close legal, administrative and organic connection between the International Labour Organisation and the League of Nations, the Organisation is an autonomous institution. In contradistinction to the organs of the League strictly so called, which have sprung directly or indirectly from the Covenant, the International Labour Organisation was set up by a special Part of the Peace Treaties which gave it complete constitutional autonomy. It is just this autonomy which limits the powers of the Assembly in regard to the International Labour Organisation’s budget.

The Assembly is the general deliberative body of the League strictly so called, and it exercises both political and financial control over the League’s budget. The general deliberative body of the International Labour Organisation, however, is not the Assembly, but the General Labour Conference, and the Assembly’s right of control over the International Labour Organisation’s budget is strictly financial. The conclusion to be drawn from this fundamental distinction is that the powers of the Assembly over the International Labour Organisation’s budget are clearly not so extensive as its powers over the budget of the League strictly so called. In the view of the Office the Assembly’s control over the expenses of the Organisation should be restricted to purely budgetary considerations, i.e. questions of administration and organisation, but not problems for international action which are dealt with by the special delegates sent to Geneva to the Conference and the Governing Body. The policy of the International Labour Organisation should remain in the hands of its own authorities, i.e. the Conference and the Governing Body.

This, in the Office’s view, is the doctrine which flows logically from the constitutional principles of the League of Nations and of the International Labour Organisation. There is no concealing the fact that its application is a delicate matter and that it calls for much tact, for it is sometimes not easy to draw a sharp line of distinction between strictly budgetary control and political control. As a practical proposition, however, it would be difficult for the members who compose the Assembly to form a judgment on decisions which have been taken by the technical experts appointed by the Governments, employers and workers who are represented in the International Labour Organisation and whom the Treaties have conferred definite rights.

Another question which was the subject of considerable argument in the Fourth Committee and in the Assembly was the method of recruiting the staff for the international institutions created by the Treaties and the attitude it should adopt towards its position.
The discussions on these points, no doubt, covered all the institutions of the League of Nations, but they hardly applied to the same extent to the staff of the Office. The Director had no difficulty in explaining how the methods followed for the recruitment of the Office's staff met the views which had been expressed in the Fourth Committee. The Conference knows what these methods are, as they have been explained in previous Reports. As a matter of fact, the Office's policy is laid down in the Treaty of Peace itself which, in Article 393, provides that the staff of the Office is to be appointed by the Director, who is as far as possible with due regard to the efficiency of the work of the Office to select persons of different nationalities.

Lastly, there was the question of stabilising the budget, which had already been raised by the Indian Delegation, with the support of a number of other delegations, in 1924. The Government delegate also complained that India had not received sufficient attention from the League.

These criticisms of the League, however, can hardly be taken as applying in the same degree to the International Labour Organisation. The fact that India has been recognised as one of the eight States of chief industrial importance gives her a position of special honour and corresponding responsibility in regard to the latter. Moreover, the interest which the Organisation has always displayed in the remarkable efforts made by the Government of India to improve industrial conditions by the ratification and enforcement of its Conventions was further tested in 1927 by the creation of a Branch Office in Delhi.

Nevertheless, the Indian demand for the stabilisation of expenditure applied to the Office as well as to the Secretariat. Such a demand necessarily raises a series of difficult questions. In the first place, as will be shown later, the budget of the International Labour Organisation was, in fact, practically stable from 1924 to 1928, if the inevitable growth of the statutory charges and the additional charge caused by the transfer of the Refugee Section to the Office are left out of account. Is it possible to lay down a definite figure and to determine in advance the amounts that shall be carried over a series of years? If literally interpreted, this would mean that all fresh demands were rejected in advance, however legitimate or urgent they might be. The Office does not know of any country which has adopted such a rigid practice and does not believe that the Government of India itself would advocate its unqualified adoption. However great the efforts to limit expenditure, circumstances must arise from time to time which render some increase necessary; and it was only after prolonged consideration that the Governing Body agreed to the increase provided for in the 1929 estimates, part of which was of an exceptional and non-recurrent character. Besides, some of the tasks which this additional expenditure was intended to meet result from Resolutions formerly adopted by the International Labour Conference.

It is impossible to meet the growing demands which are made on the various institutions of the League as their value becomes better recognised and their position in the life of the nations more firmly established without envisaging the possibility of occasionally increased expenditure. This truth was recognised by the Assembly as a necessary complement to its expressed intention to avoid any additional financial burdens to the States by every means in its power. In other words, it was generally agreed that the stabilisation of expenditure, and consequently of the activity of the League and of the International Labour Office, must be relative rather than absolute. This conception was clearly stated by Mr. de Vasconcellos, Chairman of the Fourth Committee, when he presented his report to the Assembly:

Lord Lytton and Mr. Hambro insist on economy. We are all partisans of economy, but it is necessary to take care that economy does not destroy the work of the League. We are of course in favour of stabilising the budget, but it is necessary to find agreement as to how it is to be secured. Is it desired to stabilise the whole budget of the League of Nations? If so, what would be the result? To constrict the League in a straight jacket.

Stabilisation, which would exclude any possibility of making provision for special needs as they arise, is not really reconcilable with the development of international activity, which is taking place every year. If there were no delegates forthcoming either at the Conference or at the Assembly who desired fresh work to be undertaken, the stabilisation of the budget would be easy, as a point of stagnation would have been reached. But as long as the institutions of the League are being constantly stimulated to further activity by fresh calls, the possibility of some fresh expenditure being necessary can never be entirely eliminated.

In view of the exaggerated statements which have not infrequently appeared in the press and have sometimes been re-echoed in Parliaments, it may not be amiss to examine a little more carefully than in previous years the actual course of the history of the Organisation's finances. So far from exhibiting a steady tendency to increase, as is sometimes represented, they disclose on the contrary a surprising stability.

During the years 1921-1923, the gross budget of the Office, i.e. the total expenditure it was authorised to make each year, always exceeded 8,000,000 francs, and in 1921 amounted to 8,762,500 francs, — a total never again attained till 1929. In 1924, there was a marked drop which
was due mainly to the difficult cash position created by the non-payment of contributions, although the actual expenditure was always far below the estimates voted by the Assembly. In that year, a new policy was adopted. On the one hand, the estimates were reduced to correspond closely to the probable expenditure instead of allowing, as in previous years, a substantial margin for unpaid contributions. On the other hand, certain economies were carried out in the light of three years' experience.

Since 1924, the gross budget has shown an upward tendency, but it has been swollen by two elements over which the Office and the Governing Body had no control. In the first place, the budget was increased in 1925 to the extent of about 300,000 francs a year by the transfer of the Refugee Service from the Secretariat under a decision of the Assembly, which the Governing Body accepted without any great enthusiasm. Secondly, the Office has had to carry out the decisions of the Assembly in regard to the Staff Regulations. Officials of the League are entitled to annual increments which constitute a substantial, and for the present a cumulative, charge on the budget, though their aggregate diminishes annually as the point of equilibrium approaches.

In order therefore to get a fair idea of the net or effective budget of the Office, it is necessary to deduct these unavoidable charges, i.e. statutory charges or charges created by a decision of the Assembly. If this is done, it will be seen that there was practically no increase of expenditure between 1924 and 1928. In other words, the Office has, without any appreciable growth of expenditure, succeeded in meeting all the new demands which have been made on it over a period of five years, which has been marked by a growing intensification of international activity owing to the increasing realisation of the services rendered by it. This will be brought out more clearly by the following chart than by any detailed statement.

To realise the effort accomplished in the direction of increasing output without increasing cost during these years, it is only necessary to record a few of the additional tasks which have been imposed on the Office by the Conference and the Assembly during that time.

Last year, for instance, the Office published a report on wages and conditions in coal mines, after a very difficult enquiry lasting more than two years. It is now undertaking further enquiries into the conditions of the textile industries, the social effects of rationalisation, the conditions in Asiatic countries, and the burden of social charges, all of which are in execution of Resolutions of the Conference. Again, on the recommendation of the Assembly, the Office has explored the vast and difficult field of native labour, for which purpose a special Section has had to be created. The amount of its correspondence has increased by over 50 per cent. since 1924. The number of ratifications has risen from 139 to 342 during the same period, and the number of annual reports received and examined in connection with them from 62 to 241. During the same period the staff has grown from 342 to 399 persons, an increase of only 16 per cent. These developments are indicated in the following chart on the basis of 1924 = 100.

The charge that the Office has been indifferent to considerations of economy
is therefore the reverse of the truth. This may be further illustrated by examining the expenditure under the main heads of the budget during the same period, 1924-1929.

(1) The Conference. The cost of the Conference which was estimated at 388,000 francs, was reduced to 254,000 francs in 1928 — the lowest sum ever provided.

(2) The Governing Body. The cost of the Governing Body has also remained practically stationary, varying from 85,000 to 105,000 francs during the last seven years.

(3) Salaries. The amount provided for salaries has risen from 4,308,000 in 1924 to 5,513,000 francs in 1930. As has already been pointed out, however, a large part of this increase is due to the obligation to provide annual increments, which account for about 800,000 francs out of the increase of 1,200,000.

(4) Travelling. The figure under this head has risen from 90,000 francs for 1924 to 120,000 francs for 1929. This increase does not represent an increased amount of travelling, however, but the increased cost of travel due to the stabilisation of currencies and the raising of fares.

(5) Maintenance and property accounts. Here again there has been practical stabilisation. In 1924 the total for these two heads was 375,000 francs while in 1929 the figure is 389,000 francs.

(6) Printing. The charges for printing, other than documents for the Governing Body and Committee, have fallen from 500,000 francs in 1924 to 476,000 francs in 1929. At the same time, the amount of printing has increased considerably, not only if account is taken of the number of pages issued, but also of the size of editions and the number of languages in which the work of the Office is made available. During 1928, apart from Conference, Governing Body and Committee documents, 37,150 printed pages were issued by the International Labour Office as against 28,750 in 1924. There is little doubt that not only the quantity but also the quality represents a considerable advance, the best proof of which lies in the steady rise in the receipts from the sale of publications. The amount which was deducted from the budget in 1924 in respect of estimated net sales was 47,000 francs, whereas for 1929 the estimate is 170,000. The publications of the Office are sold in no less than sixty-one countries scattered all over the world, the best purchasers being Germany (37,000 francs in 1928), Great Britain (25,000), and Spain (25,000).

These developments are illustrated by the following chart, on a percentage basis of 1924 = 100.

(7) Enquiries and investigations. Here again there has been practical stability since 1924, when the amount provided was 144,000 as against 136,000 francs in 1929. This diminution has been effected in spite of the necessity of carrying out the various enquiries mentioned above.

(8) Committees. The expenditure for Committees has risen from 57,000 francs in 1924 to 100,000 in 1929. Last year there were meetings of eleven Committees comprising ninety-three members, whereas in 1924 only three Committees met comprising twenty-six members. As international co-operation extends, it is both necessary and desirable that expert committees should meet more frequently to advise the Office, especially in dealing with such technical subjects as native labour, the coal and textile industries, industrial hygiene and safety, and social insurance.

(9) Correspondents' Offices. This is the only head, except that of salaries, under which there has been any considerable increase. The estimates have risen from 415,000 francs in 1924 to 581,000 in 1929. This increase is due to two principal causes; first, the increase in the rates of exchange owing to the stabilisation of currencies, and secondly the creation of a new office in Delhi, which will cost 67,000 francs this year. On the other hand, there have been decreases in the cost of the Paris and Washington Offices, that of the London Office has remained stationary, while
the cost of the Berlin, Rome and Tokyo Offices has considerably increased, mainly on account of the higher gold values of the mark, the lira and the yen.

(10) Capital expenditure. The figure for capital expenditure is the same as for 1924, i.e. 70,000 francs. This sum covers all the furniture, fittings, equipment, typewriters, and other machines required for the Office, as well as for the purchase and binding of books for the Library.

This brief analysis of the finances of the Office should, it is considered, suffice to acquit it of any charge of extravagant administration. As has been already stated, it has succeeded in carrying out all the traditional tasks imposed upon it with a very small increase of expenditure, which represents a tiny burden to any of the States. In fact, the increase in the gross expenditure between 1924 and 1928 does not represent an additional average cost of more than 12,500 francs to any Government.

Because so much has been accomplished, however, in the way of preventing increased expenditure, it must not be supposed that the process can be indefinitely prolonged and that whatever fresh work is put upon the Office can be satisfactorily discharged without any addition to its resources. The Office will at all times endeavour to prevent any avoidable new expense, and will continue to seek to meet new demands as far as possible by exercising the utmost administrative ingenuity. But it should, it is considered, be made clear that if in the future it should after all prove impossible to keep within the limits of its present budget, the Office will not hesitate to press for the financial means which are necessary to enable its activities to be maintained and developed.

38. Budget for 1930. — The estimates for 1930 as approved by the Governing Body at its Forty-Fourth Session amount to a total of 8,718,678 francs. These estimates contain no provision for the Refugee Service which, as has already been mentioned, is to be put directly under the High Commission for Refugees as from 1 January 1930. The estimates therefore are those for the Office proper, and consequently if they are to be compared with the 1929 budget the credits allowed for the Refugee Service should be deducted from the latter. As the corresponding figures for 1929 were 8,782,640 francs and 298,000 francs, the estimates for the Office itself for 1929 come out at 8,484,640 francs. There is thus an increase in estimated expenditure on the work of the Office proper of 298,000 francs — i.e. it should be noted, an increase on paper, and not, as will be seen below, an increase in the charges to be borne by the States Members.

There are a number of reasons for this increase. In the first place, there are the statutory increments over which the Governing Body or the Conference have no control. Secondly, provision is made for expenditure on renewal and maintenance of the Office building and its furniture. The increase on these two heads is 164,000 francs.

Then there is a special credit of 25,000 francs by way of a contribution from the Office towards the cost of a Conference on silicosis which is to be held at Johannesburg in 1930. This Conference is being called on the generous initiative of the Transvaal Chamber of Mines, which has undertaken to defray two-thirds of the cost.

Then there is a sum of about 38,000 francs for external collaboration, but a part of this sum will be absorbed by the creation of a Correspondent's Office in China.

No special provision has been made for new posts, because it was the fixed policy of the Office not to ask for any increase in staff for 1930.

The estimates for 1930, however, provide for receipts higher than those in preceding years. The figure under this head is 106,800,000 francs, i.e., an increase of 138,000 francs in comparison with the estimated receipts in the 1929 budget.

This increase covers sales of publications estimated at 180,000 francs (as compared with 170,000 in 1929 and 140,000 in 1928) and other miscellaneous receipts estimated at about 3,300 francs. It also covers Brazil's contribution for the second half of 1928, i.e. about 124,000 francs. Although Brazil has withdrawn from the League of Nations, it still remains a Member of the International Labour Organisation and contributes towards its expenses. It is probable that during the present year Brazil will pay its full contribution for 1929. In this case this extra receipt will have to be added to those which are already provided for and there would be a further and appreciable reduction in the charges on the other States Members.

If the receipts are deducted, then, the total expenditure to be borne by the States Members will be 8,405,678 francs, i.e. an increase in the cost of the Office of 91,038 francs as compared with last year. It can hardly be said that this is exaggerated. The Office has endeavoured as far as possible to draw up its estimates for 1930 in the light of the general attitude towards stabilisation adopted by the Assembly in 1927 and 1928. A comparison between the estimates for 1930 and those for the preceding year shows how consistently the Office tries to reconcile the

1 Cf. ante, p. 5.
necessity for economy with the needs of the Organisation, the work of which is becoming more and more extensive and complicated.

It is possible that when these estimates are considered by the Assembly they will be discussed on more or less the same lines as the estimates for 1929, if the discussions which have already taken place in the Governing Body may be regarded as foreshadowing coming events. At the Governing Body the British Government abstained from voting on the budget, as the Governing Body had not adopted the suggestion made by this Government that a considerable and systematic cut should be made. Nevertheless, the Office firmly hopes that when the 1930 estimates are considered, the effort which the Office has made, the moderation of its demands for credits, and the needs of the International Labour Organisation, will be recognised and that in the end the Assembly will follow the practice on which it has acted for a number of years, and will exercise its rights with due regard to a proper distribution of work between the international institutions in Geneva.

Relations with the League of Nations

39. — As will be seen from the following paragraphs, the Office has had many occasions during the past year to continue its full and close collaboration with the different departments and institutions of the League of Nations.

40. Economic Organisation. — The important problems of the relations between the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations and the International Labour Office, which were still attracting attention in last year's Report, seem now to be settled. If the expression may be used, the atmosphere has cleared and become settled. The great discussion on the connection between economic and social problems seems for the moment to have died down. The Governing Body no longer insists on the establishment of more extended organic connections between the various branches of the League of Nations and the Office. The organisation therefore remains as at present: workers' members are appointed to the Consultative Economic Committee by the Workers' Group of the Governing Body; the Chairman of the Governing Body attends the Consultative Committee and the Council of the League of Nations when economic problems are being dealt with; the technical services of the Office participate in the preparatory work of the Committee; the Director is invited to meetings of the executive of the Consultative Committee; and all questions affecting the International Labour Organisation are referred to the Office.

These are the bases on which the Organisation co-operates in the work of this new institution, which commenced its activities at a first session held from 14 to 19 May 1928. At the close of this session the Consultative Committee was able to report how fruitful the collaboration had been between the Economic Organisation and the International Labour Office. It hoped that this collaboration would continue during the considerable tasks which still remained to be accomplished.

Two of its resolutions are of particular importance for the International Labour Organisation, i.e. those referring to the work of the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations in connection with the coal and sugar questions.

In pursuance of the Committee's resolution with regard to the coal crisis, the Council of the League of Nations has referred the study of this question to the Economic Committee. This Committee has decided first of all to have an enquiry made by a special delegation into the various aspects of the problem—production, consumption, marketing and transport. This delegation took the views of Government and employers' representatives with practical experience in the matter, and then decided that it should also have the views of the workers. For this purpose the Economic Committee applied to the International Labour Office to assist it, by means of its information and its relations, in choosing nine expert workers from nine named States. The experts appointed were: Mr. François Domes (adviser, Mr. Kautsky), Austria; Mr. Delattre, Belgium; Mr. Karel Brozik, Czechoslovakia; Mr. Vigne, France; Dr. Berger (adviser, Mr. Rotthauer), Germany; Professor R. H. Tawney (adviser, Mr. Cook), Great Britain; Mr. Joseph Pelzer, Netherlands; Mr. Antoni Zdanowski, Poland; Mr. Manuel Llaneza, Spain.

The views of these experts were taken during a session convened exclusively for this purpose from 27 February to 2 March 1929.

41. Intellectual work. — The Office's relations with the various institutions of the League dealing with intellectual work have continued to be entirely satisfactory. Close collaboration has been established with the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. The Director of the Institute and a member of the Secretariat of the League attended the meetings of the Office's Advisory Committee on Intellectual (Professional) Workers, while two

1 Cf. footnote ante, p. 28.
representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation (Mr. Destree and Mr. Krüss, the latter acting as substitute for Mr. Einstein), who are members of the Office's Committee, were most helpful in the discussions. A system of half-yearly conferences between the officials of the Institute and of the Labour Office has been instituted.

The Office was invited to participate in the first International Congress on Popular Arts, organised by the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. This Congress adopted a unanimous resolution requesting the Office to continue, in close co-operation with the Institute, its comparative study of the whole problem of the utilisation of workers' spare time.

Further, a representative of the Office has continued to attend all meetings of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Lastly, the International Educational Cinematographic Institute, which works under the League of Nations and was founded on the proposal of the Italian Government and with its financial help, was inaugurated at Rome on 5 November 1928. Under the rules of the Institute the Director of the International Labour Office can attend and take part in the work of its board of management and its executive committee on the same footing as the Secretary-General of the League, the Director of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation and the President of the Permanent Committee of the International Institute of Agriculture. The Office was represented at the inauguration of the Institute, at the first meeting of its board of management (November 1928), and at the first two meetings of its executive committee (November 1928 and March 1929).

Active collaboration has already been begun with the new Institute on the utilisation of the cinema for workers' spare time, industrial hygiene, prevention of industrial accidents, vocational guidance, etc. It is expected that this collaboration will soon bear fruit, and that the Office will have matters of considerable interest to bring to the notice of the Conference in next year's Report.

42. Health. — The Office's Industrial Hygiene Service has continued to follow the activities of the Health Section of the Secretariat and to collaborate with it whenever an opportunity occurred.

At the last meeting of the health officers, who took part in the "interchange" held as usual at Geneva, the Industrial Hygiene Service gave those present an outline of its working and its activities.

An interchange of doctors who have specialised in industrial hygiene was organised in 1925 in Belgium, France, Great Britain, and the Netherlands. As a result of the success of this interchange and the growing importance of the problems of industrial medicine, the Office has suggested to the Health Section of the League to arrange a fresh interchange for the consideration of industrial hygiene matters. This has been approved and an interchange has been arranged for the period April-May 1929 in the following countries: Germany, France, Italy, and Switzerland. A dozen representatives from different countries will take part.

The experts of the Office's Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene have contributed to the survey of the progress achieved in matters of industrial hygiene in the Annual Report on Health published by the Health Section of the Secretariat.

The Industrial Hygiene Service is also collaborating in research work into the disinfection of hides and skins, but there was no need for the Mixed Committee to meet during 1928.

The Industrial Hygiene Service has also collaborated with the Health Section in the study of cancer. The Cancer Committee considered that the time was ripe for a study of occupational cancer, and instituted a mixed sub-committee composed of a small number of experts, in which the International Labour Office is represented by the Chief of the Industrial Hygiene Service. This sub-committee met in London on 19 and 20 July 1928, and arranged for certain research work, in particular into the problem of occupational cancer.1

The Joint Committee on Hygiene and Health Insurance, set up in 1927 to study the relations which might be established between public health services and the medical services of insurance institutions in regard to prevention work, did not meet in 1928. The sub-committees set up to study the questions of popular health education, protection of motherhood, prevention of tuberculosis, prevention of venereal disease and protection of children of school age, have not yet completed their work. The study of the prevention of tuberculosis, however, has been actively carried on, and the investigations undertaken in certain districts of Austria, Belgium and Germany are now complete. At its next meeting, which will doubtless take place in 1929, the Joint Sub-Committee for the Prevention of Tuberculosis will endeavour to frame some general conclusions from the mass of material gathered and classified.

The sub-committee for examining the functions and working methods of social medicine met in Geneva in December 1928, and drew up its programme of work, of which a summary is given in the section of this Report dealing with social insurance.

The collaboration between the Office and the Health Section through the Joint Committee and its sub-committees is thus continually developing. The progress is indeed slow, because this system of

1 Cf. also post, § 110.
joint organisations of varying status—the Secretariat, the Committee, the sub-committees and groups of investigators—involves complicated machinery. Despite the difficulties and delays, the Office considers that this method of co-operation should by no means be abandoned. The employment of mixed organisations is definitely necessary on account of the nature of the public health services and the medical services of sickness insurance funds, in order to organise preventive work on a scientific basis. In the opinion of the Office, no other method of working would fully safeguard the respective competence of the International Labour Organisation and of the Health Section of the League, or the independence of the insurance institutions, which is clearly asserted in the Conventions adopted by the Tenth Session of the Conference in 1927.

It must, however, be recognised that the budgetary restrictions imposed on the Office make its position delicate in this as in other cases and its task particularly difficult. It is only by dint of unremitting effort that the Office succeeds in maintaining internationally the principle for which the Organisation stands, of the independence of social insurance institutions.

43. Protection of children and young persons. — Here again there has been continued collaboration. The Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children has been pursuing its investigations into the material and moral protection of young women artistes touring abroad in music-halls and similar places of amusement. At the seventh session of this Committee (Geneva, 12-17 March 1928) the representative of the International Labour Office submitted a memorandum giving a brief outline of existing legislation on the matter in the various countries and the measures taken by the trade unions and other organisations for the protection of these artistes.

The Committee has decided to consult the Governments on certain matters affecting the conditions of employment of these performers. It has also requested the Office to get into touch, on these same matters, with some of the more important trade union organisations and theatrical artistes. The Office received a certain number of replies, and in January 1929 sent a report to the Secretariat of the League.

The Office was also represented at the fourth session of the Child Welfare Committee (Geneva, 19-24 March 1928), to which the Office submitted reports on the utilisation of workers' spare time and on family allowances in their relation to child welfare.

As regards the problem of the employment of children in cinema studios, on which some discussion also took place, the Committee recognised that this was a matter primarily for the International Labour Organisation.

44. Communications and transit. — The questions on which the Office has collaborated with the Communications and Transit Organisation have been those referring to the safety of life at sea, the fixing of the penalties applicable for offences against proper seamanship committed on the high seas, the improvement of the health conditions of seamen and particularly the establishment of uniform working conditions on important international waterways.

In 1928 the Conference was informed of the work undertaken by the Office at the request of the Private Law Committee appointed by the Committee on Inland Navigation of the Transit Organisation.

The information collected by the Office enabled it to submit to the Private Law Committee at its session in June 1928 a review of the conditions of engagement and of work for inland watermen in the chief countries in Europe. The Committee expressed the wish that these researches should be continued, particularly with a view to obtaining more definite information on certain points, and to establishing to what extent it might be possible to arrive at a uniform system of regulations for the engagement and employment of inland watermen in Europe. At the same time, it indicated that it would be desirable to invite the reporters of the Committee to any meetings of experts which the Office would probably have to convene.

The Office, in agreement with the reporters of the Committee and with the Secretariat of the Communications and Transit Organisation, has endeavoured to carry out these views or indications of the Private Law Committee. Certain discussions have taken place with a view to the Office convening a meeting of a number of experts who would include representatives of employers and workers in inland navigation in the countries concerned, and possibly certain officials from the competent administrative departments. The technical assistance of these experts would be required in order to select, on the basis of the information at present collected, the questions which could be made the object of international agreements, to indicate in each case whether it seems possible to arrive at a uniform system for the whole of Europe or only for certain countries or certain international rivers, and to prepare basic rules on such matters as might seem capable of being uniformly regulated.

The action taken or planned by the Office was approved by the Private Law Committee at its session in March of this year.

45. Unemployment. — The Mixed Committee on Economic Crises did not meet
in 1928. The Office intends to have a meeting convened in 1929, to which it will submit a report on the organisation of public works in connection with unem­ployment; this report is at present being drawn up on the basis of information provided by various Governments.

46. Mandates. — The representative of the International Labour Organisation attended the two sessions of the Permanent Mandates Commission which were held during 1928.

At the session held in June, the Commission examined the annual reports made by the Mandatory Powers in respect of the mandated territories of Palestine, Syria and the Lebanon, French Cameroons, French Togoland, Tanganyika, New Guinea and Nauru. The reports on the territories of British Cameroons, British Togoland, Iraq, the Pacific Islands under Japanese Mandate, Ruanda-Urundi, Western Samoa and South-West Africa were scrutinised at the session held in October-November 1928.

The Commission discussed various labour questions arising in these territories, and the representative of the Organisation in a number of instances emphasised the need for improved standards in the conditions of the workers. He particularly drew the attention of the Commission to the question of forced labour.

47. Disarmament. — It will be remembered that the League of Nations some time ago appointed a Joint Commission to address the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference on the economic aspect of the disarmament question, and that the Joint Commission includes two members of the workers' group and two members of the employers' group of the Governing Body—the latter acting in their personal capacity. There have been no new developments on this question since last year's Report.

48. Calendar reform. — Last year's Report recorded how the International Labour Office had been invited to collaborate in this work: the Secretariat of the League had requested it to communicate to the Consultative Committee on Communications and Transit any information which it might gather as to the opinion of the workers on this subject.

At its Eleventh Session the International Labour Conference decided, on the proposal of a workers' delegate, Mr. Charles Schürch, to request the Office, in accordance with the instructions of the Governing Body, to consult the trade union organisations of the various countries. The Governing Body, at its Session in Warsaw, expressed itself in favour of such a consultation, and accordingly the Office, after having reached an agreement with the Secretariat, sent a circular letter to workers' organisations in February 1929 asking for their views, taking strict account of the procedure adopted by the Secretariat of the League.

The Office emphasised, in particular, the fact that the first thing to be con­sidered was the principle of the reform, and that the question of the methods by which a new calendar could be substi­tuted for the existing system would only be discussed at a later stage if the principle were approved. In taking this step the Office considers that it has done what was required of it in the cir­cumstances to support the efforts of the Secretariat for bringing about a reform which requires patient education of public opinion.

49.— Some very satisfactory general con­clusions may be drawn from these brief notes. The collaboration between the institutions in Geneva is becoming more regular and smoother every year. At times the Office has complained of not receiving immediate information concern­ing decisions or actions which might affect it. Now, however, information is spontaneously and rapidly communi­cated by the Secretariat in every case. The hope was expressed in last year's Report, as a result of the confusion which had arisen with regard to the organisation of the Economic Conference and the Consultative Economic Committee, that the constitutional position of each of the different organisations in Geneva and their competence might be more closely defined, and that there might be a clearer distribution of work between them. Now that the various technical organisations of the League are consolid­ated and completed, the Office's relations with them may be said to have been legally defined, and there should now be no friction in its co-operation with them.

The Consultative Economic Committee, and even the Health Organisation (des­pite the fact that the Office has had to find certain definite formulae to regulate its co-operation with that Organisation), have both recognised, in the course of their investigations, that there are certain clearly defined lines at which the sphere of their competence ends and the com­petence of the International Labour Organ­isation begins.

The Office has been genuinely happy to place its information and the benefit of its relations, more especially with the workers, at the disposal of the institu­tions of the League. The services which it has been able to render to the League as a whole on these lines can be clearly seen from the preceding paragraphs.

There is only one regret, a regret for which the Secretariat cannot be held responsible — that the Office has not the same resources at its command as the Secretariat. It not infrequently happens, when the Secretariat invites
the Office to share in an enquiry or to institute a joint meeting of experts, that it is unable to do so on account of its lack of funds. A member of the Governing Body said one day that the League of Nations was a diplomatic institution, whereas the International Labour Organisation was a democratic institution. But surely this does not mean that democratic institutions should be kept short of funds, live on their savings, in fact be treated as poor relations.

Conclusion

50. — It is impossible to conclude this annual survey of the working of the Organisation during the past year without feeling a certain optimism. Year by year efforts have been made to build up the administrative machinery of the Organisation. As was pointed out in last year's Report, there was still room for certain adjustments, particularly in the relations between the Office and neighbouring institutions. It may now be said that the Organisation has, so to speak, reached that stage of smooth, easy running which is a common phenomenon with good motor-cars after they have done a few thousand miles. The engine is "run in". The Conference and its groups are now working according to rules which are no longer discussed, but which are frankly accepted and easily applied. The Governing Body has clearly classified and distributed the work of its Committees. The development of the technical bodies of the League has of itself made possible a clearer division of the international work which has to be done. Even the relations between the Office and the States which are not Members of the League have now attained some sort of regularity.

This does not mean, however, that there are not still a number of serious problems which require attention. It may be that the dangers which are necessarily involved in the examination every ten years of the Conventions in force, and in the possibility of their modification or revision, have not been completely removed by the rules of procedure which have recently been considered. It is also possible that the difficulties created by the differences in the internal organisation of the staff of the League of Nations and of the Office are not yet settled. Moreover, unless care is exercised, the important constitutional problem of the budgetary rights of the Assembly of the League and the rights of the Governing Body of the Office may still, as was the case last year, give rise to discussions of a more or less political nature which may be harmful to the maintenance of good and friendly relations between the different organisations which are working in the cause of peace. But at least the Office can enter into the discussion of these problems with the sure knowledge that it can point, in its own support, to precedents which have been established by nine years' experience. In any case, these fresh difficulties are surely a proof of the vitality of the Organisation, and some of the attacks which have been made on the Office should be regarded as a tribute to the progress it has achieved and the authoritative position which it has won.
CHAPTER II

INTERNATIONAL INFORMATION

51. — In the passage of Chapter I which was devoted to the United States of America, reference was made to the study published on the work of the Organisation by the National Industrial Conference Board. Mr. Magnus Alexander has been so free, and sometimes perhaps so critical, in his judgments, that it is no small satisfaction to the Office to refer again at the beginning of this Chapter to his appreciation of its scientific work.

Mr. Alexander states that the creation of the International Labour Office has provided an agency for the centralisation of information concerning all phases of the labour problem. Prior to its organisation there was no medium through which interested persons and organisations could keep in close touch with the development of labour legislation, and the changes in the broader field of employment relationships. The special investigations of the Office have assembled information which would not otherwise be available. As a fact-finding and research agency the International Labour Office has functioned as satisfactorily as the breadth of its field of investigation in comparison with its resources permits.

In reviewing the results of its studies and research work during 1928 the Office will keep this judgment in mind, not so much in any feeling of pride but as a standard by which it can measure its obligations and criticise its own shortcomings.

Centralisation of Information

52. Library. — The number of volumes received in the Library is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Volumes</th>
<th>Brochures</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>7,477</td>
<td>7,086</td>
<td>15,463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>8,154</td>
<td>8,589</td>
<td>16,743</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of works received in twelve months has thus increased by 5,743 or 29.25 per cent.

In 1928 the Library had received 10,228 works. The figure given above for 1928 therefore represents an increase of 192 per cent. in a period of five years: in other words, the number of works has practically trebled during this period.

As in previous years, a large number of works have been received either in exchange for the publications of the Office or as presentations. For instance, the publications formerly in the library of the Swiss Trade Union Federation, which had first been given to the Central Library of Zurich, have since been presented to the International Labour Office, in agreement with the Trade Union Federation. This donation comprises about 1,000 books, brochures, collections and periodicals relating to the trade union movement, labour regulations and factory inspection, and official reports and statistics for various countries. The Office wishes to take this opportunity to express its thanks to all those who have helped it in this way.

The number of external readers authorised to work in the Office Library increased during the past year. In all 249 persons from outside the Office worked in the Library. This figure includes 66 Swiss, 40 Germans, 33 Americans, 15 Poles, 14 French, and 13 British. It also includes 91 students, 30 of whom came to the Office Library in order to prepare their theses, and 53 teachers, comprising 27 teachers in higher grade establishments.

As in 1927, great efforts were made to hasten the work of binding, and books have been bound to the extent of 24,000 francs. It has been decided that, with a view to economy, tenders will be invited for all binding work as from the present year.

The first supplement to the Bibliography of the International Labour Organisation, which appeared in 1927, has been published. In future a supplement will appear each year about the time when the Conference meets.

The question of the relations of the Library of the International Labour Office with the future Rockefeller Library is still being discussed between the Office and the Secretariat of the League.

53. Documents Service. — It was not possible in 1928 to make the changes

1 Cf. ante, p. 10.
which would be desirable for improving the working of the Documents Service, and there is therefore little of fresh interest to report. The system of press cuttings is still applied only to the principal countries. The number of press cuttings for the year, however, reached the imposing figure of 45,000.

As regards the material work in connection with periodicals, the figures noted each year continue to increase: 3,409 newspapers and periodicals were received in 1928, as compared with 3,075 in 1927 and 1,571 in 1924. 220,300 numbers of periodicals or newspapers were registered in 1928, and 1,120 complete collections for binding were transferred to the Library during the same year. The preparation of a systematic catalogue of periodicals is being continued, and it is hoped that it will be finished this year. It will illustrate the extent and variety of the sources of information at the disposal of the Office, which are drawn from 136 different countries, including colonies, and are in 30 different languages.

54. — The list of cinematograph films dealing with labour questions is steadily increasing in length. Thanks to the catalogues received from the large producing companies, as well as to the information which comes from welfare associations and other organisations, the list now contains information on 1,400 films.

A card measuring 15 by 10 cm. is prepared for each film, and contains the following details: exact title of the film; country in which it was produced; length; date of production; name and address of producer; names of owners of author's rights and right of reproduction, technical manager, author of the scenario, and other experts, and booking agents. Space is also provided for less important information, as well as for a fairly complete summary of the film, and its classification number under the decimal system.

In this matter of labour films it is intended, as has been stated in an earlier paragraph, to keep closely in touch with the International Educational Cinematographic Institute which has been established at Rome, and the rules of which provide for the collaboration of the Office.

Preparation of Information

55. — The scientific study and research work carried out by the Office has had to be increased more than in previous years in order to keep pace with the steadily growing confidence shown in this work and the increasing number of requests for information received from Governments or private institutions.

It was noted last year that more than half of the articles, whether anonymous or signed, which had appeared in the International Labour Review, apart from studies and reports for which the Office is entirely responsible, had been written in the Office, as the result of combined work by different officials interested in the respective questions, or under the signature of one of the officials as the responsible author. During 1928, 48 articles were published in the Review, of which 41 emanated from the Office itself.

The variety of the studies and research carried out in the Office can be seen by a mere glance at the list of articles and the table of their contents. Every year, it may be said, this variety grows. This is also shown by the list of studies published by the Office. In addition to important works, a reference list of association, sickness insurance, etc., which considerable as they are, may now be regarded as the everyday stock-in-trade of the Office, studies have been issued which open new ground in their subject-matter and sometimes also in their form. This is the case, for instance, with the report on hours of work and wages in coal mines for the year 1925, which has elicited great praise and some criticism, of which advantage will be taken in the future. The widespread attention which this Report has received encourages the Office to carry its study of working conditions into other important industries. The case is the same with the study on the conditions of work of journalists, which was addressed to a particularly difficult public, and which, it may be said with some satisfaction, has received practically nothing but praise. Mention may also be made of the three important volumes, Migration Laws and Treaties, the last of which has just left the press, and the publication of the first volume on social legislation in South America.

56. — The Office's collection of typical collective agreements in the principal industrial countries grew appreciably during the past twelve months. The importance of this collection, which was started a considerable time ago, is more and more evident, both for the purposes of scientific research and for replying to requests for information. The Office now possesses very complete documentary information relating to different countries, particularly Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, and the Netherlands.

It is true that the data for these different countries have not the same value. Moreover, the Office's documentation cannot be brought up to date to the same extent for every country. The collection of German agreements, however, which has always been abundant, now furnishes what is practically a complete picture of the collective regulation of conditions
of work in that country. In the case of France, Great Britain and Italy, the collection has been appreciably improved during the last twelve months. In the case of Italy the work of the Office has been greatly facilitated by the fact that it is compulsory to publish collective agreements in that country.

The idea of publishing these agreements periodically has had to be relinquished. This would have entailed considerable expense and would have been of limited interest only, as the agreements in question become quickly out of date.

57. International Dictionary of Labour Law. — In last year's Report the preparation of a Dictionary containing the translation in several languages of all the more usual expressions found in labour legislation was considered. Owing to various urgent work, however, it has unfortunately not been possible to go so far in this matter as had been hoped. After this year it will prove the less be made to collect gradually the necessary material for such a Dictionary, so far as it is possible to do so.

58. — The Office has continued to devote particular attention to the improvement and development of statistics. The principles for compiling certain classes of labour statistics on uniform bases, which were laid down and recommended by the three International Conferences of Labour Statisticians, are gradually being applied, and the Office has lost no opportunity of drawing the attention of the Governments to these recommendations and urging their adoption. Progress is certainly slow. The resolutions of the Conferences have nevertheless been frequently of service in widening the scope and improving the comparability of labour statistics. A further step forward was made in 1928, by the International Conference on Economic Statistics. This Conference met under the auspices of the League of Nations, but the Office kept in close contact with it. A representative of the Office sat on the preparatory committee for preparing the agenda of the Conference, and the Office as such was invited to take part in the Conference itself. The Conference differed from the Conferences of Labour Statisticians convened by the Office, in that it was a diplomatic conference for preparing an international Convention to be submitted to the Governments for ratification. The scope of the Convention was limited to certain categories of economic statistics. It deals in particular with certain matters which are of common interest to economic statistics and labour statistics, e.g. statistics of occupations and industries and statistics of the cost of living. Resolutions on methods of compiling these statistics had already been adopted by the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians, and specific reference was made to these in the Final Act attached to the Convention. The Conference also appointed a Committee of experts to collaborate with the Office in any future work on these questions.

It is as yet too early to try to measure the progress made by this diplomatic conference in the question of economic statistics. The Convention has, nevertheless, been already signed by twenty-five States, and the Office will follow with interest this new experiment in the field of international action, in view of the possibility of applying it to labour statistics.

The study of industrial accident statistics was continued during the past year. The reports on accidents in mines and railways are finished, and will be issued this year, and several articles on methodological questions in connection with accident statistics have been published in the Review.

No change has been made in the methods employed for making international comparisons of real wages in different localities, though the resulting figures have continued to arouse much interest and some criticism. It is hoped, however, in the course of the year to study in collaboration with experts of the national statistical departments how the scope of this enquiry might be extended.

59. — The results of the enquiry into conditions of work in coal mines in 1925 were published in 1928. The importance of the information collected and the interest taken in its publication have been considered sufficient to justify the continuation and extension of the enquiry. A request to this effect was made by the Belgian Government, but the Governing Body thought that before a decision was taken the opinion of its Committee on conditions of work in coal mines should be taken.

Before that Committee could be convened, however, the Economic Committee of the League of Nations appointed to study the coal problem as a whole held a meeting (25-28 June). This Committee asked the Economic Section of the Secretariat of the League and the International Labour Office to bring up to date for 1927 their statistical documents on questions within their competence, and to communicate the revised documents to the Committee in time for its October meeting. In these circumstances, tables on hours of work and wages in coal mines, to be filled in for 1927, were at once forwarded to the Governments. As, however, the Mines Committee had not been consulted, no changes were made in the methods adopted for 1925.
The Committee on conditions of work in coal mines met in September, and considered the three following questions: the continuation of the enquiry, the extension of the enquiry to other subjects, and various matters affecting work in coal mines.

As regards wages and hours of work, the Committee adopted, and the Governing Body approved, a proposal to continue the enquiry on the lines followed for 1925. It also requested the Office to prepare a statement on existing regulations, whether statutory or contained in collective agreement, on paid annual holidays. Provisional reports on wages and hours of work in 1927 were laid before the Economic Committee of the League when it met in October 1928 and before the sub-committee of experts of that Committee in January and February 1929. The Office is at present engaged in collecting the replies of the various Governments, and expects to be able to publish during the present year a report on conditions of work in coal mines in 1927.

Lastly, in view of the work the Office had carried out on its request, the Congress of the International Miners' Federation (Nimes, June 1928) passed two resolutions, one of which requested the Office and the Economic Organisation of the League to convene a World Conference of coal-producing countries, in which the delegates of the International Miners' Committee would take part on the same footing as other delegates and have an opportunity to explain the miners' policy on the whole problem. The other resolution requested the Governing Body of the Office to convene a special conference of coal-producing countries to study the question of the unification of hours of work in coal mines on the basis of a seven-hour day for underground workers, including descent and ascent.

The former resolution has been taken into consideration by the Economic Committee of the League, which, as stated above, has undertaken the study of the coal problem. The second resolution and the action which might be taken thereon are at present being considered by the Office.

**Distribution of Information**

60. — Requests for information, the increase in which has been mentioned each year, were more numerous than ever during 1928. They amounted to more than 1,000 (as against 920 in 1927 and 800 in 1926) without counting those received and replied to directly by the national correspondents of the Office, which are also steadily increasing.

The usual table given below shows the requests for information classified according to subject and the sources from which they were received.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECTS</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conditions of work, hours, wages, profit-sharing, participation in management, arbitration and conciliation, labour disputes and decisions, collective agreements, industrial relations</td>
<td>28 19 61 110 218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various enquiries, addresses, bibliographies, statistics, economic situation, production, consumption, taxes, cost of production, tips</td>
<td>11 9 28 105 133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social insurance, disabled men</td>
<td>20 7 13 86 126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hygiene and safety</td>
<td>14 11 12 59 96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Labour Office, Conferences, ratifications, interpretation of Conventions</td>
<td>9 2 4 69 84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family budgets, cost of living, housing</td>
<td>7 2 5 37 51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-operation, workers working on their own account</td>
<td>5 3 52 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship, vocational guidance, workers' education</td>
<td>8 — 1 33 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour legislation</td>
<td>3 3 6 23 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment and unemployment</td>
<td>9 — 6 18 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combinations of employers and workers</td>
<td>2 — 6 24 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>9 2 1 18 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers' spare time and holidays</td>
<td>4 2 6 17 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native workers</td>
<td>1 — — 18 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual (Professional) workers</td>
<td>3 — 9 5 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maritime work</td>
<td>6 1 2 8 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migration</td>
<td>5 — 1 6 12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of these requests were received from France (165), Germany (133), Great Britain (106), and Italy (72). Many of them even came from countries which are not Members of the International Labour Organisation: United States (60), Union of Socialist Soviet Republics (15).

As usual, these figures are only given in order to indicate the frequency with which certain subjects are raised and the way in which the work of the Office is developing. A few examples of the requests replied to in 1928 will illustrate the extent and variety of the work done in these matters:

- Information on the wages of agricultural workers in Belgium, Czechoslovakia and the Sber-Croat-Slovene-Kingdom (requested by the British Ministry of Labour);
- Information on employment offices managed by workers' organisations in the principal European

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1 Cf. footnote ante, p. 28.
countries (Japanese Government Delegation to the Governing Body of the Office); Statistics on accidents to workers employed on board vessels on the Rhine (Central Commission for Rhine Navigation); Information on retail prices in private trade compared with co-operative societies (Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry, Netherlands); Information on the contracts of salaried employees of private undertakings in various countries (Division of Commerce, Industry and Labour, Luxembourg); Report on the practical administration of social insurance institutions in Germany, Great Britain and Czechoslovakia (French Ministry of Labour); Information on maternity allowances in various countries (Swedish Government); Information on measures for the suppression of industrial noises, etc. (People's Labour Commiss­tries (Division of Commerce, Industry and Labour, Luxembourg); Information on methods of cost-of-living enquiries (Foreign Ministry, Turkey); Information on workers' educational institutions in various countries (French General Labour Federation); Information on wages of salaried employees in commercial and private undertakings in various countries (Italian Ministry of Corporations); Information on strike funds of British industries (German Employers' Federation); Information on miners' pensions and social insurance in Great Britain and the United States (Independent Trade Union Federation, Alsace-Lorraine); Report on the work and development of economic councils in different countries (Trades and Labour Congress, Canada).

The difficulties mentioned in last year's Report as being due to the distrust of certain employers, in the case of information of possible interest to competitors, have scarcely been noticed. With one or two exceptions they have not reappeared at all during 1928. It is hoped they will gradually vanish as the spirit of sincerity and of reciprocal information develops and experience shows the representatives of the various interests concerned that confidence in the impartiality of the Office is justified.

Publications

61. — There was no falling off during 1928 in the dissemination of information on industrial and social problems and developments in the form of printed publications. Occasionally the criticism is heard that the Office publishes more than any busy individual—whether a member or official of a Government, a business man, a trade unionist, or a student of economic and labour affairs—can give the time to read and assimilate. It would not be difficult to demonstrate that this contention is somewhat exaggerated. The essential fact, however, is that while each of the publications may not be of equal interest or value to any Department of a Government, or employer or worker, each of them responds to a definite need and fulfils a definite purpose, and together they constitute a source of information such as it is the duty of the Office to provide.

The general scheme of publications underwent no material change in the past year. It was found, however, in examining the programme for 1929, that one change would be advisable as from the end of 1928. The alteration consisted in the suspension of the issue of the Monthly Record of Migration as a separate periodical, and the absorption of the statistical and other material which it contained in the general periodical publications of the Office, the monthly International Labour Review and the weekly Industrial and Labour Information. This step, for the taking of which all the necessary arrangements had been made before the end of 1928, and which represents a reversion to the practice followed prior to 1926, was dictated by several considerations. It will meet the criticism of those who follow social questions as a whole through the pages of the general periodicals of the Office, that they did not contain sufficient information concerning migration, the bearing of which on other labour problems—unemployment and social insurance, for example—is obvious. At the same time, it will set free funds for the launching of a new publication devoted to the special problems of Native Labour. The decision to publish this new periodical, which will make its first appearance as a quarterly publication during the Twelfth Session of the Conference, was taken by the Governing Body on the recommendation of the Advisory Committee on Native Labour at its meeting in Geneva, July 1927.

62. Legislative Series. — During 1928 the Office issued the remaining parts of Volume VI (1925) — Part 2, consisting of 921 pages and containing the texts of laws and regulations promulgated in thirty-eight countries, and Part 3, consisting of 146 pages and containing the chronological and subject indexes to the Volume—and also Part 1 of Volume VII (1926), comprising 747 pages. In addition, there were published a considerable number of brochures containing the texts of laws and regulations promulgated in 1927 or 1928 and having an immediate topical interest.

The steady increase in legislative activity in regard to social questions, together with the necessarily restricted dimensions of the Legislative Series, year by year renders it more and more difficult to select the texts for publication. Legislation relating to social insurance, for example, is continually being given in different countries, and the volume of new and amending statutes and regulations on that subject alone constitutes a serious problem for the Section responsible
for the production of the Series. An effort has been made to counterbalance in some degree the compression which it has been necessary to make in the texts themselves by making the chronological index more full and comprehensive. A substantial saving has been effected by modifying the subject index in such a way that the three editions (English, French and German) can be prepared simultaneously. By this and similar devices the Office is constantly endeavouring to keep the publication within reasonable limits without detracting from its completeness and authenticity. It may be mentioned here that the Office has been gratified to observe that the translations of laws given in the Legislative Series are frequently reproduced in official and other publications in various countries.

63. Special publications. — (a) International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law. — The third annual volume of this publication contains the principal decisions given in 1927. There has been no departure, either as to form of presentation or as to choice of decisions for inclusion, from the main lines followed in the compilation of the two preceding volumes.

It has been possible for the first time to add the United States to the list of countries hitherto covered (England, France, Germany and Italy). Though the United States section is not so extensive as that devoted to the other four countries, it comprises a number of decisions which are of peculiar interest, having regard to the fact that they bring out clearly the differences between European and American jurisprudence. Moreover, this part of the volume is prefaced by an introductory note from the pen of Mr. Lindley D. Clark, formerly expert adviser to the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics, who has served as concise and clear introduction to those readers who are not familiar with American legal practice. The Office is confident that this extension of the Survey will be welcomed.

The favourable reception given to this publication by specialists in jurisprudence may be attributed in large measure to the valuable aid afforded to the Office by the experts who regularly collaborate in its compilation: Professors Gutteridge, Hoeniger, Lambert, and Rossi—and by the Washington Correspondent of the Office. This reception has encouraged the Office to contemplate the inclusion in the next volume of a section devoted to Spain, a country in which labour law is at present making striking progress.

(b) Encyclopaedia of Industrial Hygiene. — Further progress was made in 1928 with the publication of the brochure edition of this work. Owing to the highly technical nature of its contents, exceptional care has to be taken in the preparation, revision and translation of each article, and at every stage the service of the Office responsible for this large Encyclopaedia is in contact with the Correspondence Committee of Experts on Industrial Hygiene. Up to the end of 1928, 133 brochures had been issued in English and 108 in French. The completion of the work is now in sight. The first of the two volumes will be issued in 1929, and every effort will be made to issue the second and concluding volume in the course of next year. The whole will constitute a reference work of at least 2,200 pages.

Very favourable comments continue to be made on the Encyclopaedia in the technical and medical press of the different countries. Here and there, no doubt, there has been keen criticism, but the number of articles attacked remains extremely small, and, while it is possible that the drafting of certain passages may have left something to be desired, the Office is nevertheless satisfied that in most cases it has been possible to show that the statements made were founded on sources which only the desire to preserve the character of the publication and to keep notes and references down to a minimum had prevented from being quoted.

64. Studies and Reports. — The following Studies and Reports were published in 1928:

Series A. Industrial Organisation:

Series B. Economic Conditions:
No. 17. Scientific Management in Europe. German edition (289 pp.).

Series D. Wages and Hours of Work:
No. 18. Wages and Hours of Work in the Coal-Mining Industry. French (315 pp.), English (298 pp.) and German (319 pp.) editions.

Series K. Agriculture:
No. 8. The Representation and Organisation of Agricultural Workers. French (292 pp.) and English (210 pp.) editions. (German edition in preparation.)

Series L. Professional (Intellectual) Workers:

Series M. Insurance:

Series N. Statistics:
Series O. Migration:

The above list shows that there were published during 1928 eight volumes of Studies and Reports in French, containing a total of 2,800 pages, nine volumes in English, containing 2,791 pages, and six volumes in German, containing 1,887 pages (or, including Series M., No.8, seven volumes, containing 2,089 pages). As compared with the preceding year, the output is approximately the same for French and English editions, but is appreciably greater for German editions (1,518 pages in 1927).

This comparison tends to suggest that the production of Studies and Reports has reached the maximum level attainable with the financial and other resources available, and may be regarded as "stabilised" at that point. As has previously been pointed out, the scientific studies which are printed and published in this series by no means comprise the whole of the results of the research work carried out by the technical services of the Office. Year by year it is necessary to make a selection from among the many problems to which the Research Division is devoting its attention, and to decide which of them shall form the subject of Studies and Reports. The choice is governed by several considerations, including the permanent value or topical importance of the work and the maturity and completeness of the investigation; but the scope of selection is limited by the material means at the disposal of the Office, which, it may be stated, are becoming more and more inadequate for the capacities of the Office in proportion as its staff is becoming more highly trained and better informed.

65. Publications in languages other than French or English. — The Office has endeavoured during 1928 to respond in even larger measure than before to the insistent demand for the issue of its publications in languages other than French and English.

(a) German. — As already stated, six Studies and Reports were issued in German in 1928, making a total of roughly 1,900 printed pages, or nearly 25 per cent. more than in the previous year. It may be of interest to note that since the beginning of 1922 the Office has issued German editions of no fewer than twenty-nine volumes of Studies and Reports, at a cost for printing of about 100,000 Swiss francs. German editions of the principal Conference documents, and of certain periodical publications such as the Legislative Series, the International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law, and the Industrial Safety Survey were published as usual during the year, while the monthly Internationale Rundschau der Arbeit, issued by the Berlin Correspondent, increased its wide circulation.

(b) Italian. — In addition to continuing the publication by the Rome Correspondent of the monthly Informazioni sociali, including supplements containing summaries of the chief Studies and Reports, it has been found possible to produce an Italian edition of the texts of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the first eleven Sessions of the Conference. The Office is indebted to the Italian Government for valuable help in connection with the translation of these texts.

(c) Spanish. — Reference was made in last year's Report to the contract concluded with a Spanish firm for the publication in Spanish of at least six Studies and Reports each year. During 1928 the publisher (Mr. Manuel Aguilar, of Madrid) issued the following volumes:

Scientific Management in Europe.
The Trade Union Movement in Soviet Russia.
Works Councils in Germany.
Industrial Relations in the United States.
Wages and Hours of Work in the Coal-Mining Industry.

Under the terms of the contract, the only charge falling on the Office for the production of these six works in Spanish was a part of the cost of translation.

In addition to the publication, for the first time, of the Director's Report in Spanish, and the continuance of the issue of a Spanish summary of the provisional record of the Conference and of the monthly Informaciones sociales, the Office proceeded during 1928 with the work of compiling a compendium of labour legislation in Latin America. The first volume of this work appeared at about the same time as the last Report of the Director, and included the labour legislation of Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil and Chile. The second volume, which will cover most of the remaining countries of Latin America, is well advanced and will probably be issued before the opening of the Twelfth Session of the Conference.

From the above brief notes it will be observed that, by direct or indirect means, the proportion of the publications of the Office made available in languages other than the official languages prescribed by the Treaties of Peace was greater in 1928 than in 1927. In this matter, however, as in the case of the output of publications generally, it must be recognised that the Office has approached, if it has not actually attained,
the limit of what is possible with its present resources in funds and personnel.

66. Distribution and Sales. — The main aspects of this part of the publications activity of the Office have already been described in previous Reports, and need not be reviewed again. Reference will only be made, therefore, to one or two new developments.

The free lists have been subjected to a periodical revision, and the number of private individuals and institutions receiving one or more of the Office's publications free of charge has been severely curtailed. It is gratifying to record that in some cases the persons or institutions whose names had to be struck out of the free list have subscribed to the Office's publications. The Office is obliged, therefore, to secure from recipients of a free distribution of publications the reimbursement of the cost of postage. After careful consideration of the suggestion, it was decided by the Office that, within certain obvious limits, the idea was practicable. The necessary measures were therefore taken to put the scheme into practice as from the beginning of 1929, provided that the Secretariat of the League found it possible to take a similar course. Near the close of the year, the Secretariat decided on a scheme virtually identical with that adopted by the Office, and accordingly, with the approval of the Supervisory Commission, the plan was brought into operation in January 1929.

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The following figures show the gross sales in each of the years 1923-1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Sales (SO)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1923</td>
<td>90,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>121,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>182,500</td>
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<tr>
<td>1926</td>
<td>140,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>220,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>241,700</td>
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</tbody>
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Two new departures were decided upon in 1928, for execution in 1929. In the first place, in order to satisfy demands made in English and German-speaking countries, it was decided to bind, for sales purposes only, a limited part of the English and German editions of certain publications, including the Grey Report on Forced Labour and several Studies and Reports in the 1929 programme. A small vote for this purpose was included in the general estimates for printing for 1929, but was counterbalanced by a corresponding increase in the estimated receipts from sales. This experiment, by which it is intended to ascertain how far sales may be stimulated by catering for the taste of German and English-speaking book-buyers (who prefer cloth-bound works to paper-bound), will be conducted with every care, and the results will be closely watched by the responsible services.

In the second place, the Office has had under consideration a recommendation addressed jointly to the Secretariat of the League of Nations and to the Office by the Supervisory Commission, to the effect that an attempt should be made to secure from recipients of a free distribution of publications the reimbursement of the cost of postage. After careful consideration of the suggestion, it was decided by the Office that, within certain obvious limits, the idea was practicable. The necessary measures were therefore taken to put the scheme into practice as from the beginning of 1929, provided that the Secretariat of the League found it possible to take a similar course. Near the close of the year, the Secretariat decided on a scheme virtually identical with that adopted by the Office, and accordingly, with the approval of the Supervisory Commission, the plan was brought into operation in January 1929.

Conclusion

67. — It is hardly possible to conclude this review of the work of the Office in the dissemination of international information without a feeling of satisfaction, not unmingled with pride. Members of the staff are repeatedly drawing the Director's attention to the way in which this work is publicly praised by men of science or in authoritative publications. At the same time, there is some criticism, and it is really this which should receive attention.

Could not the standard of scientific accuracy of the Office's publications be raised still further? Is there not room for more skillful and intelligent presentation? Should not some of the methods of compiling international statistics, particularly for the comparison of real wages, be improved? Would not some of the publications gain by being more concise? Would it not be possible in some cases to carry the critical analysis of documents a stage further, and to pursue enquiries far enough to reach some conclusion which might serve as a guide to men of action and suggest solutions for their help? Such questions as these have suggested themselves to the mind of the Director from time to time during the past year in the light of certain correspondence which has been received or articles which merit consideration.

The scientific information of the Office will, of course, only be really valuable if care is constantly taken to improve and increase it, so as to meet the needs which are being more clearly felt every
day. But this is largely a matter of funds, and in this matter, it must be repeated, however tedious the complaint may be, the Office is at present inadequately supplied. With more adequate funds, the Library, which it had been hoped might become the great international study centre for all the developments and all the phases of modern social movements, need not still be far inferior to many national institutions; the Documents Service would not be reduced, as at present it sometimes is, to discontinuing work it has started for taking cuttings from important publications; the compilation of international labour statistics might not still be in an embryonic stage; and, above all, the Office would not find it so impossible to publish the results of enquiries, however great the interest, which are the outcome of its technical research, or to comply with the requests of countries whose language is not one of the official languages, but which nevertheless desire to have direct access to the knowledge the Office has acquired. It is impossible sometimes not to feel some slight envy of the Office's sister institutions with the magnificent help they are authorised to accept from outside, and not to wish that some day the situation of the Office will attract the attention of some powerful benefactor. But, after all, would it not be better were the States Members to respond to the appeal of enlightened opinion by furnishing the few thousand francs that would make so much difference?
CHAPTER III

RELATIONS

68. — Notwithstanding what was said at the beginning of the corresponding chapter of last year's Report, it is apparently still necessary to defend the publicity work which the Office carries out every year in order to make the aims and achievements of the International Labour Organisation better known. Certain persons whose opinion carries weight — in some cases, indeed, members of the Governing Body — maintain that the Organisation should rely entirely for publicity on its definite achievements, its scientific work, and its success in obtaining the enforcement of Conventions. Expenditure on travelling by members of the staff other than the Director or the Deputy Director, on sending representatives to congresses and on publicity leaflets, is, in their view, a waste of money.

It is of course obvious that insincere publicity or mere bluff not justified by sound scientific work or genuine reforms would be unworthy of an institution such as the Office. Experience has, however, shown that in international affairs particularly work of real value often hides its light under a bushel. It has become quite clear in the last ten years that, though desires are expressed in many countries that the Office should pay increased attention to publicity, the outside assistance which is given spontaneously is rare and intermittent, and in the last resort the Office is expected to do its own publicity work. The Office is not alone in this respect. International life is not a spontaneous growth, and one of the most important duties of the international institutions of Geneva is to work incessantly to create it.

The Office would appeal to all those who are not yet convinced to read the present chapter with care. It will at any rate enable them to realise exactly what the position is.

As usual, the present chapter first gives an account of the action taken by the Office and the means employed by it for publicity purposes. There then follows a brief review of the various social movements and new or traditional forces which, either consciously or by the natural trend of circumstances, have been led to ask for or to accept its collaboration.

As regards the various means used by the Office for obtaining publicity, there are, first of all, the visits paid by the Governing Body, the Director and members of the staff to different countries. In 1928 the Governing Body visited Warsaw for its Session in October, and thus gave all sections of opinion in Poland an opportunity of re-affirming their interest in the Office. The Director has also visited a number of countries. He made visits to Italy and Spain, and later at the beginning of November took a long journey in the course of which he went to Russia, China, Japan, Indo-China and the Dutch East Indies. This gave him an opportunity of getting into touch with the Government of a country such as China which, during the last ten years, has taken little more than a formal part in the work of the Organisation, and of entering into direct relations with administrations or organisations such as those of Japan, whose delegates have constantly taken an active share in the work of the International Labour Conference. He was also able to acquaint himself with the new problems of the protection of the workers in colonial countries. Probably none of the Director's journeys has been of greater utility. A Japanese proverb says that one meeting is worth more than ten thousand letters. Besides, the arrival of the representative of the Office at a station in the midst of a crowd in which widely different sections of opinion are represented, interviews, stormy meetings, Parliamentary receptions, can do more to stimulate interest in the general public than the most carefully drafted communiqués. It may also be noted with satisfaction that journeys undertaken for purposes of research such as that of Mr. Grimshaw, Chief of the Native Labour Section, or the visits of members of the staff to their own countries either on holiday or on mission, create valuable contacts and have an excellent effect for publicity purposes.

The Director has sometimes been criticised for sending on mission members of the staff other than those holding high posts. As a matter of fact, however, some of the younger members of the staff have been particularly successful in this work. All that is needed is that the
person sent on mission should be judiciously selected.

There is little to say concerning the relations of the Office with the press. Journalists continue to adopt a sympathetic attitude to the Organisation. They have not forgotten the efforts which it has made since the enquiry undertaken last year to improve their position as workers. The newspapers continue to publish communiqués and articles supplied from the Office. There are still, however, two difficulties. In the first place, the daily work of the Office is not of a sensational character. It is very seldom that Ministers of Labour attend Sessions of the Governing Body. In the second place, the modern press expects to be given all possible facilities and indeed to be treated with every care and attention. As has already been said in previous Reports, the Office has not the staff or credits necessary to maintain relations with the press on the same lines as the Secretariat. It appears really important that something further should be done in this respect.

Two events deserve special mention. In the first place, the International Federation of the Technical Press held its Fourth Congress at Geneva from 27 to 31 August. This enabled the Office to enter into closer relations with this section of the press. The information and research work of the Office is probably of greater interest to the technical and trade press than to the great daily papers, and there is scope for collaboration to the mutual advantage of both sides. The Office requires to be fully conversant with technical progress in order to help it in promoting the protection of the workers, while, on the other hand, the technical press can receive assistance from the Office in making technicians better acquainted with the importance of the human element in industry.

In the second place, the Office, in collaboration with the League of Nations, organised an exhibit of its work at the great Press Exhibition held at Cologne. An attempt was made to show how the Office makes use of the press and how it supplies information to the newspapers.

The Office has itself done its best, with the slender resources at its disposal, to continue its written publicity work as distinguished from its regular publications. Its Monthly Summary, although still by no means adequate, meets a real need and has had some success. Its illustrated album, which is now issued in five languages, is in great demand. The series of pamphlets intended for the general public has been improved and supplemented.

The Office has in some cases asked for help from outside bodies, while in others such help has been given spontaneously.

The full bibliography which is published every year contains a list of books and articles dealing with the Office. Among the most important are those published by the World Peace Foundation and by the National Industrial Conference Board of the United States. The British League of Nations Union has added several pamphlets to its series of booklets on the work of the Organisation. The American Committee of the Geneva Institute for International Relations, with the assistance of a grant from the Margaret C. Peabody Fund, has issued three booklets entitled Summaries of Draft Conventions and Recommendations, Subject Catalogue of Publications of the International Labour Office, and Reading List of Books, Articles and Pamphlets on the Organisation and Work of the International Labour Organisation.

In addition to written publicity, the Office makes use of oral methods. Members of the staff give lectures on its work whenever the opportunity arises. Members of the Governing Body and delegates to the Conference have also given most valuable assistance in this respect during the past year.

But the most modern method of oral publicity and the one which reaches the widest public, is the wireless. An account was given in last year's Report of the Office's first attempts to make use of the wireless. The same work has been continued. General agreements have been concluded with the International Union of Broadcasting Organisations, and wireless talks have been given on the Office or on labour questions in general by the National Correspondents and by members of the staff on mission. Specially important work has been done by the Paris Office, which during the past year has, with the assistance of the Geneva Office and of certain qualified external collaborators, made arrangements for daily talks from the broadcasting station of the School of Posts, Telegraphs and Telephones at Paris. These talks have been very successful.

It cannot be denied, however, that the Office is not making nearly enough use of the wireless. A French author, Mr. Romier, has shown in a recent book that the modern inventions of wireless, television and so on will do as much to revolutionise the world as the invention of printing. He adds that "the supremacy of the strongest will clearly be the supremacy of those who are best equipped". When it may be asked, will the international institutions have their own broadcasting station? When will they even possess an organisation which will allow them to make systematic use of existing stations? The only question is whether the Office will be given the necessary credits.

In regard to visual publicity, again, the Office has, it must be admitted, been able to do very little. It has of course increased
its small collection of posters and diagrams, etc. In the matter of publicity by means of the cinema, however, practically nothing has been done. It had been hoped to obtain some improvement as the result of a contract concluded with a prominent film-producing company under which the Office, like the Secretariat of the League, gave the company the exclusive rights of cinematography in its grounds and buildings for one year. This, however, has produced no result. Students of modern life are never tired of praising the increased mobility and coherency of public opinion in the modern world, but the international institutions, whose very existence is based upon public opinion, are unable to use a means of publicity which is perhaps the greatest factor for the creation of international unity.

The Office is equally unable to contribute on a large scale to exhibitions. Labour exhibitions or labour sections in general exhibitions are becoming increasingly common, and the Office is regularly asked to occupy a stand in them. Whenever possible an endeavour is made to send at any rate a few photographs, explanatory tables and graphs. When the Director has seen crowds of visitors looking in vain for some striking information, he has sometimes felt a little ashamed of the small, though ingeniously contrived, exhibits of the Office. Yet history shows what an important part exhibitions have played in the development of industrial relations. Sometimes, like the London Exhibition in 1851, they have created a new epoch. In recent exhibitions, such as the Press Exhibition held at Cologne last year, the Soviets have created a great impression by their exhibits. The Office, however, is not discouraged. During the past year it has sent exhibits to Berlin, Berne, Helsingfors, Paris, Rome, Salonika and even Honolulu. The Governing Body has passed a small credit for exhibitions, which the Office utilized for the Special Exhibit at an Exhibition. Possibly the Office may be given further facilities some day.

Not long ago the Director had an opportunity of visiting the Reichsmuseum für Gesellschafts- und Wirtschaftskunde at Düsseldorf, and saw the special exhibit on the work of the International Labour Organisation in this fine permanent museum organised by Dr. Schlossmann and Dr. Fransen. The exhibit includes ingenious devices illustrating the work of the Organisation, and an offer was made to reproduce them for purposes of exhibition by the Office. The German museum has spent 40,000 marks on the exhibit. It has not been possible to raise a similar sum from the budget of the Office.

It may be hoped that the large number of visits which the Office receives throughout the year may do something to make up for the inadequacy of its means of obtaining publicity. The number of visitors to the Office has increased rapidly since last year. Whereas last year the average number of visitors to the Office was between 250 and 300 per week during the summer months, the number of those who signed the Office visitors' book this year between 1 July and 8 September was 5,944, an average of about 600 per week—and very large numbers in addition do not register their names. Those who did register included visitors of forty-eight nationalities belonging to ninety-six different occupations, most of whom came from the United States of America, Great Britain, France and Germany. The occupations chiefly represented were students, teachers, university staff, business men, lawyers and doctors.

Geneva is more and more tending to become the meeting place of private associations, and the habitual resort of international congresses, summer schools, and pacifist tours. Ambitious schemes for centralising all these movements and providing them with a home have been set on foot. The Office will not neglect any opportunity of gathering round it all the sound elements of international life, and will continue to study them with close attention.

60. **Universities and other educational bodies.**—The universities appear to be becoming increasingly conscious every year of the part which they have to play in the economic and social instruction of the people. They are recognising more and more that they have a duty to train the future leaders of industry, and to open their doors to workers in search of general culture. Hence the growing attention they are giving to the work of the International Labour Organisation.

This growing attention is shown in numerous ways. The number of university libraries registered as subscribers to the Office's publications is increasing from year to year. A large number of university professors and students come to study at the Office. Its help has been requested by the Post-Graduate Institute of International Studies, by the Geneva School of International Studies, by the International Bureau of Education for its summer school for teachers and by the other summer schools of the University of Geneva, the International Federation of League of Nations Societies, and so on. The great international students' associations have also given expression to their interest in the Office at their annual congresses—the annual meeting of the Council of the International Confederation of Students (Paris, 11-24 August), the annual Conference of the International University Federation for the League of Nations (Geneva, 25-30 August), and the annual Conference of the International Student Service (Chartres, 5-12 August).
The students' associations are interested in the Office not only because they are in sympathy with its ideas, but also because of what it can do for them from the practical point of view. Life is very difficult for professional workers at the present time, and several students' associations have asked for help in finding a solution for the problem of unemployment among them.

Another educational question which the Office continues to follow with close attention is the efforts which are being made by the States Members and by educational authorities to provide instruction concerning the League of Nations in general and the International Labour Office in particular. The Assembly of the League recommended that consideration should be given to the possibility of issuing periodically compendious notes on the work of the Office specially prepared for the teaching profession and of forwarding them regularly to the leading educational reviews and journals. Pedagogical reviews of course constitute a highly specialised form of publication; nevertheless, an attempt has been made, not without success, to carry out the Assembly's recommendation. It is hoped in this way to reach the educational authorities and teaching profession in some fifty countries, and so ensure that the children in the schools, as they grow up, will acquire some idea of the work which is being accomplished in Geneva.

The Office has also been in contact with the experts appointed in pursuance of a proposal made by a Sub-Committee of the International Committee on International Co-operation to prepare the model charter and the organisation of the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation which the Assembly of the League wishes to see incorporated in school text-books in all countries.

70. Relations with the Churches.—Keen observers of modern life maintain that men are being brought closer together by the solidarity which exists in their work and their requirements, and that this tends to counteract the old conflicts of belief which tended to keep them apart. The sectarian spirit, they say, is losing its power, and rival philosophical or religious attitudes can now only express themselves in friendly emulation. In their view, the various religions are less concerned with doctrinal controversy, but are competing with one another in trying to find a remedy for the ills which afflict mankind in the modern world. Their conclusion is that "religious activity is now concentrating itself on social or moral work".

The Director's annual Reports to the Conference would appear to provide some arguments in support of these general statements. Last year an attempt was made to review the development of the social doctrine of Catholicism, particularly during the past ten years. This review was sympathetically received by the Catholic press, which appreciated the objective outlook from which it was written. It may therefore be desirable to carry the review somewhat further this year.

The Papal Encyclical and Episcopal messages, of which an account was given in last year's Report, were, in spite of their detailed character and the new contributions which they made to the subject, definitely not intended to establish any particular economic and social system. Their only object was to draw attention to the eternal principles of justice and charity and to give guidance to men of action who have to deal with the constantly changing circumstances of practical industrial life. Even with this limitation the field of enquiry remains a very large one, and gives scope for the most widely divergent attitudes and for all possible shades of opinion ranging between "individualism" and "solidarism". Thus there have arisen a number of different schools, or rather of tendencies, in the Catholic world. An attempt is made in the present Report to explain the ideas of the most influential and constructive group, the Catholic Social movement. This movement inspires the programme of the Christian workers' associations and trade unions, as well as the work of a certain number of engineers' organisations and employers' associations. It gives expression to its ideas at the "social weeks" which it holds annually in France and other countries, and has in recent years endeavoured to achieve a synthesis of the ideas and conclusions of the International Union of Social Studies.

The authors of this "Social Code," believe that "human life is the most important form of wealth", and they stand both for "the essential dignity of human personality and the necessity of society if it is to reach its full development". If the workers have for many years suffered from poverty and undeserved hardship, and if even at the present time disorder and insecurity prevail in all stages of production, the fault is not to be imputed so much to individuals as to an anarchical system of individual liberty. The State is "the trustee of the public welfare and has a positive part to play in economic life" in order to

safeguard human life, justice and commercial honesty, and it is also its duty "to give a general lead to national economic life as a whole". Modern Governments would, however, have to neglect their main function of maintaining order at home and abroad if they tried to assume economic functions for which they are not properly equipped. They should delegate those functions to intermediate bodies which are in closer touch with the variety of individual requirements and industrial necessities. A modern Government cannot take isolated individuals as direct partners in its work, since they would be liable to be crushed by so powerful an associate. The State can, however, delegate part of its powers to organisations. It is an "association of associations". Individuals who are inspired by a common purpose naturally and spontaneously create associations, and these associations, each of which has its own purpose, sometimes in conflict with that of others, limit and counterbalance one another. Co-ordinated under the supreme control and authority of the State, they will gradually come to constitute a real ordered, interconnected and organic system.

It is true that the constructive programme of the Catholic Social movement has in many respects been changed since 1884. Practical experience has shown the mixed association of employers and workers to be unsuitable. There is no alternative nowadays but to create separate and parallel organisations of employers and employed respectively, with joint committees to provide for liaison. The object is, however, not merely to enable wage-earners to defend themselves against the abuse of capitalistic power or to marshal large bodies of workers in support of the demands of the working classes. For the past fifty years, a period during which the individualist spirit among employers has had full play, the International Catholic Social Union has worked for active union among the leaders of industry with a view to substituting business solidarity for unbridled competition and making the producer independent in his relations with the financial world, so that a policy of prices, wages and production can be worked out in the general interest of employers, workers, and the community as a whole. Only when strong employers' and workers' organisations have been created, i.e. when the two buttresses on either side have been established on an equally firm foundation, is it possible to throw a bridge between them by means of which agreement can be reached. Hence the idea which is universally accepted by the Catholic Social movement at the present day—free association in an organised trade. This view was expressed as early as 1897 in the economic journals of the Christian Social Movement, and the official doctrine on this point has never been modified. Association is to be free and not compulsory. In other words, all workers and all employers are to be free to form such associations as they think fit, and those associations are to preserve or even extend their powers to enter into contracts and acquire property, etc. The trade is to be organised or, in other words, a compulsory bond is to be created between all the members of the same trade by the establishment of an organised "Estate". The fact that men are engaged in the same trade creates a complex of relationships and interdependence between them, a de jure society which, like all other societies, must be organised on principles of justice with a view to the common good, and which must therefore (since it has been seen what are the results of a laissez faire policy) be subject to rules and be given a legal framework which makes it a de jure society. The trade corporation should not only be responsible for social services such as the finding of employment, the regulation of apprenticeship, insurance and family allowances, but should—and this is an essential point—be given authority over all persons engaged in the trade, whether or not they are members of a union. The corporation would issue special regulations for the trade as a whole by a majority vote in each of the two categories, that of employers and that of workers. In the case of specially important questions a referendum and ratification by Parliament would be necessary. The corporation would fix the customs of the trade and would, by means of collective agreements and permanent joint committees, "achieve the maximum of probability that the principles of justice would be respected as regards rates of wages". This same corporation would also be invested with arbitration and judicial and supervisory functions and the right to collect subscriptions. The joint committees would give information and advice to the Government, which would remain the guardian of the inalienable rights of the community as a whole. They would appoint the representatives of the trade on the next higher authorities, which, in the opinion of some, should be simply advisory bodies, while others hold that they should be true economic parliaments.

The Catholic Social movement realises that this programme would be difficult to achieve. It would require as leaders of the organised "Estates" an elite of employers and workers which it would not be easy to train for their duties. According to the "Social Code", reforms should be accomplished "by the means

1 Cf. L'Association catholique, 15 July 1897.
best adapted to the capacity of human minds, with their imperfections and their possibilities". The social structure should be built up by gradual but continuous work. Hasty action could only lead to failure. Certain recent events, such as those which occurred in the Netherlands in 1919, show the necessity for caution.

From 1884 onwards the Social Catholic movement has been endeavouring to define what is meant by the organised trade, which is mentioned as a general formula in many programmes, often without any real explanation. The Catholic Social movement does not, however, desire to compress practical realities into the framework of an abstract conception, even if that conception is warranted by the experience of the past. They realise that it must be left to economic and social development to mould the new order. The programme drawn up forty years ago has had to be modified and made less rigid in certain respects in order to meet changes in industry. Recent developments of the co-operative movement, consumers' leagues, associations of craftsmen and higher-grade employees, semi-public undertakings, the horizontal and vertical organisation of industry, and the trusts with their far-reaching influence seem likely to efface the old boundaries of different trades and to break down industrial classifications by the concentration of the complex and varied activities which they represent. The professors of the Strasburg "Social Week" have pointed out "that methods of application must be brought up to date and kept in line with the continual changes in practical life." They believe, however, that the essential principle of the Catholic Social movement remains intact and is indeed confirmed — i.e. the principle of the legally organised trade, in which capital and labour are bound together by a solidarity of interests and by direct contact through permanent bodies to which certain powers of the public authorities are delegate and which are responsible for maintaining order at all stages of production and distribution, and for reconciling the autonomy of the trade corporations with the general prosperity of the community.

There is no idea of permanently stabilising the respective positions of employers and employees without possibility of change. The increasing density, coherence and activity of the various groups involved may lead to a change in the balance of social forces. The workers are tending to demand closer collaboration between the various elements of production and a larger share in the management of undertakings. The Catholic Social movement could hardly but take account of so important a development, which is in no way incompatible with Christian principles. Last September, on Labor Sunday in the United States, Dr. John A. Ryan, Director of the Social Service Section of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, said that probably 90 per cent. of those who began life as wage-earners would end it in the same social position, and that this was contrary not merely to the efficiency of industry but also to human development and dignity. As a remedy for such an "industrial feudal system", Dr. Ryan proposed that the workers should have a share in profits, in the ownership of the undertaking and in its management.

Similar views were put forward at the Congress held at Milan in July 1928, with the collaboration of the Suffragan Bishop of Cologne, when the International Federation of Catholic Workers was founded. The public declaration issued by the Congress contested the view that an economic undertaking is a purely private concern existing solely for purposes of profit, and that the position of the worker in economic life is simply that of a tool with no intrinsic value. It demanded in particular increased rights acquired on a larger scale in undertakings and joint representation of commerce and industry in public institutions. The new Federation proposes as its special object to endeavour to organise wage earners on a class, or, more accurately, "Estates" (Stände), basis.

The same idea of the labour "Estate" is put forward by the Belgian League of Christian Workers. All the interests of the worker, says this League, should be defended by his class organisation with a view to a social system which will constantly tend to the gradual raising of the general standard of living and civilisation and the diminishing of inequality by all suitable means, and more particularly by establishing equality of opportunity for all and sundry in matters of education and by selecting those who are most capable and worthy to hold positions of management." In the municipalities, districts, provinces, and the country as a whole, the League of Christian Workers desires to constitute a series of centres for the co-ordination of all organisations such as trade unions, mutual benefit societies, co-operative societies, bank associations, or educational associations which aim at promoting the interests of the workers and are managed by the workers themselves." While the Savings Bank is gradually acquiring the whole business of the investment of workers' savings, the League of Christian Workers deals with the political life of the "Christian workers' Estate." At the same time it realises that separation does not mean opposition and still less mutual exclusion, and it recognises "other necessary social interests" and other "Estates", such as those of agriculturists, the middle-classes,
manufacturers and so on. The League of Christian Workers hopes, by uniting all these "Estates", to arrive at a "better order of society."

There is one other feature in the programme of this League which deserves mention; the League desires to build up this "better order of society" within the framework of the League of Nations. According to the "Social Code", the League of Nations meets two needs, the need of reconstruction, which is acutely felt at the present day, and the need for transforming international law from a potential into an actual reality.

It has been thought necessary to give the above brief outline of the Catholic Social doctrine; not only is it unexpectedly acquiring an immediate practical interest owing to the action of a number of States, but it explains the active interest which is taken in the Office by the Catholic Social movement. It explains why the Paris Social Week, which was held in 1928 and was even more largely attended than usual, cordially welcomed the representative of the Office; why the Catholic Workers' Congress sent a pressing invitation to the Director, and why the "Caritas catholica", both at the Social Service Congresses and at its Basle Conference, was anxious to get into closer touch with the Office.

It is clear that the moral authority of the Catholic Church can do much to help in the establishment of social justice. Does this imply that an organic connection should be created between the Church and the International Labour Organisation? This question has recently been raised in connection with the Lateran agreements. Certain publicists have alleged that in recent years the Office proposed that the Vatican should become a Member of the International Labour Organisation, and that the Vatican replied that it could not enter any organisation except as its leader and head. All this is pure invention. What really happened was that the Director considered how the important moral collaboration which has been described above could be further developed, either by the application of Article 404 of the Treaty or by some other means. It was finally agreed that a priest might be authorised by his Bishop to join the staff of the Office, and to maintain the necessary contact. This has been done, and, it is noted with satisfaction, with complete success.

On the Protestant side, too, increased interest in social and labour problems is being manifested not only among the Churches, but also within such great Protestant religious organisations as the International Missionary Council or the World's Committee of the Young Men's Christian Associations. An account has been given in previous Reports of the movement which was initiated at the great Stockholm meeting. The churches which take part in the movement have a membership of about 300 million.

During the past year the ideas behind the Stockholm movement have been expressed, both nationally and internationally, in connection with such important labour problems as unemployment crises or industrial disputes in a number of countries.

In the United States, on Labor Sunday, the Social Committee of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ, in its customary message, recalled the industrial ideal of the churches. In addition to the reforms mentioned in Part XIII of the Treaty of Peace, the message recommended 

- adequate means of arbitration and conciliation in industrial disputes;
- the gradual and reasonable reduction of hours of labour to the lowest practicable point; a living wage as a minimum in every industry and the highest wage that each industry can afford; a new emphasis upon the application of Christian principles to the acquisition and use of property; and the most equitable division of the product of industry that can ultimately be devised.

In France, at the time of the general election, the Council of the Federation of Protestant Churches made an appeal to the electors, urging them to help to bring about various social reforms and making particular mention of the housing problem, the protection of the family and the welfare of children. Further, the Confederation for Social Christianity, at its congress, held a general discussion on the relation of Christianity to contemporary social theories.

In Great Britain, the movement known as the C. O. P. E. C. (Christian Order in Politics, Economics and Citizenship), has drawn attention to social conditions in the country districts. It convened a National Conference to examine the measures to be taken for the protection of young workers between 14 and 18 years of age. It claims that the adolescent should no longer be treated as a wage-earner but as an apprentice (48-hour week, supplementary education, vocational guidance). A Christian Social Council, composed of representatives of the social committees of the different churches and of experts, has been established. Under the presidency of the Bishop of Winchester, it seeks to keep in touch with international problems.

The condition of the coal industry naturally attracted the attention of ecclesiastical circles. The Social Committee of the Primitive Methodist Church passed a resolution on this subject which shows very clearly the Christian position in labour matters:

Although the Church does not pretend to pronounce competent judgments on economic questions, she must nevertheless have the right to assert herself in regard to the moral and spiritual side of industrialism. As the advocate of humanity in all economic struggles, she con-
with the Conference convened by the International Missionary Council at Jerusalem in the spring of 1928, and the Congress of the Y.W.C.A. which met at Budapest in June. The important Congress of the Universal Alliance of Churches for International Friendship which met at Prague in August asked the Office to consider the question of the co-operation of the Churches with the Labour world. This provided an opportunity for the Office to try to define the theoretical basis of its collaboration with religious organisations.

The idea referred to at the beginning of this chapter, that the churches should combine in attempting to remedy the distresses of mankind in the modern world, does not appear to be confined to the Christian religion. When the Director was in Japan recently he received a visit from an important delegation of Buddhist priests, headed by Professor Vatenabe, who came to express the interest they take in the promotion of social justice and ask how they could collaborate with the Office. The Director hopes to be able to record progress in this connection in future Reports.

71. — Like the Churches, the great international associations for charity, welfare or social service have during 1928 given numerous proofs of the close interest they take in the humanitarian work of the Office. For example, the Congress of the International Association for the Study and Improvement of Human Relations and Conditions in Industry, which met at Cambridge in June and July and was attended by about 150 persons from twenty countries, offered to help the Office in working out its ideas on industrial relations. A similar offer was made by the European office of the Rotary International. Further, the Office was invited to be represented at the Thirteenth International Conference of the Red Cross (23-27 October), and to take part in the discussions of the Committee for the protection of children in backward countries. The Y.M.C.A., too, has devoted increasing attention to the development of industrial relations; and the International Conference of the Y.W.C.A. (Budapest) supported the ratification of the Conventions for the protection of women and children. The most important manifestation was the International Conference of Social Work held in Prague from 8-13 July, together with the International Housing and Town Planning Congress, the International Congress on Statutory and Voluntary Assistance, and the International Child Welfare Congress, the whole constituting the International Social Welfare Fortnight. Nearly 5,000 persons from some forty countries attended these meetings.
As was stated in last year’s Report the Office took a special part in organising one of the sections of this Conference called the Section on Social Work in Industry. This section dealt with a number of important problems: the relation between public social services and voluntary social work in the industrial field, the scientific bases of the social problem, the relation between factory inspection and social work, the family standard of life, workers’ spare time, the consequences of unemployment, etc.

These meetings illustrated the enormous amount of goodwill, devotion, intelligence and knowledge which all these various groups contribute in the cause of social service. The Office cannot, however, help feeling very strongly how necessary it is to have a close definition of what is meant by social work and of its functions, and to discover at what stage and by what methods action of this kind can obtain the best results. A great effort must be made to analyse and define the position and to co-ordinate the work if forces which are of real value are not to be wasted. Labour legislation cannot be a really effective and vital force unless it is penetrated with the spirit of social service. Social workers would, however, be committing a serious error if they thought they could improve the position of the workers without any regard to legislative action or Government supervision.

72. Women’s Organisations. — In all countries and continents the women’s movement is becoming stronger every year. In Great Britain women under thirty will this year exercise the vote for the first time. In Japan the Director constantly received fresh evidence of the vitality of the movement for the emancipation of women.

The movement has resulted at the same time in a more definite statement of the claims of women workers and in stronger opposition on the part of the more exclusive section of feminists who claim absolute equality of rights. The claims of women workers were put forward at a number of important meetings in 1928. For example, the International Conference of Christian Women Workers, which preceded the International Congress of Christian Trade Unions at Munich in 1928, demanded the ratification of the Conventions for the protection of women and once more drew the attention of the Office to the question of the employment of married women. Again, the International Socialist Women’s Conference, which preceded the Third Congress of the Second International at Brussels in August, urged that better measures should be taken to protect the health of women; and the General Federation of German Trade Unions at its meeting at Hamburg in September asked that the Act concerning the protection of women before and after childbirth should be amended.

Most of these congresses put forward demands which go beyond the standard of protection at present set up by the International Labour Conventions. Thus the Hamburg Congress, which expressed the view that the German Act concerning the protection of women before and after childbirth was inadequate, demanded that women should not be allowed to work for three months before and two months after childbirth, that expectant mothers should not be allowed to work more than four hours per day during the fifth and sixth months of pregnancy, that the State should provide compensation for the wages lost during that period, that employers should be obliged to institute crèches under the supervision of the municipalities and the trade unions, that it should be illegal for an employer to give notice to a woman between the date on which she was found to be pregnant until the second month after the birth of the child, and that the Act should apply to women agricultural workers and domestic servants.

Another national trade union congress, that of the Austrian Trade Unions, which took place in June 1928, before and after increased protection for women employed on dangerous and unhealthy work and more generally for working women who were mothers. The Congress did not content itself with calling for the immediate ratification and enforcement of the Washington Maternity Convention and demanding equality of treatment for women both as regards wages and as regards social insurance. A number of speakers put forward more advanced views. They contended that there was no contradiction in demanding equal pay for men and women and at the same time special protection for women. It was maintained that women, in view of their physical constitution and of the possibility of maternity, were entitled to adequate protection not only in their own interests but in those of society and the race as a whole.

Side by side, however, with the increased force with which the demands of women workers are put forward, there is an increasing tendency on the part of the feminist movement, more particularly in English-speaking countries, to proclaim in a more uncompromising way equality of rights as between the sexes and to offer some degree of opposition to special protection for working women. Hope was expressed in last year’s Report that the fresh progress which has been made in the organisation of women workers in Great Britain might tend to counteract the movement in favour of strict equality. This, however, has not been the case.

In the United States of America, it is true, the Equal Rights movement has suffered a noticeable check, and the Women’s Party did not succeed, at the
of the recent presidential elections, in gaining support for the proposal for an amendment to the Constitution which would have jeopardised all the legislation for the protection of women which exists in various American States. But in Great Britain the extremists appear to have gained ground in the women's organisations.

The Open Door Council, for example, one of the most recently formed women's organisations, has attacked the International Labour Organisation in the feminist press, and has even suggested that a protest should be made to the Permanent Court of International Justice because the last Session of the International Labour Conference did not incorporate in the Convention concerning minimum wage-fixing machinery the principle of equal pay for men and women which is mentioned in Article 427 of the Treaty, but simply drew the attention of Governments to that principle at the end of the Recommendation which was adopted along with the Convention. It is true that this attitude has not been endorsed by certain other organisations. The Standing Joint Committee of Industrial Women's Organisations, when asked to support the action of the Open Door Council and to declare the Convention ultra vires, replied that it saw no reason to associate itself with the movement. The International Alliance, too, which had felt the same apprehensions as the Open Door Council and had expressed its uneasiness at any weakening of the force of the principle of equal pay as laid down by Article 427 of the Treaty of Peace, has now realised that such principles cannot be affected by international Conventions which simply lay down minimum standards, and has also noted that the Convention only deals with wage-fixing machinery and does not fix any rates.

But another women's organisation, the British Medical Women's Federation has entered the lists. It asked that the following resolution should be submitted to the last Session of the Conference:

That in the opinion of the Council of the Medical Women's Federation the limitation by legislation of the amount of weight to be lifted by women as separate from men is unreasonable as well as un-scientific. The amount lifted depends not solely on sex but also on physique, general health and training, and such limitation if enforced might do serious harm by further restricting the employment open to women.

The Federation at the same time drew attention to one of the resolutions adopted by the International Medical Women's Association at its last meeting held at Bologna in April 1928, which also expressed opposition to any legal limitation of the weight to be carried by women.

Some surprise has also been felt at the fact that the British National Council of Women, at its last assembly held at London in October 1928, adopted a resolution concerning women in industry which is in flat contradiction with the decision taken by the International Council of Women at its last meeting at Geneva in 1927. According to that decision no steps should be taken in connection with women's protective legislation by the International Council or the National Councils without previous consultation with the working women's organisations concerned. The British Council is, however, urging that industrial legislation should be based on the nature of the occupation and not on the sex of the worker. It demands complete equality as regards, for example, night work, general safety regulations and regulations concerning dangerous machinery, the use of white lead, the maximum weight of loads to be carried and other measures concerning the health, safety and well-being of the workers — and all this in spite of the demands put forward by British workers and of the declarations of the Standing Joint Committee of Industrial Women's Organisations which were mentioned in last year's Report 1.

The Office ventures to suggest that the supporters of labour legislation should pay careful attention to this state of affairs. The last has not been heard of the sophism which regards the position of women industrial workers as similar to that of women who are demanding admission to professions which are still closed to them. The battle has not yet been won against the paradoxical point of view which, in the name of uncompromising theory, is endeavouring to perpetuate the hardships and sufferings of industrial women workers. It may be hoped that the enlightened support which the Office needs will be forthcoming from the women's organisations themselves.

73. — The Office has continued to keep in touch, on the lines indicated in last year's Report, with the various political parties and parliamentary associations in the various countries which are in a position to help in obtaining the ratification of Conventions. It has also further developed its co-operation with international parliamentary organisations.

The Office was represented at the Twenty-Fifth Conference of the Inter-Parliamentary Union, which took place at Berlin from 23-28 August and was attended by representatives of thirty-eight countries. The Conference decided to set up a sub-committee on labour questions. The sub-committee will to some extent provide for liaison between the Inter-Parliamentary Union and the International Labour Office. The Union has, moreover, instructed one of the

1 Director's Report to the Eleventh (1928) Session of the Conference, p. 61.
members of its Permanent Committee for the Study of Social and Humanitarian Questions, Mr. F. de Rabours, to get into touch with the Office with a view to studying practical methods of collaboration. Collaboration has already been begun and will, no doubt, give valuable results. The Inter-Parliamentary Commercial Conference held its Fourteenth Plenary Meeting at Versailles from 19 to 22 June 1928; delegates from some forty countries were present. A certain amount of apprehension and distrust of the Office was formerly expressed in the Conference and in its permanent executive. This, however, has been entirely removed, and full and cordial co-operation is being established.

74. — During the past year the International Federation of League of Nations Societies has been particularly active in its collaboration with the Office. The Federation once more sent a deputation to the International Labour Conference, introduced by Mr. Sokal. The deputation was received by the President and Vice-Presidents of the Conference on 14 June 1928. It drew attention to the fact that a standing committee of the Federation had been set up to support ratification of the Conventions adopted by the Conference and to elucidate the connection between economic and labour problems. At the Annual Congress which was held at The Hague from 2 to 7 July and which was attended by delegates from thirty national societies, the Federation adopted a number of resolutions relating to the International Labour Organisation, dealing more particularly with the ratification of the Hours Convention and the White Lead Convention.

75. — Reference was made last year to the Office's first contacts with the Institute of Pacific Relations. Co-operation with this Institute developed during 1928. The Institute's Assistant Secretary, Mr. Loomis, paid a visit to the Office. He enquired for the information the Office possessed on the problems to be discussed by the Institute at its next meeting, which is to be held in November 1929 at Kyoto, in Japan, and was anxious to secure the Office's help in the documentary preparation of the meeting. This gave the Office an opportunity, on the request of the Institute, to draw attention to the labour problems in the countries on the Pacific which it considered the most urgent at the present time.

When the Director was in the Far East he had occasion to meet at Shanghai and Tokyo the members of the Chinese and Japanese groups in the Institute. Later, Mr. Ayusawa, a member of the Office's staff, took the opportunity of a short stay in Honolulu on his way back from leave in Japan to get into personal touch with officials of the Institute, and so lay the foundation for further successful co-operation in the future.

76. — The Office has also continued its collaboration with the disabled and ex-service men's associations. Ten years after the end of the war these associations, so far from losing strength, are in most countries widening their programme of social and civic activity in the national field, and desire to make a still greater contribution to the international work which is being done in Geneva. Their continued interest in the work of the Office deserves, it is thought, to be met in the same spirit, and it has therefore been made a point of honour to maintain the traditional relations of the Office with these associations.

The problems of restoring war victims to their position in economic life and on the labour market, providing them with the means of earning a fair livelihood, and making proper provision for their old age, are of a nature which on various grounds calls for the collaboration of the Office. Whenever possible assistance in the study of these problems is given by means of research work and information. It is not materially possible for the Office to do more than this, however much it might wish to do so.

The International Organisation of Disabled and Ex-Service Men, the institution and development of which have been mentioned in previous Reports, held its annual Congress at Berlin in August 1928. Its agenda included the right to compensation and the placing and compulsory employment of disabled ex-service men. The members responsible for reports on these subjects applied to the Office for the information which they needed, and this was of course supplied. The Congress again adopted resolutions in which the disabled men manifested their sympathy with the work which is being done for the promotion of peace. It is at once a moving and gratifying experience to visit this Congress and see these delegates representing millions of war victims inspired by a common determination to remove the obstacles which still stand in the way of friendly co-operation between nations.

77. — The International Association for Social Progress was in a certain sense the forerunner of the Office, and continues to be one of its strongest supporters. Its work has therefore been followed with special attention. In September 1928 the Directing Committee met at Geneva, and undertook a preliminary investigation of two important questions, which will be discussed at the General Assembly of the Association in 1929, viz. the raising of the school age and family allowances. The Committee also decided to consider shortly the great problem of migration, on which it asked the Polish
section to present a report from the point of view of the emigration countries and the American section to present a report from the point of view of the immigration countries, and also the problem of real wages and the raising of the standard of living of the workers, on which a report will be presented by the Czechoslovak section. In this way the Association is carrying on its pioneer work and preparing wages and the raising of the standard from the point of view of the immigration the American section to present a report to the Governments in its favour. The Office ventures to make an appeal to the material difficulties which were mentioned last year. A certain number of fresh Government grants were allotted to it in 1928, and one or two more national sections have become affiliated. The progress is slow, however, and is not sufficient to allow the Association to increase its publications and thus exercise continuous influence on public opinion. The Association needs more support, and the Office ventures to make an appeal to the Governments in its favour. The Office is still convinced that an association of independent minds capable both of observation and criticism can give the most valuable assistance to an official institution like itself.

Relations with Workers

78. — It now falls to review the development and tendencies of the employers' and workers' organisations, which, of course, are more closely associated with the working of the Organisation than the external bodies which have just been dealt with.

To take the workers' trade unions first.
Regret has frequently been expressed at the divisions which exist in the labour movement. The ideal from the point of view of the success of the Organisation would no doubt be a single Confederation of all national workers' federations, which in turn would embrace all wage-earners in the respective countries, irrespective of religious or political opinions, for promoting and protecting occupational interests. It may be doubted, however, whether such an ideal can be realised, and whether at the present time, when the possibilities of trade union development are not yet fully known, it is of any use to work towards it. It is sometimes impossible not to wonder whether at the present stage it is not in the best interests of the trade union movement that each tendency should develop freely on its own lines rather than that an attempt should be made to create an artificial and unstable unity, provided, of course, that the endeavours of each movement to put forward its claims and defend its methods are not allowed to interfere with their consciousness of their common aims and the necessity of constant co-operation for their attainment.

In what form and under what conditions, then, can the great workers' organisations take part in the work of the Office?

79. — In the first place there is the International Federation of Trade Unions of Amsterdam. An allusion was made last year to the internal difficulties which the Federation experienced at its International Congress in Paris in 1927 and the changes of personnel which took place. The Federation has now consolidated its organisation. The new Secretary has given special attention to regularising relations with the Office as regards the supply of information. He has asked to be kept regularly informed of the progress of the Office's work, particularly as regards questions on the agenda of the Conference, with a view to co-ordinating and unifying the attitude of the workers' group in the discussions which are to take place.

The national central organisations have shown as much anxiety as the International Federation to collaborate closely with the Office. This has once more been shown at the great national meetings of the German and British workers, with their respective memberships of 4,670,000 and 3,875,000, as well as in the smaller congresses of the central trade union organisations of Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, the Irish Free State, Poland and Spain.

The Belgian Trade Union Congress held at Brussels in July 1928 adopted the following resolution, representing the unanimous views of the delegates:

The Federation once more expresses its devotion to the International Labour Organisation. It sees in it the embryo of a future International Labour Parliament, the authority and functions of which, no less than its capacity for achievement, will increase with more active and more sustained support from the working class.

The Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference should be regarded as attempts to give sanction to the workers' rights. They are a tangible sign of social progress, and, as such, and for the sake of the perspectives which they reveal, should receive wholehearted support from the workers.

The Federation therefore calls for the ratification of all International Labour Conventions, and recalls the resolution adopted by the Commission on International Labour Legislation of the Peace Conference to the effect that the International Labour Conference should be empowered, under conditions to be defined, to make decisions having the force of international law.

The trade unions thus continue to manifest their confidence in the work of the Organisation and the high hopes which they place in it. This is no doubt due to the numerous and varied services which

1 Cf. the Director's speech to the International Congress of Christian Trade Unions at Munich.
the Office is in a position to render, especially by replying to requests for information. Such requests have been particularly frequent during the past year. For example, the miners have applied to the Office for information on means of improving safety conditions in mines, for a study of the important question of the transmission of pension rights, and for an extension of the enquiry into conditions of work in coal mines. They have, in fact, asked that the coal question should be studied from a world economic point of view. Again, the representatives of the transport workers and workers in the food and drink trades have approached the Office on questions in which they are specially interested, such as the loading and unloading of ships, the regulation and the fixing of a lower limit for the weights to be carried by workers in certain trades, and questions relating to health and safety on board ship and in ports. The textile workers, too, at their International Congress held at Ghent in June, asked that a large-scale enquiry on conditions of work in their industry should be undertaken.

The Office has been enabled to collaborate more closely in work of this kind because it has remained in constant touch with the international trade secretariats and the national central organisations. In order to see how such collaboration can be still further increased, and how the International Federation of Trade Unions of Amsterdam can give the Office the benefit of its support, it is necessary to follow closely the way in which it is developing and the labour problems which it has to face. This year there have been a number of problems before it: problems of unity and prestige, problems of extension and membership; problems of general policy.

The Federation is still at grips with the communist or Russian difficulty. The British Trades Union Congress represented, so to speak, the end of the Anglo-Russian Committee and a noticeable decline in the strength of the Minority Movement. The British labour movement, it would seem, has no further need for preoccupations as regards its internal discipline. It has resumed the presidency of the International Federation of Trade Unions, thus clearly showing its desire to take a more active part in the international trade union movement. At the same time, the possibility of amalgamation between Amsterdam and Moscow disappeared. Both sides have declared in favour of rupture. Mr. Lozovsky, for example, expressed himself as follows at the Congress of the "Red" Trade Union International at Moscow in March:

It is not a case of seeking unity for unity's sake. The Russian trade unions are part of the "Red" Trade Union International, and will remain so. As regards their affiliation to the I.F.T.U., the Central Committee of the Russian Communist Party declared in 1925 that there was no question of it. The Soviet trade unions cannot and will not do anything whatsoever contrary to the decisions of the Communist Party and of the Communist International.

Similarly, the International Federation of Trade Unions, at the meeting of its Executive last July, replied as follows to a proposal put forward by the Norwegian and Finnish central federations for the organisation of a joint conference with the "Red" International:

No basis exists for a conference with the Russian unions, and still less for a conference between representatives of the International Federation of Trade Unions and the "Red" International. The latter has not shown any sign of ceasing its attacks against ourselves and our affiliated national central organisations, and in no respect has there been any tendency towards increased similarity of views, between the "Red" International and ourselves.

Thus the breach between Amsterdam and Moscow has been definitely proclaimed. All attempts at negotiation have broken down. In a number of countries the controversy between the two movements is acute. In France, for instance, the General Confederation of Labour accuses the communists of having recourse to elements entirely outside the trade union movement in order to place obstacles in its way. The fact is that the workers who belong to the International Federation of Trade Unions still cherish an almost mystical aspiration towards unity in the trade union movement. They are aware of the disastrous consequences of disunion. Among Russian trade unionists, the bitterness caused by the failure of the endeavours which have been made to bring about rapprochement cannot entirely overshadow the disadvantages of isolation. But at the present time there is no prospect of any move towards unity.

The International Federation of Trade Unions is therefore obliged to try to increase its influence by extending its sphere of action. It has recently been joined by a new member, the Greek Federation of Labour. It has consolidated its relations with the organisations of Estonia, Argentina and other countries, which became affiliated to it some time ago. It is also making efforts to reach more distant or less industrially advanced countries. The Moscow organisation had criticised it as being a purely European body. It is now endeavouring to extend its action to India, Japan and other Asian countries, as well as to Australia and New Zealand. The presence of representatives of the British trade unions, Mr. Purcell and Mr. Hallsworth, at the All-India Trade Union Congress last year resulted in the establishment of relations and made it possible to remove certain misunderstandings and to create some prospect of future affiliation. The publications of the International
Federation of Trade Unions, such as the pamphlet issued by the British workers' representatives on their return from India and the publication containing the results of the enquiry carried out by Mr. Schrader and Mr. Furtwängler, the representatives of the German textile workers, into the industries of India, are extremely suggestive on this subject.

The studies which the Office is undertaking on the position of native workers and the new items on the Agenda of the Conference are also helping to promote these new activities on the part of the Amsterdam Federation. The Federation has expressed its satisfaction at the placing of a question relating to native labour on the Agenda of the Conference. One of the affiliated central organisations, the French General Confederation of Labour, has already stated that its delegation to the Conference will include a coloured worker.

There can be no doubt that the Amsterdam Federation will encounter moral and psychological difficulties outside Europe. In spite of the efforts which they have made in the workers' group at the Conference, the Amsterdam leaders have not entirely succeeded in removing the impression which is felt, rightly or wrongly, but very strongly, by the workers of the Far East that they are not quite fairly treated. This point of view was expressed to the Director during his recent visit to the Far East. Besides, the trade union leaders of distant countries have some difficulty in making the members of their organisations realise the value of affiliation to Amsterdam. Even in those countries where the nascent workers' organisations are anxious to receive assistance from the long-established trade union organisations of Europe, the heavy travelling expenses involved are an obstacle in the way of the necessary collaboration.

But the main efforts of the International Federation of Trade Unions are being directed to defining its methods and settling a clear policy, in order to promote its practical work as contrasted with the uncompromising attitude of the communists and provide a firm basis for its endeavours to increase its membership. Its principal central organisations are concerning themselves with the difficulties which arise out of recent developments in industry. The French General Confederation of Labour is investigating suitable legal means of settling labour disputes by means of conciliation. It is considering the possibility of a system of arbitration courts which would take the place of the frequently dangerous method of strikes. The German Trade Union Federation, just after it had claimed the enforcement of industrial democracy at its Hamburg Congress, was faced with serious disputes which imperilled the whole delicate structure of conciliation and arbitration and the system of collective agreements. The British trade unions have endorsed by a large majority the attitude adopted by their General Council in the negotiations with the group of employers headed by Lord Melchett, though mingled with the evident desire for industrial peace which is thus shown there still remains the uneasiness due to persistent unemployment and economic difficulties. In Sweden, too, the trade union leaders have the idea of industrial peace constantly in their minds, and give the most careful attention to all efforts in that direction.

It must be admitted that the institution of a policy based on a systematic effort towards industrial peace is a difficult task for the International Federation of Trade Unions. The new developments of industry are not advancing at an equal and regular pace in all countries. Examples drawn from the most advanced countries often clash with the customs, temperament and traditions of other working-class populations. The working-class world is not yet convinced that the progress of science and the new methods of production which are being introduced give it the full share of security, justice and well-being to which it is entitled. It is still inclined to mistrust manufacturing methods which aim at reducing hours of work and increasing output.

It is hoped that the help which the International Federation of Trade Unions gives the Office and the confidence which it reposes in it may be repaid by the constant efforts which the Office is making, and by its research work. It is hoped that the collaboration of the Federation in the work of the Conference and the Governing Body may help it to find a firm foundation for the modern labour movement.

80. Christian trade unions. — Although the majority of the organised workers is still to be found in the Amsterdam Federation, a large minority is organised in the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions, which, though basing its action on different doctrines, is inspired with an equally enthusiastic belief in the work of the Office. Representatives of the Confederation attend the International Labour Conference as delegates or advisers, and many of them are also active in the Parliaments and even the Governments of a number of countries. Their constant interest in the Office and their collaboration with it are highly appreciated.

In most previous Reports to the Conference, mention has been made of the claims put forward by the Christian unions, their complaints that they are not adequately represented in the elections and nominations of the workers' group, and their demand for proportional representation. It has been stated that the Office has endeavoured, as far as it could, to help in bringing about
an agreement between the two trade union movements. A considerable measure of success in this direction was achieved at the Eleventh Session.

For the first time in the history of the Organisation the workers' group appointed a representative of the Christian trade union movement as one of the Officers of the group, and when the new Governing Body was being elected the same representative, Mr. Serrarens, was included in the list of candidates for the position of deputy member of the Governing Body which was drawn up by the representatives of the Amsterdam Federation. This token of friendly feeling should not be forgotten, although owing to a series of unfortunate circumstances Mr. Serrarens was not elected. The Office is still confident that an agreement can be reached between the two Internationals for carrying out the programme laid down by the Treaty of Peace.

The principal event in the Christian trade union movement in 1928 was the holding of its Fourth International Congress at Munich in September. The two main events which were carried out in the first place, the changes which were effected in the internal organisation of the Confederation, and, in the second place, the efforts which were made to lay down clearly the special aims of the Christian unions in their relation to the labour movement as a whole.

On the question of internal organisation, the main object was to establish closer liaison between the international federations of the various trades and the International Confederation. The Congress set up a council which will include delegates of the international trade federations as well as members representing the different national central organisations. The Congress will select from among the members of the council the members who are to compose the executive of the International, i.e. the President, the Vice- Presidents, the General Secretary and the Treasurer.

The special tendencies and spirit of the Christian trade union movement may be briefly summarised as follows: the trade union movement should be strictly autonomous, trade union action for the development of collective agreements should be strengthened, and the State and international legislation should facilitate this by laying down uniform principles, by clearly defining the status of the trade unions and by securing the general adoption of conciliation and arbitration in labour disputes.

The above general programme does not differ in essentials from the programme of the Amsterdam movement, but some of the demands put forward at Munich belong more specifically to the Christian movement. This applies in particular to the policy followed in respect to family protection, including the introduction or development of family allowances, the development of social insurance as a family insurance scheme, general application of the Sunday rest, effective protection of young workers, the organisation of workers' education and the abolition to the greatest possible extent of the industrial employment of married women.

With the exception of a few points, this programme is entirely in harmony with the aims of the Office, and it is therefore not surprising that the Congress should have expressed its desire to collaborate with the Office. It may be of interest to quote a passage on this subject from the general report of Mr. Serrarens:

The Christian trade union movement should in the future, as in the past, endeavour to obtain representation in the central bodies of the International Labour Organisation and in all international institutions the activities of which are of practical concern to the workers.

While maintaining its demands in this connection, the Christian trade union movement reaffirms its desire to collaborate in the work of the Organisation, both as regards the drawing up of International Labour Conventions and as regards action in favour of their ratification and enforcement. The movement should, within the framework of its own organisation, take steps to render more effective the participation of representatives at the International Labour Conferences by means of a preliminary exchange of views in the form of correspondence or discussions.

The help which the Christian trade union movement thus promises is of considerable importance. According to the figures submitted to the Congress, the trade unions affiliated to the Christian International have a membership of 2,100,000 in fifteen countries, not including the Christian unions of certain countries such as Canada, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico and Poland, which maintain relations with the International, but have not yet become affiliated to it.

It was clearly the duty of the Office to define its attitude towards this important movement and to answer any doubts which might still be entertained as to its feelings towards the Christian unions. The Director accordingly himself stated at the Congress that, as far as the constitution of the Organisation allowed, the Office had endeavoured, and would continue to endeavour, to treat the Christian trade unions on a footing of equality and to take every opportunity of showing its full confidence in the value of their collaboration. In his anxiety to find some means, in the absence of complete unity in the labour world, of obtaining the unreserved support of all categories of workers, he tried to show how everyone could give the most effective assistance to the work of the Office:

It is not (he said) by trying to limit and restrict our special activities prudently and almost shamefacedly, it is not by concealing the principles in which we believe in our heart of hearts—on the contrary, it is by trying to raise our respective ideals to the highest point, by manifesting them in their purest and most integral form, by trying to arrive at an increasing comprehension of the noble aspirations which led us to conceive them,
that we can bring them together and unite them, and thus create the possibility of concentrating on ideas and actions in which we can all join.

81. — The Office's relations with the Fascist trade unions during 1928 were as close as in preceding years. There was no change in the cooperation in which the Office instituted with the old National Federation of Fascist Unions.

Considerable alterations were made during 1928, however, in the organization of this Federation. The Federation as such was dissolved and its place taken by six new autonomous federations of workers in industry, agriculture, commerce, banks, land transport and inland navigation, and the liberal professions and artists. With one exception, the presidents of the new federations have already taken part in some of the Sessions of the Conference as advisers. They have all got into direct touch with the competent services in the Office through the medium of the Rome Branch Office. The Lavoro Fascista, which is the common journal of all the federations and which has taken the place of the old Lavoro d'Italia, often publishes articles which show a close knowledge of the work of the Office.

82. — The foregoing review of the main tendencies in the workers' movement would be incomplete if the usual brief references were not made to the growth of trade unionism and the Office's relations with the workers' organisations in a considerable number of countries.

During his visit to the Far East, the Director came in contact with the trade union organisations in Japan. He was cordially received by the five federations which annually nominate the Japanese workers' delegate to the Conference—the Japanese Federation of Labour, the Arsenal Workers' Federation, the State Workers' Federation, the Seamen's Federation, and the Federation of Officers and Engineers in the Mercantile Marine. The Director was able to appreciate the influence which these organisations exercise through the competence of their leaders, their persevering methods and the results they have already obtained.

It was stated in last year's Report that some members of the Federation of Labour had proposed that the Federation should cease to co-operate in the work of the International Labour Organisation. The Director found that this movement had completely died out. The five federations are unanimously loyal to the Office. As a matter of fact, apart from the five federations and in spite of the split which separates these federations from them, other occupational groups, which form what is called the Centre Party, advocate the positive policy of the Organisation and are anxious to keep in touch with Geneva. Even the Farmers' Group, in which there are considerable communist tendencies, appears to wish to co-operate.

The main problem at present is the relations between employers' and workers' organisations. A number of Japanese employers, especially those who have been to Geneva, are endeavouring to restore the traditional patriarchal relations which modern industry is, almost of necessity, destroying. The important industrial organizations are hesitating and sometimes offering resistance. Nevertheless, a strong movement is developing for the creation of better industrial relations. The Joint Maritime Board, which sits at Kobe and which is composed of six shipowners and six seamen, has already succeeded in working out methods for the pacific settlement of disputes and for close cooperation between the two parties and their action may be cited as an example.

Trade unionism in China is still in a very incoherent condition. Before 1925 there were a number of organisations in existence in the principal industrial centres, Canton, Hankow and Shanghai. This movement, which was assuming considerable proportions, became for the most part communist, when Bolshevist tendencies were given predominance by the alliance between the Russians and the Kuomintang. But the rupture between the Chinese Government and Communist, and the repression exercised by the Kuomintang, has led to the disappearance of most of the existing organisations. During his recent visit to China the Director hardly found any trade union which was worthy of the name, except at Shanghai and Canton. The Federation of Engineers in Canton, in particular, is a strong and energetic body, which is really comparable with a European organisation.

As a matter of fact, the organisations which exist are still in an embryonic stage. It will require considerable efforts to organise the working classes in China on useful lines, but the Kuomintang Party is doing its best. This Party has formed special organizing committees in the principal centres, though up to the present its policy does not seem to be very clearly defined. It remains to be seen whether, now that the fear of Communism has been removed, the Kuomintang Party will adopt a system of free trade unionism or will endeavour to organise the workers in groups controlled by the Party and mainly intended to promote its nationalist policy. It would appear from certain indications that the Party is inclined in this latter direction. The fact is that, in spite of the information collected by some leaders during visits to Europe or
America, the conception of trade union action is still very undefined in China. From the workers' standpoint particularly it would seem desirable that some competent representatives of the Chinese workers should be sent to future Sessions of the Conference.

As regards the principal overseas countries belonging to the British Commonwealth, the following notes indicate the developments during the past year.

In Australia, the movement towards the consolidation of trade union forces which marked the formation of the All-Australian Council of Trade Unions, and on which comment was made in last year's Report, has not been attended with the measure of success that might have been anticipated. The Australian Workers Union, the largest single trade union unit in Australia, has consistently refused from the outset to affiliate with the All-Australian Council of Trade Unions. The primary reason and doubtless the extreme left-wing orientation of certain prominent supporters of the All-Australian Council.

Deprived of the support of so large and so representative an organisation, the All-Australian Council of Trade Unions has had to contend with a number of difficulties in its endeavour to win national prestige. Its refusal, for example, to take part in the mission of enquiry into industrial relations in the United States, which was instituted under the auspices of the Commonwealth Government, led to dissentient action by the leaders of the Australian Workers' Union, whose general secretary eventually joined the delegation appointed by the Government to proceed to America.

It would be idle, however, to allege that the work of the All-Australian Council has been in any way perfunctory. As it happens, the year 1928 was one of storm and stress for Australian trade unionism, particularly in the transport industry. The system of conciliation and arbitration in Australia has been put to a severe test in adjusting the differences which have arisen between the employers and workers engaged in dock and waterside undertakings. A national stoppage of transport workers, which was only averted by direct Government intervention, and by special legislation to enforce the observance of awards of the Court of Arbitration. During this period officers of the All-Australian Council of Trade Unions were continuously active in coping with a situation which threatened rapidly to become precarious, owing to the diffusion of the transport workers' forces.

In a situation of this kind it is perhaps easy to realise that the international policy of Australian trade unionism must inevitably present features of exceptional complexity. A case in point is the decision of the All-Australian Council to affiliate with the Pan-Pacific Trade Union Secretariat organised under the auspices of the "Red" International of Labour Unions. This decision was endorsed by the All-Australian Trade Union Congress held at Melbourne from July 16 to July 21, 1928. Apart from the fact that such a decision would add to the difficulties with the Australian Workers' Union, the policy of the All-Australian Council has been the subject of widespread, and, in some cases, outspoken comment in the public press. The reason for this is perhaps not far to seek: an article in the official organ of the Red International of Labour Unions (L'Internationale Syndicale Rouge, No. 94, p. 738) claims that the decision to affiliate with the Pan-Pacifc Trade Union Secretariat was taken "in revenge" for the attempts made by the International Federation of Trade Unions (Amsterdam) to secure the affiliation of the Australian trade union movement.

Yet it cannot be said that the interest of the Australian trade union movement in the activity and work of the Organisation has in any way diminished. Enquiries from workers' organisations, sometimes of a character which call for much effort and resource, continue to receive the attention of the Office. The trade unions of Australia are still persistent in their policy of securing the appointment of a complete workers' delegation to the Sessions of the Conference. Recognition and quotation of Office publications frequently occur in the trade union organs of the Commonwealth. The fact that despite many impediments and objections from the left and from the right, an industrial peace conference, on the general lines of the Turner-Melchett Conferences in Great Britain and the National Industrial Conference in New Zealand, opened in December 1928 at Melbourne, is convincing proof that trade unionism in Australia is susceptible to international influences of a practical kind. It is therefore no exaggeration to state that the present position of the Australian trade union movement in international affairs is a transitional one; and it may be that, concomitant with a greater measure of inter-State co-ordination, trade union activities will ultimately lead to international results in keeping with the best traditions of Australian labour.

Encouraged by a welcome increase in the membership of affiliated unions during the year 1928, the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada has steadily strengthened its position as the most representative workers' organisation in the Dominion. The Congress has devoted its labours as usual to promoting labour legislation throughout Canada, and has induced the Canadian authorities to keep the question of ratification of Conventions in constant
review. The lengthy and informative articles on the work of the Organisation in the Canadian Congress Journal, the official organ of the Trades and Labour Congress, are models of the kind of publicity undertaken by a trade union organisation to keep its members fully posted on international labour questions.

An outstanding effort of the Trades and Labour Congress during the past year has been in connection with the problem of immigration. A general programme of the demands of the workers was adopted by the Annual Convention of the Congress held in Toronto from 10-14 September 1928.

In this programme the Recommendation of the 1928 Session of the International Labour Conference urging the compilation of statistics regarding immigration finds a prominent place. In this, as well as in other matters, it is to be seen that the Trades and Labour Congress contemplates an ever-growing collaboration with the Office.

In India, the All-India Trade Union Congress, which was held at Cawnpore during the latter part of November 1927, was largely confronted with the problem of organisation. At this Congress fraternal delegates were present for the first time from the British Trades Union Congress. The report prepared by these delegates for submission to the Swansea Congress in September 1928 conveys quite clearly the magnitude of the problems attending the organisation of native Indians in trade unions. Despite the handicaps under which the All-India Trade Union Congress is labouring, the clear necessity for development along the lines of the Recommendations and Conventions of the Conference is thoroughly appreciated by the Indian trade union movement. At Cawnpore regret was expressed at the postponement of consideration by the Government of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference.

In New Zealand the relationship of the Office with the trade union movement has been conspicuously re-enforced in the past year. Appreciation of the growing influence of the work of the Office to New Zealand workers' organisations finds expression, not merely in the exchange of correspondence with the New Zealand Alliance of Labour, but also in the repeated requests made by this organisation to the New Zealand Government for representation at the Sessions of the International Labour Conference. On the initiative of the workers' representatives, the question was even raised at the National Industrial Conference which was convened by the Government in March 1928 to explore the possibilities of fostering industrial peace in the Dominion, and which adopted the following resolution:

This Conference desires to place on record its appreciation of the assistance it has received in its deliberations from publications issued by the International Labour Office, Geneva, and suggests to the Government that it should take into consideration the desirability of New Zealand being represented at future Conferences of the International Labour Organisation, as New Zealand is entitled to be represented as a Member of the League of Nations.

The Office's relations with the Trade Union Congress in South Africa have greatly increased in cordiality since the visit of the General Secretary to the last Session of the Conference. There is, however, no substantial progress to report with regard to the linking up of native workers' trade unions with the established organisations of white workers in the Union. Despite the expenditure of considerable time and effort in endeavouring to arrive at a solution of this question, the South African Trade Union Congress has not yet been successful in bringing the native trade union movement under its aegis. A solution is also still outstanding with regard to the affiliation of the South African Trade Union Congress with the International Federation of Trade Unions (Amsterdam). On the other hand, instances have occurred where the South African Trade Union Congress and the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union (the most representative native workers' union) have acted in common to secure concessions from the Government of advantage to trade unionism. Whether the Trade Union Congress will co-operate to secure the appointment of native technical advisers to the 1929 Session of the Conference still remains to be seen. There is no doubt, however, that South African interest in the work of the Office is shared by both white and coloured workers, and it is with confidence that the Office can look forward to an extension of its relations with workers' organisations in that country. It is true that there are many disturbing factors on the horizon of trade union affairs in South Africa. One, of course, is the action of the Communist International in importing a bellicose element into a country already at grips with racial difficulties. The closeness of the Office's relations with South Africa and the gradual recognition of common interests by the various sections of the labour movement in that country gives every cause for hope of a happier solution of South African labour problems than that foreshadowed from Moscow.

There was also considerable progress during 1928 in the workers' movement in South and Central America.

In Argentina, the workers' organisations appear to be still strong and energetic in spite of political vicissitudes and socialist splits.

In Brazil, the workers' movement seems to be growing. Among the organisations
with real trade union tendencies the most important is the railwaymen's group, which covers seven large associations. Next comes the Stevedores' Union. The largest membership is held by the mutual-aid organisations. The Commercial Employees' Association in Rio has a membership of 28,000; and another union, founded some twenty years ago, has a membership of 18,000. So far, however, no central workers' organisation has been created.

In Uruguay, considerable progress was made last year. Certain action taken by Mr. Miguel Salom, workers' delegate to the Conference in 1927 and 1928, has led to the creation in Montevideo of a Committee for workers' relations, which ensures liaison between the Office and the working classes in Uruguay.

In Chile, a new movement for organising the workers developed during 1928 on mutual-aid and co-operative lines. In the beginning of the year a Workers' Co-operation Institute was created for the purpose of supporting the Government and helping in the study of social reforms and the enforcement of existing labour legislation. The membership is about 8,000.

Another organisation, called the Social Employees' Association in Rio has a membership of 3,000 and is organised mostly on a mutual-aid basis.

In Guatemala, the Federation, which last year's Report stated had been created, has been very active in endeavouring to organise the workers throughout the country. The lines being followed are partly mutual aid and partly trade union.

In Nicaragua, there is a Central Workers' Organisation (Obrerismo organizado de Nicaragua), which has a membership of about 4,000 members distributed over fifteen local sections.

In Salvador, the Confederacion obrera, which was created in 1914, has a membership of about 8,000 and is organised mostly on a mutual-aid basis.

It will thus be seen that in most of the countries of Latin America young associations are being formed and developed on the mutual-aid model, which was the first form of occupational organisation in the old industrial countries. Some workers' delegates at the last Session of the Conference considered that this movement should be strengthened and expedited. They decided to create a Committee for International Workers' Relations which should be established at Buenos Ayres, in order to create a more united front for the whole continent and also to strengthen relations with European organisations. The main object of the Committee will be to secure complete delegations to the Conference from the various countries, and to promote the progress of labour legislation in those countries where it is still in an embryonic condition.

In order to complete the above review of the workers' movement it is proposed to follow the precedent of previous Reports and add some notes on the American Federation of Labor.

The strength and influence of this Federation would not appear to be increasing to any considerable extent from year to year. Its definite attitude in favour of new relations and co-operation between employers and workers with a view to more intensified production has probably enhanced its moral prestige throughout the United States. Politically, its attitude has not changed. During the recent presidential elections it once more repudiated the idea of an independent federation and maintained its attitude of absolute neutrality towards the candidates. The policy advocated by Mr. Green, the President of the Federation, at the New Orleans Convention was that all the labour movement demanded from the Government was to be allowed to function, to develop its economic strength and freedom from the "blight of injunctions". "We do not want more of Government", said Mr. Green, "but we want less of Government". However limited the attitude of the Federation may be, however strange some of its formulae may appear to European trade unionists, its persistence in a policy of isolation is a considerable difficulty for international labour legislation and the promotion of peace. This isolation is all the more serious in that the Federation endeavours, through the medium of the Pan-American Federation of Labor, to extend its influence over the whole American Continent and to combine the different federations in South America, with the result that in some directions it comes into competition with the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade Unions.

Of course there is nothing really to prevent the South American federations from belonging to both organisations, but the Office cannot but feel that there is a growing necessity for rapprochement between American and European workers. At its 1928 Convention the American Federation of Labor dealt with the problems of unemployment and migration. Surely, then, it must appreciate the international bearings of these problems. As regards the renewal of relations between America and Europe, it would not seem that the difficulty lies in the financial question, i.e. the question of
contributions. The stumbling block is still the question of autonomy.

From the standpoint of the American Federation of Labor, autonomy does not appear to mean that an absolutely unanimous vote must be required to adopt any proposal at an international trade union congress, but that the trade union movement of any affiliated country should not feel itself bound by a line of policy adopted by an international congress unless that policy was favoured by the trade union movement of the country concerned. The attitude of the American Federation is that the present constitution of the International Federation of Trade Unions should be modified in order that affiliation may be made possible on these lines. It seems also that for any negotiations between the American Federation of Labor and the International Federation of Trade Unions to have any chance of success an understanding would have to be reached on the question of migration. The American trade union standpoint is that foreign labour should not be imported from countries with low wage standards, otherwise their own standard would be imperilled. In any case the American Federation of Labor does not wish to be bound by any obligation in respect of any action or decision of an international trade union congress which might favour unlimited migration between the nations.

Perhaps, too, American trade unionists are still apprehensive of the influence which may be exercised by extremists in the European workers’ movement. Nevertheless, it would not seem impossible that the various objections of the American Federation of Labor could be removed if attempts were made to arrive at some mutual understanding. Surely the advantages which trade unionists throughout the world may gain from an attempt at rapprochement even on limited points, especially for the purpose of securing uniform working conditions, are worth the trouble of taking some steps to break down the present isolation.

83. Salaried employees. — The help of the Office on their behalf is being constantly and vigorously claimed by salaried employees.

As has been mentioned in previous Reports, although salaried employees frequently belong to the same central unions as manual workers, they generally have the impression of being rather neglected, and there are problems special to them which deserve to receive attention. The Office is therefore being continually urged to give some satisfaction to their aspirations, not only by the three great international federations of free or socialist unions, Christian unions and independent unions, but also by numerous national organisations. By the end of 1928 the Office was in touch with eighty organisat-

ions of private salaried employees in twenty-three countries, and with twenty-nine organisations of civil servants or salaried employees in public services in fifteen countries.

In order that the Office might be rightly guided among the various special claims of salaried employees, and that the questions on the Montreux programme might be arranged in proper order, the help of the more authoritative representatives of the movement has again been enlisted. Before it drafted the Grey Report on hours of work of salaried employees, the Office consulted the organisations concerned on certain important points—the classes of employees to be covered, and the connection between the question of shop closing and that of hours of work. The “restraint of trade” clause and the protection of employee inventors were also examined in detail, and suggestions were made on these points by the experts in these matters.

The salaried employees consider, however, that such consultations, however frequent, cannot entirely satisfy their desire for regular and organized contact with the International Labour Office, and there has been a good deal of criticism in connection with the constitution of the Advisory Committee on Intellectual (Professional) Workers. This criticism has been all the keener because this Committee at the outset of its work had to deal with certain questions affecting salaried employees—in fact, the questions of employee inventors and restraint of trade.

The fact is that the distinction between intellectual (professional) workers and salaried employees is extremely indefinite, the definitions varying from country to country, while the organisations frequently include persons belonging to both categories without distinction. The solutions to be adopted will no doubt be to some extent empirical, and in the last analysis can only rest on a firm basis if they are reached in a spirit of mutual tolerance and well-organized co-operation. Hence the proposal made by the German Government (referred to ante, page 29) that the Governing Body should set up a special committee for salaried employees. Hence, too, the suggestion which has been made from time to time to enlarge the Committee on Intellectual Workers by the inclusion of representatives of salaried employees, who might form a special sub-committee which could be convened separately. The German Government’s proposal will be discussed at the May Session of the Governing Body just before the opening of the Conference.

Notwithstanding the objections which may be made to the appointment of such a committee, it is hoped, in view of the special character of certain questions affecting salaried employees, and in view
of the strength of their movement and the interest they take in the work of the Office, that the Governing Body will comply with their desire. It is felt that such a result would mean to the Office a real gain in authority and confidence.

84. Civil servants and salaried employees in public services. — To complete the above notes on the claims of salaried employees and their relations with the Office, some reference should be made to the interest which has been increasingly manifested in the work of the Office during the last few years by the important associations of civil servants and salaried employees in public services.

The International Federation of Postal and Telegraphic Workers, the International Federation of Civil Servants and the International Federation of Workers in Public Services had expressed a desire that the Director of the Office should carry out a consultation similar to that held in the case of questions concerning salaried employees. The same desire had been expressed by several national organisations. In view of the excellent results yielded by this procedure in the case of private salaried employees, the suggestion was acted upon. After an exchange of views on the questions affecting the conditions of life and work of civil servants and salaried employees in public services, it was agreed that collaboration should be limited for the moment to the collection of information and technical research. It was decided that the following questions should be studied:

Composition and working of liaison bodies between the staff and public departments.

Constitution and working of welfare institutions created by civil servants' organisations.

Questions concerning hours of work and holidays.

The system of giving holidays in different countries to women civil servants in cases of childbirth or during the nursing period.

The organisations concerned have collaborated with the Office in these studies, which are at present in progress, and have furnished it with the documents and other information in their possession.

The interest and utility of these studies is shown by the very fact that several Governments have requested the Office to supply information on the same points.

85. Employers' organisations. — As has been stated in previous Reports, the Office's relations with employers' organisations are not so extensive as with the workers' organisations. This is largely due to the fact that, while the workers frequently appeal to the information services of the Office, such appeals come more rarely from the employers. The Office has even wondered sometimes whether its special service for relations with employers' organisations should not be abolished, and endeavours be made to regulate the Office's relations with these organisations by some other means. It is thought, however, that the very fact that relations with employers is a more difficult problem makes it necessary to apply more ingenuity and perseverance to its solution.

An attempt has been made on occasion in previous Reports to analyse and understand both the attitude and the sentiments of the employers' associations with regard to the Organisation. It is thought that the Office has been sufficiently attentive and impartial to have reached fundamental agreement with the employers themselves. It is true that employers still frequently criticise, from the economic point of view, some of the International Labour Conventions in their present form. The German employers, for example, during 1928 reiterated their opposition to cut-and-dried regulation of the working day and to the ratification of a Convention "which the majority of European and non-European industrial countries will have none of" ; that the Belgian employers are protesting against some of the provisions of their 1921 legislation; and that French manufacturers complain that "technical considerations have counted for too little in this discussion of social insurance, where they should have been the principal feature". The employers have never been sufficiently attentive in different connections that they "do not dispute the utility of measures for the protection, insurance and welfare of the workers", that the initial distrust of the Office has disappeared, that there remains nothing but certain objections and opposition which are no longer directed against the work of the Office in general but against certain particular aspects and special tendencies of its activities, and that they recognise that international labour regulation is in the interest of all employers.

Again, though the employers' group, as stated by Mr. Oersted and confirmed by Mr. Lambert-Ribot at the 1928 Session of the Conference, is not without internal difficulties through the variety of the in-

1 Dr. Brauweiler, at the General Assembly of the Federation of German Employers' Associations, 14 Dec. 1928.
2 French General Confederation of Production, 16 March 1928.
3 Mr. Oersted's statement, at the 1928 General Assembly of the Federation of German Employers' Associations.
4 Final Record of the Eleventh Session of the Conference, pp. 199 and 207.
ustrial interests which it represents, and the group frequently has to allow members "entire liberty to make such statements as they desire and to vote as they please," it is none the less a fact that there is a growing desire in the group to work out rules for combined action within the Organisation, or, as a representative of the group put it last year, to "frame a programme".

At the last Session of the Conference, Mr. Lambert-Ribot, speaking, it is true, for himself only, endeavoured to define such a programme. What the employers' group should, in his opinion, demand is that the questions to be dealt with by the Office should be grouped and arranged in some such order as the following: (1) questions affecting the protection of the weaker classes of workers; (2) hygiene and safety questions, on which the chief work of the Office should be to give widespread publicity to the facts; (3) problems of wage payment, payment by results, individual and collective bonuses, for which in the first place a comparative study on a large scale is required; (4) living conditions of the workers, social insurance, "the study of which it is desirable should be continued," housing problems; and (5), when they are economically ripe, questions of hours of work, workers' holidays, etc.

Some immediate observations on this employers' programme were made by the Director in his reply at the Conference itself. This is not the place to resume the discussion. The Office unhesitatingly agrees with Mr. Lambert-Ribot that the protection of the weaker categories of workers should come before all other preoccupations, and is gratified by the support which he was kind enough to lend it in its efforts to secure the early ratifications of the I.L.O. Convention 87, to which he referred. The Office regrets that the employers' programme as a programme of industrial interests which it represents, is still sometimes an atmosphere of suspicion which the Office would like, by unceasing efforts for common understanding, to dissipate completely.

As regards seamen, it need not be concealed that the relations of the Office with some of their leaders, regular and frequent though they are, have also met with serious disappointment, and that, both as regards seamen and the other special categories of employers or workers whose cases have been customarily dealt with separately in this chapter, the Office can only continue its activities for the discharge of which the Organisation needs all the help it can command.

Notwithstanding these causes for regret, the Office can only continue its activities in the same conciliatory spirit and in the same framework of real utility to the Office in helping it to criticise and discipline its activities, and the employers' group can render still more useful service in this direction, at least if it adopts officially the "personal" declarations of its representative.

86. — It remains to review the Office's relations during the past year with various special categories of employers or workers which have been customary to deal with separately in this chapter.

87. *Shipowners and seamen.* — This year, for the third time, a special Session of the Conference will be held for the examination of maritime questions. The near approach of this Session has given rise to closer collaboration with shipowners and seamen, in which there have none the less been difficulties. The Office gladly recognises that the shipowners' representatives on the Joint Maritime Commission have lent their aid in finding the best methods of preparing the Conference, and that the national organisations of the countries concerned have given valuable assistance in the collection of the information required for the delicate question of hours of work on board ship. At the same time, this courtesy and good-will have been accompanied by certain reservations. Although declarations of hostility by the great international shipping organisations, which were so frequent in the past, are gradually disappearing, there is still sometimes an atmosphere of suspicion which the Office would like, by uneasing efforts for common understanding, to dissipate completely.

As regards seamen, it need not be concealed that the relations of the Office with some of their leaders, regular and frequent though they are, have also met with obstacles. It may be that in this direction there is insufficient appreciation of all the difficulties which have to be overcome by the Office, of the importance of broaching no subject without careful documentary preparation, and of the need for the Office to be prepared in advance for the work of the Conference, which, if they do not satisfy all the aspirations of the seamen, none the less guarantee them measures of legal protection which rest on a broad and substantial basis. The Office is not unaware that the responsible representatives of the workers' organisations may, in certain circumstances, have an interest in emphasising, with a view to the success of their own organisations, the clash of interest or conflict that surely it is hardly fair on their part to regard the International Labour Organisation solely as a mere tilting ground, and to forget its positive duties on behalf of the workers, for the discharge of which the Organisation needs all the help it can command.

Notwithstanding these causes for regret, the Office can only continue its activities in the same conciliatory spirit and in the same framework of real utility to the Office in helping it to criticise and discipline its activities, and the employers' group can render still more useful service in this direction, at least if it adopts officially the "personal" declarations of its representative.

88. *Agriculture.* — There is a proverb which says "Happy the nation which has no history." The relations of the Office with the agricultural world are so easy and
confident that they can be described in a very few words.

The time is past when it was necessary to give a long account of the Office’s difficulties with the representatives of agriculture. It must not, however, be concluded from the shortness of this subsection of this Report that the Office only co-operates with agricultural organisations in a small or ineffective way. Frequent meetings have taken place with representatives of agricultural associations in the Rome International Institute of Agriculture and its various committees, particularly the International Agricultural Co-ordination Committee, which held its first meeting at Rome on 3 May, and a meeting of its executive on 13 October. The Office has also kept in touch with the agricultural members of the Consultative Economic Committee of the League of Nations, and has maintained direct relations with the various important agricultural meetings held during the year, e.g. the Congress of the International Land Workers’ Federation (Prague, September), the Congress of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions of Agricultural Workers (Munich, September), and the International Commission of Agriculture (Vienna, May).

The meeting of the last-mentioned Commission opened a new era in the relations of the Office with the agricultural world. The Director was expressly invited to come and address the meeting on the subject of agriculture and the International Labour Organisation. In thanking the Director for his address, in which he took the opportunity to define the situation which now exists. After recalling the doubts and apprehensions which were at first felt by agriculturists as regards the International Labour Conference always on the desirability for representatives of agriculture to come and address the meeting on the subject of agriculture, Dr. Laur took the opportunity to define the situation which now exists. Dr. Laur made the following statement:

The situation is different now that the Permanent Court of International Justice at The Hague has decided against us. It is necessary that we agriculturists should be among those who concern themselves with the task of the International Labour Office. . . . We on our side shall have to prepare our agricultural organisations and fit them for this task. The right methods are still rather obscure. But I should like to propose that we also commission our executive officers to pursue this question further and to seek an appropriate solution. I have especially in mind the setting up of a special committee for agricultural labour questions, and I lay quite particular stress on the desirability for representatives of agriculture at the International Labour Conference always to keep in touch with and to consult with our international organisation.

Dr. Laur also discussed how collaboration could be arranged for through the Mixed Advisory Agricultural Committee, the consultation of experts and the representation of agriculture in the International Labour Conference. A resolution was adopted containing the following passage:

The International Commission of Agriculture is ready to take an active part in the work of realising systematic collaboration between all the bodies which deal with agricultural interests, more especially in collaboration with the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome, and as regards all questions of agricultural labour and social questions with the International Labour Office.

This collaboration has already taken practical form. The Office has been able to render some service by supplying information to the Preparatory Committee of the fourteenth International Congress of Agriculture which will take place at Bucarest in June 1929 under the auspices of the International Agricultural Commission. Further, the attention of the International Agricultural Commission has been drawn to the importance for agriculture of the discussion of accident prevention at the International Labour Conference, and the Commission has sent the Office a memorandum which has been circulated to members of the Governing Body.

It should also be noted that members of the staff of the Agricultural Service in the Office have recently carried out studies in certain countries such as Latvia and Spain, and have thus been able to enter into closer relations with agriculturists in those countries.

89. Intellectual (professional) workers’ organisations. — The Office has still further developed its relations with the various national and international organisations of professional workers during the past year. The Advisory Committee on Professional Workers is now in existence, and has helped to create an atmosphere of mutual confidence and practical collaboration. The International Confederation of Professional Workers held its Sixth Annual Congress at Warsaw from 26-29 September. It devoted most of its time to the discussion of the questions which were to be considered at the first meeting of the Advisory Committee.

The second Congress of the International Federation of Journalists was held at Dijon last November. The Congress expressed its thanks for the publication of the Office’s study on conditions of work of journalists.

The General Council of the International Professional Association of Medical Men, which held its third session in Paris in June, dealt with questions of sickness insurance and asked for the help of the Office in the enquiry into the legal situation of nurses, nurses and other medical assistants.

The Congress of the International Union of Theatrical Artistes took place at Paris in June. Nineteen national associations were represented. The Congress instructed the Executive Committee of the Union

1 Cf. footnote, ante, p. 28.
2 Cf. p. 28, Second Section (I. Social Insurance) for further information on this Congress.
to get into touch with the International Labour Office both on questions of collective agreements, and on those relating to old-age insurance for theatrical artistes.

The Office has, in addition, entered into relations with another professional workers' organisation, the International Union of Musicians. This Union has already supplied the Office with useful information on the finding of employment for, and protection of, music-hall artistes.

The past year also saw the commencement of the activities of the International Bureau of Musicians (Imusa), which was organised at Vienna by the Austrian Confederation of Professional Workers under the auspices of the International Confederation. The Bureau will be mainly engaged in the collection of information. Its four departments will deal with performing musicians, composers, teachers of music and members of theatrical orchestras.

The Advisory Committee on Professional Workers will thus be able to obtain the expert collaboration which, at its first meeting, it recognised as necessary or desirable for all the problems which it has to consider.

90. Co-operation. — Relations with the co-operative movement have continued to develop smoothly and without outstanding events. Collaboration is almost automatic, and never ceases to be active. The Office constantly continues to exchange information and publications with the central co-operative organisations of fifty countries, and this continues with little variation of intensity throughout the year. During 1928 the Office received 366 letters from co-operative organisations, 63 of which contained requests for information on some co-operative problem or institution. The correspondence from the Office consisted of 494 letters, 87 of which enclosed information. The Office received 252 publications and annual reports on the co-operative movement either from the publishers or from co-operative organisations, which have also sent, either free of charge or in exchange for Office publications, 160 different periodicals (4,420 numbers in all).

The exchange of information with co-operative organisations is carried on in every possible form and through every channel. During the past year it has been possible, by making use of Esperanto, to get into touch with persons and sources of information which would have been difficult to reach in any other way.

It is hardly necessary to state that the Office's relations with the International Co-operative Alliance and the various national co-operative movements are as close and cordial as ever. The co-operative movement would have the Office take part in all its manifestations, for, although it is only indirectly affected by reforms in labour legislation, the movement is in constant sympathy with all that the Office does. It will be sufficient to mention that during the past year the Chief of the Co-operative Service visited the Italian Co-operative Exhibition at Rome, and in the course of a short but fruitful tour of investigation brought back direct observations and information on a number of institutions which are arousing great interest in the co-operative world, but about the structure and working of which not very much is as yet known.

The Director has been very glad to note that the Co-operative Service of the Office, small as it is, has become a centre of information and guidance in their researches to students, investigators, and officials or members of the co-operative movement overseas. The Director had an opportunity during his visit to the Far East of observing that co-operative ideas exercise a beneficial influence throughout the world. Attempts are being made in China, though on a small scale, to set up consumers' co-operative societies, and thus to supplement the network of old and traditional credit co-operative organisations. In Japan the Director was able to get into touch with an extensive organisation which already includes large credit associations and consumers' co-operative societies. A great deal of work is also being done in Japan for the study of co-operative ideas. The Office owes a debt of gratitude for the moral support which it receives from the co-operative movement in all countries.

Conclusion

91. — It is impossible to close the above annual review of the various relations which the Office maintains and the sympathy and active support which it receives from various quarters in its work, without expressing a feeling of satisfaction and confidence. Some advanced pacifists have formed a scheme for creating a sort of "world city" around the international institutions of Geneva. They hope to erect a large number of buildings from the edge of the lake to the top of the hill at Pregny in order to provide accommodation near the Office for all the international institutions and private associations whose object it is to promote international conciliation and peace. Whether or not this scheme will ever be realised in the form of an actual city of wood and stone, it is difficult not to feel that a spiritual city is already being created, and that the work of the Office is established at its centre. Without such a city, the Organisation would hardly be more than a useless and powerless bureaucratic institution.

It will, however, once more be asked whether, in view of the fact that the Office has to meet increasing calls in the way of research and investigation and of
Correspondence with the States Members, it is not devoting too much effort and expenditure to the maintenance of such relations. The Director conscientiously believes that this is not the case. The Office receives a great deal of spontaneous assistance and sympathy from universities, churches and associations for social service, but, on the other hand, it often has to deplore the indifference or inertia of those who ought to give it the strongest support. Only too often it has to re-awaken attention and revive enthusiasm. International life is not a spontaneous growth. It can only be created by constant activity, untiring determination, and a clear conception of the object to be attained. The permanent organisations of Geneva are surely the only bodies which can co-ordinate the dispersed efforts of their sympathisers, and make use of them for the common ends which all have in view.

In some quarters the Office may possibly be criticised for being too ready to welcome any manifestations of sympathy, and not enquiring in a sufficiently critical spirit whether the principles of the religious or social institutions which are attracted towards it are, in their origin and essence, really in harmony with the ideas of social justice represented by the Labour Charter. It may happen that some are honestly misled by superficial analogies, and that others may turn back, becoming uneasy at the possible consequences of their participation in the Office's work. Yet how can the Office, at this early stage of the great work in which most of the sovereign States of the world have consented to take part, reject any help which is sincerely offered? Why should it not give free play to all sympathy, even though it may not last, even though it may sometimes be superficial, if it helps in attaining practical results? Time will distinguish what is true from what is false.

Moreover, as the Director said at the Conference of the World Alliance for Promoting International Friendship through the Churches, and at the International Conference on Social Work, the whole work of the Office is based on hopes and aspirations so lofty that they can unite all nations, all sects and all parties. Whatever may be the means by which men hope to raise themselves to the highest degree of civilisation and peace, their ideal is surely the same. When the Catholics speak of "the essential dignity of human personality which is the Temple of God", when the Protestants proclaim "the right of every man to salvation" and the duty "of saving every man and the whole man", when the Democrats declare with Quinet "that the edifice of modern humanity must be raised in every man", when Jaurès claims that "the fullness of humanity should be realised in every man", who can hesitate to recognise that all have a common ideal, and that that ideal cannot be attained unless the programme laid down by Part XIII is first carried out?
SECOND SECTION

Examination of Results

92. The economic situation in 1928. — As usual, the review to be given in this Section of the results obtained during 1928 both in the international field and in the different countries should be preceded by a general survey of the political, moral and economic circumstances in which the work of social reform was carried on during the year.

It is perhaps wiser to refrain from discussing the political circumstances, because the space of a few brief months is not sufficient to give a clear and objective outlook. It would, moreover, be difficult to discern any dominant movements or any outstanding tendencies which have been producing similar effects throughout the world or even in particular groups of countries. The observer must frequently be struck by the fact that in the national political life of recent years there are few signs of any parallel or uniform developments in the various countries. The few general movements which seemed likely to develop immediately after the war have lost in strength and cohesion, including even communism.

There may perhaps be some room for scepticism, too, in the more limited field of international labour legislation. To judge by the table of ratifications, the political and constitutional forms of the various countries do not seem to have much influence on the attitudes of the respective States Members towards the International Labour Organisation or on the rapidity of their dealings with the decisions of the Conference. Perhaps a fresh stage will have to be reached in international labour legislation or in the social movement in general before political action will have any very marked effect on the number of ratifications of Conventions and the application of Recommendations.

The position in the economic field is not quite the same. Obviously it may still be a moot point as to what should be the relation between economic conditions and measures for the protection of the workers. It has been maintained, for example, that the first International Labour Conventions do not take sufficient account of industrial or commercial circumstances. It is, however, proved by experience that during periods of industrial prosperity social progress has been simpler and more rapid. It is, moreover, a characteristic fact of recent years that the post-war work of reconstruction and reorganisation has been to a not inconsiderable extent developing along uniform lines.

Further evidence of this development is furnished by the economic year 1928. Despite certain dislocations and the persistence of national difficulties at certain points, the work of international reconstruction has advanced in currency and financial matters and in the realms of industry and trade, and an examination of the facts leaves the observer with an impression of consolidation and development.

As regards currency, there has been some real new progress which has carried forward the work of the preceding years. Indeed, Spain is now the only exception to the rule of stability—generally de jure and in some cases de facto. In 1928 the peseta fluctuated as compared with parity between 90.15 and 83.25, with a general tendency to fall. Estonia, France, Greece and Norway succeeded in effecting the legal stabilisation of their national currencies. In the case of Estonia and Greece, assistance was given by the League of Nations. At the moment of writing, the legal stabilisation of the Bulgarian lev may be considered as virtually complete, since the League of Nations has given its support by an international loan issued under its auspices in November 1928. The Rumanian leu was also stabilised in February 1929.

The most striking fact of the past year in this connection is the stabilisation of the French franc, which was effected on 25 June. This is not the place for a detailed description of the characteristics of the new French currency system. One fact, however, must be stressed: on the

1 Cf. the discussion commenced by the remarks of Mr. Curčín at the Conference last year, and his article in the International Labour Review, Vol. XVIII, No. 6, Dec. 1928.
occasion of the currency reform the central French bank of issue was granted fresh powers which are of great importance from the economic point of view, and consequently also from the social point of view. The following extract from the report of the Bank of France for the business year 1928 may be quoted on this point:

The agreements of 20 June also contain an entirely new provision which we consider of great value, because it appears to us to favour the development of our relations with foreign banks of issue and to be important for the future of our national markets.

The Bank is authorised to undertake on behalf of foreign banks of issue the purchase of short-period bills, to guarantee the security of these investments and to discount the bills in question again before they reach maturity. For the last two years the chief central banks of issue have granted these facilities to this Bank. In future the Bank will be able to return the services rendered to it with reciprocal courtesy. The economic and monetary circumstances resulting from the war have clearly shown the close solidarity between the chief money markets. The powers granted to the Bank will help to maintain and develop the bonds of cordial co-operation between the various banks of issue which the experience of recent years has shown to be so indispensable.

This new power will also give the Bank the opportunity and the means to take direct action by purchasing or negotiating bills on the open market for short-term capital and will consequently facilitate that control of the currency which is one of its essential duties.

This statement reveals the new preoccupations which are more and more being forced on to the central banks of issue in the direction of international agreements and national efforts for combating the sudden and violent fluctuations which occur in the course of economic affairs.

One of the chief effects of the stabilisation of the world currency system has been an important change in the international distribution of gold. In 1924, out of a total of almost 10 milliard dollars (9,798 million) in the hands of the central banks of issue of the various countries, the United States of America claimed 46.4 per cent., while Europe had 31.6 per cent. In 1927, as the result of a regular and continuous series of modifications, the United States held 40.2 per cent. and Europe 34.8 per cent. of a total of 10,880 million dollars. In 1928 (the figures in all cases refer to the end of the year) the United States' share was only 36.2 per cent., while Europe held 39.5 per cent.

(United States 4,141 million dollars, Europe 4,517 million). The figures for the years 1924–1928 for the three European countries with the strongest reserves are as follows:

France : 709.9 — 710.5 — 710.6 — 709.1 — 1,253.4;
Germany: 194.9 — 303.3 — 451.7 — 459.6 — 665.5;
Great Britain: 756.9 — 703.3 — 735 — 741.3 — 749.5.

Such changes may be taken as marking a consolidation in the monetary situation, and more generally in the economic situation of Europe. There is, however, another phenomenon, less satisfactory, which must also be noted when registering the consequences of monetary stabilisation in the various countries, i.e. the recognition by the national systems of legislation of the diversity of currencies created during a series of years of depression. Before the war there were in Europe 21 currencies of 9 different gold values; to-day there are 30 of 21 different gold values. In view of this fact, so different from the state of affairs in America and Canada, each of which employ the dollar, it is satisfactory to note that certain first efforts were made in 1928 to effect some rapprochement between currency systems. Estonia, for example, has decided to adopt for its national currency a kroone equal in value to that used in Sweden, and the banks of issue in Sweden, Denmark and Norway have agreed in principle to re-establish the Scandinavian monetary union for gold currency.

Now that the world has returned to monetary equilibrium on a gold basis, the States have of necessity been led to pay greater attention to fluctuations in the purchasing power of gold and the means of avoiding them. The Economic Consultative Committee at its first Session expressed in this connection a wish which the Council of the League of Nations accepted and transmitted to the Financial Committee. This latter Committee, after a preliminary study, decided in favour of a scientific international enquiry into this question, and suggested the appointment of a special committee composed of eight or nine persons for the purpose of examining the causes and fluctuation in the purchasing power of gold and their effects on the economic life of the nations. The Council of the League has approved these proposals. Thus the competent bodies are now officially engaged in studying a question to which attention has frequently been drawn in this annual Report on account of its effects on the labour market. In a similar connection, last year's Report mentioned the meeting at New York early in July 1927 of the Governors of the New York Federal Reserve Bank, the Bank of England and the German Reichsbank and the Deputy Governor of the Bank of France. In April 1928 an international meeting was held in Paris, at the suggestion of the League of Nations, between representatives of twenty-two central banks of issue, with a view to reaching an agreement on the most practical methods of following the movements of money markets and problems of credit.

In all these directions the desires of the International Conference at Genoa for co-operation between central banks of issue are being realised or are moving towards realisation.
Previous Reports have noted the first effects of monetary stabilisation: reconstitution of savings, re-opening of credit, increased financial balances and lower interest rates. In all these directions, generally speaking, fresh progress may be reported for 1928. The permanent or temporary rises in the discount rates of the central banks in Germany and the United States are due to special circumstances.

International credit operations have continued. The total loans placed by different countries in Great Britain, the Netherlands, Switzerland and the United States amounted to 2,346 million dollars in 1927; in 1928 they amounted to 2,121 million. Out of the latter amount the share of the United States was 1,197,371,000 dollars, that of Great Britain £157,888,454 (768,892,421 dollars). The loans granted by the United States to France amounted to 1929 to 584,721,000 dollars, of which 278,788,000 went to Germany, 56,016,000 to Denmark, 58,016,000 to Italy, 42,833,000 to Norway, etc.; those of Great Britain to continental countries amounted to £38,216,367 (186,113,707 dollars), of which £7,898,413 went to Germany, £7,654,574 to Greece, £6,700,250 to Hungary, £8,259,883 to Sweden, etc.

The loans raised on foreign markets naturally form only a part of international credit operations. Account must also be taken of the participation of foreign countries in loans on the national markets, the purchase of bills on foreign centres, the foundation of undertakings or branches and the purchase of property in foreign countries, etc. There are many indications to justify the conclusion that there was a particularly extensive movement of capital in these various forms in 1928, supporting the action of granting credit from one place to another.

This monetary stability and the easier situation on the money market have enabled the majority of countries to carry on in 1928 the development of their economic activities.

Generally speaking, prices remained practically stable or showed a slight tendency to fall. In the United States the index fluctuated between a minimum of 188 in January 1928 and a maximum of 143.4 in September. In December it stood at 188.5. In Great Britain the index rose from 141.1 in January to 149.6 in May, falling again to 138.3 in December. In the Netherlands it was 153 in January, 144 in August and 148 in December. In Germany it moved from 185.7 in January to 141.6 in July, falling to 139.9 in December. In Norway, where the reform of the currency was carried out on the basis of a very considerable revalorisation, wholesale prices have fallen considerably during the year. The index has moved progressively from 164 in January to 157 in December. In France, despite certain fluctuations, there is a tendency to rise, the index having been 606.7 in January and 628.4 in December. The same phenomenon can be observed on a similar scale in Belgium and Italy. In Belgium the index rose from 851 in January to 855 in December, while in Italy it moved from 490 to 497 for the same months. In the case of these three countries this rise shows the tendency to a readjustment of world prices.

Along with the consolidation of the currency and the increase in the supply of money, one of the most important facts dominating the economic situation in 1928 has been the increased tendency to industrial concentration. This can be observed chiefly in two forms: union or amalgamation of companies or agreements between companies which remain independent.

It would seem that the most marked tendency during the past year has been towards amalgamation. This can be seen very clearly in almost every country among banks, but, as a result of the action of the banks and of the investment companies and investment trusts, both national and international, which have been springing up in the various countries, the movement is extending to very different branches. Certain difficult situations make this step a necessity in many countries, as the amalgamation of undertakings seems to be an indispensable condition for the improvement of the industrial situation. This, it would appear, is the case in the recent concentrations among the heavy industries in Great Britain, where in the textile industry the Lancashire Cotton Corporation, registered on 24 January 1929, expects before the end of the year to have grouped under it seven or eight million spindles.

One fact which must be noted, at least in certain countries such as Great Britain, is the new attitude of public opinion to such amalgamations; where a few years ago it was definitely hostile, it is now becoming more and more favourable.

It may not be out of place to give a brief outline of this movement in favour of industrial concentration both in its national and international developments during 1928.

In the first place, a certain number of international cartels were set up in 1928 for raw materials. Thus there are cartels for zinc (Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Poland and Spain); for cement (Belgium and Germany in the one case, and in addition Belgium, Denmark, France and Luxembourg); for whale oil (Great Britain, Netherlands, Norway); for magnesium chloride (Czechoslovakia and Germany); for mercury (Italy and Spain). The ferromanganese cartel has been extended to the United States, and the cellulose cartel to Czechoslovakia. The Central European
Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany and New cartels for semi-manufactured products have been set up in the heavy branches of the chemical industry (Austria and Germany), artificial silk (Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany and Italy), tin (Great Britain and the United States of America), wire (Austria, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway and Sweden). Among manufactured products cartels have been set up for packing paper (Austria, Czechoslovakia and Hungary) and printing paper (Austria, Czechoslovakia and Germany). Czechoslovakia and Great Britain have both joined the cartel for the manufacture of piping. In agriculture, a cartel of egg importers has been formed (Bulgaria, Germany, Rumania, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom).

It is unnecessary to point out that the tendency towards the creation and development of agreements within each country has been equally marked.

This vast movement of concentration is very frequently linked up with the tendency to rationalisation. In fact, this movement, also, both by its extent and its ramifications, is one of the main features of the economic situation during the year.

Last year's Report mentioned the important place which rationalisation took in the discussions of the International Economic Conference and in the programme which it drafted. An attempt was also made to give some idea of the spread of the movement and the efforts made to carry it out in a certain number of countries. In this direction fresh and very important progress must be reported for 1928. Rationalisation is not merely an idea, but also a power which is now moving men and things. It is renewing, rejuvenating and putting fresh life into the economic system. It cannot be denied that at the same time it raises serious problems, particularly in labour matters. It has, however, one great virtue: it opens fresh horizons, engenders confidence and creates energy.

In the United States attention was devoted in 1928 chiefly to the rationalisation of distribution and the problem of bringing production into harmony with systematically observed and recorded needs. After the important work carried out in the field of production, these were the tasks which appeared most pressing.

The following notes give some idea of the amounts spent for rationalisation purposes in the United States and the results obtained. The annual expenditure on industrial research in this country is estimated by the National Industrial Conference Board at 200 million dollars, of which approximately two-thirds has been raised by industrial undertakings or associations of employers, and the remaining one-third by the State. The National Research Council sent a questionnaire to a large number of companies with a turnover of one million dollars or over. The replies received from 599 of these companies show that, as a result of this research work, 328 have improved the quality of their products, 290 have reduced the cost of production, and 200 have developed new spheres of activity. During the year a committee was set up by the Department of Commerce, under the chairmanship of Mr. Herbert Hoover, then Secretary for Commerce, for examining the development of conditions and methods in the economic field.

In Germany, the National Federation of the Automobile Industry (Reichsverband der Deutschen Automobilindustrie) decided to set up a research institute for heavy motor-cars. The work of this institute is intended to contribute to avoiding the various causes of waste of time, money and effort always involved in the execution of operations of the same nature in a multitude of different centres. For similar purposes the Union of German Iron Metallurgists (Verein deutscher Eisenhüttenleute) instituted in Düsseldorf, in the form of a training course for timekeepers, a series of lectures devoted to the difficulties revealed by research in the chronological sequence of the various operations involved in production and the results of the systematic work recently carried out. The centre for research into the physiology of work instituted in connection with the United Steel Works (Vereinigte Stahlwerke A.G.) in Düsseldorf has added to its other activities the training of young certificated engineers who are taught the latest methods of observations and timekeeping.

Similar measures have been taken by the Coal-mining Committee of the National Coal Council (Kohlenbergbau Ausschuss des Reichskohlenrates) which met in Berlin on 2 February 1928, and the German Committee for Occupational Standards in the Mining Industry (Deutscher Fachnormenausschuss für Bergbau) which met at Halle on 1 and 2 November.

In France the Minister of Commerce, in a letter addressed to all important economic bodies, suggested the following system of standardisation: first of all, standardisation offices set up by groups of producers would be the technical agents for drawing up model schemes; in the second place the French Standardisation Association, composed of persons and associations interested in the problem, would act as a centre for information and publicity; finally, the general supervision of this economic movement would be entrusted to the Permanent Standardisation Committee, an official body set up in connection with the Ministry of Trade in 1928.

The Minister of Labour started an investigation through the industrial organisations and the Chambers of Commerce...
into: (i) the social consequences of rationalisation methods from the threefold point of view of saving in labour and unemployment, wages, health and physical and mental fatigue of the workers; (ii) the possibilities of mitigating the unfavourable effects of rationalisation methods; (iii) the relations between employers and employees and the influence on the adoption and practical application of rationalisation.

Similar enquiries are being conducted by the Union of Metallurgical and Mining Industries in France and by the Social Union of Catholic Engineers into the rationalisation of the economic system.

In Great Britain the necessity for reorganising industry is being more and more widely felt. The report of the Industrial Enquiry of the Liberal Party advocates the creation of a Scientific Management Institute in which the State would collaborate with industrialists and workers' associations. According to this report, the State should also (i) extend to the whole of industry the work carried out by the British Engineering Standards Association and by the Bureau of Standards of America, (ii) undertake or instigate enquiries into the various problems of distribution, (iii) develop simplification and encourage it by energetic propaganda, (iv) co-ordinate and encourage the spread of technical education and education in scientific management, and the extension of vocational selection and training.

The Mond Conference, which met at the beginning of July 1928, took up a similar attitude to these questions. The tendency towards scientific organisation of industry and trade involving the grouping of single undertakings in any one industry was recognised, and it was considered that it should be encouraged. The Conference accepted the resolutions concerning rationalisation adopted by the International Economic Conference at Geneva in May 1927. The report of the Conference recognises that certain aspects of rationalisation may tend to involve migration of labour or to have prejudicial effects on working conditions, and that consequently it is necessary to see that the interests of the workers are not harmed.

In Italy the Minister of National Economy laid before the Chamber on 22 March 1928 the views of the Government on the importance of rationalisation in the development of the industry of the country. In addition practical steps are being taken on all sides. On 5 February 1928 the "Instituto laboratorio per l'organizzazione scientifica della produzione" was set up in Turin. A national organisation for standardisation, the "Ente nazionale per l'unificazione dell'industria", has been founded at Milan. At the suggestion of the Government a Mixed Occupational Commission for the Standardisation of Fabrics (Commissione mista di industriali, commercianti e tecnici per i tessuti-tipo) has been set up to contribute both to the stabilisation of the lira and the reduction of the cost of living. It has distinguished seven types of fabrics, known as standard fabrics, the production and sale of which will be regularised and supervised by a technical committee. The high cost of building has led to the foundation of a permanent committee for the scientific organisation of the building trade by the Italian Federation of Builders (Federazione Nazionale Fascista Costruttori).

One 17 and 18 June, under the auspices of the "Ente nazionale italiano per l'organizzazione scientifica del Lavoro", the first national congress for scientific management was held at Turin. The questions on the agenda were cost prices and simplification. In June also the first congress of the Italian General Fascist Industrial Confederation at Rome expressed the opinion that the movement in favour of rationalisation should be intensified.

In Spain the "Comité nacional de Organización científica del Trabajo" was set up for the principal purpose of stimulating research into the organisation of work and encouraging the application of this research work in Spanish undertakings. The Committee organised a National Scientific Management Congress at Barcelona. It also proposes to extend its activities to the Spanish-American countries.

In December 1927 the Swiss Foundation for Psycho-Technics was set up with its headquarters at Zurich. In French Switzerland also a Committee on rationalisation has been set up (elimination of waste). In addition, the Swiss society for the exchange of experience gained in the working of industrial undertakings, founded in German Switzerland on the model of the Management Research Association in Boston and composed of seven undertakings belonging to different branches of economic activity, appointed two sections in 1928 to apply a programme on purchasing and warehousing on the one hand and the wages system on the other.

In Austria the constituent assembly of the Austrian Management Institute (Österreichisches Kuratorium für Wirtschaftlichkeit; O.K.W.) was held in the Chamber of Commerce of Vienna on 22 June 1928. The Federation of Industrial Employees in Vienna has set up a joint association for scientific management in industrial undertakings. Its purpose is to study continuous process work, the methods of avoiding fatigue and waste of energy, the trade union attitude to rationalisation and the rationalisation of office work. Similar bodies have been set up in various industrial centres.

In Poland the second Scientific Management Congress met at Warsaw from 4 to 6 May.

The Third Congress of Czechoslovak Municipalities and Communes, held at Prague from 28 to 30 September, included
on its agenda the question of the rationalisation of the technical and economic activities of municipalities and municipal undertakings. Moreover, the German Textile Union in Czechoslovakia (Allgemeiner Textilverein in der Tschechoslowakei), has set up a Committee for efficiency in the textile trade (Ausschuss für Wirtschaftlichkeit in der Textilindustrie: A.W.T.). This Committee has commenced negotiations with the Government with a view to the standardisation of goods supplied to the State. A certain amount of standardisation has been carried out and other ideas are being considered. In the paper industry, too, the employment of standard sizes has made rapid progress, particularly since the furniture industry began to standardise the corresponding dimensions of office furniture.

In Latvia, where a council for administrative reform and an institute for the study of the applied psychology of youth was set up a few years ago, the Central Agricultural Society has recently started a section for scientific management. Under the direction of the Minister of State Lands and Agriculture has drafted a Bill for the standardisation of cereals for export. These will first of all be classified according to known types accepted on the world markets. In order to achieve this, samples will be taken during the harvest and examined by a committee of specialists. The ports of Galatz, Braila and Constantza will be provided with warehouses with silos for cleaning and sorting out the cereals. The Bill also provides for the installation of one or two stores on the western frontier.

The Australian Institute of Industrial Psychology, set up in September 1927 at Sydney on the model of the London National Institute of Industrial Psychology, has published a report on the first six months of its work. A considerable part of its activities has been devoted to popularising in Australia the principles and methods of industrial psychology.

In Japan the National Association for Scientific Management, founded in November 1927 and including eight member associations, has begun work on the various points mentioned in its programme. During his journey, the Director was able to note the important work which has been carried out by the disciples of scientific management and the warm welcome given to the disciples of scientific management.

In the international field there are innumerable proofs of this universal interest in rationalisation and of the extent of the movement -- resolutions of the Economic Consultative Committee with a view to reaching agreement as to the terms, aims and methods of rationalisation, the unification of methods in different countries when undertaking enquiries into rationalisation, international action for the simplification of industrial processes, reduction in the number of types of products, standardisation, etc.; resolution of the International Labour Conference asking the Office to study the effects of rationalisation on the conditions of life and work of the workers (May 1928); fifth International Conference on Applied Psychology (Utrecht, September 1928); resolution of the third International Congress on Precious Metals (Paris, October 1928) concerning the international standardisation of precious metals; resolution of the Workers' Socialist International (Brussels, August 1928) asserting the right of the workers' organisations to share in the application of rationalisation; resolution of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions (Munich, September 1928), demanding that the economic advantages gained from rationalisation should be used to improve the material and moral condition of the working class, etc.

Lastly, special mention must be made of the centralising work carried out by the International Scientific Management Institute, which the International Labour Organisation helped to found (cf. ante, § 34).

This enumeration, though long, is still incomplete, but it will suffice to show the part played by rationalisation problems, in all their various aspects, in the economic and social thought of this generation. It is impossible here, to discuss cursorily the question of how far rationalisation has been put into practice, but it is certain that the movement is extending, transforming industrial life, and giving economic activity a fresh impulse, the effects of which can be seen in the most varied directions during the past year. For present purposes this statement must suffice, as the object in view in these notes is simply to indicate the outstanding characteristics of the economic development of the year.

In addition to the efforts made in stabilisation of the currency, concentration and rationalisation, there has also been an extension of the commercial relations between States.

It will be recalled that the International Economic Conference advocated the suppression of all hindrances to freedom of trade, the abandonment of the practice of discrimination between countries, no further increases in tariffs, a co-ordinated and general effort for developing the customs system, long-term commercial treaties with the most-favoured-nation clause, unification and simplification of customs terminology, etc. Although the results obtained in these various directions are far from satisfying the hopes raised by the resolutions of the Conference, appreciable progress has nevertheless been made. The first International Conference for the Abolition of Prohibitions and Restrictions on Imports and Exports met in October and November 1927. It was faced by various difficulties which seemed
likely, on account of the number of reservations made, to reduce considerably the scope of its work. A second Conference, however, which met in July 1928, was able to achieve positive results, since most of the reservations had disappeared in the interval. The Convention of 8 November 1927, supplemented by the Agreement of 12 July 1928, has so far been signed by twenty-nine States. In the interval between the two meetings, a Conference had been held between representatives of the Governments interested in the export trade in skins and bones, for which goods it seemed that reservations would have to be introduced in the general Convention. These representatives, however, were able to reach an agreement not only on the abolition of all prohibitions but also on abolishing the export duties in the case of skins and limiting their level in the case of bones. This Arrangement, which has, up to the present, been signed by twenty States, has been a considerable contribution to the success of the general Convention. It is also important in that it constitutes a precedent for collective customs agreements referring to certain commodities of special importance. The Economic Consultative Committee, at its first session in May 1928, suggested this method of effecting tariff disarmament by general agreements dealing in each case with one single commodity or with one commodity and its allied or by-products. The Economic Committee is at present studying the possibility of collective arrangements of this type for such products as aluminium, wood, paper pulp, rice, cement, fresh fruit, etc.

A first step has been taken towards the unification of customs terminology: a complete skeleton scheme has been drawn up and successfully passed a practical test, whereas the first trial in 1927 failed. The different headings used in the tariff systems of five countries producing various types of industrial commodities. The experts are at present endeavouring to fill up some of the more important sections so as to form a complete customs classification.

The International Conference on Economic Statistics, too, adopted a Convention which has already been signed by twenty-five States.

The proposals of the International Economic Conference with reference to the economic relations between States have thus not remained a dead letter. Steps have been taken in the direction of rapprochement, machinery has been created and methods tested. Nor is that all. Industrial and economic co-operation is beginning, and a real international spirit is being created which is continually growing in strength.

The growth of this spirit is to be seen, too, in the direct economic relations between States and in their bilateral agreements. In the new atmosphere, created by all the conditions successively mentioned above, the number of commercial arrangements and agreements in the course of the year has increased considerably. For 1928 the Office has noted at least sixty-six agreements of this type, and this may not be the complete figure.

The essential point is that a considerable number of these agreements contain the most-favoured-nation clause. The Office has found it in twenty-seven cases.

The four groups of facts which have been reviewed above may be considered in a general way as working towards the recuperation of the economic situation and the development of business. At the same time, there are some movements in the opposite direction which cannot be ignored, especially if regard be had, not to the general world situation, but to the special position of particular countries. Monetary reform, for example, on the basis of extensive revalorisation leads to difficulties which are well known in readjusting prices to the cost of goods produced abroad. Again rationalisation measures may indirectly cause difficulties in certain branches of industry, through their first effects on the labour market, the unemployment which they sometimes produce and the consequential restrictions in the purchasing power of certain classes of workers. The price policy of cartels, also, if not inspired by a lofty conception of the interests of the community, runs the risk of having a similar action on the tributary industries. And lastly, even commercial agreements may, when first applied, involve difficulties of adaptation in certain directions. A general survey like the present must take account of effects of this kind whether they be transitory or more or less lasting.

Other movements connected with the evolution already in progress in the international economic system must also be noted—the rapid industrial growth of certain overseas countries, particularly the British Dominions, the competition of certain young industries which are challenging older industries in possession of the market, revolutions in technique, sudden changes in fashion, etc. All the facts of this type should be taken into consideration if a clear idea is to be gained of the critical position in certain industries, and consequently of the difficulties which face those countries in which such industries take a place of primary importance. For present purposes, however, it is simply proposed to refer to the coal problem and the difficulties in the cotton industry, which has suffered from a chronic depression even in a country such as the United States, in spite of the prosperity this country has been enjoying for so many years.

Nevertheless, generally speaking and allowing for isolated tendencies in the opposite direction in certain special cases, there are indications of definite progress in the various data which may be taken
In order to appreciate their significance to the full, however, it must be remembered that 1927 had already shown a very considerable advance on 1926, and that in a great number of cases a reaction was considered probable.

In the case of coal, 1927 had been a record year. The 1913 figure, which was the highest for pre-war years (1,242 million tons), had been exceeded, the world total being 1,324 million tons. Figures are not yet available for the world total in 1928, but for a group of fourteen countries 1 which in 1927 represented 95 per cent. of the world total the figure is 1,183 million tons as against 1,219 million in 1927. This means a diminution of 56.7 million tons or 3 per cent. The countries which have chiefly suffered are the United States (26 million tons), Great Britain (14,700,000 tons) and Germany (2,700,000 tons). The falling off in production in Great Britain and Germany is partially compensated by the increase in the production of other European countries, and the increased production of lignite, which has risen from 185,500,000 tons in 1927 to 202,400,000 in 1928. The decrease in the production of coal in Great Britain may be at least partly explained by the depression in the iron and steel industry, while in Germany the dispute in the Ruhr district is a partial explanation.

The output of petroleum has continued to increase, being 1,306,000 tons in 1928 as against 1,261,000 in 1927. The output of cast iron increased from 86,562,000 metric tons in 1927 to 87,512,000 in 1928; that of steel from 102,000,000 tons in 1927 to 109,000,000 in 1928. Compared with 1913 (= 100) the index number for 1927 was 134 and for 1928, 143. The output of copper rose from 1,596,000 tons in 1927 to 1,739,000 in 1928 (index numbers 161 and 175). That of zinc rose from 1,342,000 tons in 1927 to 1,418,000 in 1928 (129.8 and 137.2). For lead there was a slight decrease from 1,661,000 tons in 1928 as against 1,650,000 (189.7 and 188.8). The output of gold has increased since 1927, rising from 10,383,000 fine ounces to 19,774,000 (87.2 and 89); that of silver has fallen slightly from 251,000,000 fine ounces in 1927 to 249,000,000 in 1928 (108.7 and 107.8). In shipbuilding the tonnage launched rose from 2,286,000 gross tons in 1927 to 2,609,000 in 1928. There is, however, a falling-off in the number of ships under construction from 3,119 in December 1927 to 2,618 in December 1928.

With regard to agricultural production, a comparison of the principal cereals shows a general increase from 1927 to 1928. This increase is 8 per cent. in the case of wheat, 5 per cent. for rye and rye together, 19 per cent. for barley, 14 per cent. for oats, while for maize there is a slight fall of 1 per cent. The world output of sugar (beet and cane sugar together) is still rising. For the season 1928-1929 it is estimated at 26,500,000 tons as against 25,218,000 in 1927-1928. Index numbers as compared with 1913-1914 : 123 in 1927-1928 and 140 in 1928-1929. The output of beet sugar in Europe was 8,247,000 tons in 1928-1929 as against 7,970,000 in 1927-1928. This is the first time since the war that the 1913-1914 figure (8,190,000) has been passed.

The world output of cotton during the 1927-1928 season shows a marked falling off from the preceding year. It amounts only to 27,748,000 bales as against 30,368,000 in the previous year. This decrease is a result of a reduction in the output of the United States from 19,135,000 bales in 1926-1927 (63 per cent. of the world output) to 12,900,000 bales in 1927-1928 (54 per cent. of the world total). The position of rubber is very favourable. Both the production and consumption have increased considerably from the preceding year, while stocks are decreasing. The world output in 1928 is estimated at 547,000 tons as against 598,000 in 1927 (plus 8.2 per cent.) and the consumption at 675,000 as against 586,000 tons (plus 15.2 per cent.). The stocks have moved in the opposite direction : 225,000 tons in 1928 as against 259,000 in 1927.

Another index of economic activity is provided by the issues of capital for old and new companies. Here again, generally speaking, marked progress can be observed from 1927 to 1928. In the United States the issues for private companies for the first ten months of 1928 amounted to $1,188.5 million dollars as against $5,187.8 million in 1927. In Great Britain the issues for old and new companies amounted to £141,200,000 in 1928 as against £134,000,000 in 1927. The 1928 figure is the highest reached since 1920. In Germany, although the figure for the issues of shares by old companies has decreased in 1928 as compared with 1927 and 1926 (2,413 million marks in 1926, 3,131 million in 1927 and 1,054.7 million in 1928), the share capital issued for the founding of new companies has considerably increased, rising from 213.9 million marks in 1926 to 340.7 million in 1927 and 800 million in 1928. In France public issues of French companies reported in the Bulletin des Annonces Légales in 1928 amount to 10,764 million francs, an increase of 45 per cent. on 1927 and 124 per cent. on 1926. In Italy the net capital invested in 1928 for private companies amounted to 2,698 million lire as against 1,840 million in 1927.

1 Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France (including the figures for the Saar), Germany, Great Britain, India, Japan, Dutch East Indies, Netherlands, Poland, Russia, South Africa, and United States of America.
It is well to compare these movements in the capital of companies with the movements in the quotations of industrial shares. Here again there has been general progress, sometimes of considerable extent.

In explaining the upward movements which have been noted and which are sometimes very marked, it is well to consider not only changes in dividends but also various other factors—the capitalisation of a part of the profits for various reasons, large-scale purchase of shares with a view to amalgamations, the purchase of shares from one country to another, the increase in the amount of money available, the general tendency to lowering the rate of interest, etc. But among all these elements, the part played by the increase in dividends must not be underestimated. In the United States the net profits for a group of 900 companies were 3,540 million dollars in 1927 and rose to 4,064 million dollars in 1928, being an increase of approximately 15 per cent.

The data concerning foreign trade also throw light on the development of economic activity. As in last year’s Report, the Office has collected for a certain number of countries the percentage increase or decrease of imports and exports as compared with the preceding year, reckoned in the national currency. The following table will show the changes which have taken place; in the great majority of cases there has been an increase in international trade in 1928 as compared with 1927.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Exports</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>+ 5.9</td>
<td>+ 1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>+ 3.1</td>
<td>+ 2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>+ 8.6</td>
<td>+ 12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>+ 12.4</td>
<td>+ 10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>+ 38.8</td>
<td>+ 5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>+ 2.8</td>
<td>+ 6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>+ 36.3</td>
<td>+ 20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>+ 25.5</td>
<td>+ 1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>+ 28.1</td>
<td>+ 6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>- 1.1</td>
<td>- 10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>- 2.10</td>
<td>- 2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>- 2.4</td>
<td>- 6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>- 2.5</td>
<td>+ 2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>- 8.2</td>
<td>- 7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>- 1.7</td>
<td>- 0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>+ 23.2</td>
<td>+ 16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>+ 9.6</td>
<td>+ 4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>+ 5.9</td>
<td>+ 5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>+ 0.5</td>
<td>+ 17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>+ 3.4</td>
<td>- 0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>+ 16.8</td>
<td>- 0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>+ 7.2</td>
<td>- 8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>+ 7.9</td>
<td>- 3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>+ 7.1</td>
<td>+ 5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>- 2.1</td>
<td>+ 6.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The significance of the upward movement shown by these figures is accentuated by the fact that a similar movement was reported from 1926 to 1927.

The various indices which have been considered successively above show clearly that fresh progress has been made in the economic activity of the world. Taken as a whole, the year 1928, as was noted at the outset, has been not merely a year of consolidation but also a year of economic development, expansion and progress. An enterprising spirit is appearing in many directions; in older countries important work which has for several years been neglected or suspended is being taken up again courageously; in new countries there is a growing desire for improvement and wide programmes are being drawn up and carried out. Just as in the periods of great economic activity before the war, so now the world is seized by a feverish desire for production, forces are being concentrated and methods renewed, fresh industries resulting from the most recent progress in science and technique are raising immense amounts of capital, overturning whole branches of production and spreading new commodities through the various strata of society.

At the same time, through all the activity of the economic system, one can sense also elements of uneasiness or even of depression at work. The clearest indication is the persistent unemployment, which on the whole is diminishing in comparison with 1927, but is still very extensive in a certain number of countries. This may be seen in the special chapter devoted to unemployment (Second Section of this Report).

The fact which lies at the root of this persistent unemployment and which is also at the root of the bitter and continuous commercial rivalry is the disproportion between the progress of productive power and purchasing power. To-day, just as at the time when it was decided to convene an International Economic Conference in 1925 or in 1927 when this Conference met, the great economic problem facing the world is the problem of marketing an ever-increasing amount of products. The trouble is doubtless less acute to-day in the majority of cases because all the factors which have been mentioned above have come into play, but in principle it still continues. It was difficulties of this type which caused the labour disputes during 1928, which were sometimes extremely serious, as, for example, in Germany and Sweden. It is these difficulties to a large extent which have given rise to the two important movements in favour of concentration and rationalisation. A reaction against them can be observed in all the international economic machinery. The objective which is universally aimed at is a simultaneous systematic reduction in costs and an adjustment of production to the possibilities of demand.

It is here that the problem arises to which attention has been drawn in previous Reports, particularly last year, viz. the part played by the home markets and more particularly by the purchasing power of the working masses in the development of industrial activity. Quite recently Dr. H. Luther, former Chancellor of
Reich, in his book *Von Deutschlands eigener Kraft*, has once again emphasised the first point: "An extended home market", he says, "means an increase in production, but increased production in its turn means a fall in the cost of production of each unit, and consequently the possibility of fixing the price, even on the home market, at a level which will lead to a maximum sale. For this reason a growing home market makes it perfectly possible to lower export prices and consequently and simultaneously to increase the amount of exports without injuring home consumers."

As regards the question of the movement of wages and its relationship to the general progress of industrial productivity, and more particularly to the rationalisation movement, this problem is so vast and so complex that it would be unpardonable to deal with it cursorily. The Office is fully aware of the objections which are still being made by certain European employers (particularly in the countries which are poorer in industrial resources) when the United States of America are held up as an example or when the conclusions or reports of statesmen and industrialists of that country are quoted. But now that the renewal of economic activity seems to encourage fresh hopes of social progress, too much emphasis cannot be laid on the necessity for all responsible persons to set out in good faith and with high courage to discover the means and methods of organisation best calculated to consolidate the new economic system and to ensure that modern industrial civilisation may bring forth abundant fruit.

### RATIFICATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ratifications recommended</th>
<th>Ratifications authorised</th>
<th>Ratifications communicated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1929</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Ratifications recommended include the 18 ratifications of the Borne Convention on the prohibition of the employment of white (yellow) phosphorus in the manufacture of matches which have been received since the foundation of the Organisation, in direct pursuance of the Recommendation adopted on this subject by the Washington Session of the Conference.

The number of ratifications has thus increased by 79 in one year, the highest figure so far attained for any single year. The highest figure for preceding years was 57 ratifications between 30 May 1924 and 30 May 1925.

Some explanation has been given in the two previous Reports of the slowing down from year to year in the pace of ratifications, and it was stated that this appeared to be only a temporary phenomenon. As a matter of fact, the pace had already begun to quicken in the beginning of 1928: in opening the Eleventh Session of the Conference, the Chairman of the Governing Body was in a position to announce that 300 ratifications had been deposited. Since then the same pace seems to have been steadily kept up, and it is hoped that there will be further results to report when the forthcoming Session of the Conference opens.

At the last Session of the Conference the increase in the number of ratifications was the subject of various observations. Both the employers' and workers' groups cautioned the Office against any over-estimation of the value of the figures which seemed so satisfactory. The one group considered that the Office's optimism was rather forced, seeing that 300 ratifications was still a very poor result in comparison with the 1,000 or 1,200 ratifications which should normally have been registered. The other group suggested that the real results should not be estimated simply by the number of ratifications, seeing that all the ratifications have not the same positive value. While in some cases they might be a concrete sign of new legislation in the ratifying countries, in many cases they merely consolidated progress which had already been effected in national legislation.

Similar objections unfailingly recur in discussions on ratification results. The Office must just as unfailingly reply to the one group that, while there is no doubt a very considerable gap between the results already secured and the hopes which had been entertained, the number of ratifications shows that the work of the Organisation for promoting social progress has not been in vain, that every ratification registered represents a considerable total of effort, and that it is
not fair to debit the Organisation with all the Conventions which have not been ratified. Similarly, it must be pointed out again to the other group that the Organisation was founded in order to frame Labour Conventions and secure ratification of them, that the labour policy of a country can best be carried out by applying the Conventions it ratifies, and that if all the ratifications have not the same effective value their total number shows that international labour legislation is making and likely to make a steady all-round advance.

94. — The following tables show in condensed form the results obtained during 1928 on each of the Conventions and Recommendations so far adopted by the Conference.
## I. Hours of Work

(Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date of First Coming into Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12-6-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>6-9-26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14-2-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>15-9-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>24-8-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>2-6-27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>19-11-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>14-7-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>6-10-24</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>12-8-25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>16-4-28</td>
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<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>3-7-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>13-6-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>22-2-29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Proposed Ratification

- **Approval:**
  - Cuba (1).
  - 

- **Rejection:**
  - Sweden, 15-6-21.
  - Switzerland, 3-2-22.
  - 

### States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date of Submission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>17-9-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>1920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>19-10-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>25-8-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>6-6-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>25-8-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1-3-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>19-11-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>13-6-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>9-10-22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### States which have not officially communicated any information.

- **Approval:**
  - Netherlands (4)
  - Brazil (4), 16-4-27.
  - Chile, 7-8-24.
  - Czechoslovakia, 22-12-20.
  - Latvia, 28-4-22.
  - Lithuania (4), Aug. 1922.
  - Paraguay, 24-5-26.
  - Peru, 9-9-20.
  - South Africa, 1921.

### II. Unemployment

(Date of first coming into force : 14 July 1921)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date of First Coming into Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12-6-24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14-2-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>13-10-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>20-12-22</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
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<td>France</td>
<td>25-8-25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
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<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>25-8-25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1-3-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>14-7-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>22-12-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>28-4-22</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Proposed Ratification

- **Approval:**
  - Belgium (4), 16-4-27.
  - Brazil, 1920.
  - Chile, 7-8-24.
  - Czechoslovakia, 22-12-20.
  - Latvia, 28-4-22.
  - Lithuania (4), Aug. 1922.
  - Paraguay, 24-5-26.
  - Peru, 9-9-20.
  - South Africa, 1921.

### States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date of Submission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>17-9-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
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<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
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### States which have not officially communicated any information.

- **Approval:**
  - Colombia, 11-11-20.
  - Greece, 6-7-21.
  - Ireland, 1920.
  - Japan, 6-7-21.
  - Italy, 8-24.
  - New Zealand, 11-11-20.
  - Panama, 11-11-20.
  - Salvador, 11-11-20.

### States which have not submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.

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**III. Childbirth.** — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921.)

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**IV. Night Work of Women.** — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921.)

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(1) Proposal lapsed.
**Conventions.**

* → Information received since last Report.

### V. Minimum Age — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921.)

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<tr>
<th>(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration [para. 7].</th>
<th>(b) Decision of the &quot;competent authority&quot; [para. 7] and date of such decision.</th>
<th>(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the &quot;competent authority&quot; [para. 5] and date of such submission.</th>
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II. Night Work of Young Persons — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921.)

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<th>(a) Approvals.</th>
<th>(b) Rejection :</th>
<th>(c) Other decisions (adjournment, etc.).</th>
<th>(d) Germany (?).</th>
<th>(e) Proposals lapsed.</th>
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1) Reichsrat.  
2) Approved with reservations: see Record of 1921 Session of Conference, p. 1043.  
3) Proposal lapsed.
**I. Minimum Age (Sea).**

(Date of first coming into force: 27 September 1921.)

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<td><strong>Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Great Britain. 14- 7- 21.</td>
<td><strong>Declaring to propose no ratification.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Greece. 10-12- 25.</td>
<td><strong>States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” (para. 5) and date of such submission.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hungary. 1- 3- 26.</td>
<td><strong>States which have officially communicated their ratification and date of registration (para. 7).</strong></td>
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<td><strong>States which have officially communicated their ratification and date of registration (para. 7).</strong></td>
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<td><strong>States which have officially communicated their ratification and date of registration (para. 7).</strong></td>
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<td><strong>States which have officially communicated their ratification and date of registration (para. 7).</strong></td>
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<td><strong>States which have officially communicated their ratification and date of registration (para. 7).</strong></td>
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<td><strong>States which have officially communicated their ratification and date of registration (para. 7).</strong></td>
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**II. Unemployment Indemnity.**

(Date of first coming into force: 16 March 1923.)

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<th>Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).</th>
<th>Decision of the “competent authority” (para. 7) and date of such decision.</th>
<th>States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” (para. 5) and date of such submission.</th>
<th>States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” have supplied information of other measures taken.</th>
<th>States which have not officially communicated any information.</th>
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<td>Bulgaria. 16- 3- 25.</td>
<td><strong>Approval:</strong> Bulgaria. 16- 3- 25.</td>
<td>* France. 10- 1- 20.</td>
<td>New Zealand. 1923.</td>
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<td>Canada. 31- 3- 26.</td>
<td><strong>Rejection:</strong> Canada. 31- 3- 26.</td>
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<td>Greece. 10-12- 25.</td>
<td><strong>States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” (para. 5) and date of such submission.</strong></td>
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</table>


(²) Proposal lapsed.

(³) Conditionally.

(⁴) Art reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.
### III. Employment for Seamen. — (Date of first coming into force: 21 November 1921.)

#### (a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).

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<td>Japan</td>
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<td>27- 9- 21</td>
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</table>

#### (b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.

- Approval: Netherlands (1), 18- 1- 23; Chile, 7- 8- 24; Denmark (1), 1926; Lithuania (?), Aug. 1922.
- Rejection: Hungary, 4- 3- 25; India, 27- 9- 21; Spain, 9- 7- 25; Uruguay, 11- 9- 25.

#### (c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.

<table>
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<td>New Zealand</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes</td>
<td>25- 4- 26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### (d) States which have not officially communicated any information.

- * Colombia.
- * Bolivia.
- Brazil.
- * Dominican Republic.
- Ethiopia.
- Guatemala.
- Honduras.
- Hungary.
- Liberia.
- Nicaragua.
- Panama.
- Paraguay.
- Persia.
- Peru.
- Portugal.
- Salvador.

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### (C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 October-19 November 1921).

#### Conventions.

* Information received since last Report.

### 1. Minimum Age (Agriculture). — (Date of first coming into force: 31 August 1923.)

<table>
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<th>Country</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>27- 11- 25</td>
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#### Approval:

- Argentina, 18- 5- 25; Chile, 7- 8- 24; Denmark (1), 1926; Germany, 8- 11- 25; Greece, 30- 5- 27; Latvia, 18- 5- 24; Spain, 9- 7- 25; Uruguay, 11- 9- 25.

#### Rejection:

- Great Britain, 6- 2- 25; India, 1923.

#### Other decisions (adjudgments, etc.): (1) Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention. (2) Proposal lapsed.
III. Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture). — (Date of first coming into force: 26 February 1923.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Approval</th>
<th>Rejection</th>
<th>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.)</th>
<th>States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (para. 5) and date of such submission.</th>
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[1) Proposal lapsed.
IV. White Lead. — (Date of first coming into force: 31 August 1923.)

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V. Weekly Rest (Industry). — (Date of first coming into force: 19 June 1923.)

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(V) Conditionally.
(6) Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.
(7) Proposal lapsed.

(C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 October-19 November 1921) (contd.).

Conventions.

* Information received since last Report.

### IV. White Lead

- **Approval**: Italy.
- **Rejection**: India.

### V. Weekly Rest (Industry)

- **Approval**: Great Britain, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa.
- **Rejection**: Great Britain, France, India.

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1. Conditionally.
2. Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.
4. States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.
5. States which have not officially communicated any information.
6. **States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such submission.**
7. **States which have not officially communicated any information.**
VI. Minimum Age for Trimmers or Stokers. — (Date of first coming into force: 20 November 1922).

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VII. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea). — (Date of first coming into force: 20 November 1922)

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(1) Proposal lapsed.
**I. Workmen's Compensation for Accidents.** — (Date of first coming into force: 1 April 1927.)

| States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission. |
|---|---|---|---|
| (1) Proposing ratification. | (2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification. | (3) Proposing no ratification. | (4) With no proposal. |
| **Belgium.** 3-10-27. | **Finland.** 28-10-27. | **Great Britain.** 1927. | **Brazil.** 1927. |

**II. Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases.** — (Date of first coming into force: 1 April 1927.)

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<td>* Haiti.</td>
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*(a) All the States except Victoria.*
### Equality of Treatment for National and Foreign Workers as regards Workmen's Compensation for Accidents

(Date of first coming into force: 8 September 1926)

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### Night Work in Bakeries

(Date of first coming into force: 20 May 1926)

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<td>Portugal. 1926.</td>
<td>* Uruguay. 23- 3- 28.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

---

(1) All the States except Victoria.

(2) Proposal lapsed.

(3) The process of ratification has been begun.
## (E) EIGHTH SESSION (GENEVA, 26 May-5 June 1926).

**Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants on Board Ship.** — (Date of first coming into force: 29 December 1927.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a)</th>
<th>(b)</th>
<th>(c)</th>
<th>(d)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (para. 7) and date of such submission.</td>
<td>Decisions of the &quot;competent authority&quot; (para. 7) and date of such decision.</td>
<td>Proposing ratification.</td>
<td>States which have not submitted the Convention to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (para. 3) and date of such submission.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(1) Approval:</td>
<td>(2) Rejection:</td>
<td>(3) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.</td>
<td>(4) States which have not officially communicated any information.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ Finland. 1929.</td>
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<td>+ China. 1928.</td>
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<td>+ Germany (1). 5-12-27.</td>
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<td>+ Irish Free State. 1927.</td>
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<td>+ Sweden. 7-3-29.</td>
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<td>+ Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1927.</td>
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<td>+ Bulgaria. 1928.</td>
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**II. Repatriation of Seamen.** — (Date of first coming into force: 16 April 1928.)

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<th>(a)</th>
<th>(b) Decision of the &quot;competent authority&quot; (para. 7) and date of such decision.</th>
<th>(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (para. 3) and date of such submission.</th>
<th>(d) States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the &quot;competent authority&quot; have supplied information of other measures taken.</th>
<th>(e) States which have not officially communicated any information.</th>
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<td><strong>Rejection:</strong></td>
<td><strong>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</strong></td>
<td><strong>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</strong></td>
<td><strong>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</strong></td>
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<td>* Denmark (1).</td>
<td>* Finland.</td>
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<td>* Cuba.</td>
<td>* Finland (1).</td>
<td>* Great Britain.</td>
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**III. Sickness Insurance for Workers in Industry and Commerce and Domestic Servants.** — (Date of first coming into force: 13 July 1928.)

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<td><strong>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</strong></td>
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<td>Dominica. 1927.</td>
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</table>

**Notes:**
- (*) Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.
- (1) Proposal lapsed.
- (2) Submitted to the Cabinet of the Reich.
(G) TENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 25 May-16 June 1927) (contd.).

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

II. Sickness Insurance for Agricultural Workers. — (Date of first coming into force: 13 July 1928).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” (para. 5) and date of such submission.</th>
<th>(b) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” (para. 7) and date of such decision.</th>
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<th>(d) States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the “competent authority” have supplied information of other measures taken.</th>
<th>(e) States which have not officially communicated any information.</th>
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(H) ELEVENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 30 May-16 June 1928).

Convention.

* = Information received since last Report.

Application of Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery.

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<td>* Switzerland. 18-12-29.</td>
<td>* South Africa. 28-1-29.</td>
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<td>* Columbia.</td>
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<td>All the other States Members.</td>
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### Recommendations

#### I. Unemployment

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#### II. Reciprocity of Treatment

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<td>Venezuela. 1920.</td>
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#### III. Anthrax

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</table>

(1) The Prime Minister of Australia has communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations information supplied by certain States of the Commonwealth on the subject of measures giving effect to the Recommendations, which fall within the competence of the States — Western Australia, 29. 5. 25; New South Wales, 1. 5. 25; Tasmania, 1925. 10.6.27; Victoria 1. 5. 25; Queensland, 2. 7. 25.

(2) Proposal lapsed.

---

(A) FIRST SESSION (WASHINGTON, 29 October-29 November 1919).
### IV. Lead Poisoning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date of Communication</th>
<th>States which have officially intimated that the recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
</tr>
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</table>

### V. Government Health Services.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<th>States which have officially intimated that the recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
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### VI. White Phosphorus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<th>States which have officially intimated that the recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(1) See note 1 on preceding page.
(2) Prepared Exposed. In living communication.
(3) Proposal Exposed.
(4) With retrospective effect from 3 May 1926.
(5) These States were signatories to the Convention and were bound by Article 4 to deposit their ratifications of the Convention by 31 December 1926. The Convention was to come into force three years later.
(6) Adherence communicated by Poland.
(7) Adherence communicated by France.
(B) SECOND SESSION (GENOA, 15 June-10 July 1920).

Recommendations.

### I. Hours of Work (Fishing)

**Recommendations**

#### (a)
Communication of action taken to the Secretary General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).

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<td>Canada</td>
<td>4- 6-21</td>
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<td>Chili</td>
<td>1- 7-21</td>
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<td>Estonia</td>
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<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>2- 4-24</td>
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<td>Norway</td>
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<td>Sweden</td>
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<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
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**States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the “competent authority” (§ 5) and date of submission.**

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**II. Hours of Work (Inland Navigation)**

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**States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the “competent authority” (§ 5) and date of submission.**

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(*) Proposal lapsed; is being re-examined.  
($) Proposal lapsed.
(B) SECOND SESSION (GENOA, 15 June-10 July 1920) (contd.).

Recommendations.

IV. Unemployment Insurance (Seamen). *= Information received since last Report.

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<th>(b) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; ([§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
<th>(c) States which have supplied other official information.</th>
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(C) THIRD SESSION, (GENEVA, 25 October-19 November 1921).

Recommendations.


|---|---|---|---|

(*) Proposal lapsed.

[*] The Prime Minister of Australia has communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations information supplied by certain States of the Commonwealth on the subject of measures giving effect to the Recommendations, which fall within the competence of the States:—Western Australia, 11. 9. 25; New South Wales, 1. 5. 25; Queensland, 1. 5. 25; Tasmania, 1. 5. 25; Victoria, 1. 5. 25.
Recommendations.

II. Childbirth (Agriculture).

- Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).
- States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the "competent authority" (§ 5) and date of submission.
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III. Night Work Women (Agriculture).

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</table>

(1) See Note 2 on preceding page.
(2) Proposal lapsed; is being re-examine.
## IV. Night Work of Young Persons (Agriculture)

* = Information received since last Report.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).</th>
<th>States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
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<td>22- 5- 23; 16- 1- 26.</td>
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</table>

### V. Technical Agricultural Education

| **Australia** (1). | Austria. 1927. | **Albania.** | **Argentina.** |
| **Belgium.** | Brazil. 7- 15- 22. | **Argentina.** | **Bolivia.** |
| **Bulgaria.** | Canada. 23- 5- 23. | **Bolivia.** | **Colombia.** |
| **Czechoslovakia.** | Chili. 7- 8- 24. | **Colombia.** | **Dominican Republic.** |
| **Estonia.** | China. 1923. | **Dominican Republic.** | **Ethiopia.** |
| **France.** | Denmark. 31- 8- 22. | **Ethiopia.** | **Greece.** |
| **Germany.** | Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. | **Greece.** | **Guatemala.** |
| **Hungary.** | Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. | **Guatemala.** | **Haiti.** |
| **Italy.** | New Zealand. 1923. | **Haiti.** | **Honduras.** |
| **Japan.** | South Africa. 1923. | **Honduras.** | **Irish Free State.** |
| **Norway.** | Venezuela. 1923. | **Irish Free State.** | **Liberia.** |
| **Poland.** |  | **Liberia.** | **Luxembourg.** |
| **Rumania.** |  | **Luxembourg.** | **Nicaragua.** |
| **Siam.** |  | **Nicaragua.** | **Panama.** |
| **Sweden.** |  | **Panama.** | **Paraguay.** |
| **Switzerland.** |  | **Paraguay.** | **Peru.** |
| 22- 5- 23; 16- 1- 26. |  | **Peru.** | **Portugal.** |
| 22- 5- 23; 16- 1- 26. |  | **Portugal.** | **Salvador.** |

(1) See Note 2, page 107.
(1) Proposal lapsed; is being re-examined.
VI. Living-in Conditions (Agriculture).

* = Information received since last Report.

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<th>States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the “competent authority” (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
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VII. Social Insurance (Agriculture).

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(1) See Note (2), page 167.
(1) Proposal lapsed; is being re-examined.
(C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 Oct.-19 Nov. 1921) (contd.).

Recommendations.

VIII. Weekly Rest in Commerce. * = Information received since last Report.

<table>
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<th>(a) Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).</th>
<th>(b) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
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<th>(d) States which have supplied no official information.</th>
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(D) FOURTH SESSION (GENEVA, 18 October-3 November 1922).

Recommendation.

Emigration Statistics.

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</table>

(1) See Note (2), page 107.
(2) Proposal lapsed; is being re-examined.
(E) FIFTH SESSION (GENEVA, 22-29 October 1923).

Recommendation.

**Organisation of Systems of Inspection.**

* = Information received since last Report.

<table>
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<th>State</th>
<th>Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 4).</th>
<th>States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
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</table>

(1) The Prime Minister of Australia has communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations information supplied by certain States of the Commonwealth on the subject of measures giving effect to the Recommendation, which falls within the competence of the States:— Western Australia, 1. 5. 26; New South Wales, 1. 5. 26; Queensland, 1. 5. 26; Tasmania, 1. 5. 26; Victoria, 1. 5. 26.

(F) SIXTH SESSION (GENEVA, 16 June-5 July 1924).

Recommendation.

**Workers’ Spare Time.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
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<td>Germany</td>
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<td>Argentina. 1927.</td>
<td>Brazil.</td>
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</table>

(1) The Prime Minister of Australia has communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations information supplied by certain States of the Commonwealth on the subject of measures giving effect to the Recommendation, which falls within the competence of the States:— Western Australia, 27. 10. 26; South Australia, 3. 5. 26; New South Wales, 21. 1. 26; Queensland, 2. 7. 26; Tasmania, 16. 6. 27; Victoria, 17. 9. 25.
I. Minimum Scale of Workmen’s Compensation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the “competent authority” (§ 6) and date of submission.</th>
<th>(b) States which have supplied other official information.</th>
<th>(c) States which have supplied no official information.</th>
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<td>Switzerland. 7-6-26.</td>
<td>Uruguay. 1927.</td>
<td>Liberia.</td>
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</table>

(*) All the States except Victoria.

II. Jurisdiction in Disputes on Workmen’s Compensation.

| France. 31-8-26. | Canada. 31-3-27. | Bolivia. |
| India. 31-12-26. | Hungary. 1927. | Colombia. |
| Luxembourg. 12-2-27. | Italy. 15-12-26. | Ethiopia. |
| Siam. Switzerland. 7-6-26. | Uruguay. 1927. | Liberia. |
| Sweden. 1926. | (*) All the States except Victoria. | United States of America. |
Recommendations.

III. Workmen’s Compensation for Occupational Diseases.

* = Information received since last Report.

<table>
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<th>(a) Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).</th>
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<td>1927.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finland.</td>
<td>12-9-27.</td>
<td>Canada.</td>
<td>31-3-27.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India.</td>
<td>9-9-26.</td>
<td>Italy.</td>
<td>15-12-26.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland.</td>
<td>15-2-27.</td>
<td>Brazil.</td>
<td>1927.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siam.</td>
<td>15-3-27.</td>
<td>Bulgaria.</td>
<td>1928.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cuba.</td>
<td>1927.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) All the States except Victoria.

IV. Equality of Treatment for National and Foreign Workers as regards Workmen’s Compensation for Accidents.

| Belgium. | 10-12-25. | Brazil. | 1927. | Argentina. |
| Finland. | 12-9-27. | Canada. | 31-3-27. | Chili. |
| Japan. | 31-12-26. | Italy. | 15-12-26. | Guatemala. |
| Poland. | 15-2-27. | Switzerland. | 7-6-26. | Lithuania. |
| Siam. | 15-3-27. | | | Panama. |
| | | | | Persia. |
| | | | | Peru. |
| | | | | Salvador. |
| | | | | Spain. |
| | | | | Venezuela. |
(H) EIGHTH SESSION (GENEVA, 26 May-5 June 1926).

Recommendation.

Protection of Emigrant Women and Girls on Board Ship.

* = Information received since last Report.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
<th>(b) States which have supplied other official information.</th>
<th>(c) States which have supplied no official information.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State. 8- 8- 27.</td>
<td>Japan. 8- 10- 26.</td>
<td>Brazil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway. 28- 7- 27.</td>
<td>Germany. 1927.</td>
<td>Colombia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siam. 15- 3- 27.</td>
<td>New Zealand. 5- 12- 27.</td>
<td>Dominican Republic.</td>
</tr>
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<td>South Africa. 31- 1- 27.</td>
<td>Greece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Switzerland. 1927.</td>
<td>Guatemala.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Venezuela. 1927.</td>
<td>Haiti.</td>
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<td>Honduras.</td>
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<td>Hungary.</td>
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<td>Lieberia.</td>
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<td>Luxembourg.</td>
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<td>Nicaragua.</td>
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<td>Panama.</td>
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<td>Paraguay.</td>
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<td>Persia.</td>
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<td>Poland.</td>
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<td>Portugal.</td>
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<td>Salvador.</td>
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<td>Spain.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Uruguay.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(I) NINTH SESSION (GENEVA, 7-24 June 1926).

Recommendations.

1. Repatriation of Masters and Apprentices.

* = Information received since last Report.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(a) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
<th>(b) States which have supplied other official information.</th>
<th>(c) States which have supplied no official information.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France. 5- 12- 27.</td>
<td>Austria. 1927.</td>
<td>Belgium.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway. 25- 7- 27.</td>
<td>Finland. 18- 8- 27.</td>
<td>Colombia.</td>
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<td>Siam. 15- 3- 27.</td>
<td>Germany. 1927.</td>
<td>Dominican Republic.</td>
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<td>South Africa. 31- 1- 27.</td>
<td>Haiti.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Switzerland. 1927.</td>
<td>Honduras.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Venezuela. 1927.</td>
<td>Italy.</td>
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<td>Luxembourg.</td>
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<td>Spain.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uruguay.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(I) NINTH SESSION (GENEVA, 7-24 June 1926) (contd.).

Recommendations.

* = Information received since last Report.

II. General Principles for the Inspection of the Conditions of Work of Seamen.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States which have officially intimated that the recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 6) and date of submission.</th>
<th>(c) States which have supplied other official information.</th>
<th>(d) States which have supplied no official information.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(J) TENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 25 May-16 June 1927).

Recommendation.

* = Information received since last Report.

General Principles of Sickness Insurance.

Application of Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the &quot;competent authority&quot; (§ 5) and date of submission.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>* Denmark. 18-11-28.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* France. 10-12-28.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Germany. March 1929.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Norway. 1929.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* South Africa. 28-1-29.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Sweden. 7-3-29.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Switzerland. 13-12-28.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Lithuania. 26-1-29.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

States which have supplied other official information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States which have supplied no official information.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>* Columbia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Cuba.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Czechoslovakia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Denmark.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* France.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Germany.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Lithuania.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Norway.</td>
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<td>* South Africa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Sweden.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Switzerland.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* France.</td>
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<td>* Germany.</td>
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<td>* Lithuania.</td>
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<td>* Norway.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* South Africa.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Sweden.</td>
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<tr>
<td>* Switzerland.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

95. — The Office has taken every available opportunity of emphasising the fact that the working of the Organisation depends on the regular application of paragraph 5 of Article 405. It has from the outset constantly reminded Governments that, whatever their opinion might be on the effect to be given to a particular Draft Convention, they could not escape their obligation to submit the decisions of the Conference to the “competent authorities” within the prescribed time limits. Each year, as these time limits were about to expire in respect of the decisions adopted at the previous Session of the Conference, the Office has asked those Governments which have not so far submitted the decisions to the competent authorities to comply with the obligatory clauses of the Treaty. The imperative nature of these clauses is reinforced by Article 416, which gives any Member of the Organisation the right to appeal to the Permanent Court of International Justice in the event of another Member not taking the steps laid down in Article 405. The Governments have, in fact, been reminded of the provisions of paragraph 5 on all manner of occasions — in official correspondence with the Governments, in the annual Reports of the Director and at the Conference itself. Moreover, a number of Governments, when they have found difficulty in complying with paragraph 5, have of their own motion informed the Office of the nature of these difficulties and have consulted it on the means of overcoming them.

The steps which the Office has persistently taken in this connection seem to have led to good results. The procedure for submission to the competent authorities seems now to be settled in all countries. The long discussions on the meaning of the words “competent authorities” and “exceptional circumstances” have practically ceased. Except in one or two rare cases, Governments have overcome any constitutional difficulties they may have encountered in complying with the terms of the Treaty. There is perhaps too frequent a tendency to treat the exceptional period of eighteen months as the normal period, but paragraph 5, if not invariably applied, is at least given effect to in the majority of cases.

It is, however, to be noted with regret, as the preceding tables show, that some ten States Members have never submitted to their competent authorities a single one of the Conventions or Recommendations adopted since Washington 1, that certain European and South American States which possess a considerable merchant fleet have taken no steps for ratifying the Genoa Conventions, and that certain important European countries have not yet submitted to their Parliaments the decisions taken at the Seventh, Eighth and Ninth Sessions of the Conference.

This neglect of the fundamental rules of the Organisation gave rise to a discussion at the Conference last year. Several speakers, from the employers' as well as

1 The States in question are the same as those referred to in last year's Report (Part I, subsection 102). The Office is, however, glad to announce that information received from Colombia indicates the recent submission to Parliament of a report of the Committee of the Labour Office recommending the ratification of most of the Conventions adopted by the Conference.
as the workers' group, deplored the fact that certain Governments had not fulfilled their obligations, and Mr. Yonekubo, the Japanese workers' delegate, secured, as a conclusion to the debate, the unanimous adoption by the Conference of the following Resolution:

Considering that it is vitally important for obtaining satisfactory results from the working of the International Labour Organisation that each Member State should bring Recommendations or Draft Conventions adopted by the Conference before the competent authority or authorities as prescribed in Article 405, paragraph 5, of the Treaty of Versailles within the prescribed period,

The Conference requests the Governing Body to draw the attention of the Governments to the advisability of communicating from time to time to the International Labour Office the situation in this connection both on the part of the Government and on the part of the competent authority or authorities, and also in the event of failure to bring the matter before the authority or authorities the reason of such failure on the expiration of the period specified in the above-mentioned Article, in order to enable the Director of the International Labour Office to report each year to the International Labour Conference the exact situation in each Member State.

The Governing Body, to whom this Resolution was submitted at its Forty-Second Session (October 1928), considered that the most practical means of obtaining the information requested by the Conference would be to instruct the Office to ask the Governments for the information and to forward them a proof of the ratification tables sufficiently early to enable the information obtained from the Governments to be included in the Director's Report.

In accordance with these instructions, the Office forwarded at the beginning of January to each of the Governments concerned a copy of the tables given in the preceding pages, with a request that any errors or omissions in the tables might be rectified, and that, in the event of any decisions of the Conference not having been submitted to the competent authorities within the time limits laid down, the Office might be informed of the nature of the difficulties which had been encountered in discharging the obligation inherent in paragraph 5 of Article 405.

By 15 March nineteen Governments had replied, either confirming the accuracy of the information given in the ratification tables or making slight corrections. It is noteworthy that no difficulty of procedure was invoked by the Governments to justify the delay which has occurred in certain cases in communicating the decisions to the competent authorities. The conclusion to be drawn from this fact is perhaps that the failure of certain States to carry out their obligations is to be ascribed less to difficulties of this kind than to the indifference of Government departments to the decisions of the Conference.

96. — During the year the Office has replied to a few requests for interpretations of the provisions of Conventions. Faithful to the procedure which it has always adopted in regard to such requests for interpretations, the Office has been careful to point out in its replies that no powers of interpretation have been conferred upon it by the Treaties of Peace. Nevertheless, it gladly places its knowledge of the texts adopted by the Conference and its experience of the working of the Conventions in the States which have ratified them at the disposal of Governments which have recourse to it. The correspondence with Governments in regard to interpretations is communicated to the Governing Body for information and then printed in the *Official Bulletin* of the Office. The following list is therefore confined to a reference to the pages of the *Bulletin* which contain the correspondence in question:

**Interpretations**

*Second Session (Genoa, 1920)*

- Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea:

*Seventh Session (Geneva, 1925)*

- Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases:

- Convention concerning night work in bakeries:

97. — The Office has not had occasion during the past year to suggest to Governments any solution of difficulties of interpretation or application of Article 405 of the Treaty. The obstacles to ratification which subsist arise mostly out of the difficulty of co-ordinating a national system which has been long established by law and has become firmly rooted in the customs of the country with the system laid down internationally by a Convention. It has even been considered, at times, that national law would be incompatible with a Convention where the national system was more advanced than the international system laid down by the Convention. Certain objections to the ratification of a Convention which have been advanced by the workers may have sprung from a fear that, as a consequence of its adherence to a Convention, a Government might go back on the benefits already accorded to them by existing legislation.

Any such contingency would be based upon too narrow an interpretation of paragraph 11 of Article 405, the effect of which is of a purely negative character.
Not only does this paragraph not impose upon a State which has ratified a Convention any obligation to diminish the protection already afforded to its workers by existing legislation of a more liberal nature, but it expressly provides that there is no such obligation. The significance of the paragraph is that a State which ratifies a Convention and which itself possesses legislation which goes beyond the Convention is not required to bring its legislation down to the level of the Convention. In other words, it is recognised that the Convention constitutes a minimum, that it is only this minimum which is obligatory, but that it is neither prohibited nor required to reduce existing legislation to this minimum.

Regarded in this sense paragraph 11 would not appear to have any really positive effect. As is shown in the Report submitted to the Preliminary Peace Conference by the International Labour Legislation Commission which drew up Part XIII of the Treaty, it was only inserted to calm the fears expressed by the workers' representatives that Article 405 "might be interpreted as implying that a State would be required to diminish the protection already afforded to the workers by its legislation as a result of the adoption of a Recommendation or Draft Convention by the Conference ", and " in order to make it quite clear that such an interpretation was inadmissible ".

As a matter of fact, no Government has ever given as a reason for refusing to ratify a Convention the fact that its existing legislation was more advanced than the Convention, and, as far as the Office is aware, in no country have any amendments of a restrictive character been made in any existing labour legislation as a direct result of that country's adherence to a Convention.

98. — The tables given in the preceding pages show the results obtained in the different countries Convention by Convention. In last year's Report the corresponding tables were supplemented by a summary of the ratifications registered country by country in numerical order. This summary seems to have been particularly appreciated, and it is therefore proposed to give a similar summary this year of the ratifications registered up to 15 March 1929. These annual summaries will furnish material for interesting comparisons.

SUMMARY OF RATIFICATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total ratified</th>
<th>Conventions ratified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Luxemburg</td>
<td>25 Hours; Unemployment; Childbirth; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Night Work in Bakeries; Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants; Seamen's Articles of Agreement; Repatriation of Seamen; Sickness Insurance (Industry, etc.); Sickness Insurance (Agriculture).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>19 Hours; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Workmen's Compensation for Accidents; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants; Seamen's Articles of Agreement; Repatriation of Seamen.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>16 Hours; Unemployment; Childbirth; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>16 Childbirth; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; White Lead; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Workmen's Compensation; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Night Work in Bakeries; Seamen's Articles of Agreement; Repatriation of Seamen.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>15 Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Repatriation of Seamen.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Total number of ratifications</td>
<td>Conventions ratified.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Hours; Childbirth; Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; Rights of Association (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Workmen's Compensation for Accidents; Equality of Treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Unemployment; Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Equality of Treatment.</td>
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<td>France</td>
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<td>Hours; Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Night Work (Children); Employment for Seamen; Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Equality of Treatment; Seamen's Articles of Agreement; Repatriation of Seamen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
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<td>Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants.</td>
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<td>Unemployment; Childbirth; Night Work (Women); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Minimum Age (Agriculture); White Lead; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); White Lead; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Sickness Insurance (Industry).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Hours; Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); White Lead; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants; Sickness Insurance (Industry); Sickness Insurance (Agriculture).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
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<td>Hours; Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Night Work (Children); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Weekly Rest; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>11</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Total number of ratifications</td>
<td>Conventions ratified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Hours; Unemployment; Childbirth; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Employment for Seamen; White Lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>9</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
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<td>Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Minimum Age (Agriculture); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Unemployment; Minimum Age (Industry); Minimum Age (Sea); Employment for Seamen; Minimum Age (Agriculture); Medical Examination; Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment; Simplification of Inspection of Emigrants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Hours; Childbirth; Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Rights of Association (Agriculture); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); Trimmers or Stokers; Equality of Treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Unemployment; Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Minimum Age (Sea); Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture); Trimmers or Stokers; Equality of Treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Minimum Age (Industry); Night Work (Children); Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases; Equality of Treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Minimum Age (Sea); Unemployment Indemnity; Trimmers or Stokers; Medical Examination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Unemployment; Minimum Age (Sea); Employment for Seamen; Trimmers or Stokers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Unemployment; Night Work (Women); Equality of Treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Employment for Seamen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It will be interesting to observe the changes which take place from year to year in the order of classification of States. It is not proposed to review this aspect at length, but merely to call attention to two essential facts. Of the fifty-five States Members of the Organisation, only thirty-one have actually ratified Conventions. As Mr. Lambert-Ribot pointed out last year, there are, as against the positive figures of 342 ratifications, the negative figures of the twenty-four States which have not ratified a single Convention.

It is recognised, as has already been stated, that in the case of a number of countries the fact that they have not yet registered any ratification is not in itself very serious. In countries where industry is in its most primitive stages, ratifications would be purely formal. But whilst they might have no immediate practical effect, they would nevertheless constitute the framework of an embryo body of legislation for the protection of the workers. Amongst the States which have not ratified any Convention, however, there are some which participate fully in the economic life of the civilised world, which have always taken an active part in the work of the Organisation and which regularly send delegates to the Conference. Such hesitation on the part of the important industrial countries which are open to social reform may cause some surprise, and it is hoped that they will soon have occasion to manifest their attachment to the International Labour Organisation by their ratifications. The Office is all the more glad to express its appreciation to those countries which during the past year have taken the necessary steps. Last year's Report drew attention to the important progress in this connection made by Luxemburg. In the present Report special mention should be made of Cuba amongst those States which have ratified the greatest number of Conventions.

99. Conditional ratifications. — There is nothing special to report on the subject of conditional ratifications this year. The apprehensions which were expressed in last year's Report as regards the possible extension of the system of conditional ratification of Conventions which do not involve any question of international competition have not been realised. In particular, the Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship, as regards which some uneasiness was felt owing to its conditional ratification by Great Britain, has been ratified unconditionally by further countries. There seemed some likelihood that the French Government would follow the example of Great Britain and
ratify the Convention conditionally, but the matter has been reconsidered, and a Bill for the authorisation of unconditional ratification has been submitted to the Chamber of Deputies.

There has only been one case of conditional ratification during the past year. Spain has ratified the Hours Convention with a reservation to the effect that the ratification will not come into force until the Convention has been ratified by France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy. The ratification of Conventions is, however, only the first stage. After communicating their formal ratification of a Convention to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations the States come under the further obligation, laid down in Article 405, to "take such action as may be necessary to make effective the provisions of such Convention." The importance of the strict observance of this obligation has constantly been stressed in the Director's Reports to successive Sessions of the Conference. The Director can, therefore, only welcome the increasing attention which recent Sessions of the Conference have given to the question of the application of Conventions.

This development is no doubt due to the work of the Committee of Experts set up by the Governing Body in virtue of the Resolution of the Eighth Session of the Conference to examine the annual reports made under Article 408, and to the fact that the discussions of the last two Sessions of the Conference have been prepared by a Conference Committee on Article 408, the appointment of which was recommended by the same Resolution. It was not without a certain amount of hesitation and misgiving that the creation of these Committees was received in some quarters, and their labours were attended with considerable difficulties in the early stages. To such an extent was this the case that the Committee of Experts was led at its second meeting in 1928 to consider very seriously whether it would serve any useful purpose for it to continue its work.

The proceedings in the Committee of the last Session of the Conference and the discussion in the Conference itself showed, however, that the early apprehensions, and with them many of the difficulties, had largely disappeared. The Conference Committee not only found that the work of the Experts had given useful results and recommended that its mandate should be renewed, but also proposed that the examination of the annual reports by the Committee of Experts should not be confined to the question of the concordance of the national laws with the provisions of the Conventions but should extend to the question of the practical application of Conventions. These suggestions were approved by the Conference in adopting the report of its Committee; they came before the Governing Body in October 1928, and the Governing Body confirmed the appointment of the Committee of Experts on the basis of tacit re-appointment from year to year, and referred to the Committee the question of finding ways and means of studying the practical application of Conventions.

The Committee of Experts held its last session from 21-23 March 1929. Further information on its work will be given in the Introduction to the Second Part of the Director's Report. The Committee's report cannot, of course, be published until it has been officially before the Governing Body at its May Session. It is, however, thought possible to give some information here on the spirit which prevailed at this year's meetings. After carefully studying the reports sent in by Governments, the Committee of Experts, in view of the large number of such reports, examined them at the last session of the Conference, indicated certain measures which it thought likely to facilitate the carrying out of those suggestions. It expressed the view that it would be desirable for the annual reports of the factory inspectorates in the various countries to deal specially with the enforcement of international Conventions. It also considered that the Governments themselves might in certain cases find it useful to enter into direct relations with the Committee of Experts.

But, whatever the developments which may be made in this direction, there is no doubt that the work of mutual information of the States concerned, which is the primary purpose of Article 408, has been greatly facilitated by the Committees which have arisen out of the Resolution of the Eighth Conference. The willingness with which the States have accepted the suggestions of the Experts and of the Conference and their readiness to furnish supplementary information alone justify the new complementary procedure which these Committees represent. The Twelfth Session of the Conference will no doubt wish to follow the same procedure as its two predecessors and appoint a Conference Committee on Article 408, which, after the exhaustive discussions of general principles that have taken place in previous years, will be able to give more attention to questions connected with the application of the individual Conventions.

In connection with the application of Conventions, an interesting suggestion which was put forward in the Committee on Article 408 last year should be mentioned. Mr Thorberg, Swedish workers' delegate, submitted a Resolution proposing that States which have not ratified Conventions should inform the Conference of the reasons which have prevented them from doing so and that such information should be considered at the same time as the summary of the annual reports.
sent in under Article 408 by Governments which have ratified. The Conference referred the Resolution to the Governing Body, which considered it at its Session in October 1928. It did not feel able to accept a suggestion by the Office that Governments should be invited to explain their difficulties when forwarding their observations on the general ratification tables. In practice, however, many States have furnished information in regard to difficulties of ratification and this information has been summarised in the Reports to the various Sessions of the Conference. What is still more to the point is that these questions have constantly been discussed during the debates on the Director's Report in the Conference. It would seem, therefore, that Mr. Thorberg's wishes could be met, without any constitutional innovation, by the continued and expanded discussion of these questions by the Conference, perhaps after more systematic preparation.

101. — The preceding paragraphs have shown that considerable progress has been made in the utilisation of Article 408. It is perhaps for this very reason that this Report does not have to chronicle any cases of the opening of the procedure of representation or complaint provided for in Articles 409 and following. Nevertheless, the machinery required by the Treaty in these Articles has been kept in order and ready for use whenever it may be needed.

Since the last Session of the Conference there have been two changes in the panel of members of Commissions of Enquiry mentioned in Article 412 of the Treaty of Versailles. The German Government has appointed Mr. Vogel to replace Mr. Pönsgen as employers' representative. The Italian Government has nominated Mr. Bramante Cucini instead of Mr. Buozzi as workers' representative.

The above changes in the panel mentioned in Article 412 necessarily involve corresponding changes in the list of assessors for labour cases provided by Article 26 of the rules of the Permanent Court of International Justice. Under that Article the list of assessors is composed of two persons nominated by each Member of the League of Nations and an equivalent number nominated by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office. The Articles goes on to state that the Governing Body will nominate these representatives from the list referred to in Article 412 of the Treaty of Versailles. Mr. Pönsgen and Mr. Buozzi, who were appointed by the Governing Body as assessors for labour cases, automatically cease to be included in the list since they are no longer included in the panel mentioned in Article 412. The Governing Body therefore decided at its Forty-Third Session to appoint Mr. Cucini and Mr. Vogel to replace Mr. Buozzi and Mr. Pönsgen respectively on the list of assessors for labour cases.

It should be added that the Italian Government has also appointed other persons to replace the two assessors whom it nominates itself. The Government has informed the Secretary-General of the League of Nations that it appoints Professor Perassi and Mr. Miceli in place of Mr. Griziotti and Mr. Beneduce, who had previously been nominated by the Italian Government for the list of assessors for labour cases.

The composition of the special Chamber for Labour Cases which the Permanent Court of International Justice set up for a period of three years from 1 January 1928 has also been slightly changed. One of the substitute members of the special Chamber, Professor John Bassett Moore, has resigned his position as judge of the Court. On 12 September 1928 the Court appointed Mr. Oda as substitute member of the Chamber for Labour Cases in order to fill the vacancy left by Mr. Moore's resignation.

102. — The information given above cannot fail to produce on the Conference an impression of continuity and regularity in the ratification and enforcement of Conventions. The procedure of public administrations, parliaments and Governments in connection with this work has now become so firmly established that definite progress in ratification may be expected year by year. Moreover, the application of Article 408 and the supply of mutual information, which constitutes a certain degree of mutual supervision, is undoubtedly a factor which promotes the strict enforcement of ratified Conventions. Thus the work which is being done in the international field is constantly becoming more closely bound up with the progressive work of the various countries, and the endeavours of private initiative and of legislation are going hand in hand with international effort. It is possible to show that this is the case as regards all the great reforms which constitute the programme of the Organisation. In the following pages these reforms will be reviewed on the lines explained in the Introduction to the Report, beginning with measures for the improvement of working conditions. The foremost of these continues to be the problem of hours of work.
1. Working Conditions

Hours of Work:

108. — Before reviewing once more the story of the Washington Convention and adding to it the chapter of events for 1928, it is proposed to give a straightforward and objective statement of the developments which took place during the year in the individual countries in regard to ratification of the Convention or to the more general question of the regulation of hours of work.

It is hoped that this statement will be carefully read by the delegates to the Conference. It is not unusual for adversaries of the Washington Convention, who have in mind a complete revision of this instrument, to emphasise the small number of ratifications which have been obtained and to argue that the Convention is really inapplicable. Some critics almost go so far as to think that it was a mistake for the International Labour Organisation to endeavour to legislate on this question of hours of work in the earliest days of its existence. According to them, the Convention is a dead letter, and the movement in favour of legal regulation of hours of work has lost its vitality.

The reader can judge for himself from the following statement of the facts for 1928 what real basis there is for such an attitude.

In the Argentine Republic, the Labour Legislation Committee of the Chamber of Deputies, on 18 September 1928, submitted to the Chamber a Federal Bill based on various Bills which had been laid before Congress since 1914. This Bill, which was passed with some alterations, provides that "hours of work are not to exceed 8 hours per day or 48 hours per week for any person employed on behalf of another in public or private undertakings, even if these undertakings are not carried on with a view to profit". Agriculture, cattle-breeding, and domestic work are excluded.

During the discussion on the Bill, a deputy pointed out that it was more favourable to the workers than the Washington Convention, though this, he added, should not prevent ratification of the Convention as soon as the Bill was passed.

After the passing of the Bill, the Commercial Union of Argentina addressed to the Chamber of Deputies a note requesting that the text of the Bill to be submitted to the Senate should be altered so that hours of work would not exceed 44 hours per week for workers in ports, factories and workshops, and for salaried employees in offices, but that 12 hours per day should be fixed for salaried employees in general, persons employed in cafés, restaurants, shops, etc.

As mentioned in last year's Report, the 44-hour week was introduced in Australia in the iron and steel trades, the gas industry and the printing trade by a judgment of the Federal Court. The Chief Judge, when pronouncing judgment, expressed the opinion that a shortened week would give the worker the leisure necessary to enhance his efficiency, and said that he was not afraid that such leisure would be abused. He added that the Court would favourably consider applications for a reduction of working hours in other industries in the light of similar considerations. This judgment was consequently considered by those concerned as a precedent for fixing the length of the normal working week in Australian industry, the more so since, as mentioned last year, the legislation of several States provides for the same period. Notwithstanding this, however, requests for a reduction in normal hours of work which were subsequently made were not received so favourably, and requests of this kind were even rejected in the cases of persons employed in the manufacture of agricultural implements, bedsteads and fenders, and ovens and ranges, locomotive engine-drivers, carpenters and joiners, persons employed in the timber and furnishing trades, and glassworkers with the exception of furnacemen. The Court, in fact, has expressed the opinion that the present level of economic development in Australia did not allow of a limitation of hours of work to less than 48, which figure was mentioned in the Treaty of Peace and adopted by the Washington Conference as suitable for industrial requirements in civilised communities.

In the timber industry this decision gave rise to a serious dispute. Ever since 1922 country timber yards have worked a 48-hour week and town timber yards a 44-hour week. In May 1928 the Federal Arbitration Court decided that the 48-hour week should be observed in all Australian timber yards. The Timber-workers' Union appealed to the full Arbitration Court against this judgment,
which was, however, confirmed. Several thousand workers then refused to agree to the prolongation of hours and a stoppage of work took place in three States. This stoppage threatens to spread still further if an agreement is not reached.

In Austria, as in previous years, a number of provisional arrangements have this year been renewed, dealing with timber yards (extension until 31 March 1929), film-loaning establishments (the same exemptions as last year) and painters and whitewashers, for whom no special authorisation is required for the 120 hours’ overtime permitted by law.

By the Act regulating conditions of work of private chauffeurs, which was passed on 20 December 1928, hours of work are limited to 8 in each period of 24 hours, excluding rest periods. Overtime is authorised up to a maximum of 12 hours per week, and must be paid for at 25 per cent. more than the standard rate. The working week is in effect 48 hours, since each week must include a rest period of 24 consecutive hours or two periods of 6 hours each preceded or followed by a night’s rest.

In Belgium, four Decrees have been promulgated since last year’s Report. Two of these contain stricter regulations for overtime in various industries, while the others introduce new regulations, the first dealing with the confectionery trade and the manufacture of ice-cream and chocolate, and the second with the travelling staff of the Belgian Railways. A few points in dispute have also been settled. The Ministry of Labour has announced that the 8-hour Act applies to private clubs employing men or women workers. As regards legal decisions, a judgment of the Appeal Court of 7 June 1928 lays down that overtime rates of pay may be enforced even if through the fault of the employer in failing to obtain lawful authorisation the workers have worked in breach of the law, while a decision of the Antwerp Assize Court of 16 November 1928 lays down that in certain circumstances vis major or unforeseen necessity may be treated as valid grounds for work in excess of the hours authorised by law.

Official statistics of exemptions under the 8-hour-day Act show that in 1927 exemption was authorised in 609 cases, this representing an increase of 275 exemptions over 1926. These figures have been a source of controversy between employers and workers. The workers’ press is indignant at the extent to which exemptions are allowed. The employers’ papers reply that the amount of overtime worked as a result of these exemptions, viz. 2,574,297 hours, only represents 1 per cent. of the amount of overtime which industry would be entitled to obtain.

In Brazil, certain progress is to be noted for the Federal District of Rio de Janeiro, where the Municipal Council adopted on 30 October 1928 two drafts limiting respectively hours of work for manual workers and salaried employees. The first draft provides for a working day of 8 hours, while the second provides for a maximum working day of 10 hours for salaried employees in commercial establishments of every kind.

In Canada, in British Columbia — the only State which has adopted a general Act on the 8-hour day — the report of the Provincial Department of Labour on the enforcement in 1927 of the 1923 Act states that the observance of the legal 8-hour day has become almost a matter of routine in industrial operations.

The report laid before the annual meeting of the Trades and Labour Congress at Toronto in September 1928 shows that the 8-hour day is generally applied in the building, printing, mining and clothing trades, on the railways, and in other trades in which the workers are well organised. As was done last year, the Congress adopted a resolution calling for the legal institution of the 8-hour day and drawing the attention of the Government to the necessity of carrying out the Washington Convention.

In Chile, a Bill was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies on 10 September 1928 to extend to home workers the provisions of the Act of 8 September 1924 on the contract of service, which Act limits the normal working period to 8 hours per day or 48 per week. Another Bill introduced in the Chamber on 26 July 1928 will protect domestic servants. It confers the right to a period of rest from 9 p.m. to 6 a.m. and a further interval for rest of 2 hours in the day as well as a continuous period off work for 20 hours once a month.

The events which have taken place in China have had an effect on the regulation of working conditions. The provisional legislation adopted in 1923 by the Pekin Government on hours of work in factories, as well as the regulations of 21 October 1927 limiting the work of women and young persons to 8 hours per day and that of adults to 10 hours per day, excluding rest periods, had scarcely been applied and lapsed on the triumph of the Nationalist Party. In February 1927 the Nationalist Government of Canton had also issued, in the Province of Canton, regulations limiting the hours of work of persons employed in hospitals, which were followed in May 1928 by general labour regulations.

Following up its success, the Nationalist Government had extended its legislation on hours of work to the provinces of Shensi and Kansou, by regulations issued
in July 1927. Since its installation at Nankin, it is beginning to deal with labour legislation, and a draft labour code limiting paid hours of work as a general rule to 8 in the day has been prepared by the Minister of Industry, Commerce and Labour.

In Colombia, the Labour Office Committee, instructed to enquire into the possibility of ratifying the International Conventions, drafted a report dated 5 November 1928 in favour of the adoption of the Hours of Work Convention.

The Committee points out in its report that Colombia, a new agricultural country, is in a position to give legal effect to the limitation laid down by the Convention, which would have definite advantages for the evolution of the race, without any economic disadvantage, and states that the adoption of the Convention by the legislative authority would meet with no difficulty, but would on the contrary be eagerly welcomed, the more so since it would obviate disputes which would be likely to arise as industry developed.

To the objection that labour is scarce in the country and that on this account longer working days would be justified, the Committee replies as follows:

Scientific experiment has shown that a worker can only expend a limited amount of energy, and that when he is called on for a larger output he suffers organic exhaustion which reduces his productive capacity, diminishes his liking for work and renders him more liable to general or occupational diseases. The exhausted worker tries to build up his strength by means of alcohol, which is the cause of increased crime and renders the worker incapable of rearing a healthy and physiologically sound family. All this results in serious loss, not only for the workers themselves but also for the employers and for the State.

The Committee concludes by proposing that the Government should submit the 1919 Convention to the legislative power for ratification.

On 16 May 1928 the Senate of the Republic of Cuba approved the Washington Convention, though with reservation that its enforcement should be subordinated to the legislation in force.

In Czechoslovakia, the Social Institute held a meeting at Prague on 25 October 1929, on which an account was given of the social policy of the Government during the first ten years of the country's existence. It was pointed out that Czechoslovakia was the first industrial country to ratify the Hours Convention. The journal Narodny Politika stated in this connection that the establishment of an 8-hour day had not in any way interfered with production.

The official statistics of overtime show what changes there have been in the hours worked from year to year. The average amount of overtime authorised in 1927 was higher than in 1926. It amounted to 54.1 per year per worker as compared with 52.1. It was, however, lower than the 1925 figure, which was 59.3. The workers have protested against the increase in overtime. The employers, on the other hand, complain of the complicated procedure required to obtain authorisation for overtime. The Czechoslovak Manufacturers' Federation, at its annual assembly at Prague on 18 June 1928, stated that during the eight years which had elapsed since the Act came into force many of the difficulties arising out of its enforcement had been overcome, but that it was desirable to simplify the formalities for obtaining permission to work overtime, to allow women to work on Saturday afternoons and to distribute hours of work over a period of four weeks.

In Ecuador, a new Act, which was promulgated on 6 October 1928, and which came into force on 1 January 1929, fixes the maximum working day at 8 hours for "all paid workmen or manual workers, employees in shops, offices and other industrial or commercial establishments, and, in general, for all who work for a private institution in return for salary, wage or an agreed lump sum." Domestic service and home work are excepted. The working week may not exceed 48 hours. By written agreement between the parties concerned, hours of work may be increased by two in the day or 12 in the week, but such overtime is to be paid at the rate of 50 to 100 per cent. above the normal rates according to the hours or days on which the overtime is worked.

In Estonia, conditional ratification of the Convention was recommended by the Cabinet on 26 December 1924. Since then, however, according to the press, the Social Commission of the State Assembly decided in December 1928 to reject a proposal of the Socialist Party for subsequent ratification of the Convention.

Since the entry into force of the 8-hour-day Act in Finland, the Council of State issues every year regulations exempting certain classes of establishments from the Act. In 1928 the exemptions were the same as for the previous year. Engineers, however, now have the 8-hour day, while other railway workers remain outside the Act. Since 1928 the Act also applies to salaried employees in the telegraph department, customs staff at outposts on waterways on the eastern frontier as well as the staff in the inland offices.

Further, according to press statements, the Government appointed at the beginning of the year a Committee to draft regulations for hours of work in certain State undertakings which are not at
present covered by the Hours of Work Act.

In France, the Act of 23 April 1919 is being more widely enforced by means of new Decrees regulating hours of work in various industries and amending or improving existing Decrees. The principal Decrees of 1928 deal with artificial denter workshop, hides and skins, the manufacture, shaping, cutting, polishing and decoration of glass and other operations relating thereto, and tobacco manufacture and pastry-baking in a number of towns. The Decree on hours of work in the hides and skins trade is of particular interest, as it substitutes one comprehensive set of regulations for those at present in force in various branches of the trade and as to which four series of Decrees had been issued.

At the end of 1928, during the discussion of the Ministry of Labour Budget, much criticism was heard in the Chamber of Deputies and the press regarding the present method of issuing regulations by professions, trades, or industrial categories for the whole country or for a district. The critics call for the combination of the numerous regulations in existence in the form of a small number of national or district Decrees, the abolition of allowances for making up lost time and an increase of pay of at least 25 per cent. for overtime.

Later, during a discussion on the social policy of the Government, a deputy once more drew the attention of the Chamber to the large number of exemptions from the 8-hour Act and demanded that the Convention should be ratified unconditionally.

In Germany, the first Workers’ Protection Bill was submitted by the Government to the Economic Council of the Reich and to the Reichsrat in December 1926. The Economic Council considered it from February 1927 to the summer of 1928, and reported on it. The Reichsrat altered the Bill on various points, and with these alterations passed it on 29 March 1928, by 61 votes to 5. After the last elections to the Reichstag and the change of Government which followed, the Chancellor of the Reich, Mr. Hermann Müller, made the following statement on 3 July 1928:

The Government of the Reich intends to ratify the Washington 8-hour Convention. It will do all in its power in the international negotiations to help to remove the uncertainty which at present exists in regard to the revision of this Convention and the obstacles which stand in the way of its general ratification. The Government will immediately submit to the Reichstag the Workers’ Protection Bill which has been passed by the Reichsrat, and the Work in Mines Bill which is required to complete it. The principle on which it is proposed to regulate hours of work in these Bills is the 8-hour day. The rules laid down by them avoid economic impossibilities and remove social injustices: they are in agreement with the Washington Convention.

The Bill was again brought forward by the present Minister of Labour, Mr. Wis- sell, after certain changes had been made in it, and was passed by the Reichsrat on 17 January 1929.

The discussion on the Bill in the Reichstag began on 7 February. The Minister of Labour pointed out that the Bill would make it possible to ratify a number of Conventions including the 8-hour Convention. It only allowed 300 instead of 600 hours’ overtime. The Minister further stated that he intended to submit shortly a Bill for the ratification of the Eight Hours Convention. This Bill has been drawn up by the Ministry of Labour and will shortly be submitted to the Cabinet.

After the discussions in the Reichstag, in the course of which the different parties explained their attitude, the Bill was referred to the Political and Social Questions Commission.

The proposed codification of all the provisions concerning the protection of the workers has made it necessary to draft new labour regulations for mines, without which it would not be possible to ratify the Eight Hours Convention. Accordingly the Minister of Labour has recently laid a Mines Bill before the Reichstag.

The shift is taken as the normal working period. Working hours for underground work are fixed at 7 ½ hours per day, but can be increased to 8 hours if they include pauses which do not exceed half-an-hour or when urgent public utility reasons so require. Overtime is not to exceed 60 hours per year. If a collective agreement is concluded to that effect, however, at the most 180 extra hours of overtime may be worked over and above these 60 hours. Where there is no collective agreement, the mines authority or the Minister of Labour may also authorise an extra 180 hours’ overtime for special reasons. Further, the Minister of Labour may, during certain specified periods and in certain districts, allow up to 300 hours’ overtime per year. Special rules are laid down for the protection of workers employed in places with a temperature above 28 degrees of heat, for juvenile workers and for women.

A considerable number of investigations have been made into the practice as regards regulation of working hours. The information collected all tends in the same direction, i.e. to show that working hours are being reduced.

The Statistics Office of the Reich, for example, has published information based on the collective agreements in force on 1 January 1927. It appears that, out of the 10,247,000 workers covered by these agreements, 1,166,000 had a normal working day of less than 8 hours, 7,714,000 regularly worked 8 hours a day and
48 hours a week, and only 1,867,000 (including 841,000 workers employed in agricultural undertakings), i.e., 13 per cent., worked more than 8 hours. Although the collective agreements generally provide for overtime in certain circumstances, the above figures nevertheless show that the normal working day is generally 8 hours.

Again, investigations were undertaken by the General Confederation of German Trade Unions in October last on the same basis as those for preceding years. The investigations embraced seven important groups of industries (building, printing, chemical industry, wood industry, iron and steel, boot-making industry, and the textile industry). For the week to which the investigations related the following figures were collected as to the number of working hours actually being worked: 26.6 per cent. of the workers covered worked more than 48 hours per week (42.7 per cent. in October 1927 and 54.7 per cent. in May 1924), 3.4 per cent. only worked more than 54 hours, and 0.3 per cent. more than 60 hours. The number of workers working 48 hours or under was 62.1 per cent., excluding workers on short time, while the corresponding figure for October 1927 was 55.6 per cent. These figures were collected at the request of the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade Unions, which asked the workers' central organisations in other countries to have similar investigations carried out for the same period.

Two official investigations were also undertaken by the statistical services of the Reich, in the one case into the wood industry, and in the other into the textile industry. In the wood industry the enquiries covered 45,000 workers in 180 different localities employed in cabinet making, the manufacture of musical instruments, furniture, etc. A maximum of 48 hours was being worked by 77.5 per cent. of these workers and 48.7 per cent. worked less than 48 hours per week. Even in the textile industry where hours are particularly long the investigations undertaken in September 1927 and published in May 1928 show that for the 35,000 workers covered normal working hours for skilled workers were 50 per week for men and 49.5 for women, and that hours for unskilled workers were 58.1 for men and 49.6 for women.

As regards working hours in the mines, which were investigated by the "Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund" in October 1928, it appears that working hours on the basis of collective agreements are in general 8 per day for underground workers and 9 for surface workers, including the extra hour per shift provided for in the agreements. Out of the 725,000 workers covered by the investigations in coal, lignite, iron and potas-

sium mines, 62.5 per cent. were working 8 hours per day and only 0.3 per cent. 10 hours.

This new tendency towards shorter working hours is demonstrated not only by these investigations, which, it is true, do not always allow of accurate general comparisons as between one period and another, but also by a number of other facts. A number of awards, the most important of which is that which recently brought to an end the serious dispute in the iron and steel industry in Rheno-Westphalia, provide for reductions in working hours. Under the above-mentioned award hours of work have been reduced to 57 per week since 1 January 1929 for all workers who were working a 60-hour week. Other reductions are also prescribed for certain undertakings. For example, in foundries and radiator factories hours are fixed at 52 for six working days, provided that when economic exigencies so require they may be prolonged by 2 hours per week during the necessary period after consultation with the works council and subject to a 25 per cent. increase in the ordinary wage. Again, in water-gas welding workshops working hours are reduced to 52 for all workers directly employed in connection with the welding process; and these workshops are to endeavour to restrict hours of work to 48 for six days within a specified period. In undertakings using sand-blasting machines hours of work are reduced to 48 for all workers; in cement factories to 48 for continuous work, and to 52 for other work. In Thomas slag grinding undertakings, hours are reduced to 48 for six days, provided that in case of necessity the hours for each shift may be prolonged by one hour per day after consultation with the works council and subject to the payment of an increase of 25 per cent. in the ordinary wage.

Reference should also be made to the agreement voluntarily concluded in the potassium industry, which fixes hours of work as from 15 April 1929 at 8 hours per day for underground workers (instead of 9½ hours) and 8½ hours per day for surface workers.

The working hours of civil servants are at present at least 54 per week as a general rule. They may be reduced to 51 provided that this does not involve any considerable increase in expenditure. In certain towns where special local conditions exist, the weekly hours of work may be reduced to 48½. Endeavours have been made to reduce the hours of work of all civil servants to 48 per week, but have so far not been successful.

The application of present legal provisions also tends to increase the number of workers who may not be employed for more than 8 hours per day or 48 hours per week. The Social Affairs Committee
of the Economic Council of the Reich, after investigation into the matter, proposed in November that the workers in a number of departments of industry should be given the benefit of section 7 of the Hours of Work Order. The workers referred to are those employed in distilling tar, installing gas generators in the chemical industry, in the rubber industry, in artificial silk, lead soldering work in the chemical industry, in repair workshops, in Thomas slag grinding undertakings, the manufacture of carburet, in undertakings using phosphorus, manufacturing chemical manures, inflammable materials and powder, and fireworks.

The workers' organisations, moreover, are continually endeavouring in some cases to maintain the 8-hour day and in others to secure its adoption. At their national congresses, e.g. the Congress held at Hamburg in September 1928 by the Free Workers' Unions (A.G.D.B.), or the Congress of the Federation of Salaried Employees held at Breslau in August 1928, resolutions were adopted calling for ratification of the 8-hour Convention.

Similar wishes were expressed by the German Civil Servants' Federation ("Deutscher Beamtenbund", Berlin Congress, October 1928), the German Factory Workers' Federation ("Verband der Fabrikarbeiter Deutschlands"), the Federation of Hirsch-Dunker Trade Unions ("Verband der Deutschen Gewerkvereine Hirsch-Dunker"), and the Federation of Salaried Employees' Trade Unions.

In Great Britain, the question of ratification has continued to occupy attention despite, or rather on account of, the desire for revision of the Convention which has been adopted as the Government policy since last year.

In July 1928 a deputation from the League of Nations Union was received by Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland, Minister of Labour, and requested that the Governing Body of the International Labour Office should be informed as to the points on which the British Government demanded revision.

In Parliament a whole series of questions has been raised by various speakers belonging to different political parties requesting the Government to define its objections to ratification.

In the House of Lords, on 20 November 1928, Lord Lytton, supported by Lord Olivier, Lord Parmoor and Viscount Cecil of Chelwood, put forward a resolution on this question, which was rejected by a majority of 22 votes.

In the House of Commons, on 27 February 1929, during a discussion on the estimates for the Ministry of Labour, Miss Bondfield drew attention to the effect of the revision proposed by the Government.

The Minister of Labour was questioned in the House of Commons immediately on his return to London after the Forty-Third Session of the Governing Body, during which, as will be seen later, the British Government explained its objections. In reply to the various speakers, Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland declared that the Government considered revision of the Convention necessary, and he recalled the two chief reasons in favour of this step: the necessity for an interpretation of the Convention in conformity with its spirit and uniform on all the important points for all countries, and the impossibility for Great Britain to ratify the present Convention under British law if the clauses of the London Agreement were incorporated in a statutory enactment.

As regards the question of hours of work in Great Britain it is of interest to note the following facts.

Early in the year the Liberal Party stated its attitude to the Convention in the report Britain's Industrial Future. This report recalls the reasons for delaying ratification and adds that an agreement between Great Britain and the other industrial powers as to the terms of a revised Convention should not be difficult to achieve.

"It is highly desirable", the Report states, "that the principle of the 48-hour week should be safely established by the law of the land. Such a law would make the new standard safe against infringement... The detailed application of the principle to the conditions of particular industries should be left to their representative regulating bodies."

Further, the Trades Union Congress at Swansea in September 1928 demanded unconditional ratification of the Convention.

The most striking fact in the industrial situation during the past year was the depression in the cotton industry which has particularly affected the spinning of American cotton. Several conferences were held between representatives of employers and workers during which the possibility of prolonging hours of work was considered. This proposal, however, was not adopted. The strong opposition of the representatives of the wage-earners to any prolongation of working hours resulted in proposals of this type being abandoned by the employers. The employers' federations attempted to organise a system of reduced hours, but the votes which were taken did not give the necessary majority for putting this system once more into force. It was consequently abandoned for the time being, but was taken up again towards the end of the year, when a resolution was adopted by the State of Trade Committee of the Masters' Federation which recommended all spinners of American cotton to limit their production to an amount equal to...
approximately four working days per week.

The situation in this industry remains serious, and difficulties may be foreseen from the fact that the employers have just withdrawn from the agreement which has been in force since 1918, according to which the time for repairing and cleaning the machines counts as part of the normal working hours. The employers wish this work to be done outside the 48 hours, which would, in fact, mean prolonging the hours to 52. So far the discussions on this subject have not led to an agreement.

The situation in the mining industry has also caused anxiety during the past year. The Labour Party tried to obtain a repeal of the Eight Hours Act of 1926, but this proposal was rejected by the Commons by 27 votes in March 1928. The Congress of the Miners' Federation in July 1928 likewise demanded its repeal. From statements made in the House of Commons it seems that since the Act came into force the hours of work of underground workers have in general been extended by one hour, or, in some cases, only by half-an-hour.

A new Factories Bill aiming at bringing the existing Act into harmony with the needs of modern industrial life is being prepared and has led to numerous discussions among those concerned. Among other things this Bill provides for a maximum working week of 48 hours for women and young persons. The Home Secretary in October 1928 received a deputation from the General Council of the Trades Union Congress and other affiliated trade unions, protesting particularly against the measures proposed for overtime and against the two-shift system, which was originally adopted as a temporary measure. In his reply, the Home Secretary stated that he was afraid the Government would not have time to deal with this question before the General Election, but that he could assure the deputation that if the Government should remain in power it would immediately propose to the new Parliament to amend the Factories Act.

In Greece there are a certain number of new facts to note. On 31 December the Ministry of National Economy sent to the Workers' Centre in Athens the text of recent Decrees issued to apply the Act of 19 November-2 December 1911 concerning the regulation of hours of work. These Decrees, on the suggestion of the Consultative Labour Council attached to the Ministry of National Economy, extend the application of the 8-hour day to the following industries and undertakings: construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration or demolition of any buildings; construction or alteration of ports, docks, jetties, canals, roads, tunnels, bridges, viaducts, sewers and ordinary wells, telegraph and telephone installations, gas factories, water systems and other construction works, including all allied preparatory work; oil factories for acids and fertilisers, paper works, glass factories, brick yards and potteries; factories for ice, cement, colouring materials, turpentine, salts of tartar, and cooking salt; gas and electric undertakings; insulating factories; factories for oxygen and compressed calcium carbide and refrigerators for the preservation of foodstuffs.

In October 1928 the General Workers' Federation presented a memorandum to the Government proposing, inter alia, the general application of the Eight-Hour Act. A similar memorandum was put forward in November by the workers' organisations. It was decided to ask the opinion of the Consultative Labour Council as to the possibility of the immediate application of the eight-hour system in various undertakings, excepting those, such as hat factories and marble works, in which hours are regulated by collective agreements.

In Hungary, during the discussion on the budget which took place in the Lower Chamber in May 1928, the Minister of Social Welfare announced that the Government intended to introduce the eight-hour day in Hungary. It has sent a circular to the organisations concerned to collect the necessary information, and has commenced the preparatory work for a Bill on the eight-hour day in industry and commerce. In reply to a recent question, however, the Minister stated to the Lower Chamber on 30 January last that he was convinced that the introduction of the eight-hour day would be profitable for production, but that capital feared wage disputes because the workers would not earn so much in eight hours as they did under the present system which permitted overtime. The Government would continue to study the question very carefully, although the economic situation of the country was not yet sufficiently satisfactory for this reform to be undertaken at an early date.

The Minister added that he would not be able to submit a Bill to Parliament in the near future, but that in the meantime the Government had decided to use its influence to improve the system of working hours and seeing that the strength of the workers was not unduly taxed.

In India, the Bill amending the Mines Act of 1923 which was mentioned in last year's Report was adopted on 20 September 1928 and will come into force on 7 April 1930.

Although the Factories Act limits weekly hours of work to 60, the hours actually worked are frequently considerably less than these, as is shown by
the annual statistics published by the Government. According to the statistics for the year 1926 the normal hours of work for male workers in 26.80 per cent. of the total number of 7,251 factories covered by the figures was 48 hours, while in 12.72 per cent. they did not exceed 54 hours, and in 60.48 per cent. they were above this limit. The corresponding figures for women are 31.22 per cent. employed for less than 48 hours, 13.75 per cent. from 48–54 hours and 56.03 per cent. more than 54 hours.

*Italy*, which has conditionally ratified the Convention, set up in 1928, as has already been mentioned, a permanent Committee for co-ordination in international labour questions. At its first meeting in Rome on 5 December this Committee decided to appoint a sub-committee to consider what amendments might be made in Italian legislation on hours of work in order to bring them into harmony with the provisions of the Washington Convention.

For the purposes of the regulation of their hours of work workers employed in fishing have been included by a Decree among those categories whose occupations consist of discontinuous work or mere waiting or supervision to which the limitation of hours of work is not applicable. At the same time the regulation of hours by collective agreements continues to extend and become more organised. Among the great number of agreements concluded, two fix an eight-hour day and a forty-eight-hour week; these are the agreement concluded by the Italian General Fascist Industrial Confederation and the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions on 15 February 1928, and that of 4 December 1928 covering the building trade, public works and similar industries — agreements which together affect a total of approximately 500,000 workers. In metallurgy the only exceptions to the eight-hour principle which are recognised relate to industries in which continuous firing is required; the staff of each shift is bound to work overtime in turn according to the exigencies of the work; such overtime is to be paid for at a higher rate. When work has to be carried on without interruption for seven days in the week the hours are to be 14½ (56, 48 and 40) for each period of three weeks. In the building trade a circular which was sent to the local organisations by the Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions states that during the months of May, June, July and August the hours of work may be extended to ten per day and 70 per week, provided they are reduced to six hours per day and 36 per week during the months of November, December, January, and February.

In *Japan*, the maximum hours of work for underground workers in mines, irrespective of age or sex, is to be limited to 10, including a compulsory rest period of at least an hour. This innovation in Japanese labour legislation is introduced by the revised Mines Regulations promulgated on 1 September 1928, which will come into force on 1 September 1930.

In *Luxemburg*, the Act of 5 March 1928 approving the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference at its first ten Sessions (1919–1927) covers the Eight Hours Convention, ratification of which was registered on 16 April 1928.

In *Mexico*, the draft Federal Labour Code submitted for discussion at the Assembly convened by the Government in November 1928, which has been already mentioned (cf. ante, § 7), provides for an 8-hour day and 48-hour week for all industrial and commercial undertakings.

In the *Netherlands*, the Labour Act of 1910 contains two sections concerning work in hospitals and shops which are to come into force when public administrative regulations have been promulgated. On 3 September 1928 the regulations concerning hospitals were promulgated, and provide for a 10-hour day and 55-hour week. The regulations limiting hours of work in shops to 8 per day and 48 per week will not come into force, according to a statement made by the Minister during the discussion of the budget for 1929–1930, until the Shop Closing Bill has been adopted, so as to avoid injuring the interests of certain establishments which would be obliged to close on Sunday while others were permitted to remain open.

The enquiry carried out by the Dutch Trade Unions in October 1926 shows that the great majority of workers covered by the enquiry are subject to a 48-hour week. In the mining industry the enquiry dealt with twelve undertakings employing 34,000 workers, and it was found that 74.4 per cent. of these workers were working less than 48 hours per week, 23.8 per cent. for 48 hours, and 1.8 per cent. between 48 and 51 hours.

In the building industries, printing, wood industry, metallurgy, boot trade and the chemical and textile industries it covered more than 150,000 workers and showed that 80 per cent. were working for 48 hours, 2.5 per cent. for less than 48 hours, 12 per cent. between 48 and 51, 3 per cent. between 51 and 54 and only 2 per cent. more than 54 hours.

In *Poland*, as was mentioned in last year's Report, the 8-hour day was to be partially restored in the metallurgical
of the above undertakings were requested to submit a programme providing for the progressive extension of the 8-hour day to other classes of workers in these undertakings by 1 September 1928.

In August 1928 the representatives of the workers in the foundries of German and Polish Upper Silesia met at Katowice to discuss the possibility of reintroducing the 8-hour day in its entirety in all the Upper Silesian foundries. They decided that the German and Polish workers should send delegations to discuss the matter with the German and Polish Governments respectively.

The Minister of Labour and Social Welfare published an Order in October 1928 which was to restore the 8-hour day successively on 15 November, 3 December, and 31 December 1928 for those classes of workers not yet covered by it.

During the discussion on 10 December 1928 in the Budgetary Commission of the Diet with regard to the budget of the Ministry of Labour, the Minister explained the Government policy on labour questions, and stated that he considered the unification of Polish labour legislation as being of the greatest importance and that to this end he was going to request the Council of Ministers to extend the application of various laws to the territory of Upper Silesia.

On 3 July 1928, the Chief Factory Inspector issued a circular to all factory inspectors reminding them of the necessity for exercising strict supervision and laying down principles for the same.

Portugal adopted a Decree on 3 April 1929 for ratifying the Convention, and this ratification was registered with the Secretariat of the League of Nations on 3 July 1928. This Decree repeals all legislation which is contrary to it.

In Rumania, in order to achieve unity in the principles and methods of applying labour legislation, the Government intends to introduce a single Bill for regulating labour questions. Committees have been set up to study and put forward a draft Labour Code. At the same time the Government wishes to bring into effect immediately certain Conventions which it has ratified and to this end it has laid before Parliament a Bill for regulating the work of women and children and fixing hours of work in industrial undertakings. This Bill was passed by Parliament and became law on 28 April 1928; the provisions will later be incorporated in the Labour Code. Chapter II of this Act is devoted to hours of work. The regulations apply to the undertakings mentioned in the Eight Hours Convention. Chapter III establishes a system of sanctions. The Act also provides that the enforcement of the provisions regulating hours of work is bound up with the maintenance of the international Eight Hours Convention.

Official statistics published in 1928 show that in 1926, out of 587 undertakings employing 143,605 workers, 314 undertakings (54 per cent.) employing 98,526 workers (69 per cent.) were working 48 hours or less per week. In 1927, 55 collective agreements were concluded, affecting 22,608 workers and containing clauses on hours of work; 40 of these agreements (73 per cent.) covering 20,251 workers (90 per cent.) fix the normal hours of work at 48 per week.

In South Africa a Bill to amend the Factories Act of 1918 was laid before Parliament on 1 March 1928. During its second reading on 19 March, the Minister of Labour made it clear that one of the main objects of the Bill was to introduce the 48-hour week into factories in the Union and to bring South African legislation into line with the Washington Convention.

Since last year's Report a decisive step has been taken by Spain, which, by Royal Decree of 24 May 1928, has conditionally ratified the Convention. This ratification was registered on 22 February 1929.

The condition to which the application of the Convention is subject is that of ratification by Germany, France, Great Britain and Italy.

In the name of the workers' organisations, who call for unconditional ratification, the Spanish General Workers' Union has requested the International Labour Office to approach the British Government with a view to securing its speedy ratification of the Hours of Work Convention, in order that Spain may in its turn ratify unconditionally.

As regards the crisis in the mining industry which was referred to last year, and which has had some effect on the length of the working period, there would appear to have been no improvement during the last twelve months. With a view to remedying the situation effectively, the National Miners' Federation has demanded the nationalisation of the mines. It has also called for a return to the legal 7-hour day for underground workers, which had been abolished last year in the hope of improving the situation.

In Sweden, the Riksdag, in response to a proposal made by the Social-Democrat Party, requested the Government to undertake an enquiry into working conditions, and particularly hours of work for the staff of hotels and restaurants, as well as of public baths. This enquiry is now being carried out by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.
In Switzerland the Federal Department of Public Economy informed the Federal Factory Committee on 1 March 1928 that in view of the improved economic conditions the exceptions authorised in pursuance of § 41 of the Federal Factory Act would henceforth include certain new clauses.

Henceforth authorisation will be withdrawn when the prolongation of the 48-hour week would involve total or partial unemployment for the staff of a factory. Those applying temporary authorisations will be notified that they must be prepared before the expiry of their authorisation to resume the 48-hour system. A copy of the authorisation issued will be sent to the Federal Labour Office which will give its opinion to the section for industry, art and crafts of the Department of Public Economy, with regard to the desirability of extending this authorisation when it expires.

In addition to the Order of 26 March 1928 renewing a certain number of these authorisations, as was foreseen in last year's Report, the Order of 23 June renewed the prolongations, particularly in the textile industry. Early in 1928, 30.6 per cent. of the factories liable to adopt the 48-hour week were in enjoyment of the exemption provided for by the Act, but in point of fact this authorisation was taken advantage of by only 25 per cent. of the factories. As a result of an inquiry undertaken by the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions during the first week of October 1928, covering the building industry, the graphic arts, the wood trade, metallurgy, the boot trade and the textile and chemical industries and including 163,500 workers, it appears that 91,470 workers (approximately 56 per cent.) were working for 48 hours or less per week, while 47,970 workers (approximately 29 per cent.) were working more than 51 hours. The least favourable conditions were among workers in the boot trade, the textile industry, metallurgy and watchmaking.

In the name of the workers' organisations the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions in May 1928 addressed a request to the Federal Council dealing with the following three points: the abuse of § 41 of the Factories Act; the passing of an Act for the extension of the 8-hour principle to all industrial undertakings, whereas the Federal Factory Act limits hours of work only to factories and transport undertakings. If the Convention were ratified it would thus be necessary to adopt hours legislation for other branches of industrial production; and fresh legislation of this kind would meet with unyielding opposition.

The apprehensions which might still be felt in 1920 as regards the possibility of applying the 48-hour week in Switzerland have, unfortunately, lost much of their force now that it is known that certain European industrial countries have made the 48-hour week general, applying it even to small handicrafts, and that Belgium and Luxembourg have ratified the Convention unconditionally. It is all the more urgent that Switzerland should ratify the Convention because some countries, such as Austria and Italy, have mentioned Switzerland among the countries on whose ratification theirs is conditional.

Further, there was a debate in the National Council on 6 and 7 June on the report of the work of the Federal Council. Some of the National Councillors put forward the views already expressed by the Trade Union Federation. Legislative action has also been asked for in another sphere. The Swiss Chamber of Salaried Employees is asking for a Federal Act limiting hours of work of salaried employees in commerce, offices and industry to 8 per day and 45 per week (48 in certain cases), and to 52 hours in shops. It is proposed that in hotels and public houses a nightly rest of not less
than 9 hours in the 24 should be given
and that hours of work should not exceed
10 per day in the case of workers whose
work is of an intensive character (pro-
gramme of demands drawn up in Sept-
ember).

Mention was made in last year’s Report
of the manifesto of October 1927, in which
the Government of the Union of Socialist
Soviet Republics declared its intention of
introducing a 7-hour day in industry.
At the Trade Union Congress which took
place at Moscow from 10 to 29 December
1927, Mr. Kouibychef, President of the
Superior Council of National Economy,
said that by 1933 the whole of industry
should have been reorganised on the basis
of the 7-hour day.

In 1928 the 7-hour day was applied
to twenty-eight undertakings, mainly in
the textile industry, employing 128,700 work-
ers. The adoption of the 7-hour day had
necessitated a 20 per cent. increase of
staff and had involved important changes
in the organisation of work, and particu-
larly in that of shifts. At the present
time one-third of the staff of the under-
takings in question works in two shifts,
but it seems likely that the three-shift
system will become general. The number
of workers employed at night has in-
creased. They now constitute 50 per cent.
of the total as compared with 32 per cent.
under the 8-hour system.

Inadequate preparation made for
the introduction of the reform appears to
have caused difficulties in the under-
takings selected, especially as regards the
supply of raw materials, technical organisa-
tion, and the engagement of the ad-
tional staff required owing to the increase
in the number of shifts.

According to the programme drawn up
by the Government Committee on the
7-hour day, the system will be applied
during the economic year 1928-1929 to
150 existing undertakings employing
206,000 workers, and to forty under-
takings which it is proposed to set up
and which will employ 14,300 workers.
By the end of the year 1928-1929, 365,000
workers will be covered by the 7-hour day
system.

Amendments to existing labour legisla-
tion will be necessary in order to provide
for the transfer to the 7-hour day. The
existing law will have to be adapted in
certain respects to the practical position
resulting from the first year’s experiment:
night work of women, employment of
children, reduction of hours of night work
by one hour as compared with day work,
etc. The Government Committee on the
7-hour day unanimously agreed that for
the moment it was not possible to under-
take a complete revision of existing legisla-
tion.

The competent authorities studied the
introduction of the 7-hour day in mines
as prescribed by the manifesto of October
1927, and came to the conclusion that
arrangements should be made for the
application of a 6-hour day to under-
ground workers by October 1928. The
number of mines in which a 6-hour day
was in force for underground workers was
38 on 15 July 1928, 68 on 15 August, 133
on 1 September and 212 on 15 September.
By 1 October there only remained five
or six mines which had not yet adopted
the new system, and these mines were
to adopt it as from 10 October.

In the United States of America, statis-
tics published by the Bureau of Labour
Statistics on wages and hours of work in
1928, show that only slight changes in hours of work were
made during the last twelve months.
The special enquiry into the cotton and
woollen industries also shows the situation
to be practically stationary.

On the other hand, the five-day week
continues to win support in various
circles. The President of the American
Federation of Labor, Mr. Green, reached
the following conclusions in a speech
made in 1928:

From the social standpoint, the five-day work
week would be desirable and beneficial. From
an industrial standpoint, it would be practical
and economically sound. From the humane
and spiritual standpoint, it would be uplifting
and inspiring. The whole social structure would be
strengthened. Our national life would be made
more secure. The spiritual life of the millions
of people who toil would be inmeasurably ad-
vanced. Humane and spiritual values would be
placed above the material things of life and the
people would rejoice and be made happy because
of the larger opportunities afforded them for the
enjoyment of life, liberty and the pursuit of hap-

ness.

A committee to study the question was
appointed at the Annual Assembly of the
Federation at New Orleans in November
1928, and reported as follows:

Every thorough study which has been made
within recent years by competent economists
indicates that a five-day work week is socially,
industrially and economically sound. It is no
longer an experiment. In a number of industries
it has become a fact. It has already met with
the approval of many employers, who have entered
into agreements with trade unions establishing
a five-day week.

Industrial experiments in connection
with the five-day week are continuing.
Thirty thousand new workers have been
engaged by the Ford Motor Company in
order to keep the factory going for six
days while retaining the five-day week
for the staff.

In Uruguay, the Chamber of Deputies
approved the ratification of the Conven-
tion on 6 September 1928. The measure
is at present before the Senate. It will
be remembered that Uruguay introduced
the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week by
its Act of 17 November 1915.
In *Venezuela*, a new Labour Act was adopted on 28 July 1928. The Act of 26 June 1917 concerning hours of work in public workshops and undertakings provided for a maximum working day of $8\frac{1}{2}$ hours. The new Act covers all undertakings, exploitations or establishments of whatever kind, including industrial and mining undertakings, commercial undertakings and agricultural and stock-breeding undertakings. The working day is fixed at 9 hours. Work which cannot be completed within those hours can be carried out by auxiliary workers other than the ordinary workers. Moreover, piece workers may work more than 9 hours per day if they so desire, but may not be required to do so. The regulations relating to mines are the same in the new Act as in that of 17 July 1925. Hours of work are limited to 8 per day. In the case of underground work, the day may be divided into three shifts of 8 hours or four shifts of 6 hours.

The idea of the 8-hour day is thus as full of vitality as ever. Even if, as the more prudent and timid supporters of the International Labour Organisation maintain, it is wiser not to attempt international labour legislation on any subject until national legislation in the various countries appears to be tending in the same direction, even if Mr. Lambert-Ribot were right in maintaining that it was rash to make the 8-hour day the subject of the first International Labour Convention, it would be impossible not to be inspired by new hope in view of the progress which has been made. It may well be asked whether the time for an international solution is not approaching.

The alternations of hope and disappointment to which the Office has been subjected for nearly ten years past would, it might be thought, be sufficient to chill its optimism. Following the earliest ratifications of the Convention the first British revision proposal was put forward in 1921, in a letter from Mr. M. J. Masterton-Smith. This was followed by the sort of semi-official enquiry which was carried out at the time of the Report to the 1922 Session of the Conference, and then by the institution of a Committee on the subject by the Governing Body. Then came the serious setback at the end of 1923. Towards the end of 1924 there appeared to be hopeful signs again. The French Government and the British Cabinet were favourably disposed, and the Berne Conference was held. Soon, however, there were political changes in various countries. After this, fresh action was suddenly taken. The London Conference was held in March 1926 and joint ratification by the great industrial countries appeared almost certain. Only a few months later, in spite of the Belgian ratification and the French conditional ratification, the whole situation once more became uncertain and difficult owing to the British coal strike. Finally, in January of last year there arrived the British Government’s revision proposal.

It was stated in last year’s Report, and it is now repeated, that in the Director’s view the British Government’s revision proposal undoubtedly represents a fresh step towards ratification. It shows that the necessity of an international agreement on the 8-hour question was recently recognised. After the Belgian ratification, the French conditional ratification and the German Bill for conditional ratification, Great Britain, though still legally free to ratify or not to ratify the Washington Convention, felt that an international agreement was morally necessary. Quite recently this was strongly emphasised in the Report of the Ballour Committee:

Whatever may be the defects of the Washington Hours Convention, the mere refusal or omission to ratify this agreement does not excuse the State from its obligation under the Treaties of Peace.
to seek means to give effect to the aspiration expressed therein.

The British Government is therefore in agreement with other Governments in desiring an international agreement on the hours question. And the method proposed for this purpose is the revision procedure which, in January 1928, as previously in 1921, the British Government invited the Members of the Organisation to undertake.

It may be desirable to give an account of what has happened as regards this proposal since January 1928, beginning where last year's Report left off.

When in January 1928 Mr. Betterton put forward his proposal (cf. Report to the Eleventh Session of the Conference, p. 125), the Governing Body decided not to consider the possibility of revision of the Washington Convention until it had definitely fixed the general procedure to be followed in case of revision. The Governing Body unanimously agreed that Article 21 of the Hours Convention and the corresponding Articles of the other Conventions making provision for their possible revision or modification raised difficult questions of procedure which should be settled in advance if it was not desired to proceed in a haphazard way and to run the risk of destroying the structure of international labour legislation which had been built up with so much effort.

The Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body met on 30 and 31 March and drafted rules for the procedure to be followed. The Governing Body at its April Session adopted the rules, the main lines of which have been explained above (cf. ante, § 15). The rules of procedure state that when, at the end of ten years or earlier, the Governing Body has to consider the question whether the Hours Convention proposed by the British Government should be placed on the Agenda of the Conference in 1929."

The Governing Body did not have to decide on this proposal in April, as the British Government representative himself proposed its adjournment until the next Session, though he formally stated that it was his definite intention to raise the question again.

The proposal thus came before the Governing Body once more at its May Session, just before the opening of the Conference. Mr. Wolfe, on behalf of the British Government, requested the Governing Body "to apply forthwith to the Washington Convention the procedure agreed upon at the last Session". If that proposal had been adopted the Office would at once have had to prepare the reports required by the Standing Orders, and the Governing Body would have considered at its October Session whether or not it should be sent to the Governments with a view to the revision or modification of the Convention. The proposal was, however, opposed by the workers' group, which regarded the opening of the procedure before the end of the time limit laid down in the Convention as an implicit decision to revise the Convention. Some Governments, such as those of Belgium and Italy, expressed the same view. The Governing Body finally adopted by nine votes to nil the following motion submitted by its Chairman:

"The Director is requested to prepare the reports on the Conventions adopted at Washington in 1919, which according to the terms of the Conventions must be submitted within ten years at latest, and to lay each report before the Governing Body as soon as it is completed."

The meaning of this proposal is quite clear. The Governing Body refused to consider the possibility of a discussion in 1929. It did so in order to avoid giving the impression that it was in any way inclined towards revision of the Hours Convention. Moreover, the resolution did not refer solely to the Hours Convention but treated it on the same footing as the other 1919 Conventions, some of which, probably the majority, do not give rise to any serious difficulty and which no one wants to have revised. In so doing it was once more trying not to give the impression that the Hours Convention was about to be revised. Since, however, the subject would necessarily have to be discussed in 1931 at the latest under the terms of the Convention itself, it requested the Office to proceed with the preparation of objective reports on the various Conventions adopted at Washington.

As a matter of fact, as the Director pointed out at the time, it was passing the responsibility on the question of policy on to the Directorate of the Office.
On the Directorate, or more strictly on the services of the Office, would depend the order and date of completion of the reports and consequently of their discussion by the Governing Body.

At this stage, when the impression of the above decisions was quite fresh, the 1928 Conference opened. There was, of course, a discussion on the six hour day in connection with the Director’s Report. It was hardly possible that that discussion could have any practical influence on the development of the problem. In reply to a question from the British workers’ delegate the British Government delegate stated, as he had previously done at the Governing Body, that his Government considered the method of joint interpretation which had been tried at the London Conference to be inadequate, and said that it was in the general interest to undertake revision of the Convention immediately without waiting until the end of the time limit in 1931. In conclusion, he made the following formal statement:

The British Government, while adhering to the principles of the Washington Convention and proceeding in the light of what was discussed at the London Conference, desires, as a means of ensuring progress, to define those principles more precisely, thus laying the basis for uniformity and providing what is needed to secure that international action is practicable.

It is not necessary to give a summary of the speeches in which the workers’ delegates in turn expressed their disappointment and declared their intention of defending the Convention and maintaining it intact, or the speeches of certain Government delegates, including the Belgian Minister of Labour, who stated that economic life should be adapted to the requirements of the Convention and the British delegate stated, as he had previously done at the Governing Body, that his Government considered the method of joint interpretation which had been tried at the London Conference to be inadequate, and said that it was in the general interest to undertake revision of the Convention immediately without waiting until the end of the time limit in 1931. In conclusion, he made the following formal statement:

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In accordance with the decision taken by the Governing Body at its May Session, the Office set to work on the first of the reports on the working of the Conventions for which it had been asked. Two reports were completed by about November, the Report on the Hours Convention and the Report on the Convention concerning the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment. There need be no surprise that the Office should submit among the first of the reports which were to be laid before the Governing Body “as soon as they were completed”, that on the Hours Convention. All the necessary information had already been collected for the repeated discussions on the question which had taken place. Moreover, the Office would have been taking a serious responsibility if it had on its own initiative delayed to submit the Report to the members of the Governing Body. The two Reports were, as required by the Standing Orders, sent to members of the Governing Body in December 1928, and they were placed upon the agenda of the Session to be held in March 1929.

The Governing Body could, in view of previous discussions, have adjourned the question until another Session, as there was still a considerable amount of time before the end of the time limit in 1931. Some days before the Governing Body Session, however, the British Government officially stated that it intended to submit a list of points in respect of which revision was, in its opinion, required. The points were as follows:

**Articles 1 and 2**

**Definitions.** — (a) The Convention uses various expressions such as “working hours” and “hours of work” but contains no definition on this vital point. A clear and consistent definition seems needed to avoid divergent interpretations.

(b) The doubts that have arisen in the past as to whether the expression “week” meant only the six working days or included Sundays might also be set at rest by definition.

(c) If the provisions of these articles are read in conjunction with those of Article 6 referring to the notification of “the hours at which work begins and ends” there appears to be a certain confusion between regulating the hours of individual workers and regulating those of the industrial undertaking.

**Scope.** — (a) It is for consideration, whether in the interests of uniformity it is possible or desirable that the Convention should give some further guidance to States in defining the lines of division between Industry, Commerce and Agriculture.

(b) The position of mixed establishments, i.e. partly industrial and partly commercial, is not clear; and it seems desirable that the Convention should lay down a uniform method of treating them.

(c) It appears that the existence of a number of small industrial establishments should be less than or less than five workpeople presents a problem for several countries. This is a point that might well be considered by the Conference.

**Distribution of hours.** — The provisions governing the distribution of the hours composing the normal working week of 48 hours appear to be unnecessarily restrictive. It seems worth examining whether the convention should not make it permissible to distribute the normal working hours (provided they do not exceed 48 in the week) over five or even four days. Similarly (Article 5), it might be considered whether undertakings such as those in which pressure of work arises at recurring seasons of the year or in which work is likely to be interrupted by the weather or by the tides or other acts of nature should be recognised by the Convention as entitled of themselves to average their hours “over a longer period of time”.

**Article 3**

**Accident and “force majeure”.** — These terms seem to require closer definition. It is not clear whether the provision regarding “interference with the ordinary working of the undertaking” is intended to provide for such cases as the necessity of completing a technical process once begun, the duration of which cannot be determined in advance.

**Article 4**

Considerable doubt exists as to whether there is anything like uniform agreement in regard to
the actual processes to which the provisions of Article 4 may properly be applied, and it has been found in practice that the lists furnished under Article 7 do not enable a clear idea to be gained of the actual situation. It is for consideration whether the Conference should not in the interest of uniformity attempt to draw up a list of these processes or expand the definition.

Article 6

Overtime. — Different views have been held as to the circumstances in which overtime may be worked. Two lines of approach appear possible. On the one hand, an attempt might be made to obtain uniformity by a closer and less ambiguous definition than that contained in the Convention, or the possibility might be examined of dispensing with the definition and the need for regulations and relying on the safeguard of the enhanced rate payable for overtime.

Preparatory, complementary, and intermittent work. — The precise force of these expressions will need further consideration in the light of any definition of working hours.

Making up lost time. — The question of making up lost time without payment for the extra hours at the overtime rates requires consideration both as to whether the principle itself is admissible and as to the circumstances in which it should be allowed to operate.

Article 14

This was one of the points to which attention was devoted by the London Conference and the desirability might be considered of expressing the provision in such a way as to avoid the possibility of international misunderstandings in the future.

Transport. — The question will need to be examined, how far the points already enumerated over the difficulties that have been experienced in many countries in the application of the Convention to certain forms of transport, particularly transport by road or rail.

In view of the importance of the discussion, Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland, Minister of Labour, came in person to represent the British Government at the March Session. The Governments of France and Germany were also represented by their respective Ministers of Labour, Mr. Loucheur and Mr. Wissell. The Governing Body was requested to decide formally, in accordance with the procedure laid down in Article 7 (a) of the Standing Orders, whether the Report should simply be communicated to the Conference, or whether it should be sent to Governments with a view to the possible revision or modification of the Convention. It had also, of course, to decide whether or not the questions raised by the British Government were to be attached to the Report if it was sent to Governments and whether special attention should be drawn to them.

It is not possible to give a detailed account here of the discussions which took place at the March Session, and the attitudes adopted by the various groups and Governments represented on the Governing Body. The British Government reiterated its intention of respecting the fundamental principles of the Convention. Some of the employers argued that the Convention as adopted in 1919 was not workable, and demanded that free scope should be allowed for revision without previous limitation. Some of the Governments expressed their anxiety to maintain an agreement which they did not regard as in any way contrary to their economic development. The French and German Governments endeavoured to limit the modifications to be introduced into the Convention to the interpretation of certain terms which were too wide and gave rise to dispute, or to have the conclusions of the London Conference incorporated in the Convention itself. The workers' group maintained its opposition to any decision which might be taken to mean the opening of the revision procedure.

The definite proposals on which in the end the Governing Body had to decide were as follows:

(a) A proposal by Mr. Khaitan, Indian employer's representative, for the immediate application of the Standing Orders and the despatch of the Report to the Governments with a view to consideration of the points requiring revision.

(b) A second proposal from the employers' group submitted by Mr. Lambert-Ribot, to the effect that the Report of the Office, the British Government's memorandum, and the observations made by members of the Governing Body, should be communicated to all Governments, but proposing (without strictly following the rules of procedure previously adopted by the Governing Body) that the 1930 Session of the Conference should be asked to set up a special committee to consider all the observations put forward, and to submit definite conclusions, if any, to the Governing Body and the 1931 Session.

(c) A third resolution submitted by Mr. Sokal, proposing that a committee of the Governing Body should be set up to examine the two Reports on the working of Conventions which the Office had already submitted, and the communications made by Governments on these Reports, the Committee to submit a report to the next Session of the Governing Body in May with a view to facilitating its decision under Article 7 (a) of the Standing Orders.

(d) A compromise proposal by Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland, also proposing that a Committee should be set up to study all the documents and to report to the May Session as to the points, if any, to which special attention should be drawn.

The above proposals were successively rejected by the Governing Body, the last receiving 8 votes for and 8 against.
The Governing Body thus appears to have come to a deadlock, and it is necessary to consider the resulting situation.

The two Reports (though it is only necessary to speak here of the Report on the Hours Convention) drawn up by the Office are still in existence and can be submitted to the Governing Body for its decision at any time. The meaning of the success of revision of negative decisions taken by the Governing Body is that in March no majority could be found to decide in any form whether the revision or modification of the Convention should be considered for inclusion in the Agenda of the Conference.

It does not appear probable that any fresh steps will be taken during the coming months. The Governing Body will, however, have to decide one way or another before the 1931 Session of the Conference, when the ten years' time limit will have elapsed. Either the Report will have to be laid before the Conference without any proposal for the modification of the Convention, or else the procedure which may possibly lead to revision or modification will have to be opened. The latest date for a decision is 1931.

It is possible, however, that when that time comes the same difficulties will persist. Even if a majority decision is obtained, there may be some danger of a serious conflict in view of the differences of opinion expressed at recent Sessions of the Governing Body. Is there, then, no means of avoiding these serious dangers and finding a way out of the deadlock?

As the Director said at the last Conference, what makes the present situation so difficult is the lack of confidence between the representatives of the opposing interests. The British Government has never varied in declaring its fidelity to the general principles of the Convention and the system of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week. It has constantly said that, although it was opposed to the text adopted at Washington, it desired to arrive at an international agreement which would be universally applied. The workers, however, continue to feel anxiety. There has been strong criticism of the Convention in a great many countries. In only too many cases the opposition of the employers to ratification has been emphatically manifested. The proposals which have been made for the modification of the original text have been too vague. This is the reason why the workers cling so strongly to the letter of the Convention.

Where confidence is lacking, there is only one thing to be done: for both sides to give one another in advance the mutual guarantee of definite rules and carefully established methods which will be observed by all concerned.

The Governing Body realised this from the outset, since it decided not to discuss the possibility of revision or modification unless rules of procedure had been laid down in advance. In April 1928 the Governing Body settled the rules to be observed by itself in all those stages of revision procedure with which it is particularly concerned. It is thought that the Governing Body would do well to maintain those rules. It is easy to understand the point of view of Mr. Lambert-Ribot, who has more than once tried to find means of laying the matter before the Conference, because it is only at the Conference that all the interests involved besides those of the Governments — those of the employers and those of the workers — can be defended, the Conference being the only forum where all have an opportunity of stating their case. Surely, however, the Conference cannot, unless the question is placed on its Agenda in accordance with the rules laid down by the Treaty, arrive at definite instruments which will be ratified. Besides, it may be maintained that an assembly, even an assembly constituted as the Conference is, is always liable to be carried away by immediate psychological reactions, and to compromise the very principles of the Convention under discussion. In the present case, more than in any other, the rules of procedure must be observed if possible apprehensions are to be allayed.

It is, however, necessary that the rules for revision procedure should be complete. The parts of the procedure which affect the Governing Body have been settled. The Conference itself, however, still has to establish its own rules of procedure for the discussion of any Convention which comes up for revision or modification. The Governing Body has clearly realised this. In March 1929 it prepared draft Standing Orders for the Convention, the purport of which is that when the Governing Body has decided on the points it will place on the Agenda of the Conference, with a view to revision or modification, the discussions of the Conference should be confined exclusively to those points. A guarantee of this kind would do much to reassure the workers, who fear that the discussion may be made an opportunity to extend the scope of the revision. It may, however, in the future provide an equally valuable guarantee for the employers. The draft Standing Orders drawn up by the Governing Body will come before the present Session of the Conference. If they are adopted, they will remove some of the fears of the workers and thus improve the prospect of reaching an agreement. This, however, is only one of the conditions necessary for success. The discussions of recent Sessions of the Govern-
ing Body have been made specially difficult owing to the fact that the supporters of the Washington Convention do not know for certain what are the intentions of those who are asking for revision, the definite proposals they wish to make or—to put it bluntly—what conditions they lay down for their ratification of the Convention.

In 1928, when the first Committee set up by the Governing Body to consider the Hours Convention met, it was impossible, even after a long discussion, to obtain information on the actual modifications which were desired. At the 1927 Committee, of which Mr. Sokal was Chairman, Mr. Lambert-Ribot put forward a certain number of suggestions of his own, but was unable to lay them before the Committee as formal requests. For a long time the British Government also felt unable to give definite information on its difficulties. The disadvantages of this state of affairs were mentioned in last year's Report, to the Conference (p. 127), and a desire was expressed that a Bill might be submitted in Great Britain on the same lines as that which is at present under discussion in the German Parliament.

The value of the memorandum when the British Government submitted to the March Session of the Governing Body must be recognised without reserve. It is the first real effort which has been made to prepare the ground for the discussion of revision and to show clearly that the principle of the 8-hour day is intended to remain intact. It may, however, be pointed out, in the first place, that the British proposals were communicated at a very late stage, when it was no longer possible to undertake any preliminary conversations or to attempt to reach an agreement before the Session of the Governing Body opened. In the second place, the form in which the British suggestions were made was not calculated to smooth the way towards possible negotiations and compromises. The British note referred to the doubts, uncertainties and divergencies of interpretation to which some Articles of the Convention might give rise. Thus it opened the discussion in an atmosphere of uncertainty and hesitation. This was liable to give an impression in some quarters that revision, even on these points, might be unlimited.

There would, of course, have been certain disadvantages in the opposite method which would have been to say: "Here is the text which we propose, here are the modifications which we want, this is the interpretation which we wish to have laid down in the text to the exclusion of all others." A State may, in the course of negotiations, find itself led into defending a proposal which it may, so to speak, make the sine qua non of its ratification and thus close the way to an international agreement which it desired and was attempting to achieve. Everything considered, however, it is thought that in the present circumstances this is the only way of establishing mutual confidence and reaching an agreement. If, for example, the British Government had said: "Our Law Officers consider that the London conclusions are more than a mere interpretation and that it is necessary to amend the text of the Convention in that sense", if they had proposed to modify the Convention wherever this was necessary in order to bring its terms into accordance with the spirit of the London conclusions, if they had even asked for definite modifications on one or two points on which they felt doubt, it might perhaps have been possible last March to reassure the workers and to prepare the ground for a new text.

In the Director's view a solution can only be found in the near future if the following method is adopted:

1) Strict rules preventing the discussion from going beyond the definite points fixed by the Governing Body;

2) Limited proposals, clearly defined even in their form, for the modification of the Articles of the Convention.

It will, of course, be possible for all States, at the time when they are consulted, to suggest to the Governing Body points on which they desire amendments, even if the Governing Body had not mentioned those points. If, however, some kind of preliminary agreement is reached in the Governing Body, if the employers' and workers' groups agree on a compromise, and if there is a sort of moral engagement to maintain that compromise, then, if the principles of the Convention are safeguarded and if the modifications proposed simply aim at a clear interpretation of vague and doubtful terms and are limited and closely defined, it is thought that an attempt of this kind, intended solely to strengthen the Convention and facilitate its ratification by those Governments which have asked for explanations, would have every prospect of success.

Weekly Rest

105. — There are few reforms so popular as that of the weekly rest. Whether the cause be religious belief, tradition, or the greater strain of present-day work, the workers still perhaps attach greater importance to the weekly rest than to the short working day.

At the same time, the way in which the rule is applied is not always perfect. Technical, economic and social conditions
change too quickly for such an institution to assume a final and definite form, and new problems are therefore constantly arising and demanding the attention both of the parties concerned and of the legislature. Besides, in this connection as in many others, there is a tendency to international uniformity. These two lines of development, towards adaptation and uniformity, are to be seen in tangible form in the progress in ratifications and in the legislation adopted in various countries.

106. **Weekly rest in industrial undertakings.** — The following measures were taken during 1928 on the Convention on this subject:

**Convention concerning the Application of the Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings (1921)**

(a) **Ratification Measures**

- **Colombia:** Submitted to the Consultative Committee of the Labour Office for examination.
- **Cuba:** Approved conditionally by the Senate (application subordinated to existing legislation).
- **Germany:** Approved by the Cabinet and submitted to the Reichsrat on 11 March 1929.
- **Luxembourg:** Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
- **Portugal:** Ratification registered on 3 July 1928.
- **Uruguay:** Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

(b) **Application Measures**

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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Brazil (Rio de Janeiro):</strong> Decree of 30 October 1928 concerning hours of work and weekly rest of workmen.</td>
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<td><strong>Greece:</strong> Decree of 23 November 1928 codifying the laws on weekly rest.</td>
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<td><strong>Hungary:</strong> Order of 20 April 1928 of Minister of Commerce provisionally suspending the legal provisions in soda manufactories.</td>
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<td><strong>Italy:</strong> Royal Decree of 31 May 1928, ratifying Table IV, appended to the regulation of 8 August 1908 concerning the application of the Act on weekly rest and bank holidays.</td>
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<td><strong>Luxembourg:</strong> Act of 5 March 1928 approving the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference in the course of its first ten Sessions (1919-1927) and ordaining that these Conventions should have legal and entire effect in the Grand Duchy.</td>
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<td><strong>Portugal:</strong> Decree No. 15,513 of 26 May 1928 to remove doubts concerning the application of the legal provisions to Sunday rest and provisions of regulations on the subject issued by the Municipal Councils.</td>
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<td><strong>Switzerland:</strong> Draft Bill submitted for opinion to the employers' and workers' organisations concerned.</td>
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<td><strong>Venezuela:</strong> Labour Act of 26 July 1928.</td>
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In 1928 new regulations on the weekly rest, which had already been dealt with by previous legislation, were introduced in four countries, **Ecuador, Greece, Luxembourg and Venezuela.** Provisions on the subject were also adopted in Brazil in the district of Rio de Janeiro, in **Portugal** and in **Italy,** but these, as will be seen, were purely measures of enforcement. In addition to these legal provisions there are other important facts to be noted.

In **Brazil,** a Bill has just been adopted by the Municipal Council of the Federal District (Rio de Janeiro) according a weekly rest day to workers in shops, factories, workshops and other manufacturing and commercial establishments, including persons employed in hotels, boarding houses and public houses.

In **Ecuador,** the Act of 4 September 1916, amended by the Act of 8 October 1921, has been replaced by an Act dated 7 October 1928 on hours of work and the weekly rest. Under the previous legislation the number of working days was fixed at six in the week. The day of the week to be observed as a rest day was to be decided by the employer or manager. The 1928 Act, which applies to all wage-earners, goes beyond these provisions. The only exceptions to the Act are domestic service, home work, discontinuous services, casual work and the work of commercial agents or travellers, private confidential work, repairs and supervision, and Sunday is made a compulsory day of rest. If circumstances are such that work cannot be interrupted on Sunday another rest day is to be decided upon by agreement between the employers and the workers or salaried employees, and subject to the intervention of the factory inspector and the approval of the Ministry of Social Welfare. The weekly rest must comprise at least thirty-six consecutive hours. It is to be granted to all the workers on the same day, and the system of giving a day off in rotation is only to be allowed if the nature of the work so requires.

As regards **Germany,** it was mentioned in last year's Report that, when the Act of 16 July 1927 to amend the Decree on Bakeries was being passed, there had been keen discussion on a proposal to authorize work for two hours on Sundays in bakeries and pastry-cooks' establishments. During 1928 considerable efforts were made by the employers' organisations in the baking trade to obtain this authorisation, so that food-stuffs of a perishable kind might be prepared on Sundays. A number of deputies interested themselves in the employers' complaints and have asked the Reichstag to repeal the prohibition of Sunday work. On the other hand, the working pastry-cooks have opposed the granting of this request by the Reichstag, since it would mean a seven-day week for the workers, and they demand that Sunday should be observed as a full day's rest.

In **Greece,** great progress has been made in the matter of the regulation of the weekly rest by the Decree of 20 November 1928, which codifies the provisions of
the Decree of 23 November 1928, which codifies the provisions of the Decrees of 1914, 1923, 1926 and 1927, and introduces improvements.

The new regulations apply to all municipalities and rural districts. No exception is allowed for any form of religious faith, and industry, commerce, and workers working on their own account are all covered. The following are exempt: public services, State industries and monopolies, agricultural work, hunting and fishing, transport undertakings, hawkers and the retail milk trade.

Exceptions are allowed in the case of certain industries or special work, when a period of rest in lieu must be allowed. The Minister of National Economy may authorise work on Sunday either for part or the whole of the day in certain industries for "reasons of social interest". The Decree does not apply during fairs nor in summer resorts.

In Italy, the pasteurisation of milk (collection, treatment, bottling and distribution) was added by a Royal Decree of 31 May 1928 to the list of industries in which the weekly rest may be allowed by rotation on account of the public needs which they meet.

The Italian Central Catholic Action Committee is continuing its crusade in favour of the Sunday rest. On 4 March 1928 a "National Day" was held in favour of Sunday rest. A second "National Day" was held on the Feast of St. Joseph (19 March 1929) which was declared a holiday for all civil purposes by the Act of 6 December 1928. The Committee also undertook an enquiry into the enforcement of the weekly rest in Italy; for this purpose a questionnaire was addressed to the Diocesan Catholic Action Committees, and replies were to be furnished by 1 October. The results of the enquiry will be forwarded to the Catholic Institute of Social Action.

In Portugal, the Decree of 26 May 1928 lays down that industrial and commercial establishments, only in places where municipal by-laws make express provision to this effect, are to be closed and work in them stopped on the day set apart for the weekly rest.

In Switzerland, a Federal Weekly Rest Bill has been prepared by the Federal Labour Office. This Bill, which would bring into line the present systems in the various Cantons, would apply to industry, arts and crafts, commerce, and transport, excluding undertakings covered by the Federal Factory Act and the Federal Act on hours of work in railway undertakings and other transport and communications undertakings. Employers, persons exercising confidential or managerial functions, members of the employer's family, persons employed in bee-keeping and forestry, domestic workers and persons working in their own house or workshop are excluded from the Bill. The weekly rest provided for would have to cover 24 consecutive hours and take place on Sunday, except where Sunday work is possible under cantonal legislation, in which case the weekly rest would have to be given on a working day. Provision is made for certain exceptions to cope with exceptional conditions. For the hotel industry the Bill contains special provisions based on the proposals of the organisations concerned.

In Venezuela, the Act of 23 July 1928, repealing the Act of 26 June 1917 on industrial workshops and establishments, applies to industrial, mining and agricultural undertakings, stock farms and commercial establishments. It contains new and clearer regulations for the weekly rest. No work of any kind may be performed on holidays (Sundays and religious or civil festivals) in the establishments and undertakings covered by the Act. Exceptions are only to be allowed for undertakings or establishments to be specified by the federal executive power in regulations enforcing the Act or by special provisions.

Lastly, there are three other States of Latin America, the Argentine Republic, Mexico and Panama, in which the draft Labour Codes at present under consideration contain special provisions for the regulation of the weekly rest which is already in force. Particular interest attaches to the Argentine and Mexican Bills, which propose to lay down uniform labour regulations by federal legislation.

107. Weekly rest in commercial establishments. — The following measures were taken during 1928 on the Recommendation on this subject:

RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE APPLICATION OF THE WEEKLY REST IN COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS (1921)

General Information

Germany: Existing legislation applies most of the provisions of the Recommendation. The details concerning its application will be examined after the adoption of the Bill on the protection of workmen.

Application Measures

The above-mentioned measures concerning Brazil, Ecuador, Greece, Portugal and Venezuela equally affect weekly rest in commercial establishments. Albania: Order of 1928 on weekly rest. Colombia: Decree of 26 June 1928 regulating the weekly rest in public services.

Germany (Prussia): Decree of Minister of Commerce of 3 September 1928, relating to the publication of the exceptions to the dispositions of the legislation concerning Sunday rest.
Religious festivals. Salaried employees rest day on Sundays and national or local authority are entitled to a paid service is laid down by a Decree of 26 June 1928. All workmen employed on Government work or working for a local authority are entitled to a paid rest day in future be Sunday and not Friday.

Little legislation on this subject was adopted in 1928, but there are a number of developments which should be recorded.

In Albania, a Government Order has just been issued laying down that the weekly rest day should be Sunday and not Friday.

In Colombia the weekly rest in public services is laid down by a Decree of 26 June 1928. All workmen employed on Government work or working for a local authority are entitled to a paid rest day on Sundays and national or religious festivals. Salaried employees and workmen the nature of whose work requires them to work on holidays are entitled to a day’s rest in compensation or to increased remuneration as they prefer.

In Czechoslovakia, the report of the Salaried Employees' Union for 1927 states that the general Sunday rest in commerce has had to be defended against the attacks of political parties, chambers of commerce and shopkeepers' associations. The general Sunday rest in this country is enforced in the different districts by Order of the local authorities. The Union of Shopkeepers' Associations continues to claim that a general Sunday rest can only be introduced if two-thirds of those concerned are in favour of doing so. The associations also claim exemption for the sale of fruit and milk, for hairdressers, and photographers, and the suspension of the Sunday rest in December. This movement has not succeeded in abolishing or weakening the principle of the Sunday rest in commerce, where it was already enforced, but it has, generally speaking, prevented its extension to fresh districts.

In the Chamber of Deputies the Government was requested by the Socialist Parties to prepare without delay a Bill on the general Sunday rest in commercial establishments for the whole country. The Government Coalition Parties opposed this measure, whereupon a compromise was proposed and adopted, which requests the Government to institute an enquiry among the parties concerned. This was not however done in 1927. A fresh step forward seems to have been taken in this direction at the end of 1928, since the legislative programme for 1929 refers to a Bill for a general Sunday rest day which is being prepared.

In France, the Act of 29 December 1928 on the Sunday closing of shops is still effective. Among the local regulations made under the Act in 1928 mention should be made of the regulations issued by the Prefect of the Seine on 3 May 1928, as the result of agreements between the employers' and workers' unions in the jewellery and clock trades in the Paris district. Under these regulations, jewellery establishments in the Paris district are to be closed on Sundays.

The question of the weekly rest for clerks of public officers who conduct public auction sales, which has been referred to in previous Reports, is still engaging attention, and the report laid before the Chamber of Deputies during the present Parliament has been considered again and referred to the Labour Commission.

In Germany, the Order of the Berlin Police Commissioner of 8 February 1928, which was analysed in last year's Report, has been attacked by certain classes of employers, e.g. the master butchers, who claim that the weekly rest should be suspended during the summer months. The staff employed in butchers' establishments, particularly clerks and saleswomen, have asked the competent authorities to refuse to comply with any request which would interfere with the Sunday rest.

In Great Britain, the campaign against Sunday work is still going on. This year again a number of business associations, including the British Drapers' Chamber of Trade, are protesting against the stock-taking and window dressing-work which is frequently done on Sunday.

The Sunday Trading Bill mentioned in last year's Report was laid before the House of Commons in May 1928. According to this Bill all shops would have to be closed for sale to the public on Sunday. Exemption would only be allowed in the case of certain classes of shops which it is essential should be open on Sunday. Further, special provisions allow for the sale of goods during a few hours Sunday morning or evening in the case of bakers', butchers', chemists' and druggists' shops, dairy shops, fish shops, greengrocers, grocers, confectioners and tobacconists.

The fate of this private Bill cannot be foreseen. It would not appear that the Government is likely to support it at the moment. A member of Parliament stated in the House that there were nearly 250,000 shops open every Sunday in which two million employees were occupied, and asked the Home Secretary if he did not intend to bring in a Bill on Sunday work. The Home Secretary
replied that the Government was not in a position to propose legislation on this subject.

The Bill has also aroused criticism. The master and operative bakers’ organisations are opposing part Sunday work in their establishments, and state that such a system would imply in practice that they would work seven days in the week.

In Greece, the Decree of 23 November 1928, the general lines of which have been indicated above (cf. p. 141), contains special provisions for shops. As a general rule the following system is applied: in towns with a population of from 10,000 to 30,000 persons shops may open from 10 a.m. to 1 p.m. but no assistants may be employed; in towns with from 3000 to 10,000 inhabitants permission is given to work for five hours, the hours to be fixed by the police authorities; in towns of less than 3,000 inhabitants shops may open from 9 a.m. in winter and 8 a.m. in summer. Special regulations are made for wine merchants, grocers, pastrycooks, retail dairies, public houses, cafés, tobacconists, hairdressers, butchers’ shops, greengrocers, bakers’ shops, chemists and exchange offices.

In Hungary, publicity has been given in the press to the claims of the National Merchants’ Association which calls for a definite regulation of the question of the Sunday rest. Two points of view have their supporters. The majority would like to see the Sunday rest strictly maintained, while the minority favours Sunday work. In reply to a question in the Lower House on the weekly rest of salaried employees in commerce, the Minister of Commerce stated that an agreement for the complete adoption of the Sunday rest had been concluded by employers in the food and grocery trades and their employees. At the same time, the employers were only prepared to ratify the agreement if open air trade and dairies were brought under the same regulations. This solution would not only be resented by public opinion, but would threaten the existence of the smaller establishments. The question was particularly difficult to settle in the country districts, where people only make their purchases on Sunday. The Minister therefore considered that there were many considerations to be taken into account before a radical change was made.

In Italy, where the weekly rest in commercial establishments arouses great interest, a number of circulars on the subject have been addressed by the Ministry of National Economy to all the prefects of the Kingdom. The first of these, dated 27 February 1928, reminds the prefects that the regulations regarding hawking on Sundays are to be strictly enforced, as well as those relating to the sale of authorised and unauthorised products in the same shops, in order to prevent unfair competition.

Two other circulars (2 August and 15 November 1928) deal with the enforcement of the Act on weekly rest in rural commercial establishments. The latter circular explains certain points dealt with in the circular of 2 August. In accordance with the 1907 Act prefects may only authorise the opening of shops on Sunday morning in rural districts where the purchases of the country population cause a “special development” of commercial activity.

In the Netherlands, the Supreme Labour Council has submitted to the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry its opinion on proposed regulations to give a weekly rest day to musicians in restaurants, hotels, cinemas and dancing halls. Opinion in the Council was sharply divided on this question. In view of various objections and suggestions it would appear that the majority of the Council would support regulations which would allow a certain amount of latitude in fixing the number of rest days to fall on Sunday.

In the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, the Decree of 3 May 1928 amended by the Decree of 20 July 1928 lays down that commercial establishments and private workshops are to be closed during the whole of Sunday. Full exemption is given to cafés, restaurants, hotels, public kitchens, retail dairies and dairy produce establishments, and photographers’ shops. Transport, loading and unloading undertakings, bakers’ and butchers’ shops, hairdressers, florists, grocers, newsagents and tobacconists may remain open on Sunday morning.

As regards classes of workers not covered by the Convention and the Recommendation, attention may be drawn to one Decree and one Bill during 1928 which deal respectively with the weekly rest in the fishing industry and in agriculture.

In the Netherlands, the Bill presented to the Supreme Labour Council by the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry, which contains regulations for the work of women, children and young persons in agriculture, provides for the prohibition of Sunday work for these workers, except in exceptional cases to be specified by administrative regulations.

In Spain, a Royal Decree dated 7 July 1928 has again changed the weekly rest system in the fishing industry laid down by the regulations of 17 December 1926. In the case of fishing-boat crews the rest may be suspended for longer periods than
those laid down by the regulations in question, but the workers must have 13, 26 or 52 complete rest days in port in each quarter, half-year or year, during which they are to be paid at the ordinary rates unless their remuneration is fixed by agreement in the form of a daily wage.

To sum up, the legislative measures adopted or proposed are less numerous than last year, but they indicate none the less a steady improvement in the situation as regards the weekly rest problem. In particular, there is still a marked tendency to make Sunday the rest day for the whole community, and exceptions to this rule are being more and more restricted and defined.

Night Work in Bakeries

108. — The first ratifications of the Convention on night work in bakeries have just been received.

Convention concerning Night Work in Bakeries (1925)

(a) Ratification Measures

Bulgaria: Uказе of 17 January 1929 authorising the ratification of the Convention.

Columbia: Submitted to the Consultative Committee of the Labour Office for examination.

Cuba: Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.

Finland: Ratification registered on 26 May 1928.

Germany: Approved by the Cabinet and submitted to the Reichsrat on 11 March 1929.

Luxembourg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

Uruguay: By a Message of 23 March 1928, the President of the Republic recommended the ratification of the Convention to the General Assembly.

(b) Application Measures

Cuba: Act of 2 June 1928 on night work in bakeries and the application Decree of 4 September 1928.

Estonia: Act of 26 March 1929 on night work in bakeries.

Guatemala: Act of 14 November 1927 on night work in bakeries, modified by the Act of 19 December 1927.


Latvia: Amendments of 14 June 1928 to Act of 11 March 1925 on night work in bakeries.

When the situation in the different countries is examined, there seems no reason why there should not be a more rapid movement in the direction of ratification in the near future. A slight effort on the part of a few States in which legislation is not far removed from the provisions of the Convention would soon lead to its wider international application.

In Cuba, work in bakeries between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m. is forbidden by the Act of 2 June 1928, which gives effect to the provisions of the Convention, and the regulations issued under it on 4 September 1928. This is more favourable to the operatives than the terms of the Convention, because it gives them a rest of eight consecutive hours instead of seven.

In Czechoslovakia, the workers' press has hailed with satisfaction the news of the first ratifications of the Convention and has expressed regret that their country has not yet taken the same step. At their meeting at Prague on 12 August 1928 the working bakers' delegates adopted a resolution protesting against the efforts of the employers' organisations in the bakery trade to obtain authorisation to start work at 3 a.m., and called for the ratification of the Convention. The Federation of German Manufacturers of Czechoslovakia, on the other hand, at Liberec on 6 June 1928, again expressed the wish that work should begin at 3 a.m. in the bakery trade.

In Estonia, an Act on night work in bakeries was passed by the State Assembly on 26 March 1929 (the last day of the session), but the Assembly has not had time to consider the Bill for the ratification of the Convention, which will be submitted to the new State Assembly.

In France, there are two Bills before the Senate, one of which has already been passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and which amends Article 20 of Part II of the Labour and Social Welfare Code, while the other is for the ratification of the Convention. A report in favour of the latter Bill was adopted on 28 June 1928 by the Commerce, Industry, Labour and Posts Commission, and an opinion was given on 20 December 1928 by the Commission on Foreign Affairs and General Policy in Protectorates.

The workers have continued to claim the unconditional enforcement of the Act prohibiting night work.

A similar movement is evident on the employers' side. The employers in the bakery trade, at a general assembly at Marseilles, decided to adhere strictly to day work as from 1 September and stated that they would take proceedings against any employer who employed labour during the prohibited hours. At Nîmes the employers' and workers' organisations requested the Senate on 5 September to pass the amendment voted by the Chamber of Deputies without delay, in order that the manufacture of bread between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. might be totally and generally prohibited.

There is one minor fact which is a source of satisfaction to those in favour of the reform. At the Baking, Pastry-making and Confectionery Exhibition organised by the International Baking In-
stitute (Paris, 3-4 July) the workers who made a certain quantity of bread in the shortest time, and the employers who supplied the best quality of bread, were given prizes as the best operative baker and the best master baker respectively in France. The successful master baker is one of those who do not allow night work.

In Great Britain, a delegation of the General Council of the Trades Union Congress was received by the Home Secretary on 25 October 1928 and drew his attention to the unfortunate situation of the operative bakers who are compelled to work during the night throughout the year. The Home Secretary stated that he would consider the position of the operative bakers in the light of the information supplied to him.

In Guatemala, work in bakeries between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m. is prohibited by a Decree of 14 November 1927 on hours of work. By an amendment of 19 December 1928 the workers can legally be required to finish baking a specified quantity of flour once the process has been begun, without having the right to complain.

Last year's Report mentioned the disagreement between the Hungarian employers' and workers' organisations on the subject of the enforcement of the 1928 Act prohibiting work in bakeries between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. in Budapest and certain other towns, and between 9 p.m. and 4 a.m. in the provinces. In reply to a question the Minister of Commerce had stated that he would get into touch with the parties concerned with a view to trying to reach agreement. After holding an enquiry on the subject the Minister prepared a Bill authorising work to begin at 4 a.m. in Budapest and certain other towns, and 3 a.m. in the provinces. In reply to a question the Minister of Commerce had stated that he would get into touch with the parties concerned with a view to trying to reach agreement. After holding an enquiry on the subject the Minister prepared a Bill authorising work to begin at 4 a.m. in Budapest and certain other towns, and 3 a.m. in the provinces. The employers approved the Bill, while the workers demanded the maintenance of the previous system.

During the debate in the Upper Chamber, the Minister drew attention to the difficulties in the way of the enforcement of the International Convention in view of the special conditions in Hungary. Nevertheless the Bill was amended during the discussion so that the new Act will correspond with the Convention in the case of Budapest. In the provinces, where the situation is different, as people go to work sooner than in the capital, it has not appeared possible to conform with the Convention. The Act passed by the two Chambers was approved by the Regent on 3 January 1929.

In Italy, the previous provisions relating to night work have been confirmed by a Decree-Act of 29 July 1928 on bakeries, which deals principally with hygienic conditions in these establishments.

In Latvia, an amendment of 14 June 1928 to the Act of 11 March 1925 reduces to six hours (from 10 p.m. to 4 a.m.) the prohibited period which was formerly eight hours (from 8 p.m. to 4 a.m.). It also contains an important provision on a matter not provided for in the Convention, i.e. night work is authorised in establishments where hygienic conditions are found to be specially satisfactory, mechanical baking is practised, and work is carried on continuously by three shifts of workers.

The Luxemburg Act of 5 March 1928 for ratifying the Convention on night work in bakeries, states that the Convention, and the others ratified at the same time, have the force of law and come into full operation in the Grand Duchy.

In Switzerland, the usual Parliamentary procedure is being followed. It will be remembered that a Message of 20 May 1927 was laid before the Federal Chambers in which the conclusion was reached that the Convention should not be ratified. The Federal Council is, however, in favour of national regulations prohibiting work in bakeries between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m.

In September 1927 the Council of States decided against ratification of the Convention, and the question came before the National Council in 1928. On 21 March 1928 the latter decided to request the Federal Council to prepare a Bill for the prohibition of night work in bakeries, and to postpone any decision as to ratification of the Convention until the Bill had been brought in.

The attitude of the National Council with regard to the Convention is thus more favourable than that of the Council of the States. In deciding to postpone any decision as to ratification, the National Council took account of the authorisation given by the Convention to begin work at 4 a.m. in the case of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned are in agreement on the subject. In the opinion of the Committee of the National Council the possibility of reaching such an agreement in the future in Switzerland is not excluded.

When the question came before the Council of States for the second time in September 1928, this Council did not change its attitude with regard to the Convention and remains opposed to ratification. On the other hand, it agreed with the opinion of the National Council in recognising the advisability of prohibiting night work in bakeries through the passing of a Federal Act. Taking more definite action than the National Council, it requested the Federal Council to prepare a Bill regulating night work in bakeries with a view to ensuring a nightly rest from 8 p.m. to 4 a.m. in all bakeries, large or small.

The National Council therefore had to take a fresh decision on the question,
and it adopted the proposal of the Council of States on 16 March 1929.

There would seem to have been a certain change since last year in the opinion of both the employers' and workers' bodies concerned. Speaking during the debate in the National Council, Mr. Schulthess, Federal Councillor and Chief of the Department of Public Economy, took note of the important con­

cessions which had been interrupted in 1929, with a view to securing general regulations for industries in which holidays have not yet been given.

In *Denmark*, the triennial Congress of the Trade Union Federation adopted in May 1928 a resolution calling for the institution of holidays with pay, on the ground that at the moment the workers of the country were only getting on an average 2.7 days' holiday in a year. The Congress instructed the Executive Commi­

tee of the Federation to resume the negotiations with the employers' feder­

ations which had been interrupted in 1929, with a view to securing general regulations for industries in which holidays have not yet been given.

In *France*, after the Durafour Bill was brought in, the movement for holidays with pay spread rapidly. This is shown in every industry and numerous branches of commerce in the conditions laid down for the renewal of agreements or in resolutions adopted by competent con­

gresses. It is also shown by draft resolu­

tions in the Chamber of Deputies proposing that this measure should be carried out, and speeches during the Budget discussion urging that its application should be hastened. The General Federation of Labour also announced its attitude on the Durafour Bill last year, stating that it gives partial satisfaction to workers in industries where employment is becoming stable, but that it would not sufficiently improve the position of a large number of workers in industries in which labour cannot be utilised for six consecutive months by the same employer. Hence, too, the following draft resolution which has been submitted by several members of the Chamber of Deputies: "The Govern­

ment is requested to bring in and pass as soon as possible a Bill providing for annual holidays with pay for all workers without deduction from wages which should also apply to workers in industries in which employment is not stable".

In *Germany*, it appears from official statistics published by the Ministry of Labour that out of 7,490 collective agreements in force on 1 January 1927—covering 807,300 establishments and 10,970,120 manual workers—6,760 provided for holidays with pay from 3 to 18 days. This figure represents 90.3 per cent. of the total number of collective agreements as compared with 80 per cent. for 1926. In the case of salaried employees, the corres­

ponding figures are 1,548 or 94.3 per cent.

In the *Netherlands*, 76 per cent. of the workers who are entitled to a holiday under collective agreements were entitled on 1 June 1928, to a holiday of from six to eleven days with pay. The proportion on 1 June 1927 was 71 per cent.

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1 *Cf. Director's Report to the Eleventh Session of the Conference, § 119.*
In *Rumania*, in 1927 there were forty-one collective agreements, covering 19,366 wage-earners, which contained provisions relating to annual holidays. As a general rule the length of the holiday varies directly with the length of service, occupational training, punctuality at work, the possibility of being replaced, the interests of the factory, etc., between one and four days as a minimum and thirteen to thirty days as a maximum.

In *Sweden*, 607 new collective agreements were concluded during 1927 covering 94,176 workers. Of these agreements, 447, covering 40,730 workers, provided for an annual holiday with pay up to two weeks and even more.

**Industrial Hygiene**

110. — It is a great satisfaction to be able to report progress each year in the matter of industrial hygiene. There is no department in which the Office is more conscious of the direct value of its work for safeguarding the health, life and happiness of the worker. There is none in which more scientific enthusiasm or more humanitarian devotion is shown. During 1928 fresh advance was made in the development of technique and in protective legislation.

It is proposed to deal first of all with questions on which the Conference has already taken decisions in the form of Conventions or Recommendations.

111. Anthrax. — The following measure was taken during 1928 on the Recommendation concerning the prevention of anthrax (1919):

*Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations*

**Hungary:** On 4 March 1925 the National Assembly considered the report of the President of the Council of Ministers stating that this Recommendation could be accepted; measures for its execution are contained in section 61 of Act VII of 1888 and in the Decrees No. 41,000 (III, 1914) and No. 98,800 of 1919 (14 March 1929).

The problem of anthrax infection was placed on the agenda of the sixth Session of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene held at Geneva from 16 to 18 April 1928.

After discussion the Committee was unanimous in recognising the practical possibility of disinfecting certain categories of animal hair, and it recommended that this measure should be made the basis of a Draft Convention. With regard to the protection of workers in the hides and skins industry, as well as those manipulating bones, horns and hoofs, the Committee proceeded to examine rapidly the draft regulations which had been drawn up by the Office.

These draft regulations were prepared by the Office, not only because of the considerable dangers to which the workers in question are exposed, as shown by statistics, but because there seemed little likelihood of finding more effective means of protection being found for some time. As a matter of fact, no practical method of disinfecting the products referred to has so far been discovered, and there is at present considerable uncertainty both as to the practical results of the research which is being carried on and as to the length of time which will be required before a definite decision is arrived at.

The Committee suggested a number of modifications and additions to this draft. It was decided that the regulations should not be drawn up in final form by the Hygiene Service until a further thorough examination of the problem had been made.

During 1928 the disinfection of hides and skins has been the subject of studies which are simply a continuation of the research carried out in the preceding years, and referred to in previous Reports. Research work in factories has been held up pending the results of laboratory experiments now in progress. It should be recalled that experimental research is at present being carried on in Italy by Mr. Ottolenghi, one of the experts on the Mixed Sub-Committee on Anthrax, with the help of Mr. Casaburi; these experiments relate to tests of the disinfecting properties of alkaline polysulphides to which have been added other salts, increasing their bactericidal capacity. Extremely interesting results have been arrived at, and the practical application in industrial technique of the methods studied is to be examined by the Hides and Skins School in Naples.

In *Germany*, the Federal Office of Public Health is engaged in the study of a whole series of new disinfecting agents, and the attention of the specialists is at the moment being directed to new substances other than alkaline substances. The results of the research in progress in this connection must be awaited.

In *Great Britain*, if the Office is correctly informed, research in regard to the Hailer process has not been productive of satisfactory results.

As regards the wider aspects of the anthrax problem, it is hardly necessary to remind the reader that measures to prevent animal anthrax and protect cattle are essential to the complete success of prophylactic measures against human anthrax.

The importance of this side of the problem was recognised by the Advisory Committee on Anthrax (London, 1922), which recommended that an agreement
should be made with the International Institute for Agriculture in Rome for the study of the means of protecting cattle. This Institute accordingly published in 1925 the results of an enquiry it had undertaken into the position as regards preventive measures against animal anthrax in eighty-one countries which had replied to its questionnaire; it considered, however, that its duty in the matter was virtually discharged when an International Office for the Study of Epizootic Diseases was set up by the International Conference of 17 May 1921 with a membership of forty-two countries. This Office was to have commenced work on 1 January 1925, but it was not found possible to bring it into working order until 1927. So far it has not gone into the problem of anthrax, but is to deal with it in 1929. The International Labour Office is to co-operate closely with the Institute in the framing of a programme of work on the subject of anthrax infection.

112. Lead poisoning. — The following measure has to be reported for 1928 on the Recommendation concerning the protection of women and children against lead poisoning (1919):

Other Information

Germany: Existing legislation corresponds on most points with the Recommendation: after the adoption of the Workers' Protection Bill, the detailed application of the Recommendation will be considered.

White lead. — The following measures were taken during 1928 on the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting (1921):

(a) Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for consideration by the Consultative Committee of the Labour Office.

Cuba: Ratification registered on 1 July 1928.

Finland: On 1 March 1929 the President of the Republic decided to ratify the Convention and promulgated an Ordinance for putting it into force.

Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

Norway: Royal Decree of 1 March 1929 submitting the Convention to the Storting for ratification.

(b) Application Measures

Germany: Draft Ordinance submitted to the Reichsrat for the purpose of bringing existing regulations into harmony with the Convention.

Norway: Bill to bring existing legislation into line with the Convention submitted to the Storting on 1 March 1929.

In June the Office received from the International Federation of League of Nations Societies a resolution urging ratification of the White Lead Convention by those countries which had not so far ratified. In July, the Painters' International Assembly at Copenhagen likewise urged that Governments should ratify the 1921 Convention.

The following notes for various countries show to what extent public opinion is concerned with this serious problem.

In Argentina, a Bill was placed before Parliament for prohibiting the importation, manufacture, sale and use of lead paints throughout the Republic, and at the same time for removing all import duties from products intended for the manufacture of paints which do not endanger the health of the worker.

The Australian Conference on Industrial Hygiene (26 May 1927) once again considered the question of the precautions to be taken in the manufacture and use of lead paints. In Western Australia an award made on 6 December 1927 in pursuance of the Industrial Arbitration Act forbids dry scraping and rubbing down of surfaces covered with lead painted as well as the application of lead paints to the interior of buildings by means of spray painting.

In Austria, an Order dated 4 February 1928 requires compulsory notification of cases of lead poisoning among varnishers, painters, etc.

In Finland, a special Bill concerning the prohibition of the use of white lead in painting was brought before Parliament on 11 November 1927, and at the same time the Government proposed that Parliament should ratify the Convention.

In Great Britain, where regulations regarding the use of lead pigments in the painting industry have been in force for more than a year, the workers' organisations concerned have demanded stricter application of the Lead Paint Regulations as from 1 January 1929, and the competent authority has solicited the collaboration of employers and workers in the matter, because it is extremely difficult to supervise the application of the existing preventive measures.

The Norwegian Government has laid a Bill before the Storting for the partial prohibition of the use of white lead in painting.

A Decree issued in June 1927 in Poland, prohibits the manufacture, transport and use of white lead.

In Switzerland, an Order dated 21 February 1928 was issued by the Canton of Basle (Town) with regard to occupational instruction for painters. Further, the Federal Council submitted to the Federal Assembly on 2 March 1928 a report on the use of white lead in painting in which
it recommended that the use of these substances should be regulated but did not propose prohibition.

The draft Accident Insurance Order (protection against lead poisoning among salaried employees and workers engaged in painting establishments) provides for compulsory insurance against accidents in painting establishments as well as the introduction of uniform protective measures. The Swiss National Insurance Fund is to be entrusted with the application of the measures prescribed, observing the effects thereof and pursuing the investigation of the problem.

On 12 May 1928 the Central Committee of the Socialist Party adopted a resolution protesting against this attitude. The Committee recorded its astonishment that the Federal Council should confine itself to proposing preventive health measures when past experience in the painting industry had shown such measures to be ineffective in practice and established the possibility of substituting with advantage other inoffensive products for white lead. It demanded "immediate ratification of the International Convention of 1921".

In June 1928 the Swiss Trade Unions Federation submitted to the members of the Federal Assembly a unanimous memorandum containing the arguments in favour of ratification of the Convention.

Later, in December 1928, the Central Executive of the Swiss Association for the League of Nations voted a resolution in favour of the ratification of the Convention.

In the United States the National Safety Council organised an enquiry supplementing the one undertaken by the Pennsylvania Department of Labor with reference to the dangers involved in spray painting. The main subjects dealt with were:

1. Varnishes and similar substances containing highly volatile and toxic solvents (especially benzene);
2. Colours and enamels in which lead, turpentine and mineral substances might constitute a risk for the workers' health;
3. Vitreous enamels liable to contain lead or other toxic pigments and having a silica content likely to produce pulmonary sclerosis.

The above notes show that the movement in favour of the protection of workers in the painting industry is still making progress, though the pace may be slower than the Office would wish: in many countries the requisite measures for completing this protection have been taken or are in course of being taken.

Besides, painters are not the only class of workers who require to be protected against lead poisoning. All too frequent reports from technical men, doctors and factory inspectors show that other classes of workers pay a heavy toll to lead poisoning, e.g. workers engaged in enamelling factories, in the manufacture of enamel and more especially in storage battery factories. The constantly increasing demand for the latter in the motor trade and the wireless industry has caused a very considerable development in their manufacture. The reports of medical factory inspectors and of insurance societies show how serious are the dangers of lead poisoning in this industry.

The research which is being carried out in various countries by specialists with a view to placing at the disposal of industry the best means of diagnosing lead poisoning at an early stage and with the highest possible degree of accuracy is continually on the increase and is being followed by the Office with the closest attention. It is known that some of these specialists are reconsidering the practical importance of examination for basophilic granules in red blood cells in connection with the diagnosis of lead poisoning. Note has been taken of the method suggested by other experts with a view to detecting the first signs of poisoning (examination for chronaxy). Like most of the experts, however, the Office considers that these researches require to be carried further, without, however, over-estimating the value of laboratory methods or under-estimating the need for examination of the patient.

The work in which the Office is engaged needs the intimate, if not even the enthusiastic, collaboration of the medical profession. It is increasingly necessary for doctors to take an interest in industrial medicine, for the laws which already exist or are being framed in all civilised countries on the prevention of occupational diseases or compensation for them depend for their success on the devotion, sagacity, knowledge and skill of the doctor who participates or will be called upon to participate in their application. It cannot be over-emphasised that it is the duty of Governments to see that young doctors obtain sufficient experience to recognise occupational diseases, learn the strictly scientific means of recognising the symptoms presented by such diseases, and know how to interpret them accurately; in short, Government authorities should set up institutes and chairs destined to provide the practical training necessitated by modern conditions.

114. Creation of Government health services. — No new measures were taken during 1928 on the Washington Recommendation on this subject.

115. Use of white phosphorus. — The case is the same with the Recommendation concerning the application of the Berne Convention of 1906 on the prohibition of
116. Occupational diseases. — The Office is glad to report that seven further ratifications of the Convention concerning compensation for occupational diseases have been registered since the last Report, and that several other ratifications are imminent.

Convention concerning Workmen’s Compensation for Occupational Diseases (1925)

(a) Ratification Measures

Austria: Ratification registered on 29 September 1928.
Bulgaria: Edict of 17 January 1929 ratifying the Convention.
Colombia: Submitted for consideration by the Consultative Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.
France: Bill for ratification laid before the Chamber of Deputies on 25 January 1929.
Germany: Ratification registered on 18 September 1928.
Hungary: Ratification registered on 19 April 1928.
Japan: Ratification registered on 8 October 1928.
Luxembourg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Netherlands: Ratification registered on 1 November 1928.
Norway: Royal Decree of 1 March 1929 submitting the Convention to the Storting for ratification.
Portugal: Decree of 9 March 1929 ratifying the Convention.
Uruguay: In a message of 23 March 1928 the President of the Republic recommended the Senate and Chamber of Deputies in their General Assembly to ratify the Convention.

(b) Application Measures

Sweden: Bill supplementing the existing legislation to bring it into harmony with the Convention submitted to the Riksdag in March 1929.

Recommendation concerning Workmen’s Compensation for Occupational Diseases (1925)

(a) Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Germany: The existing legislation is in harmony with the Recommendation (31 August 1928).

Other Information.

Bulgaria: Edict of 17 January 1929 approving the Recommendation.

Rumania: The necessary work has been carried out for its submission to the Ministerial Council.


During its meeting in April 1928, the Industrial Hygiene Committee revised the list of occupational diseases and decided which diseases it thought it expedient to add to the list appended to the Draft Convention of 1925: poisoning by arsenic and its compounds, poisoning by benzene, its homologues and their amino and nitro derivatives, poisoning by hydrocarbons of the aliphatic series and their chlorinated derivatives, pathological disturbances due to radium and other radioactive substances as well as to X-rays, epitheliomas of the skin. In regard to recurring dermatites due to the action of dust and liquids, the Committee decided to consider this question further, including irritation of the accessible mucous membranes in regard to dermatites, and irritant gases and fumes, in connection with dusts and liquids. The Hygiene Service of the Office was instructed to proceed with the requisite preliminary studies on these matters. The Committee also placed on record a motion made by Dr. Bridge that it should consider at its next session the problem of miners’ nystagmus, beat hand, beat elbow and beat knee.

As regards the legislative or administrative measures taken on the subject during the year the following notes show the situation in the countries concerned.

In South Australia, an Act dated 5 January 1928, incorporated in the Act of 1911, makes provision for special measures for compensation for industrial diseases amongst workers employed at Port Pirie: institution of a resident medical service at Port Pirie, periodical examination of the workers, notification of cases of lead poisoning met with amongst smelters and regarded as of occupational origin, and compensation for the diseases enumerated in the third schedule and section XII of the Act of 1911-1926.

In Austria, in virtue of the Federal Act of 16 February 1928 regarding the amendments to be made in certain accident insurance provisions, the Federal Minister for Social Affairs issued on 6 September 1928 an Order assimilating to industrial accidents diseases due to the following causes: lead and its compounds, chrome compounds, mercury and its compounds, phosphorus benzole and its homologues as well as the nitro and amino derivatives of the aromatic hydro carbons, carbon disulphide, soot, tar, pitch, paraflin, anthracene and similar substances, and radiant energy. In addition, the following diseases have been assimilated to accidents when the workers affected are compulsorily insurable against accidents: — infectious diseases amongst workers employed in scientific institutes and workshops connected therewith, cases of anthrax affecting a worker employed in establishments in which hides, skins, animal wool, hair or bristles or merchandise manufactured from these are manipulated or sold, glanders affecting a worker employed in an establishment in which cases of glanders are notified amongst the animals.

In Belgium, a series of Orders has been issued giving effect to the Act of 1927 on compensation for occupational diseases.
In Bolivia, a section of the Workmen's Compensation Act assimilating a number of occupational diseases to industrial accidents has been repealed and replaced by an Act dated 18 April 1928 which deals solely with occupational diseases. This new Act treats as occupational diseases those contracted in the exercise of various trades and occupations, including poisoning and diseases produced during the manipulation of irritant substances or the inhalation of injurious gases or of organic or mineral dusts.

In Chile, the Regulations of 21 April 1927 giving effect to the Workmen's Compensation Act provide that certain diseases enumerated in a list and contracted during the exercise of any occupation are to be considered as industrial accidents under the designation "occupational diseases", and in consequence entitle the victim to compensation for total or partial incapacity as specified in the Regulations.

In Hungary, a Ministerial Order has been issued to complete the list of diseases for which compensation is due (30 January 1928).

In Latvia, an Act on insurance against accidents and occupational diseases was passed on 17 July 1927.

In Paraguay, an Act passed on 31 August 1927 provides for compensation for industrial diseases, a list of which is to be framed by the executive authority.

In Poland, a Decree dated 8 September 1927 specifies the measures to be taken to combat occupational diseases (definition, compulsory notification, prohibition or regulation of the use of certain raw materials, tools or machines harmful to the health of the workers, investigation of notified cases, etc.).

Lastly, in Venezuela, a Decree dated 13 August 1928 gives effect to the provisions of the Act concerning "occupational risks".

To complete the above summary of measures reference should be made to the Bills drawn up in Sweden and in Germany and submitted to the competent committees during the last months of 1928. While the Swedish list is not so full as the new German list, which comprises 21 diseases, it is none the less very important and should receive the attention of all experts on the question.

In France, too, proposals have been made in different quarters that further diseases should be added to the list given in the Act of 1919, though the additions proposed by workers' organisations and scientific bodies differ to some extent. The French Occupational Diseases Committee, at its meeting on 12 October 1928, at which it approved the conclusions of a Congress on Forensic Medicine, passed a resolution urging that the effects of the action of radio-active substances should be included in the list of occupational diseases.

117. — The Office, of course, has to deal with other problems of industrial hygiene besides those on which the Conference has already taken decisions. The developments on these other problems during the past year are recorded in the following notes.

Silicosis. — Pulmonary silicosis and the problem of compensation therefor is claiming the ever increasing attention of specialists in industrial medicine. It is therefore not surprising that this question was discussed by the Office's Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene when, in April 1928, it was considering the revision of the list of occupational diseases for which compensation should be accorded. The Committee passed a resolution on the subject stating that pulmonary silicosis is an occupational disease, which in English-speaking countries and in Germany has been made the object of very precise scientific discovery in order to determine accurately the diagnosis of the disease in its advanced stage, so that at the present time this disease has been made the subject of compensation in English-speaking countries and is one of the diseases which is to be added to the 1925 list in Germany; that scientific research, however, is still necessary in the various industries in all countries in order to enable the pulmonary lesions caused by this form of pneumoconiosis and the incapacity they involve to be specified with precision; and that it is therefore indispensable to request the completion of investigation and study in the various industries in which workers are exposed to atmospheres with a silica content.

The Office has consulted the most competent experts in the various countries as to the subjective symptoms of this disease (clinical symptoms, radiographs, laboratory tests, etc.) on which, in their opinion, a proper diagnosis of silicosis either in its early or later stages can be based. The results of these consultations will be published in due course in the manner which may seem most suitable.

Further, the problem of silicosis in its different aspects is of such great importance that the South African Government has proposed to convene in 1930 at Johannesburg an international conference to be attended by experts from various countries. The Chamber of Commerce of the Rand Mines has voted a large subsidy to further this scientific project,
in which the International Labour Office has been invited to participate. This invitation was accepted by the Governing Body at its Forty-Fourth Session (March 1929).

The problem of compensation for silicosis, however, raises so many difficulties that Great Britain, which heads the legislative movement in favour of compensating this disease and at present provides compensation in certain specified industries (refractory industries, metal grinding), is at present considering proposals for changing the existing system of compensation. A new Bill has just been drawn up by the Home Office.

Whilst the existing system provides compensation not only in case of total incapacity and death but also for temporary incapacity, the new Bill limits compensation to the two former cases but at the same time extends it within these limits to all industries involving risk of silicosis. The Bill also abolishes the present system of a periodical medical examination of the workers with suspension from work and compensation as soon as the earliest symptoms of silicosis appear. Moreover, the Home Secretary has announced his intention of conducting as occasion arises an enquiry into each industry in which there is a danger of silicosis, with a view to co-ordinating the measures for prevention and compensation.

In December 1928 the Home Secretary appointed a committee to report on the most adequate medical criteria available for the diagnosis of silicosis and silicosis-tuberculosis amongst patients claiming compensation under the Workmen’s Compensation Act. This committee is also to express its opinion as to the advisability of prescribing periodic or intermittent examination of workers employed in industries or trades offering risk from silicosis.

118. Cataract amongst workers exposed to heat and light. — This question was discussed at the April meeting of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene. The Committee expressed the opinion that it would be advisable to institute an enquiry on the question through the competent national services aided by eye specialists. It was suggested that the workers to be examined should be those employed in the glass industry (plate glass made by blowing and by mechanical processes, tumbler and bottle making, mirror factories), the metal-lurgical trades, and autogenous welding and inspecting incandescent lamps, particularly those between 30 and 50 years of age with upwards of ten years’ service in the trade. It was also suggested that a comparative study should be made simultaneously among workers in the same trades who were not exposed to dangerous radiations.

119. — As regards unhealthy trades it is simply proposed to refer to those which have been closely investigated by the Office. For example, to investigate unfavourable conditions said to exist in certain artificial silk factories in Belgium where the Chardonnet process was followed (alcohol-ether). On the Office’s request the medical department of the Factory Inspectorate in Belgium was good enough to carry out an enquiry in all the factories or departments of factories manufacturing artificial silk by the process in question. The results of the enquiry showed conditions to be favourable in a large factory and slightly less so in another factory without, however, confirming the alleged injuries either as to extent or intensity. The results of the enquiry will be published shortly in the Bulletin of the Belgian Industrial Medical Service.

The Office had occasion in 1925 to draw attention to the injuries reported in the United States due to the preparation of lead tetra-ethyl. Since then numerous studies of the problem have been published. Certain experts have expressed the opinion that lead tetra-ethyl ought to be considered as dangerous not only for the workers engaged in making and handling it but also for the general public exposed to the inhalation of escape gas from motor-cars burning this product. Hence the demand made in February 1928 in the House of Lords in Great Britain for the immediate appointment of a committee of enquiry to investigate this problem. The committee appointed investigated the risks liable to be caused by lead tetra-ethyl to the general public as well as to certain categories of workers. In a provisional report the committee expressed the opinion that there was no necessity to prohibit the use of this product in Great Britain provided that the precautions taken by manufacturers and retailers of this special product continued to be observed, such precautions being in conformity with the measures recommended in 1925 by the American committee of enquiry into this problem.

The attention of the Committee on Industrial Hygiene has been drawn to cases of poisoning due to the use of hydrocyanic acid for the destruction of rats and for purposes of disinfection, and to the necessity for a system of regulations in connection therewith, in those countries where such does not at present exist, with a view to defining the best precautionary measures to be adopted. The Office’s Hygiene Service proposes to collect all the necessary data, getting in touch, if need be, with the International Office of Public Hygiene in Paris.

The Hygiene Service has also participated in the work of the International Cancer Conference, which met in London on 17 to 20 July 1928, and which included a section devoted to occupational cancer. The Chief of the Hygiene Service presented
a report in which he endeavoured to show the difficulties encountered in effecting medical enquiries in various industries, the criticisms raised against the present statistics on occupational cancer, and the methods which it would be advisable to adopt with a view to arriving at more satisfactory results.

120. — The limitation of loads and weights is a problem to which the Office pays close attention. Last year's Report gave a long analysis of the results of studies carried out by the Industrial Fatigue Research Board in London under the direction of Professor Cathcart and by two members of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, Professors Patrizi of Bologna and Atzler of Berlin. In the Grey Report on The Prevention of Industrial Accidents submitted to last year's Session of the International Labour Conference, too, a few pages were devoted to the different aspects of this question under the heading "Limit of the Weight of Sacks to be Carried".

During the last Session of the Conference delegates and advisers interested in the problem were informed of the results arrived at by Professors Atzler, Cathcart and Patrizi. Both Government experts and the competent representatives of employers and workers recognised the scientific value of this laboratory research, and were particularly struck with the fact that several London under the independently arrived at almost similar results with experiments on different bases. These scientists have, in fact, confirmed by accurate scientific methods what empirical methods applied by laymen had established, that a weight of about 20 kilograms would be the physiological optimum.

For practical industrial purposes, however, the scientists in question have clearly stated that such a limitation could not be carried out. As a matter of fact, transport workers themselves, though they are continually claiming a reduction in the weight of loads which they have to handle, have never asked that the maximum should be much below 75 kilograms.

As regards the investigations which it was proposed to carry out on the spot at working centres, numerous difficulties have so far prevented the realisation of this project, but there is every reason to hope that in certain places at least it will be possible to carry out the requisite research.

Before going further with laboratory research or commencing enquiries on the spot at working places, the Office has considered it advisable to modify to some extent the terms in which the problem had been framed. The question was to determine the maximum load for a man, having regard to the time during which he load is carried as well as the condition of the place which has to be traversed (on the level, on the incline — what gradient — or on a staircase). It would appear that in the research so far undertaken due account has not been taken of the effects of carrying a load for a comparatively short time. The Office has therefore sent a note to the members of its Sub-Committee on Fatigue requesting them to have proper regard to this factor in their further research and to determine more particularly what variations might be made in the weights allowed to be carried (75 to 60 kilograms) in proportion to the time taken in carrying them. It must not be forgotten that heavy loads have to be handled in a large number of factories and undertakings, notably in the food industry (large sacks) and in agriculture. Though work of this kind is not continuous it nevertheless raises a problem which cannot be neglected.

121. — The questions referred to above are, in the Office's opinion, the most urgent in this wide field of industrial hygiene, which has hardly been explored in some parts, on which the first spade work has only been done in other parts, but which is continually widening with the progress of industry. Apart from definite questions of this kind, however, there are wider problems affecting the whole field of industrial hygiene with which the Office is also concerned.

One of these wider problems is the question of the "standardisation of industrial hygiene", which arises out of the specific reference to industrial hygiene in the Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty. While it is important to develop all adequate measures for the protection of workers exposed to specific risks, as the Office has already done in dealing with special questions (white lead, anthrax, etc.), it is equally desirable to frame the general principles which should form the basis for the regulation of industrial hygiene. This is a problem not of safeguarding the lives and health of limited categories of workers, but of protecting the whole body of workers engaged in factories and workshops.

The Office therefore considered it advisable to submit to the Committee on Industrial Hygiene a report on this question which gave a documentary summary of the hygiene measures at present provided for by law in various countries, their Labour Codes.

The Committee considered that it would be advisable to draw up a minimum list of the essential measures which would be suitable for practical application in industrial undertakings, and at the same time to present separately certain scientific data which might serve as a basis for legislation and the drafting of regulations.
A special sub-committee was appointed to assist the Hygiene Service by correspondence in the preparation of a revised draft which is to be submitted to the Committee at its next Session.

Another important question which was referred to in last year's Report and which must be emphasised again is the question of the factory doctor. The Office very much hopes that the action taken, in spite of the absence of legal provisions on the subject, by the heads of certain large undertakings in enlisting the services of a doctor will be followed on a large scale. In all matters affecting vocational guidance or selection, medical examination on engagement or periodical medical examination in industries unhealthy or otherwise, it would seem impossible to dispense with the services of a qualified medical man familiar with factory life.

Though industrial hygiene conditions, however, can to a large extent be regulated by standardised regulations applicable to all industries, it must not be forgotten that special regulations are required for individual industries.

In the enquiry which the Office has been requested to carry out into working conditions in mines and in the textile industry, industrial hygiene questions will of course be taken into consideration. The Industrial Hygiene Service has already collected a certain amount of information on these particular matters, most of which has been obtained from the proceedings of the Industrial Fatigue Research Board.

This body has already published a certain number of studies dealing with industrial physiology in the textile industry: individual variations in efficiency in the cotton industry, operation of single reeling, efficiency in silk weaving in winter, individual variations in efficiency amongst silk weavers, efficiency in the weaving of fine linen, atmospheric conditions in the weaving of cotton, variations in efficiency in the cotton industry, ventilation in a damp workroom, artificial moistening in the cotton industry.

As regards work in mines, it has already been mentioned that special attention is at present being directed to the problem of silicosis, which is frequent amongst certain categories of miners. It may also be noted in this connection that the Industrial Fatigue Board has undertaken an enquiry into the relation between atmospheric conditions, working capacity and the incidence of accidents amongst miners.

Another problem to be noted as affecting industrial hygiene is rationalisation and that aspect of it known as scientific management. The problem as to how scientific management may be used for improving the health of the worker is one of the most important with which experts in industrial hygiene are now faced.

The proper solution of such problems as hygienic conditions in workrooms, area, cubic space for work, lighting, ventilation, heating, humidity, etc., will, of course, have a beneficial effect not only on the state of health of the worker but also on the quality and quantity of production per hour. On the other hand, regard must be had to the psychic aspect and the effect of certain standardised conditions of work on the nervous system and hence on the workers' general health.

There is, however, one factor which in the opinion of the Office has not received due attention, especially from the Governments. An examination of the census returns in different countries and particularly in those which suffered most in the war, shows that the number of children who entered schools (i.e. practically speaking, the number of future recruits for industry) during the year 1922-1923 is only 50 per cent. of the number who entered school annually before the world war. This implies, first, that there will be a shortage of labour for a period of several years, and, secondly, (a fact which is of great social importance) the children born during the war may prove less resistant to the effects of industrial work. What will be the effect of rationalisation, with its possible physiological disadvantages, on these weaker and less resistant recruits to industry? Will not the arguments and objections advanced by doctors against Taylorism carry more serious consequences for the race under conditions where standardisation is carried to excess? This is a problem which deserves the fullest consideration.

122. — The importance and multiplicity of these hygiene problems are being recognised throughout the world. The best proof of this statement is the rapid development of the movement in favour of industrial and social hygiene which are taking place in numerous countries. These developments are most encouraging, and it is proposed to conclude this section of the Report with a short review of them.

In Czechoslovakia, a new association has been founded — Union für Gesundheitswirtschaft — which amongst its numerous activities proposes to centralise all data affecting the human factor in industry.

In France, an association for industrial hygiene and protection against industrial nuisances was set up in Paris in February 1928, under the auspices of the General Confederation of French Production. The object of this new body is to unite employers in a study of the best means of protecting the staff of their establishments and the general public against nuisances caused by the working of certain industrial or commercial establishments. The Association will, either in the general interest or at the request of establishments affected, undertake research of a scientific character...
into such problems of industrial hygiene as occupational diseases, hygiene in workrooms, pollution of water, escape of smoke, etc. It will also endeavour to collect complete data on industrial hygiene questions.

In Germany, the Committee on Industrial Hygiene and Statistics (Kommission für Arbeiterhygiene und Statistik) has been recently reconstituted as the Committee on Social Hygiene (Ausschuss für soziale Hygiene), for the purpose of investigating certain hygiene problems from the medical standpoint and informing the medical profession and the public of the results of its research.

In the same country, the German Association for Industrial Hygiene has taken up the question of women's work and the relation between work and sport. As regards women's work, reports have been submitted on women's work and the health of the race, on the examination of women in industry, on women's work during pregnancy, on the general situation of the woman worker, and technical protection in regard to women in industry. A committee for preventing deafness due to industrial noises (Ausschuss für Bekämpfung gewerblicher Lärmschwerhörigkeit) has been created by the German Association for Industrial Hygiene, and has been dealing with such matters as the following: drafting of a notice on industrial noises, preparation of exhibition material for publicity purposes, determination of a uniform method for clinical examination of the ears, creation of a service for technical consultations on apparatus for deadening sounds and new inventions for replacing noisy working methods by less noisy or noiseless methods.

At the instigation of the Hygiene Council of the Reich, and in agreement with the authorities of various States, an enquiry has been undertaken into the state of health of doctors and hospital and sanitary staff, with a view to studying the incidence of occupational disease, particularly tuberculosis, among these classes. This enquiry was opened on 1 December 1928 and will be conducted over a period of three years.

In Great Britain, the National Institute of Industrial Psychology has pursued its research independently or in collaboration with the Committee on Industrial Fatigue and the results have already been usefully applied in various industries.

Further, the Royal Sanitary Institute, at its thirty-ninth Annual Congress held at Plymouth in July 1928, had occasion to discuss not only questions of social medicine but also certain problems of industrial hygiene, including the problem of rheumatism in industry, which has recently been the subject of numerous studies in Great Britain.

An industrial museum containing a permanent exhibition of methods, installations and apparatus, devised with a view to ensuring the safety, health and welfare of industrial workers, was opened in London at the end of December 1927. In the medical section of this new museum there are exhibited methods for preventing occupational diseases such as anthrax, lead poisoning, silicosis, dermatitis due to paraffin, benzole, mercury, chrome, sugar and other substances. One part of the museum is devoted to a demonstration of the principles of good lighting and good ventilation in industry.

In Italy, the movement in favour of industrial hygiene and medicine is steadily gaining in importance. The Fascist Confederation of Employers has created a widespread organisation for medical attention in industry and welfare service in factories.

In Japan, in virtue of the powers conferred on it by the Factories Act, the Bureau for Social Questions in the Ministry for Home Affairs has drawn up draft regulations concerning the prevention of accidents and hygiene in industrial establishments covered by the Act.

In Peru, the first National Medical Congress adopted a series of resolutions which constitute an entire programme of public and social hygiene. It is sufficient to note, in particular, the resolutions concerning the creation of a National Institute of Psycho-Technie, the incorporation of the occupational risk to which doctors are exposed in an Act on industrial accidents, the development of Bureaux of Statistics and Demography, etc.

In Poland, the Council of Ministers adopted on 1 March 1928 a Decree on industrial hygiene. Under this Decree measures are required to be taken in all workshops or places where work is carried on with a view to ensuring the protection of the life and health of the workers. The Minister of Labour and Social Affairs issued on 6 October 1928 an Order on the duties of doctors attached to the factory inspection offices which contains the following provisions: medical supervision of working conditions in factories and establishments coming under the jurisdiction of the factory inspectorate, especially establishments engaged in unhealthy trades, analysis of products and raw materials harmful to the health of workers or suspected as such, medical examination of workers suspected to be suffering from occupational disease, collaboration with the competent authorities with a view to prevention of occupational diseases, investigation of conditions of work affecting women and children, medical examination of young persons before admission to industrial work.
Prevention of Accidents

It is commonsense, if almost a platitude, that to cure a disease, whether individual or social, the first essential is to be accurately informed as to its nature and extent and to be able to estimate its gravity. Hence the fundamental importance of classification and statistics in every experimental science. However obvious this statement may be, its full force is brought home when it is found that, in so important and delicate a matter as the prevention of industrial accidents, statistics are unfortunately of very little help at the moment. The Office is not therefore at present in a position to reply to the first question which leaps naturally to the mind, and which is perhaps the most important of all; to what extent have the number and gravity of accidents been diminished through the safety regulations which are introduced from year to year? Signs of an early improvement may, however, be noted with satisfaction: an example has been set by large industrial undertakings in different countries, and in some cases national compilations have been made of the figures collected by these industries. In many countries, however, nothing has been done, at least from the standpoint of international comparison.

This Report must, therefore, once more be content with referring to the laws, decrees and other regulations for 1928 which have come to the Office's notice and which have helped to advance the safety movement in the different countries.

(1) Legislative measures of a general character on the subject of accident prevention were taken during 1928 in Iceland and Rumania.

In Iceland, an Inspection of Factories and Machinery Act, passed on 7 May 1928, not only deals with factory inspection, but also contains detailed regulations on the registration and authorisation of the carrying on of factories, works and workshops, provisions concerning structural conditions and regulations for the installation and employment of steam boilers and machines, with a special paragraph referring to transmission apparatus.

In Rumania, a Royal Order No. 1050 of 9 April 1928 puts into force the provisions of the old Act of 10 February 1910 on the safety measures to be taken in using steam boilers and mechanical and electrical motors and installations.

(2) The Free City of Danzig promulgated on 9 January 1928 a new Ordinance referring to the installation of steam boilers.

(3) During the past year numerous sets of regulations were issued concerning the warehousing and storing of hydrocarbons. France dealt with this question for French Guinea by an Order of 2 April 1928, Poland by an Ordinance of 13 April 1928, and Portugal by an Order of 27 June 1928. The essence of these regulations is practically the same. The Polish Ordinance, for example, covers all hydrocarbons with an ignition point below 100° C. at an atmospheric pressure of 760 mms. The provisions are particularly strict for hydrocarbons with an ignition point below 21° C., while they are less strict for those which ignite between 21° and 50° C., and still less for hydrocarbons with an ignition point above 50° C. A schedule to the Ordinance contains technical rules for applying the general provisions, and these rules give details regarding places of storage and their lighting, protective partitions, ventilation of stores, etc.

(4) In Belgium a Royal Order was issued on 9 May 1928 which restates the conditions to be complied with by containers for liquefied, solidified or dissolved gases.

(5) Belgium has also promulgated a new Decree dated 8 February 1928 dealing with the installation and use of acetylene apparatus. In Germany, too, the technical regulations for acetylene appliances have been amended; the new provisions refer to the suppression of the so-called "dead spaces" in such appliances, i.e. the cavities in which the air remains after the containers have been emptied. It has recently been found that numerous explosions which occurred when taking down these appliances or putting them into action again can be attributed to the existence of these cavities. In the same connection reference may be made to an Ordinance issued in Prussia dated 18 June 1928 concerning the periodical inspection of high pressure acetylene appliances. Such inspection must take place at least every two years.

(6) Fresh provisions concerning high tension electrical installations have been promulgated in Denmark by an Act of 20 April 1928, as well as an Ordinance concerning the professional examination for electric fitters (22 April 1928). Similar provisions have also come into force in Queensland (Order of 28 March 1928).

(7) In Denmark, a Government Ordinance, No. 207 of 14 July 1928, contains new regulations for the installation and use of mechanical cranes.

(8) The Prussian Ministry of Trade promulgated on 30 June 1928 supplementary regulations for enforcing the Ordinance on lifts which require windows to be provided in lift cages constructed of fire-proof or insulated material.

(9) In Belgium, an Order was issued on 15 May 1928, amending the Order of 20 November 1927 on the employment of hydro-extractors.
(10) The following measures have been taken for the prevention of accidents in mines. In Austria, the Minister of Trade and Communications promulgated on 26 August 1928 a new Ordinance which deals in detail with the prevention of accidents in mines both on the surface and underground. A special section of this Ordinance refers to the detection and analysis of gases in pits which may lead to explosions. It is forbidden in particular to employ in such mines belt-driven machines, and regulations are laid down for water pipes under pressure, irrigation of the galleries, water curtains, and stone-dusting in mines which are dangerous on account of the presence of coal dust. The Ordinance also deals with the conditions which must be observed by workers in order to ensure the safety of the working; in particular, two years' practical experience at least is required before workers are admitted as independent hewers. In Germany, the Prussian Minister of the Interior promulgated new provisional regulations on 22 February 1928 for the firing of charges in mines. These regulations require that notice of the kind of charge to be fired is to be given, so that the inspecting authority has time to intervene if necessary. The Australian Mines Act of 30 August 1928 contains very detailed provisions for the Territory of New Guinea concerning the protection of workers occupied in mines, the share which the workers should take in accident prevention, the framing of safety regulations by the different undertakings, etc. A similar system of detailed regulations was promulgated in Honduras on 16 February 1928. In New Zealand, the existing regulations concerning coal mines have been completed by an Order of 28 January 1928 dealing chiefly with the supervision of the issue and return of safety lamps and the keeping of a register of explosives. Charges which do not explode must be at once reported to the mine manager, and a special record be kept of them. The Rumanian Government published a special Ordinance, No. 716 of 6 July 1928, concerning the installation and use of apparatus for the extraction of petroleum and gases.

(11) Various provisions have been enacted concerning the manufacture, storage and transport of explosives or of substances which are liable to explode easily: in Belgium Regulations of 24 May 1928 concerning the transport of moist nitrocellulose; in the Portuguese Indies an Order No. 441 of 6 July 1928; and in Sweden a Royal Ordinance of 18 May 1928 concerning explosives in general. The Swedish regulations contain very complete details regarding the installation of explosive factories (methods of packing, storing and transporting explosives, etc.).

(12) Two sets of regulations which came into force in Great Britain on 1 March 1928 deal with the manufacture and reproduction of cinematograph films. These measures aim particularly at ensuring favourable conditions in workrooms and stores so that workers are protected against the danger of fire. Reference may also be made to regulations issued by the State of Victoria in Australia on 27 December 1927 concerning the professional training and examination of cinematograph operators.

(13) In the building industry also there are various sets of regulations to be mentioned. In Western Australia the old Act concerning the inspection of scaffolding, which had already been revised in 1924, has been supplemented by an Order of 24 April 1928. The new regulations contain certain technical details concerning the dimensions of the wood to be employed in scaffolding less than 3.60 metres in height. In Danzig, an Ordinance of 3 April 1928 deals with the protection of workers employed on compressed air apparatus. In Switzerland, the Government of the Canton of Geneva has issued a detailed Order regarding the safety of workers employed in repairing or constructing houses. These regulations deal particularly with scaffolding, the covering of the system of binders and joists, etc.; they also refer to machinery, which is being employed more and more frequently in the building industry. The police authorities are required to exercise very strict supervision of all building. In urgent cases they have the right to order the immediate suspension of work and to have any necessary steps taken at the expense of the contractor for avoiding the risk of accident.

(14) Lastly, reference may be made to certain regulations on the subject of the loading and unloading of ships, which is included in the Agenda of the present Session of the Conference. By an Order of 23 April 1928 Australia decided that all certificates and registers referring to machinery, chains, ropes, etc. must at all times be accessible to the supervisory authorities. Denmark issued on 10 March 1928 new provisions concerning loading and unloading appliances. In Norway, the existing provisions were strengthened by a Royal Order of 7 September 1928.

The Office does not in any way underestimate all the national action which has been taken in these widely differing directions. The above notes, however, go to show the extent of the ground to be covered and the international interest of most of the problems which arise. These problems have to be followed by the Office, which has in fact been dealing with some of them during the past year.

Among the work which has been started with the help of the Safety Sub-Committee, mention may be made of the monograph on safety in the use of chains (edited
by Mr. Deladrière, Director of the Belgian Employers’ Associations for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents), which appeared in 1928, and the study on hydro-extractors (edited by Mr. Massarelli, General Director of the Italian Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents), which has just been published. It was not possible to publish this work in 1928 for financial reasons.

There have not been sufficient credits either to permit of an official meeting of the Safety Sub-Committee during 1928. Those members of the Sub-Committee, however, who were at Geneva for the Conference in 1928 as technical advisers to their respective delegations held two sittings on 13 and 14 June, during which they noted the progress which had been made in the different pieces of work in hand. The work of the Sub-Committee, which most of the members consider is too restrained, as a consequence of the Office’s financial position, was deplored and criticised.

The basis of this criticism must be clearly explained, if the means of avoiding it in the future are to be defined. The value of an institution like the Safety Sub-Committee has found, in the enthusiasm with which they approach their task, reasons for doubting whether it can co-ordinate and stimulate the work of accident prevention in all countries. It is clear, however, that co-ordination must be a continuous process, and that stimulus, to be effective, needs to be frequently applied. The eminent persons who are associated with the Office’s work through the Sub-Committee have found, in the enthusiasm with which they approach their task, reasons for doubting whether meetings which are only held every two years because of the limited funds available can ensure that continuity and renewed stimulus which they consider essential. What can be done? Some members have thought the best solution would be to set up a new organisation, outside but in touch with the International Labour Office, which would hold meetings more frequently. As was stated in last year’s Report, Mr. Van de Weyer, Inspector-General of Factories in Belgium, had proposed that the Sub-Committee should hold more frequent meetings, and that its studies should be published at shorter intervals. This year Mr. Van de Weyer brought forward a plan for a private international association of experts in accident prevention, and for founding this institution he called a meeting at Brussels of a number of experts, including the chief of the Office’s Safety Service. The discussions showed clearly that a more rapid international examination of various technical questions was urgently required, and mention was made, by way of example, of the maximum pressure and the maximum filling of high pressure acetylene apparatus, calculations of the strength of rings and hooks for hoisting appliances, and the proper resistance of metal cables. It would seem, however, that in the course of this meeting the general opinion was that the object in view should not be achieved by the creation of a new international organisation, even if it was at first to be subsidiary to the International Labour Organisation, but by widening the Office’s financial bases so as to enable it to call more frequent meetings of the Sub-Committee, in order to provide the Sub-Committee with the means of finishing its task satisfactorily in a shorter time. On the Office’s proposal, the Governing Body has provided the necessary credits in the 1930 Budget for a beginning in this direction.

In the intervals between the more frequent meetings of the Sub-Committee the Office will ensure the necessary continuity in its work. The Office can render considerable services in this connection by means of “correspondence”. This term is used not to indicate the exchange of mere letters of courtesy, nor even the supply of detailed, impartial and scientific information to all those, whether Governments or competent organisations or individuals, who ask for technical information. It is intended to refer to the functions of intermediary which the Office can discharge between persons dealing with the same safety questions, who though not mutually acquainted are trying to get into contact with each other or who do not possess all the documentary information they require on a particular safety question in which they may be interested. A few examples from the work done by the Office on these lines during the last few months will show the kind of functions which are referred to. A collection of the regulations in force in various countries concerning the installation and working of gas generators, and in particular of suction generators, was made in response to a request from the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund at Lucerne, so that similar regulations might be issued in Switzerland. On its request, the International Organisation of Industrial Employers was provided by the Office with detailed information as to the position of the question of safety committees entirely or partially composed of workers. The Belgian Employers’ Association for the Prevention of Accidents was furnished with a large collection of material concerning the safety of hoisting machines used in the building trade. A collection of regulations regarding lifts in force in various European and foreign countries was supplied to the German Committee on Lifts. And when a blast furnace exploded last year in the Saar Basin, an accident the causes of which were specially interesting and instructive, a factory inspector in India was furnished, on his request, with a detailed report on the matter, which will in all probability serve as a guide to the
adoption of effective measures of prevention.

The above are a few examples of what is being done by the Office in the collection and distribution of practical information, i.e. information collected not for the academic compilation of a Safety Encyclopedia (which would doubtless be extremely useful, but which is hardly yet possible), but with a view to practical work, pushing forward as fast as possible, if the expression be permitted, and making a scientific contribution to the solution of daily problems. The advantages of documentary information of this kind lend point to the resolutions of the Conference last year, requesting the Governing Body to consider how the Office's documentary information on national laws and regulations could be completed. A plan of work on this matter has been drawn up by the Office, and is already in course of being carried out. The Office has begun to extend its collection of material to local regulations concerning the prevention of accidents. At the moment an attempt is being made to collect in as much detail as possible the national, provincial, and even municipal regulations concerning the prevention of industrial accidents, as far as possible and within the limits of the capacity of the Office. Short studies on the protection of professional motor-drivers and on the one-man driver system for electric locomotives have also been begun. The results of these studies will be published in the Safety Survey.

The decision taken by the Eleventh Session of the Conference with reference to automatic couplings on railways does not involve any fresh practical work for the Office, at least not for the present. The Governing Body is to consider the convening of a joint committee at one of its early meetings: the Office is in touch with the International Railway Union on this matter, and it is very much hoped that the Union will give the Office an opportunity at an early date to take a further step along this difficult path.

It will be clear from what has been said above that the Office's work in connection with accident prevention is being enthusiastically carried on (its results will be more effective in proportion as the means at the Office's disposal increase), and that Governments, employers and workers are taking a growing interest in it. The truth of this latter observation is easily seen in the record of the last Session of the Conference, which had the prevention of industrial accidents as the second item on its Agenda. Hence a certain change in the exterior aspect of the Conference. A small safety exhibition occupied the walls of the rooms, which were woefully under-provided and incomplete as it was, aroused keen interest. Daily exhibitions of safety films from many different countries were well attended, although the delegates and their advisers had very little spare time. On all sides there was a sincere desire to secure some real positive results, as is shown by the unanimous adoption of the Resolution put forward by Great Britain.

It will be remembered that this Resolution was designed to encourage and develop the "Safety First" movement. It was communicated by the Office to the States Members, soon after the Conference. It has also been published in the Safety Survey, and every opportunity has been taken to draw the attention of interested parties to it. Five Governments (Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Germany, South Africa, and Uruguay) have so far informed the Office as to what is being done in their countries along the lines of the Resolution, and the contents of these reports have been published in the Safety Survey.

The Resolution makes it clear that it was the unanimous intention of the Conference to deal directly with the problem, and to associate in its study not only specialists and the parties concerned, but also public opinion. At the same time, it was just during the discussions on this Resolution that opinions were found to differ. Those who supported the original Resolution were of the opinion that the Conference ought to be content to encourage the "Safety First" movement by its vote. To their minds, the fact of such a Resolution being unanimously approved by the official representatives of the organisations of employers and workers of most of the world, and the Government representatives of more than forty States, was clearly bound to have such an effect that far-reaching consequences would inevitably follow. The other group did not consider the resolution as anything more than a useful, but at the same time provisional, measure, the chief aim of which would be to pave the way, thanks to the adoption of the Questionnaire, for a final study of the problem at the 1929 Session of the Conference. This latter group wished above all to arrive at concrete decisions (Draft Conventions or Recommendations), which would impose definite obligations on the legislative and administrative bodies of the States Members, in conformity with Article 405, paragraph 5, of the Treaty of Versailles. They also considered that the possibilities of developing the official work of accident prevention and the practical methods available (factory inspection) were far from being exhausted. In their opinion, therefore, it was the duty of the International Labour Organisation to take up a definite attitude in regard to these possibilities.

It may perhaps be useful to give a brief outline here of the various arguments on which these two opinions were based.

There are causes of accidents which may be entirely eliminated by technical progress, and others which have their
origin exclusively in man himself. Between these two extremes there are an infinite number of cases where the possibilities of human negligence may be more or less limited by technical means, but it will frequently be difficult to decide to which class any particular case belongs.

It is generally recognised by all those who have to deal with the prevention of industrial accidents that everything which can be done from the technical point of view to increase the safety of industrial work should be carried out in practice. Proper technical arrangement of workshops, machinery, tools, etc., is an indispensable condition for obtaining the best results from human labour, and more especially for the success of any system of educating workers to carry on their activities in such a way that the risk of accidents is eliminated.

It is also unanimously recognised that in the prevention of accidents the best results will be obtained by goodwill and co-operation rather than by compulsion. At the same time, it is realised that legal regulations, and consequently measures for enforcing them (i.e. efficient factory inspection) are indispensable for ensuring that all workers will have a minimum of protection against accidents.

Opinions differ, however, on the question of the extent to which compulsion is required to supplement voluntary action. The idea of all those who wished to limit the work of the Conference to encouraging the "Safety First" movement amounted briefly to this: three-quarters of all accidents are due to human deficiencies, which it is impossible to eliminate by compulsion. The effect of legal regulations is therefore limited, and the methods employed on these lines have, moreover, been so far developed in the last few decades that great improvements are no longer possible. International Conventions on this aspect of the problem are all the less necessary, since the general principles for the organisation of factory inspection have already been formulated in the 1923 Recommendation.

The majority of the delegates at the Conference, however, had in view the passing of a Recommendation in favour of legal and administrative measures for the prevention of accidents, more particularly with reference to (1) having plans for the construction of industrial buildings examined by the factory inspection services or by some other competent authority before the work is begun, with a view to ascertaining whether they comply with the relevant safety regulations, and (2) empowering factory inspectors to issue orders having the force of law as to the specific measures to be taken in order to comply with the provisions of the law. Those who took this view were guided by considerations which may be summarised as follows. The range of the "Safety First" movement is, by its very nature, restricted to the larger undertakings. Even here, however, there are sometimes insurmountable obstacles in the way of the introduction of safety measures, while the innumerable medium and small scale undertakings can hardly be touched by the movement. In these latter cases, protection against accidents means legal regulations and compulsory measures for their enforcement. It is therefore necessary to consider whether a comparison of conditions in the different countries in this connection might not lead to Recommendations by the Conference, the adoption of which would, for one or other of the States Members, result in a more or less definite improvement in its existing system of protection against accidents. The majority of the delegates appeared to dissent from the view that human imperfections cannot possibly be influenced or even overcome by law or by factory inspection. The programme of the "Safety First" movement, in their opinion, itself includes some very important measures which it would be both possible and desirable to carry out by legal constraint. In support of their view they referred to the publication by the Home Office in Great Britain of a draft Order making it compulsory for employers in certain cases to employ safety engineers when the Chief Inspector of Factories cannot certify that they have some other equally satisfactory organisation for preventing accidents. Requirements of this kind may be compared with the Works Councils Acts in various countries, which regulate the co-operation of the workers in accident prevention in the respective undertakings.

This is the stage which the discussion has so far reached. It is not for the Office to anticipate the conclusions on it which may be arrived at by the decisions of the Twelfth Session of the Conference. It may, however, be observed, before closing this sub-section of the Report, that accident prevention is not merely a matter of principles, but a question of everyday practical detail—attention to detail by the worker himself, the foreman, the employer, and also by the factory inspector. The Office very much hopes that, when it emphasises the main lines and the principles of accident prevention, the Conference will not forget to draw attention to all the means by which this work of detail can be facilitated and rendered more effective.

Protection of Women

124. Night work of women. — The following ratification and application measures have to be reported since last year's Report in regard to the Convention on this subject.
CONVENTION CONCERNING EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN DURING THE NIGHT (1919)

(a) Ratification Measures

China : Decree of the Pekin Government of 21 October 1927 regulating work in factories, Deere of the Nationalist Government of July 1927 applying to the provinces of Shensi and Kansou.


Germany : Labour Protection Bill containing provisions concerning night work of women adopted by the Reichsrat and at present under consideration by the Reichstag.


Japan : Regulations of 1 September 1928 on work of women and children in mines.

Luxembourg : Act of 5 March 1928 prohibiting night work for women and children.

Morocco : Dahir of 22 May 1928 amending the Dahir of 13 July 1926 concerning work in industrial and commercial undertakings and including certain detailed regulations concerning night work of women.

Netherlands : Bill regulating the work of women, children and young persons engaged in agriculture (prohibition between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.) submitted to the Supreme Labour Council by the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry.

Palestine : Ordinance of 30 December 1927 concerning the employment of women and children in industry. Women may not be employed between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. and must have eleven consecutive hours of rest.

Romania : Act of 28 April 1928 amending the Act of 18 June 1928 ratifying the Convention by the Reichsrat and at present under consideration by the Reichsrat.

Uruguay : Act of 28 July 1928 providing that the working day for women should be between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m.

The numerous legislative measures actually taken or proposed in different countries during the past year show the desire of the Governments to adapt their legislation to the provisions of the Convention. Every year thus makes some further contribution towards the universal abolition of night work for women.

In China, the Regulations issued by the Pekin Government on 21 October 1927 prohibit work by women between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. in factories employing 15 or more persons.

The Nationalist Government of Canton on coming into power promulgated various provisions on working conditions; only the Regulations of July 1927, which are applicable to the provinces of Shensi and Kansou, contain clauses prohibiting night work for women during pregnancy.

In Ecuador, night work for women between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. is prohibited except for domestic servants. An exception is made for women over eighteen years of age employed as nurses, telephonists or in undertakings such as theatres and cinemas which are open in the evening.

In Finland, as was mentioned in last year's Report, a Bill prohibiting night work for women was laid before the Chamber of Deputies in 1927. In order to find out the conditions under which women worked at night, the Minister for Social Affairs ordered his Statistics Office to carry out an enquiry in February 1928 into female work in the paper and wood industries. This enquiry showed that, generally speaking, night work has a harmful influence on the health of the workers and on family life.

In France, the Act of 30 June 1928 amended section 21 of Book II of the Labour Code without altering the regulations prohibiting night work (between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.) for women and children engaged in industry.

In February 1929 the Government presented a Bill to the Chamber of Deputies for the purpose of extending the prohibition of night work of women and children to fresh categories of undertakings, i.e. "industrial and commercial establishments and their dependent undertakings of whatsoever nature, public or private, secular or religious, even if engaged in vocational training or charitable work".

In Germany, the Cabinet of the Reich when submitting the Workers' Protection Bill to the Reichstag on 11 March 1929 approved the Convention on night work of women in industry, which was then submitted to the Reichsrat.

In Japan, a committee of Government officials and mine owners proposed a revision of the Mines Regulations with a view to prohibiting the night work and underground work of women and children under sixteen years of age. The Social Questions Bureau promulgated on 1 September 1928 new rules which will only take effect in five years so as to avoid any sudden change. From 1 September 1933 therefore it will be forbidden to employ women or children between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. unless special permission is granted.

In addition, the employment of women and young persons in factories having been prohibited as from 1 July 1929,
several cotton mills have already abolished night work for these classes of wage-earners.

In Poland, the Government has put before the Diet a Bill for the amendment of the Constitution. One of the provisions of this Bill refers to workers' protection and prohibits the employment of women and young persons on night work in unhealthy industries.

In Rumania, the Act regulating women's work prohibits night work. The nightly rest must consist of at least eleven consecutive hours and include the period from 10 p.m. to 6 a.m. The Act provides for exemptions in continuous process industries and for certain commercial establishments, provided that the rest period always consists of eleven consecutive hours. In the case of urgent seasonal work the rest period may be reduced to ten hours for sixty days at most each year.

In the United States, in the State of New Jersey, an Act of 1928 has brought into force the Act of 1923 prohibiting night work for women between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. Bills have also been put forward in the States of Massachusetts and New York. In the State of Massachusetts the Bill examined by the Association for Labor Legislation would prohibit the employment of women over twenty-one years of age between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. and the employment of women under twenty-one years of age between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m.

In the State of New York the Bill submitted to the Legislative Assembly aims at amending the Labor Act so as to permit restaurant proprietors to employ their female employees all night. A favourable report on this Bill has been given by the Committee for Labor and Industry. On the other hand, the Federation of Labor of the State of New York and several trade unions of women restaurant employees have protested to members of Congress against this Bill.

125. Employment of women before and after childbirth. — The Maternity Convention continues to receive the attention noted in last year's Report. No less than five new Acts passed in 1928 confer important maternity benefits on women, and a number of Bills have also been framed.

Convention concerning the Employment of Women before and after Childbirth (1919)

(a) Ratification Measures

France: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1928. Amendments will be required to the existing legislation before ratification can be proposed.

Hungary: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

(b) Application Measures


Italy: Bill concerning social insurance for seamen and airmen.

New Caledonia: Decree of 12 July 1928 applying to the colonies the provisions of the Act of 4 January 1928 (France) modifying the French Labour Code in respect of maternity.

Rumania: Act of 8 April 1928 for protection of women and children.

Spain: Bill to provide for compulsory maternity insurance.

Uruguay: Bill concerning the employment of women and children.


In France, on 14 March 1928, the Chamber of Deputies adopted the Social Insurance Bill which had been before Parliament since 1921. The new Act establishes compulsory insurance for maternity and grants medical and pharmaceutical benefits for insured women or the wives of insured persons and a daily cash allowance during the six weeks before and the six weeks after childbirth, with a special system of benefits in kind and in cash in cases of abnormal pregnancy and allowances or milk vouchers during the period of nursing.

In Hungary, the Bill concerning the protection of women and children referred to in last year's Report became law on 12 January 1928. The new Act provides that should a woman prove by means of a medical certificate that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks she shall be at once released from work. She may not be employed during the six weeks following her confinement and this period may be extended for another four weeks should complications arise out of pregnancy. The contract of employment continues while the woman is absent but wages need not be paid unless the contract stipulates this. Notice to terminate the employment may not be given during the six weeks before and six weeks after confinement, nor during the additional four weeks if the illness is certified by a doctor.

In Italy, the Government has approved a Bill to establish a sickness and social welfare fund for seamen and airmen which, among other cash benefits, provides for the payment to the wives of such insured persons of a maternity benefit
equal to the sickness benefit during six weeks before and six weeks after confinement. Medical benefit is also provided during these periods.

A Decree of 12 July 1928 applies to New Caledonia and Dependencies the provisions of the Act of 4 January 1928 which modified the provisions of the French Labour Code concerning rest periods for working mothers.

In Rumania, the Bill for the protection of women and children referred to in last year’s Report became law on 8 April 1928. It applies to industrial and commercial establishments of all kinds (except family undertakings) and requires expectant mothers to be granted leave upon production of a certificate from a doctor that confinement will probably take place within six weeks. Within this limit the length of the leave is decided by the doctor. Employment during the six weeks following childbirth is forbidden, and this period may be prolonged under medical advice, but it may not exceed two months from the expiration of the period of six weeks. No labour contract may be cancelled on account of pregnancy. During the whole period of leave the woman receives an allowance for herself and her child and free medical attendance as prescribed by the Social Insurance Act. Nursing mothers must be allowed two breaks of half-an-hour each during working hours without any deduction from their wages.

In Spain, the Council of the National Welfare Institute has approved a Bill providing for compulsory maternity insurance. Its object is to guarantee medical and pharmaceutical assistance during pregnancy, to provide mothers with the means of support during the period of compulsory rest, and to encourage institutions for the protection of mothers and infants. It would apply to all workers or salaried employees whose annual income does not exceed 4,000 pesetas. No conditions of nationality or marriage are laid down. The expenses would be covered by contributions from insured persons, from employers and from the State.

In Uruguay, a Bill to deal with the employment of women and children has been introduced into Congress. Among its provisions is one which would require women to be granted twelve weeks’ leave on two-thirds pay at the time of childbirth. Factories and other undertakings employing women would be required to have a day nursery attached.

In Venezuela, the Labour Act of 12 July 1928 forbids the employment of pregnant women in industrial or commercial undertakings in work requiring considerable effort or which might be harmful in view of their condition.

Protection of Children and Young Persons

126. Age of admission to employment in industry. — There are five Acts and two Bills for 1928 dealing with this subject, and three ratifications of the 1919 Convention. Encouraging as this is, it must be reiterated that fourteen years is the absolute minimum age permissible for working children. There can be no relaxation of effort to make this a universal rule while there still remain States in which the admission age is a year, and in some cases two years, below the standard set ten years ago at Washington.

Convention fixing the Minimum Age for Admission of Children to Industrial Employment (1919)

(a) Ratification Measures
Colombia: Submitted for consideration to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.
France: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1929; ratification will be recommended when Parliament has definitely adopted the Bill raising the school age to fourteen years.
Germany: Approved on 11 March 1929 by the Cabinet of the Reich and submitted to the Reichsrat.
Luxembourg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Netherlands: Ratification registered on 21 July 1928.
Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

(b) Application Measures
Brazil (Sao Paulo): Regulations to prohibit the work of children in factories.
France: Act of 30 June 1928 to increase the scope of the Act relating to the age of admission.
Rumania: Act of 8 April 1928 for the protection of women and children.
South Africa: Bill amending the Factories Act of 1918 and raising the age of admission to fourteen years.
Uruguay: Bill for the protection of women and children.

Regulations issued by the Children’s Court of Sao Paulo, Brazil, prohibit the work of children under twelve years old in factories unless the work can be shown to be necessary for the maintenance of the child or its family, in which case employment is allowed on permit from the administrative authorities. This permit is only to be granted if the work does not interfere with the child’s school attendance.

In France, an Act of 30 June 1928 modifies the Labour Code in accordance with certain recommendations made by
the Supreme Labour Council in November 1926. One of these recommendations extends to commercial establishments and their branches the provisions of the Labour Code governing the age of admission of children to industrial employment.

In Hungary, an Act of 12 January 1928 respecting the employment of women and children in industrial and certain other undertakings forbids the employment in industry of children who have not completed their fourteenth year. As a transitional measure children may be employed after they have reached the age of 12 years until the age for compulsory school attendance has been raised to fourteen years. In mining undertakings, however, such employment is not allowed even transitonally except on surface work with the consent of the mining authority. A medical certificate must be procured by the child before employment, while for work prejudicial to health, strength or morals the age is raised to eighteen years.

In Rumania, the new Act of 8 April 1928 for the protection of women and children fixes the age of admission for employment in industry and commerce at fourteen years, except in the case of occupational schools. Before being admitted to work a child must have a certificate of physical fitness from a medical officer, and the medical examination of young persons under eighteen years old while at work may also be required. The age of admission to work underground in mines and quarries and for dangerous and unhealthy work is eighteen years.

In South Africa, a Government Bill to amend the Factories Act of 1918 was read a second time in March. The Bill prohibits the employment of children under the age of fourteen in or about a factory. It may be noted that the existing Act gives labour inspectors the right to authorise the employment of children between the ages of twelve and fourteen years.

In Uruguay, the Bill dealing with the work of women and children, to which reference has already been made, prohibits any kind of remunerative employment for children under fifteen years of age, imposes physical and educational tests for children under eighteen years, and forbids the employment of such children in occupations detrimental to health or morals.

In Venezuela, the Labour Act of 12 July 1928 forbids the employment of children of either sex under the age of fourteen years in industrial establishments and mines. The age is raised to eighteen years for dangerous or unhealthy work.

In the District of Columbia, United States of America, an Act of 1 July 1928 prohibits the employment of children under fourteen years of age in any "gainful occupation" except housework and agricultural work performed outside school hours. The age is raised to sixteen years, and in some cases eighteen years, for specified dangerous or unhealthy occupations. Employed children under eighteen years old are required to have work permits from the Board of Education and these are not given to children under sixteen years old unless they have passed certain medical and physical tests.

127. Night work of young persons in industry. — The following table shows the progress in the ratification and application of the Washington (1919) Convention on this subject.

(a) Ratification Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Ratification Details</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>Submitted for considereation to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>Ratification registered on 19 April 1928.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxemburg</td>
<td>Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uruguay</td>
<td>Ratification approved by Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.</td>
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</tbody>
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(b) Application Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Ordinance of 15 June 1928 authorising night work for young persons over sixteen of age in the glass industry and on certain special furnaces, subject to certain medical conditions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>Act of 1928 on the protection of children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>Decree of the Pekin Government of 21 October 1927 regulating work in factories. Decree of the Nationalist Government of July 1927 applicable to the provinces of Shensi and Kansou.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Act of 2 May 1928 concerning the employment of young persons and children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Labour Protection Bill containing provisions on night work for children approved by the Reichsrat and at present under consideration by the Reichstag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>Act of 18 June 1928 ratifying the Convention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Regulations of 1 September 1928 on the employment of women and children in mines.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxemburg</td>
<td>Act of 5 March 1928 on night work of children in industry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Dahir of 22 May 1928 amending the Dahir of 15 July 1926 regulating work in industrial and commercial establishments. Prohibition of the employment of children between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>Ordinance of 30 December 1927 concerning the employment of women and children in industry. Children from twelve to sixteen years of age may not be employed between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>Act of 28 April 1928 concerning the employment of women and children and hours of work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Switzerland (Canton of Geneva): Act of 29 June 1928 prohibiting the employment of children of fourteen years of age after 8 p.m.

Venezuela: Workers’ Protection Act of 23 July 1928 prohibiting the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m.

The old idea that the night should be a period of complete rest for children is being more and more accepted and numerous legislative measures, most of which deal also with night work for women, show real progress in the protection of children in this direction.

In Chile, the Act of 8 September 1924 on the contract of employment prohibited all night work for young persons under sixteen years of age of either sex. Night work was considered to be that carried out between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. from 1 May to 30 September and between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. during the other months of the year. A new Children’s Protection Act was adopted in 1928. It conforms with the provisions of the Convention prohibiting night work for young persons under sixteen years of age. The term “night” means the period between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

In China, according to Regulations issued by the Pekin Government on 21 October 1927, night work for children has been prohibited between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. in factories employing at least fifteen persons; the provisional regulations of 1923 referred only to factories employing 100 persons or more.

The Nationalist Government has also adopted various provisions concerning night work of children. Regulations of July 1927 applying to the provinces of Shensi and Kansou prohibit night work of children but do not fix the hours.

In Cyprus, the Act of 2 May 1928 prohibits night work for children and young persons in industrial undertakings other than those employing only members of the owner’s family. The term “night” means a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

In Ecuador, the Act of 6 October 1928, which came into force on 1 January 1929, prohibits the employment of children under sixteen years of age between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.

In Rumania, a recent Act, the provisions of which are in harmony with the principles of the Convention, prohibits night work for young persons under eighteen years of age. The period of rest at night must be of at least eleven consecutive hours. In the case of young persons under sixteen years of age it must include the period between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m.

The State of Rhode Island has passed a new Act for increasing the protection of young workers. The beginning of the period during which the employment of children under sixteen years of age is prohibited has been changed from 8 p.m. to 7 p.m.

It will thus be seen that there has been considerable legislative activity. Nevertheless, on a question like this, which was the first one to be dealt with by social reformers, it should be stated frankly that considerable improvements are still necessary. Night work for children is not yet prohibited everywhere and the necessary rest period during the night is not yet legally compulsory in every State. There are numerous examples of abuses in the employment of children and even of small children in various parts of the world. For this reason, considerable as are the results so far obtained, it still remains the duty of the Office to urge that the prohibition of night work for children should become a universal rule, especially as there is no reasonable argument in favour of the employment of children at night.
Factory Inspection

128. — The year 1928 has brought no important changes in the matter of factory inspection. In the international field no fresh measures were taken to apply the Recommendation concerning the general principles for the organisation of systems of inspection (1923). It should, however, be mentioned that in Germany the Recommendation is bound up with the passing of the Workers' Protection Bill. The existing legislation corresponds in the main with the Recommendation, but the Government of the Reich will consider the detailed application of the Recommendation after the Workers' Protection Bill has finally been passed.

Factory inspection services exist in practically every country and the only changes to be mentioned year by year refer generally to administrative reorganisation or fresh details as to the nature and extent of the powers conferred on the inspectors. The only development which need be recorded is the action which is being taken in certain countries to extend the benefits of a factory inspection system to colonies, protectorates and mandated territories.

There are two special problems relating to factory inspection which have been dealt with in the Blue Report on The Prevention of Industrial Accidents, which is being submitted to the Conference. The first is the question of the powers of factory inspectors to issue orders having the force of law in individual cases, and the second is the question of requiring employers to submit plans for the construction or alteration of industrial undertakings for examination by the factory inspectorate or other competent authority before the work is put into execution. A further question dealt with in the Blue Report is whether and by what means the workers should participate in factory inspection. This last question is at present being considered in different countries, notably France and Germany.

It is proposed, therefore, simply to give here a list of the new measures which have been taken by legislation or regulations since last year's Report. Before proceeding to do so, however, it should be stated that the problem of factory inspection as a whole is being considered in Germany, where the question of the reorganisation of the system is being brought to the fore by the codification of the general rules relating to the protection of the workers, and also in Great Britain, where the Home Secretary has appointed a Commission to investigate the matter.

A Brazilian Order of 20 January 1928 embodies new regulations concerning the technical functions of the National Labour Council, founded in 1923.

Two new Orders were issued in Chile in 1928 with a view to the reorganisation of the factory inspectorate.

In Finland, the Council of State issued a Decree on 19 January 1928 re-arranging the number and size of the districts allotted to the factory inspectors and other supervising authorities. By an Order of 1 March 1928 nine districts were created for the supervision of steam boilers.

In French Indo-China, a Decree was issued on 5 January 1928 which created an inspectorate for aloe fibre factories, and the Government has been empowered to prescribe such measures as may be necessary to ensure the proper protection of machinery in this industry.

The Australian Mines Ordinance for the Territory of New Guinea, to which reference has already been made in connection with the prevention of accidents, confers on inspectors the right of prosecuting offenders, summoning witnesses and examining them on oath, etc. Workers are entitled to have pits examined by their own representatives at least once a month. In the event of serious accidents the associations for the prevention of accidents have the right of investigation. Moreover, four experienced miners must take part in all official investigations in connection with accidents.

In Poland, as was stated in last year's Report, the factory inspection system was organised on uniform lines in 1927. Inspectors were also empowered to inflict penalties. The procedure for appealing against such penalties was laid down in an Order of the Council of Ministers issued on 2 April 1928. The Order institutes Courts of Appeal in the shape of district committees, and a central appeal committee under the Ministry of Labour. The district factory inspector concerned is represented on these Committees.

A number of laws and Orders have enlarged the field of activity of the factory inspectorates.

In Egypt, a Decree of 17 March 1928 includes the manufacture of Prussian blue and chalk among dangerous and unhealthy industries.
In France, commercial establishments were brought within the range of the provisions of the Labour Code by an Act of 30 June 1928, which also prescribes that any person intending to employ other persons in an undertaking covered by the Labour Code must first inform the factory inspector. Notification must also be given when the ownership of a factory changes, a factory removes to another site, or motors or mechanical equipment are installed.

In Italy, a Ministerial Decree of 30 November 1927 authorises the National Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents to supervise the working of lifts worked by non-mechanical means.

In the Uganda Protectorate, the factory and machinery regulations were amended on 18 February 1928. The new regulations require outbreaks of fire, changes in the ownership of factories and removal of factories to be reported to the inspectorate.

In Portugal, mechanical spinning mills for wool, silk, cotton, jute, hemp and similar products as well as garages for motor-cars and motor-cycles have been brought under the regulations applied to unhealthy and dangerous industries.

In Sierra Leone, the procedure for notifying accidents occurring in mines has been altered. The Chief Inspector of Mines has been empowered by the Supreme Court of Justice to summon witnesses and examine them on oath and to call for the production of books and documents.

If factory inspection is to be effective the Courts must inflict proper punishment for breaches of the laws or regulations for the protection of the workers. In this connection the Canadian Province of Alberta considerably increased on 21 March 1928 the minimum fines under the Boilers Act and the Building Trades Protection Act.

II. Social Insurance

129. — The problems of social insurance continue to occupy the attention of the legislature in almost every country which takes an active share in the work of the Organisation. A clearer realisation of the universality which should characterise this social reform and the increased strength of the social insurance movement in a great number of countries facilitate both the acceptance of the general Conventions on social insurance and its development in the national field. It may appear somewhat premature to speak of international social insurance, but it is nevertheless certain that the principle of social insurance as a corollary of the wage-earning system has been internationally accepted and that, despite national idiosyncracies and preferences, the systems of legislation are following the main principles embodied in the decisions of the Conference.

International Regulations

130. — The following is the usual table of ratification and application measures for 1928 for the international Conventions concerning social insurance.

Convention concerning Workmen’s Compensation for Accidents (1925)

(Ratification Measures)

Bulgaria: A Royal Decree for ratifying the Convention promulgated on 9 February 1929.

Other Information

Bulgaria: Approved by the Sobranje on 18 December 1928.

Recommending concerning the Minimum Scale of Workmen’s Compensation (1925)

(b) Application Measures

Czechoslovakia: Draft to revise and unify the accident insurance legislation (in preparation).

Germany: Third Act amending the accident insurance system, dated 20 December 1928; Bill to extend accident insurance (in preparation).
Recommendation concerning Jurisdiction in Disputes on Workmen's Compensation (1925)

(a) Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Germany: The existing legislation is in harmony with the Recommendation (31 August 1928).

Other Information

Bulgaria: Approved by the Sobranje on 18 December 1928.
Rumania: The necessary steps taken to submit the Recommendation to the Council of Ministers.

Recommendation concerning Equality of Treatment for National and Foreign Workers as regards Workmen's Compensation for Accidents (1925)

(a) Application Measures

Austria: Ratification registered 29 September 1928.
Bulgaria: A Royal Decree for ratifying the Convention promulgated on 9 February 1929.
Colombia: Submitted for consideration to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Bureau.
Cuba: Ratification registered 6 August 1928.
Denmark: Ratification registered 31 March 1928.
France: Ratification registered 4 April 1928.
Germany: Ratification registered 18 September 1928.
Hungary: Ratification registered 19 April 1928.
Japan: Ratification registered 8 October 1928.
Latvia: Ratification registered 29 May 1928.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered 16 April 1928.
Norway: Royal Decree of 1 March 1929 submitting the Convention to the Storting for ratification.
Spain: Ratification registered 22 February 1928.
Sweitzerland: Ratification registered 1 February 1928.
Uruguay: In a Message dated 23 March 1928 the President of the Republic recommended the Senate and Chamber of Deputies united in a general assembly to ratify the Convention.

A royal Decree for ratifying the Convention promulgated on 9 February 1929.

(a) Ratification Measures

Australia: Submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament on 5 December 1927.
Austria: Ratification registered on 18 February 1929.
Bulgaria: Bill for approval of the Convention (in preparation).
Colombia: Submitted for consideration to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Bureau.
Czechoslovakia: Ratification registered on 17 January 1929.
Finland: Communication of the Government dated 13 September 1928 proposing to the Chamber of Representatives to postpone any decision until the Sickness Insurance Bill should have been adopted.
France: Submitted to Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1929. The Act of 5 April 1928 on social insurance differs from the Convention on one point, the waiting period, but can be amended later. Ratification, in any case, could only take effect when the Social Insurance Act came into force.
Hungary: Ratification registered on 10 April 1928.
India: Resolution adopted by the State Council on 20 March 1928 and by the Legislative Assembly on 27 March 1928 recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.
Irish Free State: The Convention has been submitted to the Dail and to the Seanad of the Free State on 22 February and 1 March 1928 respectively.
Japan: Submitted to the Privy Council for ratification on 5 November 1928.
Lithuania: Referred to the competent authorities for conversion into an Act or for other measures.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Netherlands: Report of 29 June 1928 by the Government to the States-General pointing out that the present legislation on sickness insurance and the new legislative measures at present before the Second Chamber made it impossible to submit any proposal with regard to the Convention.
Norway: Government Report submitted to Storting on 1 March 1929. Matter to be reconsidered when the Committee which is studying the question of revising the sickness insurance legislation submits its conclusions.
Rumania: Bill for ratification passed by Chamber of Deputies and Senate (March 1929).
Siam: His Majesty's Government, while willing to adopt appropriate measures when necessary, does not consider that the existing conditions in Siam demand that such measures should be taken at present.
Slovenia: Adjournment of the ratification passed by the Riksdag on 4 May 1928.
Sweitzerland: Report of 13 December 1928 by the Federal Council to the Federal Assembly stating that the problem of ratification will be studied when the Federal Sickness and Accident Insurance Act has been revised.
Uruguay: Ratification of the Convention recommended to the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies met in a general assembly by a communication from the President on 26 March 1928.
Venezuela: Communicated to the Department of the Interior for study and adaptation to the national legislation.

Recommendation concerning Equality of Treatment of National and Foreign Workers as regards Workmen's Compensation for Accidents (1925)

(a) Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Czechoslovakia: Recommendation adopted (2 June 1928).
Germany: Present legislation corresponds with the Recommendation (31 August 1928).

Other Information

Bulgaria: Approved by the Sobranje on 18 December 1928.
Rumania: The necessary steps taken to submit the Recommendation to the Council of Ministers.

1 This Convention was formerly given in the sub-section on Migration, but the present sub-section on Social Insurance would seem to be the more suitable place for it. The same observation applies to the Recommendation accompanying it.
CONVENTION CONCERNING SICKNESS INSURANCE
FOR AGRICULTURAL WORKERS (1927)

(a) Ratification Measures

Australia : Submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Austria : Ratification registered on 18 February 1929.

Bulgaria : Bill approving the Convention (in preparation).

Colombia : Submitted for consideration to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.

Czechoslovakia : Ratification registered on 17 January 1929.

Finland : Communication from the Government on 13 September 1928 to the Chamber of Representatives postponing any decision until the Sickness Insurance Bill should have been adopted.

France : Submitted to Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1929. The Social Insurance Act of 5 April 1928 differs from the Convention, so that the waiting period, but can be amended later. Ratification, in any case, can only take effect when the Social Insurance Act comes into force.

India : Resolution adopted by the State Council on 27 March 1928 recommending to the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention.

Irish Free State : The Convention was submitted to the Dail and the Seanad of the Free State on 22 February and 1 March 1928 respectively.

Japan : Submitted to the Privy Council for ratification on 5 November 1928.

Lithuania : Submitted to the competent authorities for conversion into an Act or for other measures.

Luxembourg : Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

Netherlands : Report of 29 June 1928 by the Government to the States-General pointing out the present legislation on sickness insurance and the new legislative measures at present before the Senate and the Chamber of the Free State on 22 February and 1 March 1928 respectively.

Portugal : French legislation diverges from the Convention, so recently that revision would be a very difficult matter. The Government therefore does not consider that existing conditions in Siam demand that such measures should be taken at present (28 April 1928).

Sweden : The Government is studying the question of a possible reorganisation of the existing system of sickness insurance and is not at the moment in a position to carry out the Recommendation (28 June 1928).

Other Information

Australia : Submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Austria : The National Council noted the Federal Government's report on 20 December 1928; the judicial position in this country is in harmony with the principles of the Recommendation.

Czecho-Slovakia : Submitted to the President of the Council of Ministers and to the other Ministers for adoption on 14 July 1928; applied in particular by the Act of 9 October 1924 concerning workers' sickness, invalidity and old-age insurance.

Finland : Communication of the Government dated 13 September 1928 proposing to the Chamber of Representatives to postpone any decision with reference to the Recommendation until the Sickness Insurance Bill should have been adopted.

France : Submitted to Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1929.

India : Resolution adopted by the State Council on 20 March 1928 and by the Legislative Assembly on 27 March 1928 recommending to the Governor-General in Council not to accept the Recommendation.

Irish Free State : Submitted to the Dail and to the Seanad of the Free State on 22 February and 1 March 1928 respectively.
to see it longer and fuller. The decisions for national and foreign workers as regards revision and accelerating the rate of the 1925 Session with reference to com­
tinued to assist in drafting international Con­
vention on equality of treatment which has so long been inflicted on aliens in connection with compensation for industrial accidents will soon be eliminated in the great majority of national systems of legislation, involving adaptation and revision and accelerating the rate of evolution which is so desirable in many systems of compensation or insurance. In one particular point there has been striking progress: it seems that the unfavourable treatment which has so long been inflicted on aliens in connection with compensation for industrial accidents will soon be eliminated in the great majority of national systems of legislation in accordance with the Convention on equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents. A defect, if indeed it be a defect, of this Convention is that it does not stipulate equality of treatment except for foreign workers who are nationals of any other State Member which shall have ratified the Convention, but as the number of ratifications increases (they are already twenty) this defect disappears. Another encouraging sign of progress is that the two Draft Conventions on compulsory sickness insurance adopted by the Tenth Session came into force as from July 1928, barely a year after being passed by the Conference.

Work of International Organisations

181.—International activity in the field of social insurance, although of recent origin, is developing rapidly. In 1928 it was marked by the second International Conference of Sickness Insurance Funds, the third session of the General Council of the International Medical Association and the work of the Joint Committee on Hygiene and Sickness Insurance. These organisations compare national experiences, draw up programmes, deduce conclusions and principles, and thus pave the way for or supplement the action of the Interna­tional Labour Organisation in drafting and applying international Conventions on social insurance.

192. International Conference of Sickness Insurance Funds.—The International Conference of Sickness Insurance Funds and Mutual Benefit Societies held its second Annual Congress at Vienna in September 1928. This Congress was attended by 225 delegates, representing forty national federations belonging to nineteen countries with a membership of more than 35,000,000 insured persons. The first constituent Congress was held in Brussels in October 1927 and was attended by delegates of sixteen national federations, representing almost 20,000,000 insured persons. These few figures suffice to show how rapidly and strongly this new movement of international co­operation is developing.

Right from its foundation the Organisation of Sickness Insurance Funds has showed a desire to establish friendly working relations with the International Labour Office, and at Vienna the President of the Congress, in the name of the whole assembly, expressed his conception of this co-operation. "We desire," he said, "on the basis of our experience, which is already comparatively wide, to point out what problems are ripe for international regulation; we are ready to assist in drafting international Conventions. We consider that we can best serve the interests of the International Labour Office by putting at its disposal the practical activities of the sickness insurance institutions for the creation of the atmosphere necessary for the ratification of international Conventions and for their practical application there­after."

This cordial offer of co-operation was, of course, accepted, and the Office made a point of assuring the Vienna Congress of its constant desire to win the support and co-operation of all the live forces of society. Agreement was all the easier because of the complete harmony between the International Labour Conventions and the programme of the International Fed­eration with reference to the essential problems of sickness insurance; necessity for compulsory insurance; extension of insurance to all wage earners, including agricultural workers; primordial importance of benefits in kind and their exten­sion to the family of the worker; adminis­tration of insurance by autonomous funds, a considerable share in the manage­ment being taken by the insured persons; the directing of the action of the institu­tions towards preventive work and social hygiene, etc. This agreement as to the aims to be reached enabled the Vienna Congress to adopt a resolution pointing out that the two international Conven­tions on sickness insurance involve very moderate obligations for the States which
ratify them, and can and should be accept­
ed by all countries, and that the Recom­
mendation expresses the present ten­
dencies of sickness insurance, and for
the majority of States shows the progress still to be realised. The Congress invited
the national unions of sickness insurance funds to work for the ratification of the
Conventions and the application of the
Recommendation, and also the develop­
ment among their own funds of systematic efforts for the application in their entirety of the principles and rules contained in the decisions of the International Labour Conference.

133. International Medical Association.
— The International Medical Association has continued its examination of the problem of the organisation of the medical service of sickness insurance, and its General Council at its third session held in Paris in September 1928 reached a number of important conclusions, of which a brief summary is given below.

Compulsory or voluntary sickness insurance constitutes a great social progress; the scope of such insurance should be limited to those persons who are unable from their own resources to meet the expense involved in case of sickness; medical benefits should include attention by specialists and should be granted to the wife and minor children of the insured person; the law should provide that the insured person should bear some share, however small, of the cost of medical attendance and drugs.

The medical service of sickness insurance should be organised according to the following rules: free choice of doctor by the insured person; collective agreements between the insurance funds and medical associations; admission of all doctors accepting the conditions of the agreement and exclusion of special insurance fund doctors; respect of medical professional secrecy; freedom for the medical prac­titioners in prescribing; abolition of re­muneration in a lump sum; remuneration for each service or by capitation fee; payment of doctors either directly by the insured persons or by the insurance funds; prohibition for insurance funds to run their own factories for pharmaceutical products, hospitals, dispensaries, sanatoria, preventive homes, etc.

This programme marks a considerable development in the attitude of medical practitioners towards sickness insurance. The doctors, who, for a long time, strongly opposed the introduction of compulsory insurance, now accept the compulsory principle, the general use of collective agreements and the extension of medical benefits to the family, along with medical attention by specialists. On all these points, which are of primary importance, the national opinions with its insurance institutions, the most modern funds and the most advanced national systems of legislation.

There is not yet, however, complete harmony, and it cannot be denied that serious differences of opinion still exist. The doctors would restrict the scope of insurance within too narrow limits, while systems of legislation tend to do away with wage limits or to extend them so as to include all or almost all wage-earners; for compulsory social insurance is coming more and more to be considered as an essential part of the wage-earning system. The insurance funds assert that it is impossible to maintain in its entirety medical professional secrecy, and that they must be supplied with information as to the nature of the disease, so as to enable them not only to suppress all abuses but also to be guided in their policy of benefits in kind by taking into account the worker's state of health. Among the doctors themselves this necessity has been recognised, particularly by practitioners in England and Germany, who have the longest experience of the working of compulsory sickness insurance. There are also differences of opinion concerning the basis of remuneration and the methods of paying the practitioners' fees; the insurance institutions consider it in­dispensable to have a specific tariff and to have payment made by the funds. In this connection it has been found impossible to reach a single formula, even within the Association, and quite a variety of possible solutions have had to be permitted. Finally, there are differences of views as to medical equipment; the doctors wish it to be forbidden for the funds to have their own dispensaries, sanatoria or preventive homes, while in almost all countries the legislature, the insured persons and the employers demand that the insurance institutions should devote an ever increasing proportion of their funds to the establishment of institutions for prevention and treatment.

The absence of complete agreement on all these problems, which are both numer­ous and of great importance, should neither alarm, for the Office never imagined that it would be possible at the first attempt to draw up an international programme in which the doctors would spontaneously agree with the insured persons, employers and the insurance funds. The important point which the Office desires to emphasise is that the doctors are making a determined effort to adapt their individualistic traditions and their special interests to the necessity for collective organisation and to the general interest of the workers as a whole; this attitude is a hopeful sign for the favourable development in the future of the medical services of social insurance.

134. Joint Committee on Hygiene and Sickness Insurance. — Sickness insurance is devoting an increasing part of its activity and its resources to developing medical benefits and to organising pre-
ventive work; it is thus becoming a very important factor in social hygiene. Social hygiene cannot be fully effective unless in each State the action of the insurance institutions is co-ordinated with that of the public health services in a general health policy. In many countries there is no general programme and no complete co-ordination between services and institutions of varying character; an effort towards rationalisation is indispensable. In the international sphere this necessity has been recognised both by the Sixth Assembly of the League of Nations (1925) and the Hygiene Committee, and by the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference (1927). In order to carry out the Resolution of the Assembly of the League and the Recommendation of the Conference, the Hygiene Section of the League, and the International Labour Office set up early in 1927 a Joint Committee composed of an equal number of experts from public health services and experts from sickness insurance institutions. This Joint Committee was instructed "to study the most effective methods of achieving co-operation between sickness insurance institutions and public health services". At its first meeting, held at Geneva in April 1927, the Committee drew up its programme of work and distributed among small sub-committees the study of a certain number of problems; popular instruction on hygiene, maternity protection, prevention of tuberculosis, prevention of venereal disease, protection of school children.

It was essential that particular subjects should be considered by special sub-committees, but the inevitable consequence is that the work is fragmentary, and it has been found necessary to set up a further sub-committee to co-ordinate the work and to examine the functions and methods of social medicine. This new sub-committee, which is on a joint basis like the others, is formed of medical experts in public health and medical experts in sickness insurance. It met at Geneva on 17, 18 and 19 December 1928, and decided to undertake the study of the following questions:

1. Medical-social information; compilation of morbidity and mortality statistics to meet the needs of social medicine.
2. Medical-social training of practitioners and the assistants; necessity for including social medicine in the curricula of the medical faculties.
3. Sanitary equipment necessary for the development of social medicine; co-operation between official health services and insurance institutions so that doctors and the public may have at their disposal all the most modern appliances for diagnosis and treatment known to medical theory and practice.

The task undertaken by the Joint Committee and its sub-committees is both very wide and very delicate, for it is necessary not only to lay down general principles for organisation on a rational basis, but also to make proposals as to distribution of tasks and spheres of action, having regard to the very unequal development in different countries of public health bodies and insurance institutions and to the special characteristics of various types of services or institutions in respect of their administrative methods, their independence, the source of their income and the social classes with which they deal. The Office is confident that the work will be successfully carried out, thanks to the devotion and ability of the members of the Committee and its sub-committees and that the conclusions which may be drawn from the various national experiments will be of great practical utility.

**Development of the National Systems of Legislation.**

135. — Social insurance forms a very important part of social legislation. There exist in the world at present approximately 250 distinct systems of legislation on workmen’s compensation for accidents, accident insurance, voluntary or compulsory sickness insurance, invalidity, old-age, death and pensions insurance. These systems are based on more than 1,500 principal Acts, Decrees or Orders, and two or three hundred official reports are issued annually on their application. All these enactments are subject to frequent amendments for improving them or adapting them to new economic or social conditions, and every year the existing provisions are increased by from three to four hundred sets of fresh regulations. If it is borne in mind that every piece of social insurance legislation amounts to a complete Code which defines a complex system of obligations and rights and sets up an administrative organisation, a financial and actuarial system and very often a special judicial organisation, and if regard is had to the numerous Bills which are framed by Governments or Parliaments and which give rise to disputes, controversies, investigations and reports, it will be realised that it becomes more and more difficult to undertake even a hasty survey or give even a brief analysis of the ever increasing mass of legislative literature. At attempt will nevertheless be made, as in previous years, to draw attention in the following paragraphs to the action taken and its results in each country, restricting the survey to the more important facts or the more original new measures, while trying to show the movement and evolution of ideas.
In the Argentine Republic, the development of trade and industry is once more concentrating attention on two aspects of accident insurance: the burdens imposed on production, and the real value of the benefits. The Government has undertaken the delicate task of reorganizing the administrative basis of the accident insurance scheme. On 19 July 1928 the President of the Republic introduced a Bill into Parliament which would reserve to the Government the duty of ensuring the enforcement of the legislation on the subject, and which accordingly provides for the establishment of a national fund to undertake the administration of accident insurance, to the exclusion of all private undertakings working for profit. A short but very informative explanatory memorandum accompanying the Bill lays stress on the expansion of this kind of insurance as well as on the marked and continually increasing disparity between the income and expenditure of private insurance companies. It seems likely that this Bill, which met with a favourable reception in Parliament, will speedily become law.

In the autumn of 1928 the Australian Government, after five years of preparatory work and study of foreign experience, laid before Parliament, on the eve of the elections, a Bill for the institution of a system of compulsory insurance for sickness, invalidity, old age and death, covering approximately 1,600,000 wage-earners. In its general outlines, this scheme takes into account the existing systems of legislation (non-contributory old-age pensions and maternity allowances) and institutions (friendly societies). In many respects the conditions are the same as in Great Britain in 1911, and it is not surprising that the solutions proposed by the Australian Bill should be very similar to those adopted in the British insurance system.

The necessary funds will be provided by a double contribution from the employer and the insured person, and by a subsidy from the Confederation. The contributions will not vary according to wages; only two rates are provided for, one for men and the other for women. The benefits will also be uniform and independent of wages; in the case of sickness, invalidity and widowhood, they will include family allowances. Old-age pensions will be granted at the age of sixty-five for men and sixty for women. Administration of the insurance will be under the general supervision of a Commonwealth Board, on which wage-earners and employers will be represented, and in each State a Commissioner will work in co-operation with the representatives of the doctors and of the approved societies. The insurance institutions will be approved societies of at least a thousand insured persons, and each worker will be free to choose among the existing societies.

As soon as the Bill was published, it was subjected to criticism by the organizations affected. The friendly societies are loth to accept the introduction of the compulsory principle, because they fear that if contributions are deducted from wages the development of voluntary insurance will be arrested; they also protest against private insurance companies and workers' trade unions sharing in the creation of the approved societies which will administer the compulsory insurance. In fact, if compulsory insurance is to be instituted, the friendly societies would like to have a monopoly of its administration.

The Bill has not yet brought forth much comment from the workers, probably because other questions have been occupying their minds at the moment. The general attitude of workers' organizations with regard to social insurance was stated four years ago in a manifesto demanding a complete system of non-contributory social insurance, guaranteeing a minimum wage in all cases of incapacity for work and of unemployment. At the present time the chief criticism against the Bill is that it does not provide for unemployment insurance, the creation of which is considered particularly urgent.

The employers, through the Chambers of Commerce, have pointed out that the Bill implies an increased burden on production at a time when economic conditions are particularly difficult.

The Government which drafted the Bill has remained in power, and there is every hope that its consideration will be actively continued, so that Australia will soon have a system of compulsory social insurance.

Austria is methodically developing her social insurance legislation. The organization of the insurance system rests upon two main principles: (1) unification, in virtue of which all the risks attaching to labour are covered by a single system of insurance; and (2) social differentiation, whereby all workers belonging to the same social class and possessing similar working and living conditions are covered by a separate scheme. Salaried employees of all occupations became in 1926 beneficiaries of a unified system specially adapted to their insurance needs. The insurance scheme for manual workers in industry and commerce was established in 1927; and the third great scheme, for agricultural workers, was given its finishing touches during the summer of 1928.

The salaried employees' insurance scheme has recently undergone revision with a view to the settlement of certain questions that the Act of 1926 had left open. The sickness funds have improved their administrative mechanism and their preventive and curative resources. The salaried employees' central insurance insti-
tute, which administers pension insurance, is steadily consolidating its financial position. The financial provisions underlying the pension insurance scheme involve a progressive increase in contributions in the years to come without any change in the scale of benefits.

The industrial workers' insurance scheme, like the salaried employees' scheme, comprises all branches of insurance, some of which, such as sickness, maternity, accident and unemployment insurance, had already been in existence for a long time, while others were innovations introduced in 1927. In point of fact, there is a serious gap in the system — invalidity insurance has not yet come into force. The only provisions to which full effect is given at the present time are those relating to the grant of pensions to insured persons who are over sixty years of age and satisfy a number of other conditions.

Agricultural workers' insurance is organised independently of the industrial workers' scheme, so as better to adapt it to the conditions of agricultural labour and of rural life. The age of admission is fourteen years for sickness and accident insurance, and eighteen years for invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance.

The sickness scheme includes the grant of daily allowances for not more than fifty-two weeks, and free medical and pharmaceutical benefit. The accident scheme covers all accidents arising out of and in the course of employment, including accidents occurring on the journey from the place of residence to the place of work and vice versa. The old-age pension is payable at sixty-five years of age to an insured person who has 500 contribution weeks to his credit. As a general rule, contributions are payable in equal parts by the employer and the insured person, but in the accident insurance scheme the employer pays two-thirds and the insured person one third. In broad outline, the agricultural workers' scheme follows that of the industrial workers, but the pensions and benefits in kind under the former are much smaller than those under the latter.

In Belgium, the investigations undertaken with a view to completing the social insurance system were continued throughout 1928. The extra-Parliamentary committee that was instructed to report on the sickness insurance Bill introduced on 12 July 1927 has finished its work. The controversies that arose in connection with its discussions related to two main points; the compulsory principle, and the institutions carrying the risks.

Supported by all the representatives of the Christian, Liberal, Socialist, and neutral mutual-aid societies, but opposed by the representatives of the employers' funds, the compulsory principle was finally adopted by the committee for all workers whose earnings do not exceed 15,000 francs a year. The wage limit is higher for workers having a family to support.

As regards the constitution of the insurance institutions or organisations, two opposing views were expressed. The Socialist mutual-aid societies wished to see the entire system organised on a territorial basis. A single fund would administer the insurance of a particular risk in a given district, and the insurance institutions would have absorbed the existing mutual-aid societies. In spite of the advantages of this method of organisation for simplifying administration for the working of the medical services, and for effecting economies by systematic centralisation, it was not adopted by the committee. The main preoccupation of the committee was to incorporate the independent mutual-aid funds in the new insurance system, while leaving them their distinctive characteristics untouched and such independence as would be compatible with good management. While the present institutions would thus continue in existence, the scheme proposed by the committee endeavours to ensure the proper working of the Act by imposing a very heavy reinsurance on all institutions whose membership is too small.

Moreover, the committee was of opinion that the benefits should include pecuniary sickness benefit equivalent to half the basic wage, in addition to medical treatment and pharmaceutical benefit, and that the non-wage-earning wife of an insured person should enjoy special protection in the case of childbirth.

In Brazil, the parliamentary debates on the draft Labour Code, the Bill for the reform of industrial-accident insurance, and the Bill for the establishment of social insurance and relief funds for sickness, invalidity and old age, have not yet yielded any result. To these projects of social legislation two other Bills were added in 1928: one relating to the establishment of pension funds for private salaried employees, and the other to the establishment of an office for social relief and manual workers' pensions. These various Bills at least indicate a movement of opinion towards social insurance schemes, but it would seem that matters have not yet progressed beyond the stage of preliminary study.

In Bulgaria, the social insurance system established in 1924 seems to have finally surmounted the difficulties which every system must face in the early years of its existence. It would appear that the free choice of doctor, prescribed in the principal Act, has had to be modified somewhat for financial reasons. Attention was drawn in last year's Report to the awkward situations which may arise when the State assumes the dual rôle of administrator and contributor. The tendency to hold up the State contribution to meet the general needs of the
fresh movement in favour of compulsory insurance fund to accumulate seems gradually to be giving place to an attitude which lays more stress on the financial independence of insurance.

In 1928 Canada made considerable progress in social insurance. The number of provinces which have adopted old-age pension legislation has increased and a fresh movement in favour of compulsory sickness insurance is asserting itself.

The Dominion Old-Age Pension Act of 1927 provides that if a province establishes a system of non-contributory pensions in conformity with the principles laid down, the Dominion Government will bear half the cost. The Western provinces were the first to take advantage of this offer—British Columbia in 1927 and the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and the Yukon in 1928. The Eastern provinces, on the other hand, hesitated to take this step, because their population contains a large proportion of aged persons, and the financial cost of such a system of legislation would be greater than for the other provinces. In Nova Scotia and in Ontario, however, an enquiry is to be held into the extent of old-age dependency, and it is announced that a Bill will be brought forward in 1929 by the Government of Ontario.

While the trend of opinion on social insurance has generally developed along parallel lines, and in the same direction, in Canada and the United States, an exception must be made for sickness insurance. There is a contrast between the positive proposals put forward in Canada and the attitude adopted to the same problem in the United States. In this connection special attention should be drawn to the movement which is spreading in British Columbia and in the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan in favour of entrusting the organisation of a system of compulsory sickness insurance to the provinces. The Trades and Labour Congress of Canada has already included sickness insurance among the items of its programme. Now the farmers' organisations have also made the same demand, doubtless on account of the difficulties and the expense of obtaining medical aid in districts far from urban centres. In British Columbia it has been noted that the proportion of sick persons able to pay the daily cost of treatment and maintenance in hospital is less than a third of those treated. This clearly shows that it is impossible for a great number of workers to meet sickness risks from their own resources. The Governments of British Columbia and Alberta have promised to examine the problem carefully. Although up to the present no details have been published regarding the system of insurance contemplated, it seems that the general desire is rather for the organisation of a complete service of medical aid than for the granting of cash benefits.

The reform of compulsory social insurance undertaken by the Chilian Government two years ago is beginning to bear fruit. Opposition appears to be diminishing, particularly on the part of the employers. Contributions are coming in more regularly, and the insurance institutions which have the necessary funds are able to carry out in its entirety the system of benefits provided for by the Act. In October 1928 the medical section of the National Insurance Fund and the dependent services were transferred to the Public Relief and Hospitals Department. This decision—which, as far as can be judged, was suggested by the medical profession, and doubtless made necessary by its attitude—introduces a novelty, the consequences of which it is still impossible to foresee. The administration of cash benefits and medical benefits by separate institutions has not been considered desirable in Europe, at least by the countries which have most experience in the matter. However, the general situation in social insurance seems to be improving in Chile, and the Office, which is following with particular interest this first application of a system of compulsory insurance on a large scale in South America, is glad to note this success.

After prolonged controversy, Czecho-slovakia has recently terminated the reform of its manual workers' and salaried employees' insurance schemes. The high stage of development reached by sickness insurance has enabled the Government to ratify the two Conventions on the subject that were adopted at the Tenth Session of the Conference. Social insurance will for some time cease to preoccupy the public mind, and the insurance institutions will be able to devote all their energy to the execution of the reforms secured.

The manual workers' insurance scheme retains the general features which it received under the Act of 1924. It applies to workers of all occupations irrespective of the amount of their wages or nationality. For invalidity and old-age insurance the age of admission has been fixed, as from 1 January 1929, at sixteen years, while sickness insurance begins as soon as employment or apprenticeship is entered upon. As from the same date the method of calculating contributions, which are payable in equal parts by the employer and the insured person, is to undergo certain changes. A new wage class for the lowest-paid workers has been added to the four existing classes of the invalidity and old-age scheme; this reorganisation will entail a reduction in the contribution of agricultural workers and unskilled workers. Benefits have been improved in several respects. The sickness benefit becomes due on the third day of incapacity for work and
is payable for Sundays and holidays as well as working days. The qualifying period in the invalidity and old-age scheme has been reduced from 150 to 100 weeks, and the minimum pension has been increased by 10 per cent. of the original amount. Death insurance has been expanded in the direction of survivors' insurance. The widow of an insured person who has charge of at least two children of under seventeen years of age, or is over sixty-five years of age herself, will henceforth be entitled to a pension, even if she is capable of working. These are certainly noteworthy improvements, but the scale of pensions obtainable during the first few years of the scheme's existence is naturally low.

During the lengthy debates on the subject of social insurance the principle of the autonomy of the scheme, i.e. its administration by the persons concerned—employers and workers—was not called in question. It was the proportion of workers' to employers' representatives in the administrative bodies of the sick funds that aroused controversy. The Act of 1924 gave the insured persons a majority on the governing body and the employers a majority on the supervising committee; the insured persons were to administer, and the employers were to supervise the administration. Under the new provisions the insured persons retain their majority on the governing body, and the employers theirs on the supervising committee; but in reality administration becomes a joint matter. The governing body ceases to be a managerial body and its principal duties devolve upon joint meetings of its members with those of the supervising committee.

The salaried employees' insurance scheme has also been reorganised. The reorganisation takes effect as from 1 January 1929. Half a million employees in industry, commerce, agriculture, and the liberal professions, together with their families, are covered. The too parsimonious Act of 1906 was soon found to be inadequate, and during the first years of the post-war period it became necessary to introduce cost-of-living bonuses, the cost of which was borne exclusively by the employers. The financial system lost its cohesion. The insured persons, who had paid in contributions on a gold basis, did not receive pensions proportionate to the sacrifices they made in contributing towards them. Complete reorganisation became imperative. To-day it is an accomplished fact, thanks to the preparatory work of a committee of experts whose financial proposals were adopted by the Government and confirmed by the legislature.

A minimum pension is guaranteed to every insured person who has completed the appropriate qualifying periods. A fixed increment is assigned in respect of each monthly contribution standing to the insured person's credit. In order to relieve pensioners and former insured persons from the consequences of inflation, contributions paid in before the end of 1928 have been revalorised. They give the right to increments that are higher for earlier years than for the years 1921-1928. The new pension scheme will affect different classes of pensioners in different ways; but, to give an idea of the extent of the reforms achieved, it will suffice to state that the maximum pension payable under the new scheme is three times the maximum hitherto obtainable. That this result has been obtained without substantially increasing the contributions is due to the application of a financial system which, by means of an invariable average premium, lays a moderate burden on the generations to come in favour of the first generation when it was well on in life. The new financial system has new sources of income, notably a rate of interest, assumed to be permanent, of 4½ per cent. instead of 4 per cent. The assumption is justified by the investment operations of the Salaried Employees' Insurance Institute.

The two main systems are, then, remodelled; but already new problems are arising and calling for solution, e.g. the reorganisation of the miners' insurance scheme, which does not yet appear to be on a stable financial basis, and the extension of accident insurance to those undertakings to which compulsion does not yet apply.

The movement which has been observed in a large number of States during recent years for the progressive abandonment of systems of non-contributory pensions seems to have gained many supporters in Denmark. The Conservative Party has just laid before Parliament a Bill aiming at replacing the system of non-contributory pensions instituted in 1922 by contributory old-age insurance for the whole population of Denmark from the age of eighteen years upwards. The pensions, which would be payable at the age of sixty-five, would be financed by contributions from the insured persons, amounting to 3 per cent. of their income.

In Ecuador, the Government took a number of measures in October 1928 which dealt with the protection of wage-earners against occupational and general risks. The most important measures relate to maternity benefits, the organisation of workers' superannuation allowances, civil pensions and mutual aid, and the institution of a special compulsory old-age insurance scheme for bank clerks.

By a Decree dated 6 October 1928 Ecuador supplemented its Workmen's Compensation Act of 30 September 1921. This Decree extends the scope of application of the Act to the wage-earning staff of hospitals and similar
establishments and domestic servants, and assimilates occupational diseases to industrial accidents.

In Estonia, the efforts of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare have been specially directed towards the extension of the sickness and accident insurance Acts, which have been subjected to criticism in working-class circles.

The accident insurance scheme, which hitherto was restricted to industries covered by the Washington Convention on hours of work, will, according to the new Bill prepared by the Government, apply in future to all workers without exception, and will cover occupational diseases as well as accidents. The workers will have a share in the management of the employers' organisation that is entrusted with the administration of the scheme.

The Sickness Insurance Bill also has a wider range than the present Act, in that it makes commercial employees and domestic servants compulsorily insurable and increases the scale of benefits. It was introduced into Parliament in November, but was withdrawn by the new Government—a coalition of the parties of the Left—which desired to amend it.

Finland, having recast her accident insurance legislation in 1925, is strenuously endeavouring to introduce compulsory insurance schemes for sickness, and old age and invalidity.

A Government Bill establishing sickness insurance was examined by the Parliamentary committee for social questions, which definitely declared in favour of compulsory insurance provision. The committee also proposed a number of amendments, more especially with a view to extending the scheme to agricultural workers, reducing the wage limits for all compulsorily insured persons, increasing the workers' share of the contributions, and allowing establishment funds to be set up in addition to the local funds. The ratification by Finland of the international Conventions on sickness insurance will depend on the form in which this Bill is passed by the Parliament.

Another Government Bill introduced at the end of last year aims at the institution of a system of invalidity and old-age insurance for all persons of twenty-one years and over. The financial resources of the scheme will be derived from (a) contributions payable by the insured persons, and possibly by their employers, and (b) grants from the Government and local authorities. The funds so constituted will be employed to furnish invalidity and old-age pensions, the latter being payable at sixty-five years of age.

France is systematically proceeding with the adaptation of insurance schemes to the new economic conditions and to the present purchasing power of the franc. She is raising the wage limits that have hitherto been used to mark off the insured from the uninsured, and to calculate benefits; and is increasing the various allowances and pensions in force. Thus in 1928 a levelling up was effected in industrial accident pensions, and in pensions for seamen, miners, railwaymen (secondary public systems), and workers employed in the Government factories.

Apart from this work of adaptation, there are certain reforms on a larger scale which have been under consideration for several years. These reforms aim at completely remodelling the legislation relating to compensation for industrial accidents, and at establishing a general system of compulsory social insurance.

The Bill relating to compensation for industrial accidents was passed by the Chamber of Deputies in 1927, and is now before the Senate. It is being closely examined by a special committee, which has decided to hear the representatives of the organisations concerned. The trade unions are insisting on the adoption of the Bill in the form in which it left the Chamber of Deputies; for, although it does not satisfy them completely, it represents a considerable advance on the present system, which is generally admitted to be inadequate. The employers' associations maintain the principal objections that had been voiced during the debates in the Chamber; in their opinion, the new benefits are too high, will lead to abuses, and will lay an excessively heavy burden on industry. Still, as the necessity and the urgency of the reform are admitted both by political parties and occupational groups, it may be hoped that Parliamentary consideration of the subject will shortly lead to a favourable result, and that the French Government will thereby be enabled to ratify the international Convention of 1925.

But the outstanding event of the year is the final adoption by the French Parliament of the Social Insurance Bill, which became law on 5 April 1928. The Act establishes compulsory insurance for the risks of sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age and death. It applies to more than eight million workers and converts 13,000,000 people into contingent beneficiaries, i.e. nearly a third of the entire population of France. The French Government is actively preparing for its coming into force, which is fixed for February 1930.

During the seven years of preliminary work, Government and Parliament have made the most praiseworthy efforts to take due account of existing institutions, different trends of opinion and conflicting interests. But, in spite of substantial concessions that have partly destroyed the logical symmetry of the original Government Bill of 1921, in spite of the united
support of all political parties (the Communists alone excepted), and in spite of the adoption of the Bill by almost unanimous votes both in the Chamber and the Senate, there still remains a certain amount of opposition, particularly on the part of the agricultural, industrial, and commercial employers and the medical profession. The industrial and commercial employers, who pay half of the contribution, demand that their delegates on the administrative bodies (departmental funds and primary funds) shall be equal in number to those of the insured persons. The agricultural employers desire to obtain a special agricultural insurance scheme involving lower contributions and endowed with separate administrative bodies. The Act, however, is universal and uniform: all insured persons, as are covered by the same general provisions, pay the same contributions, and are entitled to the same benefits, the rates in both cases being proportional to wages. The medical profession has been successful in nearly all its demands, namely: free choice of doctor, organisation of the medical service by means of collective agreements freely concluded between the insurance funds and the local medical association, exclusion of any restrictive scale of fees, etc.; but it threatens to abstain from co-operating in the administration of the Act if it does not receive satisfaction on certain other points to which it attaches capital importance. The main point is the direct payment of the doctor by the insured person, without the intervention of the insurance fund.

The trade unions, on the other hand—apart from the Communist unions—though they consider the Act has various serious defects, e.g. the inadequacy of the cash benefits and the pensions, the excessive rigour of the conditions under which benefits are granted, the meagreness of the Government grant (240,000,000 francs as against nearly 3,000,000,000 francs in workers' and employers' contributions), the absence of an unemployment insurance feature, nevertheless recognise that the Act marks a great advance and declare that they are ready to help in its administration to the utmost of their power.

All the organisations concerned, even those which continue to criticise the Act of 5 April 1928, are anxious to take part in the administration of the social insurance scheme; in fact, at the present time, a sort of competition is in progress for the recruiting of insured persons and the establishment of insurance funds. Each group is seeking to gain the lead over the others and to obtain a preponderant influence, and is endeavouring to affiliate the largest possible number of insured persons in a system of funds corresponding to its own social, economic, denominational, or political views. The outcome of this competition will probably be to cover the whole country with numerous systems of departmental, regional, national and even occupational or corporative funds.

However commendable the vigour and enthusiasm of the organisations concerned may be, there are obviously grounds for fearing that a certain amount of energy will be wasted, that there will be too many funds with a small membership and that administration will be complicated and expensive. So the inadequacy of these funds would render extremely difficult any efficient organisation of the medical service or any rational territorial distribution of the preventive and curative institutions that the insurance funds will necessarily and shortly be called upon to set up.

As against this, the various measures being taken or which it is proposed to take show that the administration of the Act will not meet with any organised resistance except from the Communists and the medical profession. The propaganda now being carried on with a view to attracting insured persons to one or other of the various groups of funds cannot fail to arouse the interest of the wage-earners, and will therefore render valuable aid in overcoming, not the resistance, but the indifference, of the large masses of workers who at the present time belong to no social, industrial, or occupational organisation. All things considered, as far as administration is concerned, the Act has, on the whole, very fair prospects.

Germany has already reconstructed all the branches of its social insurance, which, having recovered from the consequences of the inflation, have now fresh tasks to perform. The importance of social insurance in the national life is continually increasing; the insurance institutions, their scope, their benefits and their resources are growing, and the protection of the health and livelihood of insured persons and their families is becoming more complete and more effective. The insurance system aims at scientific management with a view to restoring the maximum working capacity and productive power of national industry in exchange for the money which it demands from it. The study of the soundest economic principles applicable to social insurance is in the forefront of all the discussions and manifestations connected with social insurance.

Sickness insurance is the centre of interest from this point of view. It is the most important social institution, on account of the number of persons insured, which exceeds 20,000,000, of its resources, which in 1927 had already reached 1,700,000,000 marks, and of the scope of its medical service, which covers more than half the total population. According to a Government declaration in June 1928, it is essential to develop preventive work and raise the remunera-
tion limit, at present fixed at 3,600 marks per year, beyond which salaried employees are not to be subject to the obligation to insure against sickness. Other problems are occupying the attention of the public authorities, employers, workers, trade unions and medical associations: the organisation of sickness funds, their growing independence, the administration of benefits, and the question of defining the position of the doctor in sickness insurance. The whole complexity of modern social legislation appears in this discussion concerning the best method for protecting the health of the people.

In December 1928, accident insurance, which is compulsory and administered by trade corporations, was extended to certain classes of undertakings which hitherto were not included in the list specifying the undertakings liable for this form of insurance. The extension refers particularly to hospitals, sanatoria, technical and medical research laboratories, theatrical and concert undertakings, exhibitions, undertakings for the production, distribution and presentation of films, and broadcasting stations. It would seem that this extension will soon be followed by measures to render general the application of accident insurance. The Government will shortly lay before the Reichstag a Bill extending accident insurance to all undertakings and occupations not at present liable and will at the same time propose a reform of the system of benefits taking into account present day conditions of life.

The invalidity and old-age pensions for workers and for salaried employees have been increased by the Act of 29 March 1928, by which the contributions paid before the inflation are restored to their original value, and the allowances for children added to the basic pension are increased. In salaried employees' insurance, the limit of remuneration has been raised from 4,800 to 8,400 marks. At the same time, the picture presented by pensions insurance is not without its dark side. A memorandum submitted to the Reichstag in January 1929 points out that the absence of actuarial reserves, swallowed up by the inflation, will make itself felt in a few years and will necessitate a considerable increase in the contributions, which, unless the cost is to become prohibitive, cannot and should not be followed by an increase in the pensions.

Germany has already ratified all the Conventions on social insurance except that on workmen's compensation for accidents. As the Government has already been invited by the Reichstag to put forward as soon as possible a Bill for the extension of accident insurance to all undertakings and occupations not hitherto liable for it, there is good reason to hope that Germany will very shortly ratify this Convention too.

Only minor changes took place in social insurance matters in Great Britain during 1928, the main object of these changes being to adapt the system to the consequences of extensive unemployment. Thus the temporary measures (annually renewed for several years past) for allowing insured persons who were involuntarily unemployed to continue to enjoy benefits have been converted into permanent features of sickness and invalidity insurance. Unemployed workers will retain the right to receive, after ceasing to be employed and consequently to pay contributions, for twenty-one months at the normal rate, and, if unemployment continues, for a further period of one year at a reduced rate.

Despite the absence of important legislative reforms, very interesting discussions have taken place recently concerning the principles of the organisation of social insurance, and the methods of statements made by leaders of the Labour Party and of the Trade Union Congress and of the Trade Union Congress General Council. A former Minister of Labour, Mr. Tom Shaw, in an article which has created considerable stir, asserted that one of the first tasks of a Labour Government when it came into power would be to reorganise completely the British social insurance system, so as to unify the institutions and the benefits, without reference to the physical, economic or occupational origin of the risks. The Trades Union Congress for its part has instituted a special Social Insurance Department to guide the policy of the trade unions in these matters. The first activities of this Department have been devoted to the problem of workmen's compensation for accidents and for occupational diseases and have led to the introduction of compulsory insurance, particularly for children and for occupational origin of the risks. The Department has further tried to make clear to the workers how important it is for them to take an active share in the management of social insurance, and has emphasised the weakness of the trade union insurance funds, which have only a million and a half members out of fifteen millions. The trade unions have been invited to undertake energetic propaganda for winning members for the trade union insurance funds.

The idea of reorganisation and unification, which necessarily implies the disappearance of the existing institutions and the strengthening of the trade union funds, are naturally meeting with opposition from the approved societies created by the friendly societies and by the industrial insurance companies, which wish to safeguard their existence and their independence. It is obviously impossible to foresee the conditions and the limits within which the Labour Party would be able to carry
out these plans. But it is interesting to note these new aims and the present trend of opinion, which are after all very close to those of the important trade union organisations and the Labour Parties in continental Europe.

In Greece, the Government is engaged in creating a social insurance system, to be organised on a rational basis, so as to avoid a multiplicity of small funds with insufficient reserves and of doubtful stability. These objects are outlined in two Bills which were introduced by the Government in 1928.

The purpose of the first Bill is to transform the insurance fund for tobacco workers into a national institute for social insurance, which will administer compulsory insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age, and death for all workers.

The second Bill provides for a complete reform of accident insurance, which would be administered by a national fund. The scope of the scheme, the risks covered, and the system of benefits would be in complete harmony with the International Labour Conventions of 1925 on workmen's compensation for accidents and for occupational diseases.

In Hungary, industrial and commercial workers have recently been provided with an old-age and invalidity insurance scheme. This new branch of insurance utilises the machinery of the sickness and accident scheme in force since 1907. The primary funds entrusted with the administration of sickness insurance are at the same time the local offices of the workers' national insurance fund, which is responsible for the financial management.

The guiding principles underlying the new Hungarian Act are in agreement with the rules upon which most post-war legislation is based, i.e. compulsory insurance for every wage-earner who is in need of social protection, proportionality of contributions and benefits to the insured person's wages, sharing of the contribution by the employer and the insured person, grants from public funds to supplement the proceeds of contributions, guarantee of a minimum pension to insured persons who have completed the requisite qualifying period, increase of this pension in proportion to the amount and the duration of the contributions paid in on the insured persons' account.

Like sickness insurance, invalidity and old-age insurance covers wage-earners in industry and commerce, including transport undertakings, or more than a million workers. Salaried employees in industry and commerce are incorporated in the general scheme, but due account is taken of their special requirements. By means of a supplementary contribution they are assured of a real survivors' insurance scheme as well as the grant of a pension under conditions more favourable than those for other insured persons.

Hungary has already ratified the Convention respecting sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants. Agricultural workers still remain outside the scope of the sickness insurance scheme and of the reform referred to above, but a special agricultural insurance scheme is now under consideration.

In Italy, the Government has taken all the necessary steps for the application of the compulsory Anti-Tuberculosis Insurance Act, which was to have come into force on 1 January 1929. With the assistance of the trade union federations concerned, it has drawn up an important Act for the insurance of seamen and airmen. It has also undertaken the reform of the system of benefits for invalidity and old-age pensions, at the same time as it proceeded with the preparatory work for the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance.

The Sickness Insurance Act for seamen and airmen involves the institution of a national sickness insurance and social assistance fund, managed by representatives of the State, the insured persons and the shipowners. This fund will not only administer the insurance benefits in the strict sense of the term, but also the benefits due to seamen by shipowners in virtue of the Commercial Code. The principle of compulsory insurance is extended to all risks, while in every other country the shipowners remain individually responsible, and free to contract or not with an insurance institution.

The benefits under the compulsory invalidity and old-age insurance system have been considerably increased without raising the contributions, thanks to a surplus in the National Fund, resulting from a higher rate of interest on investments than was anticipated, and a lower rate of mortality than had been adopted in calculating the financial basis of the system on its inception.

Marriage insurance has also been improved and extended: the lump sum benefit on confinement has been increased from 100 to 150 lire. Inability to work on account of maternity will entitle the woman to unemployment benefit; and maternity insurance will be extended to women employed in commerce and in industrial administrative posts.

As regards sickness insurance, the rules and methods of organisation are gradually being worked out. It would appear that the principles of compulsion and management by public bodies on which employers and wage-earners are jointly represented have been definitely approved. Moreover, it seems that the cost of sickness insurance is to be covered by equal contributions from employers and insured persons. On the whole the work of the
Sickness Insurance Committee appears to be sufficiently advanced to make it possible to put a Government Bill before the Chamber of Deputies at an early date.

In Japan, Government action has centred on the application of the Sickness Insurance Act and the extension of social insurance to fresh categories of wage-earners.

Just as in other countries, the organisation of the medical service for insurance purposes has raised difficulties. Doubtless, the obstacles met with in Japan are rather more considerable because the authorities entrusted with the drafting and application of the Act did not have the experience of existing voluntary insurance institutions to guide them. The majority of the persons covered were in the habit of calling in the doctor only in exceptional circumstances before the insurance system was instituted, but now the free benefits have led to a considerable increase in the number of medical visits. The doctors' fees are paid out of a fund of fixed amount, based on the number of insured persons, but the unexpected frequency with which the doctor is called in has upset the basis of calculation of the fees. The doctors complain of the lack of proportion between their fees and the increased amount of work imposed on them, while insured patients declare that they do not receive all the attention to which they are entitled. The Government wishes to avoid these difficulties, and to make certain under the best possible conditions that the Act should be adapted to the capacity and real needs of the population, and has therefore put forward a Bill limiting the right to free medical attention in the case of insured persons whose disease does not involve loss of earning capacity or results from immorality. The Bill also sets up a system of medical supervision to prevent abuses of any kind by the insured persons or by the doctors.

The measures under consideration for extending the scope of social insurance are connected both with the system of workmen's compensation for accidents and sickness insurance. These two sets of legislation have indeed one common characteristic, in that they cover only workers whose occupation presents special risks: miners, workers in dangerous industries, and undertakings employing more than ten persons. The workmen's compensation scheme is based on the principle of the employers' liability, but the benefits for sickness insurance cover all cases of temporary incapacity whether resulting from illness or from an industrial accident. Compulsory sickness insurance is financed by a triple contribution from the State, the insured persons and their employers. It is administered partly by the workers' funds and partly by organisations managed by the State.

One of the Bills provides for the institution of a complete system of social insurance for seamen. The system proposed would be entirely independent of what already exists, and would cover deaths, accidents, invalidity and death (survivors' pensions). All risks, occupational or otherwise, would be included, but the benefits would be 50 per cent. higher when they were granted on account of an occupational disease or accident. A triple contribution would meet the cost of applying the Act, which would be administered by an independent organisation.

The second Bill aims simply at extending the principle of the individual responsibility of employers in case of industrial accident to dangerous undertakings other than factories or mines, that is to say, land transport undertakings, public works and the building industry. The extension would be limited to undertakings employing more than ten workers. Although the employers have always shown a lively appreciation with regard to compulsory insurance, on this occasion they have adopted a different attitude and have requested that the risks which are to be covered should be dealt with by a system of compulsory insurance. The consequence of this would be to break away from the generally accepted principle of the responsibility of the head of the undertaking for occupational risks, and to have this burden borne jointly by the employers, the wage-earners and the State. Such a solution is bound to meet with very strong resistance and the Government considers that it will be impossible for it to accept such a redistribution of the cost.

In Latvia, where the financial resources of the sickness funds are derived from contributions payable in equal parts by the insured persons, the employers and the Government, the proposal of the Ministry of Social Welfare for a reduction of the Treasury grant has aroused lively opposition among the insured persons and the trade unions. The chief plea of the supporters of the proposal is that it is necessary to arrive at a more equitable distribution of the sums placed at the disposal of the provident institutions. They argue that the saving which the Government would effect on the sickness insurance contributions would allow of the introduction of new insurance schemes, for example unemployment insurance. The insurance institutions and the trade unions reply that in Latvia sickness insurance performs the functions that in other countries devolve, at least in part, on invalidity and old-age insurance; and that if the financial resources of the funds were reduced, the medical service for insured persons and their families would be affected. In the opinion of the organisations referred to, real economy
in expenditure on sickness insurance can only be effected through an improvement in the standard of living of the working classes and an advance in legislation for the protection of the worker.

In Lithuania, the principal event of the year, in so far as social policy is concerned, was the entry into force of the Compulsory Sickness Insurance Act of 1925, which applies to all wage earners except agricultural workers.

The local funds derive their financial resources from the contributions of insured persons and employers, the Government contributing to maternity benefit only. These funds have now been set up and have begun their work by drawing up agreements with the medical profession.

The chief events of 1928 in the Netherlands were: the publication of a scheme for the reform of sickness insurance, the entry into force of amendments to accident insurance legislation, and a Bill raising the wage limits for invalidity insurance.

The 1913 Act establishing compulsory sickness insurance, which has hitherto remained inoperative, has formed the subject of numerous amending proposals during the last fifteen years, but none of them has been carried into effect. The new Government Bill aims at the total reorganisation of the scheme. It provides that the administration of the insurance, a much discussed matter, shall be in the hands of the Government and special occupational organisations set up by employers' associations and trade unions.

In Norway, the policy of economy in sickness insurance inaugurated by the Government in 1927 has been still more accentuated during the past year. The last year's Report refers was made to two characteristic events: the introduction of a new rate for refunding medical and travelling expenses, and the appointment of a committee of experts to study further economies.

The work of this committee resulted in the drafting of a Bill which Parliament has passed with certain amendments in details. The expenditure of the insurance funds is being reduced by approximately 12 per cent., chiefly by abolishing dental benefit and by a general cut in cash benefits. This cut is effected by a new arrangement of wage classes, unfavourable to the better-paid workers, and by the assignment of workers with no family responsibilities to classes below those corresponding to their actual wages.

In Poland, insurance plays a large part in industrial and social life. The various schemes of workers' insurance have been firmly established for some time past; they are constantly enlarging their sphere of action and are adapting themselves for integration into a unified system covering all the risks attending the life of the workers. Salaried employees have been included in a special system of invalidity and old-age insurance since the beginning of 1928.

The sickness insurance scheme, which has long been uniform in all parts of the country, grants allowances in respect of wages lost owing to sickness, and provides medical aid for nearly 5,000,000 insured persons and the members of their families. In the course of a few years, the sickness funds, which are organised on a territorial basis and include insured persons in all occupations, have succeeded in creating a network of medical aid institutions, general and special dispensaries, nursing and curative establishments, pharmacies and laboratories. The results of this work will be of the greatest benefit to the health of the nation.

The trade association insurance scheme for industrial accidents, which, except for a few classes of agricultural undertakings, includes all undertakings in which wage-earners are employed, is endeavouring to adjust its pensions to present conditions.

The salaried employees' insurance scheme, the completion and coming into force of which were referred to in last year's Report, possesses an organisation comprising four main institutions, also on a territorial basis, which together form the national union of salaried employees' insurance institutions. Thanks to systematic preparation, the affiliation of insured persons has been rapidly accomplished. The invalidity and old-age scheme derives its income from contributions amounting to 8 per cent. of the wages of insured persons. In order to be entitled to a pension, an insured person must have contributed to the scheme for at least sixty months. Rights accrued and accruing with social insurance institutions before the coming into operation of the uniform system have been taken over, on terms very favourable to the pensioners and former insured persons, by the new territorial institutions. These institutions also administer the pensions to be granted to employees or former employees who were too old to complete the waiting period when the new system came into force.

The normal operation of the financial provisions underlying the Insurance Acts will furnish the insurance institutions with the reserves necessary to form a working capital, and, if need be, with actuarial reserves. These reserves are not allowed to lie idle, for they are used for investments, for loans made by the social insurance institutions. Under the aegis of the Ministry of Labour and Social Assistance, the institutions of the various branches of insurance intend to co-operate in an investment policy that will pay due regard to the general economic requirements of the country, as well as to the
need for investments of a social kind, such as workmen's dwellings, public health establishments, and social hygiene institutions.

In Rumania, the unification of social insurance schemes, which are based on different statutory provisions in the different provinces, is still under consideration. The accident insurance scheme, which is compulsory and on a guild basis throughout the Kingdom, is proceeding with the adjustment of its benefits to the cost of living. The organisation of the medical services of the social insurance schemes is being pursued in conformity with the principles laid down in 1922 for the unification of the Health Department. According to his place of residence, every insured person is allotted to a district provided with a dispensary, where consultations are given by a number of practitioners, specialists, and surgeons. The Central Social Insurance Fund devotes particular attention to medical organisation and with the resources at its disposal is developing a constructive programme, by means of which it is intended to complete the medical equipment of the country.

In Soviet Russia, the year 1928 has been chiefly a period of consolidation as far as social insurance is concerned. Following the readjustments in the system of benefits carried out in 1927 for financial reasons, and referred to in last year's Report, an attempt has been made to codify the regulations for all branches of insurance. This is made particularly clear by the fact that the Central Executive Committee of the Soviets of the R.F.S.S.R. has made amendments to a considerable number of the social insurance Articles of the Labour Code of 1922. The Central Council for Social Insurance, too, published, mostly at the beginning of the year, various regulations concerning the granting of insurance benefits for temporary incapacity, unemployment insurance and invalidity insurance. For invalidity and death benefits, the new regulations of 4 July 1928 impose, not only for old people, but also for other disabled persons, a qualifying period of from one to eight years, according to age. The number of pensioners has increased to 750,000, and the total amount paid in pensions to an average of from 22 to 23 roubles per month — i.e. approximately a third of the average wage for the whole of the Union.

The number of insured persons has continued to increase and reached an average of 9,700,000 out of 12,000,000 wage-earners in 1927-1928. Little progress is being made in the application of the scheme of social insurance for agricultural workers which was decided upon some time ago.

In addition to these measures of readjustment and consolidation, reference must be made to an innovation in old-age insurance. Previously pensions were provided only on proof of invalidity resulting from sickness, accident, or old age. The measures taken at the beginning of 1928 show a change of policy in these matters. A system of pensions has been established for workers in the textile industry, and it is proposed that it should be extended in 1929 to workers in the metal industry, mines and transport undertakings. The main principles of this type of insurance are: twenty-five years of service, sixty years of age for men, fifty-five for women; a pension equal to the second class of invalidity pensions, i.e. four-ninths of wages. This measure has been largely dictated by the necessity, in view of the present policy of rationalisation in industry and of extensive unemployment, of replacing the older workers, chiefly by young people.

An important change has also been made in administration, viz. the abolition of the central social insurance section for transport workers and the transfer of the special transport funds to the Central Administrative Office for Social Insurance. The question whether persons insured under the transport funds should be attached to the general system of social insurance has been debated at length during the year without, apparently, any decision being reached.

The question of whether insurance moneys should be used to provide medical aid again gave rise to considerable discussion at the eighth Trade Union Congress in December 1928, between the Commissary for Public Health, Mr. Semachko, and the Director of Social Insurance, Mr. Nemtchenko. In order to maintain closer supervision over medical treatment, so-called preventive medicine sections have been set up in the local funds to supervise the activities of the public health institutions and the working of medical aid in general, to take part in drawing up the public health budget in so far as it refers to insured persons, and to participate also in the work of the committees for recruiting doctors.

The financial position has two chief characteristics: (1) the increased budget resulting from a larger number of insured persons, and a higher average wage (the budget, which was 960,000,000 roubles for the financial year 1927-1928, is fixed at 1,127,000,000 roubles for 1928-1929); (2) considerable difficulties for the Treasury. This latter point is clearly brought out by the decision to institute a reserve fund, and by the fact that during the year it has been found necessary to make transfers from the fund for medical treatment to the fund for pensions and allowances. An obvious struggle is going on concerning the financial basis of insurance, and this struggle is at present concentrating on the question of contributions. For some years back there has been a pro-
gressive decrease in the average value of the contribution, which was fixed at 14 per cent. of the wage in 1925 by agreement between the trade unions and the economic authorities. The insurance authorities, energetically backed by the trade unions, e.g. at the eighth Trade Union Congress, maintain that with a reduction in this average to 12.7 per cent, the lowest limit has already been reached. They demand that a definite check should be put on the inclusion of fresh groups of insured persons in the scheme of lower contributions, created mainly in 1925 for the relief of State undertakings which were in a bad financial position. These demands are opposed all along the line by the State economic authorities. Many officials in these departments are not far from regarding insurance contributions as an almost unnecessary expense for industry. The Finance Commissariat, when considering the means of meeting the deficit in the budget for social insurance, appears even to have suggested that the allowances for temporary incapacity should be reduced to 75 per cent. of the wage; but this suggestion was not adopted, in view of the attitude of the trade unions, which regard as excessive the limitations imposed last year on extra benefits (allowance for baby linen, nursing bonus, general expenses).

During 1928 the Central Workers' Insurance Institute of the Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom continued its work of co-ordinating the management of the primary funds. These funds are responsible for the administration of sickness and accident benefit, and for the collection of contributions. The twenty-four regional institutions, together with their families, are entitled to insurance benefits, including free medical aid. Pending the enforcement of the invalidity and old-age insurance provisions, which have been in contemplation since 1925, the sickness insurance scheme is entrusted with the care of disabled workers.

For some considerable time past the Government of South Africa has been considering the possibility of instituting a general system of compulsory insurance with contributions from the insured persons and their employers. The first report of a committee appointed to study the basis of such a system emphasised the necessity for the immediate institution of a system of free pensions. In conformity with these recommendations an Act was promulgated in 1928 granting old age pensions at the age of sixty-five to Europeans and coloured persons, but excluding natives. The maximum pension is fixed at £30 per year for a European, and the means limit is higher for Europeans than for coloured persons.

The committee is pursuing its enquiry into the establishment of a system of sickness insurance and unemployment insurance.

An event of importance for Spain has been the recent issuing of a Decree-Act on compulsory maternity insurance. The scheme applies to all women, whether manual workers or not, covered by the compulsory workers' pensions scheme, whatever their nationality and personal status.

Benefits include: (1) free medical and pharmaceutical assistance, and (2) cash payments for six weeks after confinement. Insured persons are also entitled to cash payments for the six weeks prior to confinement, provided the doctor or midwife certify that confinement will probably take place within this period. Cash payments are at the rate of 15 pesetas for each quarterly maternity insurance contribution paid during the three years preceding the first week's absence from work, whether the confinement be the first or otherwise during this period.

The costs of the scheme are covered by various subsidies by the public authorities and by regular contributions from the insured and their employers of 7.5 pesetas per annum in each case. The State grants a subsidy of 50 pesetas for each confinement.

It should be noted that the new Decree-Act is in accord with the Washington Convention.

The Advisory Committee of the General Navigation Office has approved the scheme drafted by its sub-committee for the institution of a Provident and Insurance Fund for Invalidity, Old Age and Death for Seamen.

The Spanish labour world took up a very definite position on the general problem of social insurance at the Trade Union Congress (10 September 1928). The establishment of a modern system of social insurance is now the main point of its new programme of action.

In Sweden, public opinion is still preoccupied with the problem of sickness insurance. Since no new proposals have been made in Parliament, the nature of the future reform of the voluntary subsidised insurance in force, which appears to be decidedly inadequate, is a matter for conjecture. The Riksdag has rejected a Social-Democrat motion in favour of an official enquiry as to the possibility of introducing a compulsory insurance scheme in the near future; and, at the instance of the Government, decided to postpone ratification of the 1927 Conventions. The General Union of Insurance Funds, with about 420,000 members, continues to conduct a vigorous campaign in support of the compulsory principle, which, in
its opinion, is alone capable of giving fully satisfactory results. The Union’s demands have the support of the Labour and Social Welfare Department.

Accident insurance and pension insurance have on many occasions been discussed in Parliament and in the Press. Among the most important decisions taken by the Riksdag may be mentioned the abolition of the waiting period of 35 days which had to precede the grant of benefits under the accident scheme, and of the appointment of a committee with instructions to make a thorough investigation into the working of pension insurance and its relationship with other branches of social insurance, especially sickness insurance.

Reference was made last year to the important preparatory work undertaken in Switzerland for the introduction of old-age and survivors’ insurance. This year these researches have led to concrete results. A very interesting Bill, drafted by the Federal Department for Public Economy, with the assistance of the Federal Office for Social Insurance, was published early in September 1928. According to this Bill insured persons, employers and municipal, cantonal and federal authorities, will all share in bearing the cost of insurance, which, it must be noted, will extend to the whole population. The adoption of such a system is explained by the fact that there is in Switzerland a large proportion of small independent workers, whose resources are generally no higher than those of wage-earners and who therefore have the same need of social insurance. The Government Bill provides that the benefits under the compulsory insurance system instituted by the Confederation may be considerably increased by means of supplementary cantonal insurance. This very interesting proposal will also make it possible to adapt the insurance benefits to the special needs of certain groups of the population in various parts of the country. By its essentially national character, the great number of persons covered and the important interests involved, this Government Bill lays the foundation of the most extensive scheme of national solidarity which the Swiss Confederation has ever undertaken.

Early in 1929 the Federal Council decided to convene in Zurich a national committee of experts on old-age and survivors’ insurance. The main task of this extra-Parliamentary committee will be to ascertain the opinion of the various groups and institutions concerned on the present provisions of the Bill and to draw up any useful suggestions. It should be added that in Government circles it is hoped that the Parliamentary discussion will be carried out sufficiently quickly for the Act to be put into force in 1932.

It is natural that public opinion should for the present be concerned chiefly with the realisation in the near future of this Government plan for old-age and survivors’ insurance; but it has by no means lost interest in the important problem of sickness insurance and the necessary administrative reform. As the result of contacts established between groups of the Swiss sickness funds and foreign institutions immediately after the International Labour Conference which dealt with sickness insurance, there has been a rapid evolution in the opinion of Swiss friendly societies in favour of the compulsory principle which is at the basis of the new international rules on sickness insurance. This important change is confirmed by the fact that most of the groups concerned now demand that the Confederation should immediately institute compulsory insurance.

In the United States of America, there were relatively few legislative measures in 1928: a Workmen’s Compensation Act in the Federal District of Columbia, and two Mothers’ Pensions Acts in the States of Kentucky and Mississippi respectively, but no new legislation at all on non-contributory old-age pensions. This scanty achievement is to a great extent explained by the fact that only nine State legislatures held regular sessions in 1928. In 1929, however, five new legislatures will be in session in forty States; and important legislation may be expected, especially on the subject of non-contributory old-age pensions, the movement in their favour being still very strong.

No new tendencies have been observed towards the institution of schemes of compulsory insurance against sickness, invalidity, and death. Generally speaking, the fact that legislatures do not intervene is put down to the existence of high wages and to the very great expansion of workers’ voluntary insurance in private companies. It is difficult to say, however, how much truth there is in this explanation, because in the United States comprehensive official statistics depicting operations of the many forms assumed by private insurance are wholly lacking. Nevertheless an attempt is made here to give an idea of the extent of these operations by means of an analysis of the few figures that are available.

The most important form of insurance offered to workers is the industrial insurance organised by the great commercial insurance companies, which is based on individual policies with reduced premiums payable in weekly instalments. The policies are of the endowment type and secure the payment of a lump sum at a certain age, or in the event of total permanent disablement, or at death. In the last case the purpose is to defray funeral expenses. In 1926, 72,000,000 policies were taken out in favour of 45
million persons (men, women and children) of whom 12,000,000 were adult workers. The average value of each policy is 190 dollars, an amount that could not be considered as really covering the risks of old age and invalidity, even to a slight extent. Industrial insurance indeed is hardly much more than insurance against funeral expenses; and even supposing that all the workers insured are wage-earners, it covers only a small fraction of the 30,000,000 workers employed in the United States.

Some commercial insurance companies frequently undertake, jointly with the employers, a special kind of insurance known as group insurance. Under this system an employer insures his entire staff at reduced rates with a commercial company, the cost of the premiums being equally divided between employer and workers. The object of the insurance is the payment of a lump sum in the event of death or total disablement. As a rule, policies of this kind are only issued in favour of workers who have been employed for a considerable length of time in the undertaking. The administration of the insurance is naturally in the hands of the insurance companies. About 6,000,000 workers have been covered by group insurance schemes, and the average sum insured per insured person in the case of death or disablement is 1,250 dollars. This is substantially less than the capitalisation value of the lowest invalidity pensions of the most modest European social insurance schemes, and, moreover, the system applies only to about one-fifth of the workers.

Then again, the employers prefer to organise their own insurance funds for their employees, and for some years past there has been a strong movement in the direction of establishing funds, membership of which is dependent upon the completion of a certain probationary period in the establishment. Benefits increase in proportion to length of service. The aim pursued here is to increase the stability of the staff by reducing the labour turnover. Under this system the employers set up two types of fund: establishment funds for sickness and disablement insurance and industrial pension funds for old age. The extent of the movement cannot be exactly indicated for the reason that only unofficial estimates are available. However, it is calculated that at the end of 1927 there existed about 1,000 establishment funds covering about 3,500,000 workers; and 500 industrial pension funds, covering about 4,000,000 workers—two-thirds of whom serve railways and other large public utility undertakings—or 11 or 12 per cent. of all wage-earners.

The trade unions are extremely hostile to any kind of employer’s fund; they look upon these funds as a means whereby the employers are enabled to keep the working classes in their power. In order to maintain their membership and to gain new recruits, the trade unions have set up their own funds, known as union funds. At the end of 1927, ninety-six unions had established funds covering one or several risks; sixty-one unions allowed funeral benefit to an average amount of 200 dollars on the death of an insured person; and thirteen unions paid sick benefit at the rate of 5 dollars a week for thirteen weeks, as well as a lump sum varying from 50 to 800 dollars in the event of disablement. There are no precise figures for the membership of the union funds; but since the total number of trade unionists does not exceed 4,000,000, and since some of them are not insured, the total membership certainly does not attain to 10 per cent. of the general body of workers. All things considered, the movement is a very small one.

On the whole, notwithstanding high wages, the magnitude of the industrial business of the commercial insurance companies with their attempts at popular insurance, and the achievements of the employers and the trade unions, it would appear that the risks to which American workers are exposed are covered to a smaller extent than is the case with European workers. The latter are in the enjoyment of social insurance schemes applying to 60, 75, 80, or even 90 per cent. of their numbers, and granting not only substantial allowances and pensions, but also medical benefits furnished by a network of preventive and curative institutions—a network, it may be added, that is steadily becoming more adequate and more varied.

In Uruguay, old-age insurance continues to take the first place, not only in the minds of the masses of the workers, but also in Parliament and in the Government. In 1928 the most striking fact has been the extension of the activities of the National Pensions Fund for Salaried Employees and Workers in the Public Services to other groups of wage earners: journalists, salaried employees in the graphic arts, etc. These various extensions appear to cover the better organised occupations, those more able to defend their claims, and to obtain sufficiently high wages to enable them to pay insurance contributions.

136. **Bilateral Treaties between States.** Further diplomatic measures were taken during 1928, with substantial results for concluding bilateral treaties between States in order to lessen or abolish the limitations and restrictions on the rights of foreign workers which exist in many national systems of social insurance.

As regards accident insurance, two fresh treaties have been concluded between
Argentina on the one hand, and Sweden (14 May 1928) and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom (8 October 1928) on the other. Other treaties concluded previously have been likewise brought into force: Agreement between Germany and Finland dated 18 June 1928: Convention of October 1926 between Denmark and the Netherlands; Nettuno Agreement of July 1925 between Italy and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom; Germano-Polish Treaty on seasonal agricultural emigration of November 1927 which, while not ratified, was provisionally put into force for the year 1928. All these treaties have similar aims and are based on very similar principles: equality of treatment for national and foreign workers, abolition of the condition of residence in the debtor country for the foreign worker and his representatives, abolition of the compulsory conversion of stock into capital when the beneficiaries leave the debtor country, and regulation of administrative co-operation between insurance institutions in the two countries for deciding claims and paying benefits.

On sickness insurance no new treaty has been concluded. This is by no means surprising, since there are practically no national systems of legislation which impose any special conditions on foreign workers as regards either admission to insurance or the right to benefits. There are still, however, a few restrictions which may affect certain classes of workers, in particular, seasonal and frontier workers who are employed in one country and reside in another. Two treaties which came into force in 1928 deal with these difficulties. The Nettuno Agreement between Italy and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom requires equality of treatment between national and foreign workers for admission to sickness insurance, provisions of the periods spent in either country are to be counted together for the award of benefits and regulates the conditions under which institutions in the debtor country may grant benefits to frontier workers through institutions in the country of residence or are permitted to exercise their activities directly outside their own frontiers. The Germano-Polish Agreement of 1927 on seasonal agricultural emigration admits Polish workers to the benefits of German sickness insurance.

In insurance for invalidity, old age and death, there is less to report. No new treaty has been concluded and only one older treaty came into force in 1928, viz. the Nettuno Agreement between Italy and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Nevertheless, workers moving from one country to another may find themselves deprived of all their rights to an invalidity or old-age pension on account of the conditions laid down in national systems of legislation which provide for qualifying periods (minimum period of membership of an insurance fund or payment of a certain number of contributions), frequently of considerable length. Thus, a worker who has been insured for ten years in one country and fifteen years in another may find himself subject to the strict application of the qualifying period prescribed by the legislation of the latter country in which he is employed at the moment of being incapacitated through invalidity or old age and may have no right to a pension although he has paid contributions for twenty-five years to various insurance institutions.

While this situation is intolerable, there are very few treaties between States for mitigating or abolishing this loss of rights which affects foreign workers. The few existing treaties (Franco-Italian Treaty of 30 September 1919, Franco-Belgian Convention of 21 May 1927, Franco-Polish Convention of 14 October 1920, Italo-Luxemburg Treaty of 11 November 1920, and the Nettuno Agreement between Italy and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom) are moreover, based on similar principles. In determining the right to an invalidity or old-age pension, each country takes into consideration the total service or the total contributions paid in both countries; and the insured person, when entitled to an invalidity or old-age pension, receives two proportionate pensions, paid by each of the States in which he has worked according to the provisions of their national legislation.

This system of adding up the qualifying periods and granting a double pension involves a considerable improvement in the position of wage-earners who have worked in several countries, but at the same time it is open to serious criticism. In fact, as there are considerable differences between national systems of legislation, the two invalidity and old-age pensions may be paid at different times and under different conditions. The most serious difficulties are connected with the various age limits giving the right to an old-age pension and the numerous different definitions of invalidity entitling to a pension.

The insufficiency of the bilateral treaties was emphasised in a Resolution put forward by Mr. Mertens, Belgian workers' delegate, and by the Government and the Workers' Delegations for Uruguay at the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference (1927). This Resolution requested the Governing Body to include in the Agenda of an early Session of the Conference "either before or at the same time as the general question of old-age, invalidity and widows' and orphans' insurance, the question of the maintenance of the right to pension of workers proceeding from one country to another". In March 1928 the Belgian Government brought to the notice of the Governing Body the same problem of the maintenance of pension rights for
miners, and the very urgent necessity for a solution of this problem was emphasised by the International Federation of Christian Miners in a note sent to the Office in May of the same year. The Havana Migration Conference, too, expressed the wish that the question of the measures necessary to ensure the benefits of social insurance and especially of invalidity and old-age insurance for workers employed successively in different countries should be placed on the Agenda of an early Session of the International Labour Conference.

The Office and the Governing Body are fully aware of the importance and complexity of the problem. In compliance with the instructions of the Governing Body, the Office, with the assistance of technical experts, has undertaken a study of the general problem of maintaining the pension rights of workers moving from one country to another, with a view to ascertaining what rules should be included in bilateral treaties in order to ensure a more effective protection of the wage-earner. But the chief difficulty lies in the divergences between national systems and in the fact that a solution can be arrived at unless uniformity is achieved. The Governing Body is accordingly considering the possibility of including the question of insurance against invalidity, old age and death in the Agenda of an early Session of the International Labour Conference, so that international Conventions may be drafted which, if ratified, will lead to the abolition of all or most of the existing difficulties.

187. Conclusions. — In spite of its brevity, the foregoing survey of international and national effort seems to show that the year 1928 has been a very fruitful one for social insurance, whether one regards the rich output of ideas, the broad scope of the schemes carried into effect or the variety and importance of the schemes in course of preparation.

The list of concrete achievements is highly satisfactory, even if it includes only the large-scale reforms and omits the numerous and substantial amendments effected in existing schemes. France has adopted a large scheme of compulsory insurance covering the risks of sickness, maternity, invalidity and old age, and applying to the entire body of workers in receipt of small wages. Austria has introduced on behalf of agricultural wage-earners a federal scheme of compulsory insurance against accidents, sickness, invalidity, old age and death. In Hungary, insurance against invalidity and old age has been organised for workers in industry and commerce. Italy has just established a national fund for the compulsory sickness insurance of seamen and airmen. And South Africa has put into operation an Act to provide non-contributory old-age pensions.

An enumeration of the schemes in preparation is more imposing still, even if only the projects sponsored by the Governments are taken into account. In Australia, a great scheme of compulsory insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age and death has been laid before Parliament. In Belgium, a committee appointed by the Minister of Labour is working on a Bill concerning compulsory insurance against sickness and invalidity. Estonia is considering extending the scope of sickness insurance so as to include wage-earners in commerce. The Finnish Government has introduced two Bills for the establishment of compulsory insurance against sickness and against invalidity and old age respectively. The Greek Government has begun to draft one law concerning compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases and another law for the creation of a national fund for insurance against invalidity, old age and death. In Hungary, it has been decided to establish a complete system of social insurance for agricultural wage-earners. A committee appointed in Italy to draw up a plan of compulsory sickness insurance is making progress with its task, and recently the Chief of the Government has pronounced in favour of the principle of compulsory insurance. The Japanese Government has in preparation a Bill for the compulsory insurance of seamen against all occupational and social risks and another Bill concerning compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases applicable to fresh branches of economic activity. Finally, the Netherlands Government has introduced a Compulsory Insurance Bill, discussion upon which is likely to begin in the near future.

The first conclusion which can be drawn from this enumeration is that without any doubt the principle of compulsory insurance is making remarkable progress, being adopted every year by more countries and being applied to new branches of economic activity; it is on the way to universal adoption, which will mean that the whole of the wage-earning class will be protected against all the occupational and social risks.

The laws concerning workmen's compensation and industrial accident insurance are developing but slowly and exhibit in many countries the strong influence of the methods and traditions of commercial insurance. The workers' organisations, however, are exerting an ever-growing pressure to secure in this branch a scheme of insurance which shall be genuinely social in its scope, management and benefits: compulsory insurance for all employers; extension of the scope to include all wage-earners, and agricultural wage-earners in particular; administration by social institutions in which the workers participate, to the exclusion of commercial companies; substitution.
of pensions proportional to wages for lump sums; the provision of medical benefit; the supply and periodical renewal of artificial limbs. The majority of recent laws and Bills are in conformity with this programme, which is also that of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted in 1925 by the International Labour Conference.

Sickness insurance is steadily being converted into health insurance, i.e. a scheme whose purpose is not only to indemnify and care for the sick but also to organise preventive measures. Sickness funds are developing their medical and drug benefits, improving their sickness statistics in order to determine the causes of disease, and creating curative and preventive institutions (dispensaries, clinics, sanatoria, etc.) in order to place at the disposal of insured persons and doctors all the means of diagnosis and treatment which modern technique and science can provide.

Slowly but irresistibly the development of the medical service and the health institutions of social insurance is causing a change in the traditional medical practices which have grown up on a basis of consultation at the doctor's surgery and visits to the home of the patient. All this effort to direct medicine towards social purposes is not being pursued without resistance on the part of the doctors, who are alarmed at the large scale of the movement, and, fearing that they may be formed into a public service, are organising themselves to defend their independence and their interests. The difference of outlook is sometimes very sharp as between medical associations and sickness funds on matters such as the choice of doctor by the insured, medical secrecy, the amount and method of payment of remuneration, and the organisation of health institutions, so that frequently, at the very moment when great schemes of compulsory insurance are to be put into operation, the struggle is very acute. In spite of these difficulties, however, the practice of concluding collective agreements between sickness funds and medical associations (or national agreements as in Great Britain) is becoming generally accepted, for experience shows that distrust is unjustified and that differences can be reconciled. In fine, as the general interest requires, social insurance is showing itself more and more capable of overcoming obstacles and of developing its medical benefits, health institutions and preventive activity.

In insurance against invalidity, old age and death progress is being made with the restoration of the value of pensions and the building up afresh of the reserves destroyed by inflation in a number of countries. The financial system of accumulation seems to remain in favour with many actuaries and legislators, in spite of the uncertainty concerning the probable rates of interest during the next thirty or forty years and the increase in the expectation of life, with the consequent prolongation of pension payments.

In proportion as insurance laws and institutions multiply, the need for unification and co-ordination becomes increasingly evident. The plans for scientific organisation which are put forward by the experts meet, however, with opposition, on the one hand from existing institutions menaced with abolition, and on the other hand from the trade organisations which demand special schemes and institutions of their own. Nevertheless there has been encouraging progress. The new French and Hungarian laws and the Australian and Greek Bills have a unitary basis and make for the creation of a single system of institutions for all risks and all workers. The same tendency towards unification, limited however to a certain industry, or branch of economic activity, can be seen in the case of the Hungarian insurance of agricultural workers and the Japanese seamen's insurance bill.

A final remark may be made concerning the contribution of the International Labour Organisation to the development of social insurance. It may be said without exaggeration that the Organisation has had some part in all the great reforms recently accomplished and is sharing in the preparation of most of the important Bills at present being elaborated. Governments, reporters of Parliamentary commissions, employers' organisations, trade unions, insurance institutions and their national and international unions, and medical associations take into consideration the international Conventions, utilise and quote from the Office's publications, and seek information and sometimes even advice from the Office. Thus there is growing up the practice of regular collaboration, useful at once for the organisations and individuals, to whom national experience is made available by the Office, and for the Office itself, which thereby is enabled to follow the movement of ideas and changing requirements, and so to direct its work and activity with more precision and certainly.
III. Wages

138.—The International Labour Organisation has been slow in tackling the wages problem which, though of vital importance, requires to be delicately handled. Nevertheless, it may claim to have been the moving spirit behind the action taken during recent years by way of studies and enquiries with a view to practical results. Undoubtedly, this action is still tentative, especially as the wages question has now come to the forefront among industrial problems. But the very delicacy of the problem, the extent of the effects which particular solutions may have, and the importance which the growing authority of the Organisation may give to any solutions which it considers—all make it advisable for the Office to proceed slowly, though steadily, in this field which has hardly yet been more than cleared.

Reference has already been made in several parts of this Report to the doctrine of high wages advocated by American industrialists. There has been considerable discussion in the European industrial world on this burning question. One party maintains that high wages are the best means of increasing the efficiency of the worker and consequently of giving fresh vigour to the whole industrial organisation; they alone can open up for every national industry a sufficiently wide home market, and they therefore form the basis of all national economic prosperity. Others consider that high wages are impossible except in countries which have a large supply of raw materials, and so can devote a considerable proportion of the cost price of all products to the payment of wages, or again in countries which, having a very small industrial population and a scientifically organised industry based on the intensive use of machinery, must and can be content with a small supply of labour and can consequently pay higher wages. In other words, the members of this group consider that a high wage policy is applicable not when economic development is beginning but when it is in full swing. It is not the function or the intention of the Office to take part in this discussion on theories and principles, however liberal they may be, but it would be glad to make a definite study of the facts, in an endeavour to estimate the results obtained and the possibilities of carrying out a policy of high wages, without, however, indulging in mere utopian dreams or pure criticism. It is hoped that it may perhaps be possible to inform the Conference of the first results of these studies in next year's Report.

139.—In spite of the support which the doctrine of high wages has won in Europe, it must be recognised that there are still in many countries groups of workers whose wages are unduly low in relation to the standard of living of the country.

With a view to an improvement in these conditions the International Labour Conference in 1928 adopted a Draft Convention and a Recommendation on the subject of minimum wage-fixing machinery. Countries which ratify this Draft Convention and apply minimum wage-fixing machinery on the lines laid down will be helping to improve the wage situation of certain classes of their workers. It is too early as yet to report any ratifications of the Minimum Wage Convention, but it has already stimulated the preparation of measures to apply its principles. The following table already gives some encouraging information as to the first effects of the Convention and Recommendation adopted by the Conference last year.

CONVENTION CONCERNING THE CREATION OF MINIMUM WAGE-FIXING MACHINERY (1928)

(a) Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted to the competent Government bodies for consideration.
Czechoslovakia: Submitted to the Ministries concerned for preparatory enquiry.
France: Bill proposing ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1929.
Germany: Adopted by the Reichsrat on 14 March 1929.
Lithuania: Submitted to the competent authorities to be drafted as a Bill or for other measures to be taken.
Luxembourg: Submitted for consideration by the authorities and the occupational organisations.
Norway: Report of the Government submitted to the Storting on 1 March 1929 proposing that the question of ratification be adjourned till 1933, since the existing legislation in this sphere is provisional and is due to expire in 1933.
Rumania: Submitted to Parliament in February 1929; it may be ratified when the economic position of the country permits the introduction of the necessary legislative reforms.
South Africa: Submitted to Parliament on 28 January 1929.
Sweden: Submitted to Parliament on 7 March 1928; the Government stated that there was no necessity to adopt the Draft Convention at the moment.
Switzerland: Report of the Federal Council to the Federal Assembly dated 13 December 1928, stating that ratification cannot take place until the question has been dealt with by federal legislation.
France: Bill for the purpose of amending section 1 of the first chapter of Part III of Book I of the Labour and Social Welfare Code (wages of workers engaged in home work in the clothing industry) adopted by the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate in December 1928.


RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE APPLICATION OF MINIMUM WAGE-FIXING MACHINERY (1929)

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Lithuania: Submitted to the competent authorities to be drafted as an Act or for other measures to be taken (26 January 1929).

Other Information

Colombia: Submitted for consideration by the competent Government bodies.

Czechoslovakia: Submitted to the Ministries concerned for a preparatory enquiry.

France: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 10 January 1929.

Germany: Submitted to the Reichsrat in March 1929.

Luxembourg: Submitted for consideration by the authorities and the occupational organisations.

Norway: Submitted to the Storting (cf. under Draft Convention).

Poland: The necessary work has been carried out for its submission to the Ministerial Council.

South Africa: Submitted to Parliament on 28 January 1929.

Sweden: Submitted to Parliament on 7 March 1929; it does not seem to demand that any action should be taken by Sweden.

Switzerland: Report of 13 December 1928 from the Federal Council to the Federal Assembly pointing out that the attitude to be taken to this Recommendation will be discussed when the legislative studies with regard to home work have been concluded.

The measures taken by Governments for the purpose of fixing a minimum wage have generally aimed at preventing exceptionally low wages in certain branches of industry, although in a small number of countries wages are fixed by arbitration boards provided by law in order to maintain industrial peace. The measures already taken for this purpose by various Governments were examined in detail in the Grey Report on Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery submitted to the Tenth Session of the Conference in 1927. In every country, however, there is a vast industrial field in which wages are determined by individual or collective agreements. The scope of these collective agreements generally exceeds the number of workers actually covered. In fact, many workers to whom the provisions of collective agreements do not apply are paid at similar rates to those provided in these agreements.

One of the chief problems in the determination of rates of wages and of other labour conditions which are settled by collective agreements is that of the area covered by these agreements. During recent years a movement has been noted in a certain number of countries favouring the conclusion of national agreements. There is no decrease in the number of such agreements, but in some cases they have been replaced by separate agreements for various districts. When the degree of organisation of employers and workers makes it possible, national agreements seem to be more advantageous. It does not necessarily follow that the wages fixed by these agreements are uniform for the whole country; numerous national agreements provide varying rates for different districts. The advantage of this type of agreement is that it gives a general view of the economic conditions in industry and prevents unduly low rates of wages in certain districts. At the same time, it enables unfair competition between rates of wages in different districts to be abolished.

When wages are fixed according to some system laid down by statute or by the usual procedure of collective agreements, the methods and bases which are to be used for fixing the rates are freely discussed. It is a truism that wages must be fixed according to what industry can pay. This is the reason for the considerable differences which have been noticeable in certain countries during recent years between the wages paid in industries working for the home market and those open to foreign competition. There seems, however, to be a gradual tendency towards the removal of these differences as world economic conditions have become more stable and the effects of fluctuations in exchange rates have been disappearing. All the same, the principle of the capacity of industry to pay should generally be borne in mind as a basis for fixing wages, though this principle should not, of course, be treated as a means of prolonging the existence of badly managed undertakings or industries unsuited to the country, which pay wages far below the rates which the great majority of undertakings and industries can afford.

The worker's chief interest in the amount of his wage is its purchasing power. During the war and the first post-war years, when the level of prices in many countries was subject to rapid fluctuations, a sliding scale of wages was extensively employed in order to avoid as far as possible an undue decrease or increase in the purchasing power of the wages fixed by collective agreement, in proportion with the variation of the purchasing power of the currency. In more recent years this sliding scale system is much less frequently used on account of the relative stability of the level of prices in various countries. When price fluctuations are very slight, the system of the sliding scale of wages is of little value. It is rarely necessary, when monetary conditions are stable, to modify wage rates in harmony with fluctuations.
in the level of prices, and when the rates of wages in any industry are being revised it is generally preferable to take account of all the conditions and not only of fluctuations in the cost of living.

Apart from the question of the basis on which wages should be fixed, there is the further problem of the method of payment. In recent years, a tendency has been seen in many countries to extend the method of payment by piece work and various bonus systems in connection with rationalisation. The result of these systems seems to be an increase in earnings, but so far it is impossible to determine to what extent these increased earnings counterbalance the increase in unemployment and the increase in industrial accidents and diseases caused by the excessive speed at which work is performed. It is obvious that adequate protective measures must accompany the development of these systems.

The Office will continue to study the questions mentioned above, the successful solution of which is essential for any effective system of regulating wages.

140. — The system of family allowances added to the wages of workers with family responsibilities, whether in the form of cash payments or social relief, is still developing in certain countries, particularly Belgium and France. In others its application is being considered.

In the Commonwealth of Australia, where family allowances are granted to federal officials, a Royal Commission appointed in 1927 has carried out an exhaustive examination, with a view to extending the application of the principle of family allowances. The Office supplied this Commission with information regarding the systems in force in the chief countries of Europe. In the report which has just appeared the majority of the Commission is opposed to the adoption of a system of family allowances by the Australian Commonwealth or the States.

In the State of New South Wales, however, an Act of 1927 provides for the payment of allowances by means of a fund to which the employers pay a percentage of the total amount of wages. There have been certain difficulties in administering this Act and the method by which it is financed is to be studied afresh. The chief difficulty lies in the relationship between the payment of the allowances provided for by the Act and the amount of the basic wage. It has been said that if the allowance were granted for each child then the basic wage ought to provide exclusively for the needs of the husband and wife; the adoption of such a basis, in place of that which fixes a living wage for a husband and wife with family responsibilities, would result in lowering the standard of living of unmarried workers and married workers with no children. This reduction has been strongly opposed and the consequent dispute has not yet been settled. A further complication exists because many workers in this State are subject to the Federal provisions concerning the payment of wages and would not be affected by any change in the basis on which wages are fixed in New South Wales.

In Belgium and in France, family allowances are being more and more generally applied, largely under private initiative, and considerable numbers of workers in manufacturing industries are receiving the benefits of equalisation funds administered by the employers. Legislation generally restricts itself to stipulating that contracts for public works must provide for the payment of family allowances to all workers employed. An Act of this type has been in force in France for several years; in Belgium, a similar Act was promulgated on 14 April 1928 and came into force on 20 October 1928.

In Great Britain, the system of family allowances has been considered by the chief political parties, but so far there is no reason for expecting this principle to be applied on a large scale in the immediate future.

In New Zealand, the reports on the application of the Family Allowances Act of April 1927 show that during the first year of its application a sum of approximately £37,000 from the ordinary State revenues has been paid in allowances for approximately 16,000 children. The number of children and the amount of the allowances are lower than was expected, but it is presumed that they will increase in succeeding years.

The Office will continue to follow attentively, in collaboration with the Advisory Commission for the Protection and Welfare of Children and Young People (Child Welfare Committee), the development of the system of family allowances, and to provide all available information to the organisations concerned.

141. — In attempting, however, to deal with wages or family allowances within a country, whether by State-established machinery, collective agreements, or other means, the action to be taken must be considered in relation to the wages paid in other countries. In consequence of the direct or indirect reactions upon one another of wage levels in the different countries there is a great demand for accurate statistical information with regard to wage levels throughout the world, and the Office is being continually asked for
of considering how improvements in comparability may be secured. The Council appropriated certain funds for the purpose of an international meeting, and, in order to secure the collaboration of various countries, the Council invited competent persons in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy, to set up committees to undertake preparatory work and present reports. The Council also invited the collaboration of the International Labour Office in view of its special competence in these questions. The Office provided the accommodation and the first meeting was held in Geneva from January 11 to 16.

Representatives attended from the U. S. A., Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy, and the International Labour Office, and included economists, statisticians, officials and others interested in wage statistics. National reports were submitted describing the wage statistics of each of the countries represented, while the International Labour Office submitted a memorandum on the difficulties and methods of international wage comparison.

A Report of the Conference and the resolutions adopted were published in the International Labour Review for April 1929. It will be sufficient here to give a brief outline of the main results achieved. The most important was the adoption of a series of resolutions regarding the methods to be applied in compiling wage index numbers. These resolutions made a distinction between six different purposes for which index numbers could be drawn up and dealt in detail with the nature of the data, weighting methods and other statistical problems. It may be stated with confidence that such a complete and carefully considered series of resolutions on this technical subject has never before existed, and it may be hoped that these resolutions will be the foundation of the statistics in question. The Conference also drew up a plan for remodelling the reports submitted to it by the countries represented at the Conference, so as to make it possible to compare the data concerning wages contained in these reports and to enable the organisers of the Conference to draft a general report. The new reports are to show in all necessary detail the scope, origin, character and method of compilation of the rates of wages and earnings in each occupation or branch of industry. The adoption and improvement of the method suggested by the Conference would throw considerable light on the comparability of the data concerning wages in the most important countries. Finally, the Conference adopted a certain number of resolutions concerning the extension of the enquiry into real wages undertaken by the Office. The Conference considered that the value of these statistics could be increased by extending the number of occupations and localities covered and invited the Office to ask-

data as to the wages paid in different industries in the various countries.

There are three main types of investigation into wages statistics which the Office conducts: (1) the Office undertakes detailed research into wages in different countries and makes comparisons of the relative levels; (2) similar investigations are made into special industries; and (3) it collects and supplies information as to wages in different countries to governments, and qualified organisations or individuals who ask for such data for purposes of their own comparisons.

Among the first class are the international comparisons of real wages in various capital cities, which are published at intervals in the International Labour Review, and the special articles on wage movements in different countries published each month in the Review. Among the second class is the enquiry into wages and hours of work in the coal-mining industry in 1925, undertaken by the Office in consequence of a Resolution adopted by the Conference and now being repeated for 1927 at the request of the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations. Another enquiry was proposed by the Eleventh Session of the Conference in 1928 into wages and other conditions of labour in the textile industry, and the plan to be adopted in this enquiry is now under consideration by the Governing Body of the Office.

In the third class a steady stream of requests as to the wages paid in various industries and occupations in different countries comes to the Office from Governments, employers' and workers' organisations, research groups and individuals in all parts of the world. Some of these requests are concerned with only one or a few categories of workers in a given industry or branch of industry. Others are wider in their scope covering a given industry or several industries in all industrial countries.

142. — In making its own comparisons and in supplying information to individuals and organisations for the purpose of their comparisons, the Office is continually hampered by lack of comparability in the data available for the different countries. Some progress has been made as a result of the application in different countries of Resolutions adopted by the International Conferences of Labour Statisticians. During the present year a further attempt in the direction of a greater comparability of the wage statistics has been made as a result of the initiative of the Social Science Research Council (U. S. A.). In 1928 the Council decided to conduct an enquiry for the purpose of studying the nature of the wage data available in certain countries, examining the extent to which these data may be used for the purposes of international comparison, and
national authorities to supply the necessary additional information. The Conference also drew up a list of occupations which it seemed desirable to include. The Office has already taken steps to put this resolution into effect, and the countries which collaborate with it have been invited to supply the detailed information.

This Conference is one more witness to the ever-growing interest in the subject of wages. It is the duty of the Office to satisfy this interest to an increasing degree. International comparisons of wages, if they are to be accurate and clear, require considerably extended and more detailed enquiries. The enquiry into the relative standard of real wages in certain capitals which the Office, as has already been mentioned, has been undertaking at regular intervals since 1924, has aroused considerable interest, but its limited scope has been the subject of frequent criticism. Last year’s Report showed that the Office was anxious to develop this enquiry. Negotiations have already been entered into with the various Governments in order to prepare a joint plan of work, and it is hoped that in the very near future comparisons will be possible on a much wider basis, both as regards the number of occupations covered, the cities included and the commodities on which the calculation of the purchasing power of wages is based. In view of the extension of the enquiry, it has been decided to publish the results less frequently, and the Office has requested the countries concerned to provide the necessary information at half-yearly intervals instead of monthly or quarterly, as formerly.

Vocational Education

143. — Further action was taken in various countries during 1928 in regard to vocational education.

As regards vocational guidance, increasing endeavours have been made to improve the training of those responsible for this work.

In Czechoslovakia, the Central Organisation of Vocational Guidance Offices has announced the preparation of a very complete scheme, which will mean the gradual setting up of a whole network of vocational guidance offices throughout the Republic. At the same time, an Association for the Development of Vocational Guidance has been set up at Bratislava, which proposes to establish a central vocational guidance office for Slovakia.

In France, the National Institute of Vocational Guidance recently set up under the auspices of the Directorate of Technical Education proposes in the first place to “provide for the technical training of vocational guidance officers”, secondly, to organise research, and, thirdly, to set up an information centre.

In Poland, a “specialised” psycho-technical institute has been opened for the Warsaw railway system for examining candidates for positions on which the safety of the traffic depends. Similarly, in May last a psycho-technical laboratory was opened at Warsaw, for workers employed in aviation.

In Sweden, under a Royal Notification of 8 June 1928, which came into force on 1 July and amended a previous Noti-
fication relating to State subsidies for the public employment exchanges, subsidies may now also be obtained for facilitating vocational guidance and selection.

As regards apprenticeship and technical education, further legislation on this subject has been adopted or proposed in a number of countries.

In Belgium, the Minister of Agriculture submitted to the Senate on 23 February 1928 an Apprenticeship Bill for the purpose of “organising the training of apprentices in crafts and commerce by employers or their representatives”. A Royal Decree is to specify the trades to which this new measure, which makes apprenticeship contracts compulsory, will apply.

In Canada, the Ontario Parliament passed a Bill on 30 March 1928 concerning the training of apprentices in the building trades. If the system proves satisfactory in practice, it will be extended to other trades.

Two Acts relating to apprenticeship were adopted in France. The first, of 20 March 1928, deals with the apprenticeship contract, which it makes compulsory; the contract must be in writing and drawn up within a fortnight of the engagement of the apprentice. The second, promulgated on 21 March 1928, raises the age limit for apprenticeship from sixteen to eighteen years.

In Greece, the Ministry of National Economy has prepared a Bill on the whole question of vocational education. By a Decree published in the Official Gazette of 30 July 1928, the Greek Government laid down the methods of organisation and working of an important institution for vocational training which is to be known as the “Civitandis School of Arts and Crafts”.

In Italy, the regulations concerning vocational education were amended by the Legislative Decree of 17 June 1928, providing that all vocational schools without exception shall henceforth be under the control of the Ministry of Education. A General Directorate and a Supervisory Council for Technical and Vocational Training were also set up in the Ministry. On 5 December 1928, the Government approved a Bill proposed by the Minister of Education, providing for the co-ordination of all institutes and schools for technical education. In future the Minister of Education will organise secondary schools of a single type for vocational training, in which the pupils leaving elementary schools may be given the necessary training for the pursuit of various occupations in agriculture, industry or commerce.

In the Union of South Africa, on the initiative of the Ministry of Labour, a Bill was introduced in May 1928 for amending and extending the Apprenticeship Act of 1922. The new Act, which will be known as the “Apprenticeship (Amendment) Act 1928”, will come into force later.

In Spain, the Government has prepared new regulations relating to vocational training covering all the important aspects of the question: guidance, pre-apprenticeship, apprenticeship and technical instruction.

In Switzerland, the Federal Council submitted to the Federal Assembly on 9 November 1928 a Bill on vocational education, based on a draft prepared by the Federal Labour Office in 1924, which in the view of the authorities, constitutes the first step towards a complete system of legislation for arts and crafts.

Besides these numerous official activities for regulating the technical training of young persons to the best advantage, the same end is being pursued vigorously among all those directly concerned in the question, by means of conferences, the organisation of technical courses and schools, enquiries intended to bring out the necessity and nature of the reforms required, the publication of a large amount of literature, and, in particular, vocational monographs defining the special "requirements" of each trade. The following notes are of interest in this connection.

In Austria, considerable attention is being given to the systematic medical supervision of apprentices and the better organisation of vocational training.

In Belgium, a national railway school was founded in September 1928. The Department of Industry and Labour is making an enquiry among the heads of the principal educational institutions in the country "with a view to ascertaining the effects of compulsory education up to fourteen years of age, particularly from the point of view of technical education, the vocational guidance of apprentices, and industrial and commercial output."

In France, the number of technical courses is growing steadily, and the system of the apprenticeship tax is still being studied and improved. Under the auspices of the trade unions of the Paris district, an important conference on technical training was held on 2 December 1928, while the General Confederation of French Production organised a second Inter-Trade Conference on Apprenticeship (15-15 December).

In Germany, a Bill on vocational education submitted by the Cabinet to the
legislative authorities on 1 April 1927 is being actively discussed.

**Great Britain** is organising schools and courses for the promotion of vocational training in the flour-milling industry, mining, commerce, and salesmanship. The final results have been published of the important official enquiry undertaken among the trade unions and employers (to the number of 44,000) in 1925 and 1926 into the existing means for the technical training of skilled labour and the requirements of industry in this respect.

In **Switzerland**, the Bill referred to above is being studied and commented on in all the interested quarters.

It will thus be seen that in the matter of vocational education 1928 was a year of considerable activity and definite progress. There has been a pronounced tendency not to separate general education from technical education, a fact which, as in last year's Report, calls for special remark. The necessity for raising the school age was affirmed in different countries on various occasions. For example, in a communication to a meeting of the French Association for Social Progress, the General Director of Technical Education in France, Mr. Labbé, fully supported the proposal to raise the school-leaving age to fourteen years. Again, a special committee of the International Association for Social Progress, after consulting the International Labour Office, is making an enquiry into this question. The question was also raised, as has been seen, in connection with the enquiry being carried out by the Department of Industry and Labour in Belgium. An argument in favour of raising the school-leaving age appears to be the wish to delay entry into apprenticeship which is becoming apparent in certain industries and trades requiring skilled labour. This tendency is to be seen in the British enquiry.

This active movement and its useful, if partial, results are an encouragement to the Office to go ahead with its work of research and enquiry, and to see that the reports asked for by the Conference at its Session of 1927 are completed as soon as possible.

### Unemployment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1927</th>
<th>1928</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Australia</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of unemployed members of trade unions (average for the year)</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of unemployed members of trade unions (end of the year)</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Germany</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in receipt of assistance (average for the year)</td>
<td>857,000</td>
<td>800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in receipt of assistance (end of the year)</td>
<td>1,188,000</td>
<td>1,702,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Great Britain and Northern Ireland</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hungary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of unemployed members of trade unions (average for the year)</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of unemployed members of trade unions (end of the year)</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Latvia</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (average for the year)</td>
<td>3,100</td>
<td>4,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (end of the year)</td>
<td>6,600</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New Zealand</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>U. S. S. R.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (average for the first nine months)</td>
<td>1,259,900</td>
<td>1,464,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (end of September)</td>
<td>1,041,200</td>
<td>1,374,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Austria the average number of unemployed diminished slightly, but at the end of the year the situation was worse than it had been twelve months previously. The case was similar in proportion in Czechoslovakia, Estonia and Finland, but in Finland and Czechoslovakia unemployment is not acute.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1927</th>
<th>1928</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Austria</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in receipt of unemployment benefit (average for the year)</td>
<td>172,000</td>
<td>162,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in receipt of unemployment benefit (end of the year)</td>
<td>207,000</td>
<td>238,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 The figures given refer exclusively to unemployment insurance. Persons in receipt of the special assistance paid in times of crisis should also be included, the figures being as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Average for year</th>
<th>End of year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>177,000</td>
<td>158,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>172,000</td>
<td>125,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>1927</td>
<td>1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of December)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (average for the year)</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>2,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (end of the year)</td>
<td>4,400</td>
<td>7,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (average for the year)</td>
<td>1,900</td>
<td>1,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (end of the year)</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td>2,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (November)</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of unemployed trade union members (average for the year)</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of unemployed trade union members (end of the year)</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in receipt of assistance (average for the year)</td>
<td>34,000</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed in receipt of assistance (end of the year)</td>
<td>13,000</td>
<td>900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the register (average for the year)</td>
<td>373,000</td>
<td>365,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the register (end of the year)</td>
<td>554,000</td>
<td>391,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (average for the year)</td>
<td>169,000</td>
<td>126,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (end of the year)</td>
<td>165,000</td>
<td>128,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of employment (average for the year)</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>86.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index of employment (end of the year)</td>
<td>85.1</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the United States, the employment index of manufacturing industries showed a decrease so far as the average figure is concerned, but improved by the end of the year.

This index gives very little information concerning the unemployment situation, because fluctuations in employment in the manufacturing industries may be accompanied by very different fluctuations in other branches of activity (transport, public services, etc.). Since the beginning of 1928 the American Federation of Labor has published statistics based on the number of unemployed in a certain number of trade unions in different industries and localities. According to these figures, the proportion of unemployed, which was 18 per cent. in January, had fallen to 9 per cent. in August 1928.
145. — The following ratification measures have been taken on the Unemployment Convention adopted by the Conference in 1919 since last year’s Report.

**Colombia**: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.  
**Luxemburg**: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.  
**Uruguay**: Ratification approved by Parliament on 6 September 1929.

The above list may appear somewhat short in comparison with the corresponding list in previous Reports. Only measures actually dealing with ratification are mentioned. It is precisely because measures of application are becoming more numerous every year that a list of such measures can no longer be drawn up. Such a list would have consisted of a large number of laws, decrees and other regulations, not including similar measures taken in federated States by provincial or cantonal Governments, which would also have had to be mentioned. In proportion as the number of States which have ratified the Convention increases—and the Unemployment Convention has had more ratification than any of the others—it becomes more and more difficult to draw up a list of this kind. It is therefore thought desirable to mention among the measures taken during the year only the more important, and this is done in the following paragraphs, which review as usual the most striking features of the campaign against unemployment. The same observation applies of course to the Recommendation on unemployment, also adopted by the Conference in 1919.

**146. The development of unemployment insurance institutions.** — Although unfortunately it is not possible to record for 1928 the adoption of any new law setting up a system of unemployment insurance, it is satisfactory to note that the idea of insurance against this most serious of all the risks in the life of the worker has continued to develop and that in the near future new measures of a positive character will probably be adopted.

It may be noted in the first place that in those countries where unemployment insurance institutions exist, those institutions, although sometimes criticised by sections of the public whose knowledge of the facts is incomplete, have strengthened their position and that no Government contemplates the possibility of their suppression or even a restriction of their activities.

In Germany, as a result of the increase in the wage-earning population, the number of insured persons has increased by about half a million in the course of the year and now exceeds 17 millions. In Great Britain and Northern Ireland, although the increase was less, the number of insured persons increased by nearly 100,000, reaching a total of 11,881,500 in July 1928. The most interesting development of unemployment insurance took place in Switzerland, where compulsory unemployment insurance has made progress in cantonal legislation. In this case three more cantons (Zug, Uri and Schaffhausen) have adopted compulsory insurance in addition to the four (Basle Town, Glaris, Neuchatel and Soleure) in which it already existed. At the same time voluntary insurance has spread in a number of other cantons, so that with two or three exceptions all the Swiss cantons have now adopted laws providing within the terms of the Federal Act either for compulsory insurance or for assistance to voluntary insurance. Altogether unemployment insurance now includes in Switzerland about 268,000 workers, or more than one-third of the workers concerned. Reference may also be made to the slow but steady progress in voluntary insurance which has been made in France, where the number of insured persons during the first six months of 1928 reached 187,000. Although this is a very small proportion of the population, it nevertheless represents more than three times the number of insured persons in 1918. Active propaganda is carried on by the Ministry of Labour in favour of the creation of new insurance funds for the workers, and a Decree of 7 February 1928 established various new measures to increase the assistance given by the State to voluntary insurance. In particular, the rate of subsidies was increased to 40 per cent. of the amount of benefit distributed by the so-called federal funds and to 30 per cent. in the case of local funds. The maximum daily rate of benefit taken into account in calculating the subsidies was increased from 6 to 8 francs; and the maximum duration of the payment of benefit was increased from 60 to 120 days per year. However, the General Confederation of Labour has drawn up a draft compulsory insurance scheme which, while including the voluntary funds which are thus assisted, would cover all the wage-earners in industry, commerce and agriculture.

In the majority of countries in which unemployment insurance does not yet exist or is insufficiently developed, it may be noted that in 1928 the public authorities, the industrial associations and the political parties have continued to investigate the problem and have undertaken enquiries with a view to filling the serious gap caused in the social services as a whole by this absence or inadequacy of unemployment insurance.

In Australia, a Compulsory Insurance Bill similar to that in force since 1922 in Queensland was introduced in the Legislative Assembly of Victoria. It was passed by the Assembly and transmitted to the Legislative Council, but was then
dropped as the result of a change of Government. In Queensland, the Regulations of 7 June 1928 extended the scope of compulsory insurance to the clothing industries, and in order to remedy the unsatisfactory financial basis of the system, the contributions paid by the State, by the employers and by the workers have been increased from 4d. to 6d. per week.

In Canada, the House of Commons adopted on 21 March 1928 a resolution inviting the Committee on Industrial and International Relations to enquire into and report on unemployment insurance. On 6 July 1928 the Committee submitted a report which concluded by recognising that the necessity of providing some system of unemployment insurance would inevitably be felt before long. The Committee also accepted and endorsed the principle of unemployment insurance based on compulsory contributions by the State, the employer and the worker.

In Spain, the National Welfare Institute was instructed by a Royal Ordinance of 25 April 1928 to prepare a draft Bill on subsidies to unemployment insurance institutions. According to the preface, this system of subsidies would represent a step in the direction of compulsory insurance.

In Sweden, a Commission appointed by the Government to investigate the possible adoption of a system of unemployment insurance presented its report on 27 April 1928 accompanied by two draft Bills, one of which provided for compulsory insurance and the other for voluntary insurance. The question has not yet been discussed by Parliament, but it is recognised that the matter is becoming more and more urgent.

In the United States, although none of the numerous Bills which in recent years have been introduced into the Parliaments of several of the States has yet been adopted, it would seem that increased interest is being taken in the problem of unemployment insurance. Mr. Jacobstein, a representative of New York State, moved a resolution in the House of Representatives providing for the appointment of a commission of enquiry to collect full data in different countries concerning unemployment insurance and employment exchanges. Again, when the agreement between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and the Chicago Clothing Manufacturers' Association was renewed for a period of three years, the system of unemployment insurance set up in 1923 was maintained and enlarged. Finally, the important association known as the International Relations Counsellors is carrying on an extensive enquiry into the desirability of unemployment insurance, and for this purpose it sent to Europe three of its representatives who made a very careful study on the spot of the systems in force in Germany, Great Britain and in Switzerland.

In countries where unemployment insurance is already in existence on a wide basis, one of the most difficult problems which had to be faced last year as in previous years is the problem of prolonged unemployment, which obviously goes beyond the functions of an insurance institution as such. In several countries there are, in addition to the insurance institutions properly so called, systems of exceptional benefits set up to meet this contingency. In Austria, the amending Act of 20 December 1928 has continued the temporary measures adopted on this subject. In Czechoslovakia, special measures have been adopted to help unemployed persons in the linen and cotton industries situated in certain districts of North-Eastern Bohemia, where unemployment has been particularly severe. In Germany, two Ordinances of the Minister of Labour issued in August 1928 widened the scope of the special assistance in time of crisis (Krisenfursorge) and prolonged the period for which it is payable to 39 weeks. In cases of special hardship the period may be extended to 52 weeks provided that the unemployed persons in question are over 40 years of age. Thus, taking into account the 26 weeks for which unemployment insurance benefits are paid, such workers can in the most favourable cases receive relief for as much as 18 months. Similarly, in Poland the State has continued to help manual or professional workers suffering from prolonged unemployment.

As the result of the prolonged and acute unemployment in certain industries or in certain countries, measures providing for exceptional benefits—which mean relieving the permanent insurance system of the expenses of prolonged unemployment which it is unable to meet by transferring it to the general State budget—have become more general during recent years and the few provisions mentioned here are far from exhausting the list. The situation is somewhat similar in Great Britain, where unemployed persons who remain out of work for a longer period than that during which benefit is paid under the Insurance Act become a charge on the Boards of Guardians: but there is this difference that these local institutions may themselves, as for example in the mining districts where the most severe and prolonged unemployment is found at
the present time, become financially exhausted, thus rendering necessary the adoption of special measures on a national scale.

Another important problem in unemployment insurance, for the solution of which a number of legislative measures were adopted during the past year, is that of seasonal unemployment. In Germany, where the Act of 16 July 1927 authorises the national insurance institute to take special measures with regard to such unemployment, either by prolonging the waiting period of the seasonal by unemployed or in reducing the period during which they may receive benefits, only the first of these alternatives was put into operation during the winter of 1927-1928. In spite of a relatively favourable situation, the consequence was that the reserve fund of 150 million marks was entirely absorbed in the course of the winter. During the winter of 1928-1929, the National Insurance Institute adopted the second system. Payment of unemployment insurance benefit to persons belonging to industries and occupations in which regularly recurrent unemployment is recognised as customary was restricted to six weeks within the period of customary unemployment (which may not exceed four months per year). To provide for the rest of this period a special relief system was set up by a Federal Act of 24 December 1928, the benefits payable under it being similar to those under the system for relief in times of crisis, and the one like the other system being only applied in case of necessity. Four-fifths of the expenses of the system are borne by the Reich and one-fifth by the National Insurance Institute. The budget of the Reich for 1928 contained an item of 28 million Reichsmark for this purpose. Owing to the unusual severity of the winter, this amount was considerably exceeded. The Act is of an experimental character and only remains in force until 30 September 1929. In Poland, where the provisions relating to seasonal unemployment by unemployed are very strict—under the Act of 18 July 1924 all persons who generally work less than ten months a year have no right to benefit during the off season—the situation of the insurance fund was sufficiently prosperous to permit the Minister of Labour to issue regulations on 14 December 1928 allowing large numbers of seasonal workers, as an exceptional measure, to receive unemployment benefit during the winter of 1928-1929. A similar measure, although of narrower scope, had already been adopted during the winter of 1927-1928.

Another problem connected with unemployment insurance which is of an international character, and so deserves consideration by the Conference, is the treatment of unemployed workers of alien nationality. Generally speaking, this question is already satisfactorily settled on the basis of equality of treatment of aliens and nationals. It has given rise to a certain number of reciprocity agreements on the lines laid down by Article 3 of the Unemployment Convention. Reference to these agreements will be found in the second Part of this Report in which the annual reports on the application of the Unemployment Convention sent in by the Governments which have ratified it are summarised.

147. Employment exchanges. — In a number of countries employment exchanges have been created, developed or re-organised. In Italy, the organisation of public employment exchanges is governed by section 23 of the Labour Charter, which provides for the establishment of joint offices at the headquarters of the trade unions. Employers are compelled to apply to these offices for the recruiting of labour, but they have the right to select any individuals on the lists, preference being given, however, to those who are members of the Fascist Party or the Fascist Trade Unions. By means of Decrees, detailed regulations have been issued for the management of these employment exchanges. It is interesting to note that the expenses of the exchanges are met by the compulsory unemployment insurance fund and the special funds of the corporations and the National Fascist Confederations of workers and employers. Provincial, inter-provincial and national exchanges are provided for, and each exchange is to be managed by a joint committee of employers and workers' representatives and directed by the local secretary of the National Fascist Party. The Fascist Trade Unions have protested against the rules by which the employers have full choice among the persons registered at the employment exchanges, on the ground that this will virtually involve a diminution of the number of direct engagements by employers without any supervision on the part of the exchanges.

In Japan, the number of employment exchanges has increased rapidly. There are now about 230 situated in the principal industrial, commercial and mining centres. While the Director was in the Far East he had an opportunity of visiting some of these employment exchanges. The intelligence, enthusiasm and attention to detail with which they are organised and managed are most noteworthy. Interesting features are innumerable. For example, Tokyo has an organisation for “casual workers”, i.e. unskilled labourers employed by the day and receiving officially controlled wages through the exchanges. There are also employment exchanges for young apprentices where all the latest methods of vocational guidance are being practised, and special employment exchanges for professional workers, while re-educational courses are also run in
connection with the exchanges. The co-
ordination maintained between the ex-
changes of the larger towns also deserves
to be mentioned.

New exchanges have also been set up in
the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, making
about twenty altogether, and in Sweden,
where there were thirty-six at the end of 1927.

In Australia, the Prime Minister of the Commonwealth stated in October 1928
that a conference of representatives of the Commonwealth and the State Gov-
ernments was to consider the possibility of
establishing a network of employment exchanges under the control of the dif-
ferent States.

In Russia, certain restrictions have been
imposed on the classes of workers who
may register at employment exchanges.

A good deal of progress has been made
with regard to the specialisation of ex-
changes by occupation. Special attention
has been directed recently to the ques-
tion of employment exchanges for the-
artical artistes. The Advisory Committee
of the International Labour Office on
Intellectual Workers, at its first meeting
held on 22 and 23 October 1928, considered
a report on this subject prepared by the Office and based on information furnished
by the organisations of theatrical artists. The Committee suggested that the Office
should also consult theatre managers and theatrical agencies on the possibility of
extending to the theatrical profession the principles of the Recommendation adopted
in 1919, concerning the substitution of
public employment offices for private fee-charging agencies. This enquiry is
being carried out and will shortly be
finished.

In France, by the Act of 16 March 1928,
the provisions of the Labour Code relating
to the supervision of fee-charging em-
ployment agencies were applied to those
engaged in finding employment for thea-
trical and operatic artists or employees of
theatres and other places of entertain-
ment. Such agencies will, in future, not
be allowed to be conducted in public
houses, hotels or restaurants and fees
may only be accepted from employers.

With regard to seamen, a Decree of
20 January 1928 in France provides that
maritime employment exchanges are
wherever possible to be constituted as
sections of departmental or municipal
employment exchanges, so that they may
become an integral part of the general
system for placing workers in employment.
The officials of these exchanges are to be
chosen from among seamen and ex-seamen.
In Italy, the Minister of Communications
has agreed to the establishment of special
exchanges under joint management for
officers in the Mercantile Marine. The
Danish Seamen's Union decided to close
its employment agencies in May 1928.
In consequence of this, all engagements
of seamen have now to be made through
the licensed employment agents or the
employment departments of the ship-
owners' offices.

With regard to salaried employees, the
International Federation of Commercial,
Clerical and Technical Employees at its
Congress held in Dresden on 15-18 Sept-
ember 1928 passed a resolution calling for
the establishment of public employment exchanges for salaried employees.
In Germany, the Minister of Labour
published a memorandum in 1928 on the
position of elderly salaried employees, in
which he recommended an improvement in
the methods of finding employment, facili-
ties for changing to other occupa-
tions and guidance of young applicants
for non-manual work to other occupations.

With regard to women workers, the
Italian Minister of the Interior at the
beginning of 1929 requested the Prefects
to supervise carefully the activity of
agencies dealing with the finding of em-
ployment for women either at home or
abroad. These instructions are directed
not only against the traffic in women
but against all agencies guilty of culpable
negligence in any respect whatever. In
Japan, the Central Employment Exchange
Committee under the Bureau of Social
Affairs of the Department of the Interior
has adopted a new programme which
aims at improving employment facilities
for women workers, and includes the
establishment of special exchanges for
women in the principal cities.

Other problems closely associated with
the specialisation of employment exchanges
are those of vocational guidance and the
re-training of adults for work in occupa-
tions other than those in which they
have hitherto been engaged. In Great
Britain, a great deal is being done on
these lines. The Industrial Transfer-
ence Board set up by the Government
to assist in the transfer of workers from
distressed areas to openings in other in-
dustries recommended the extension of
instructional centres for juveniles unem-
ployed and the development of practical
industrial training for adults. Steps have
been taken to apply these recommenda-
tions. In Austria, an Order has been
issued which allows benefit to be paid
to unemployed persons under sixteen
while receiving training. The maximum
number of young persons who may receive
training at any one time has been fixed at
300.

Efforts are being made in a number
of countries to bring about a better dis-
tribution of the available supply of labour
within those countries. Measures have
been taken with this object in Great Britain and in Italy. In Great Britain, according to the Industrial Transference Board, the transfer of men to districts which, while not enjoying immunity from unemployment, are nevertheless bearing a relatively lighter load, is the essential and immediate aim of any transfer policy. Further, nothing should be done to anchor men to their home district by holding out an illusory prospect of employment, and the administration of poor relief and of unemployment benefit should not become an artificial barrier to the movement of labour. The Prime Minister announced on 17 and 20 December 1928 that in the previous four months about 15,000 men had moved into other occupations. In Italy, the Council of Ministers has approved a draft Decree concerning the organisation and regulation of internal migration. The Permanent Committee for Internal Migration has continued its work of organising the movement of workers out of work by endeavouring to find employment for them within the country and so prevent their remaining unemployed or being obliged to emigrate. In Germany, an Order of 30 March 1928 provides for the issue of travel books to young unemployed workers under thirty, enabling them to seek employment in different parts of the country and to draw unemployment benefit, if necessary, wherever they happen to be.

The mobility of labour is often seriously hindered by the cost of moving from one place to another and the expense involved for a married man in keeping up two homes while looking for a house in a new district. This has led the British Government to give financial assistance in such cases. It has been decided to make a free grant towards lodging allowance and incidental expenses of removal and to meet the reasonable costs of removal of a family and household effects to the place where work and the required accommodation have been obtained. In the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, too, the Minister of Social Welfare issued Regulations on 12 June 1928 providing for the granting of tickets at reduced fares to unemployed workers travelling from one place to another with a view to taking up employment.

A considerable amount of attention was paid in various countries in 1928 to the question of fee-charging employment agencies. Reference has already been made above to the enquiry being conducted by the International Labour Office into the question of employment agencies for theatrical artists. In the United States, the Supreme Court decided on 28 May 1928 that a provision of the New Jersey Private Employment Agency Act, which empowered State officers to fix the price which the employment agent should charge for his services, was unconstitutional. The Secretary of Labor, commenting on this decision in his Annual Report for the year ending 30 June 1928, says that the effect of the decision is to challenge the public employment service to broaden its scope and to increase its staff and equipment so that it will be better able to give adequate service. "The profitable employment of the citizens," he says, "is a matter of State and national concern and it should not be necessary for men to pay for an opportunity to work". At the same time, the American Association for Labour Legislation is devoting special attention to this question. In the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, the Minister of Social Welfare issued Regulations on 12 June 1928 as to the places where fee-charging employment agencies may be opened, the moral and other qualifications of the agents, the rate of fees to be charged, the hygienic condition of the premises, fines, etc. In France, by an Act of 19 July 1928 certain sections of the Labour Code were amended, including a provision for a more adequate supervision of private employment agencies and an improved organisation of the labour supply. The municipal authorities are empowered by this Act to exercise constant supervision over the manner in which fee-charging employment agencies are conducted. Persons who engage in recruiting colonial or foreign workers for France, or in recruiting workers in France for employment abroad or in the colonies, must have a special permit. In Great Britain, a private Members' Bill was introduced into the House of Commons for the purpose of restricting some of the evils which have gathered and intensified in the domain of employment agencies generally and those connected with theatrical agencies in particular. In Sweden, the Social-Democrats made a proposal to the Riksdag for the abolition of fee-charging employment agencies. The motion was rejected on the ground that the official system of employment offices was not yet sufficiently developed to satisfy the demand in all respects.

The finding of employment for workers is not only a national, it is also an international, problem. Unemployed workers for whom no employment can be found in their own country may sometimes be able to find employment in another country. This is in reality one aspect of the problem of migration which is dealt with elsewhere in this Report. The special and temporary responsibilities of the Office in connection with the placing of refugees are also referred to in another chapter. But the Office has other responsibilities of a more permanent character in regard to this question. Article 2 of the Convention on Unemployment adopted at Washington provides that "the operations of the various national systems (of employment exchanges) shall be co-ordinated by the International Labour Office in agreement with the countries concerned".

This Convention has been ratified by twenty-three Governments and the Office has put itself at the disposal of those Governments for the transmission of such information as might be supplied with regard to the classes of unemployed workers willing to seek employment abroad and the industries or occupations in which employment might be available for foreign workers.

Such information has hitherto been received only from Switzerland, which has supplied it every three months, and it has been immediately transmitted to the other Governments which have ratified the Convention. It must be recognised that this work of co-ordination is by no means easy, and the first effort to bring it about has not met with great success. A number of Governments, in their annual reports under Article 408 on the application of the Unemployment Convention, have referred to this question. The Austrian, Swedish and Swiss Governments consider that the desired co-ordination cannot be brought about as long as the present shortage of employment and severe restrictions on immigration exist in immigration countries. The Danish and French Governments are of opinion that co-ordination cannot go any further than the exchange of information which is already taking place, while the Estonian Government is in favour of special agreements with other States. The British Government points out that close arrangements already exist for emigration from Great Britain to the Dominions, and that the United States legislation does not provide for an international transfer of labour through the employment exchanges. The Polish Government, on the other hand, attaches great importance to the co-ordination of employment exchanges and it desires the Office, after consulting the Governments concerned, to make proposals for an exchange of statistics between countries of emigration and immigration and for doing away with differences in the methods of finding employment.

148. Economic action against unemployment. — The principle laid down by the Conference in 1919, viz. that work carried out on behalf of public authorities should in each country be co-ordinated and re- served as far as possible for periods of unemployment, has continued to be carried out—at any rate to a certain extent—by a considerable number of Governments. It is true that systematic co-ordination is lacking almost everywhere, but it is at least certain that in a large number of countries public works are, if not reserved for periods of unemployment, at any rate specially organised or advanced in date during such periods.

The idea of co-ordination seems to have been considered in the United States more than anywhere else. A Bill has been introduced by Senator Jones for the purpose of creating a reserve fund of 150,000,000 dollars for carrying out public works by the Federal Government. This Bill was reported on favourably by the Senate Commerce Committee. Again, at a Conference of Governors held on 21 November 1928, the Governor of Maine put forward an ambitious proposal emanating from Mr. Herbert Hoover, for the purpose of stabilising the prosperity of the United States. This plan, so far as the carrying out of public works is concerned, would involve the co-operation of the Federal Government, the States and municipal authorities, and the simultaneous constitution of a federal reserve fund of 3,000,000,000 dollars and special funds in each State to an amount which would be equal to the State expenditure on public works during a period of two years.

In Italy, also, a vast programme for the development of the land has been drawn up under the name of integrale. This programme will take thirty years to carry out. Two million hectares of land are to be made suitable for cultivation; canals, aqueducts, reservoirs, roads, electrical installations and houses are to be built. The expense, which is estimated at 7,500,000,000 lire, is to be met partly by the Government, which will subsidise the individuals and companies sharing in carrying out the programme under the direction and supervision of a central body. The prefects have been authorised by the Prime Minister to take all necessary measures—even, if necessary, taking the place of the owners—to ensure the carrying out of the works proposed.

In Great Britain, a report published by the Liberal Party—Britain's Industrial Future—has attracted much attention. Two chapters deal with the problem of unemployment. With regard to the abnormal unemployment resulting from war and post-war conditions, the report proposes a vigorous policy of national reconstruction and development. It recommends a big programme of road construction, housing, slum improvement, afforestation, reclamation and drainage, electrification, and the development of canals, docks and harbours. Such a programme, which would affect several departments of State, would be directed by a Committee of National Development directly responsible to the Prime Minister. A National Investment Board should be constituted to organise the means of financing this policy.

The Labour Party also deals with this question in its programme, adopted in 1928 and published under the title Labour and the Nation. It proposes that a National Economic Committee, acting under the direction of the Prime Minister, should be appointed to keep both him and the country informed as to the eco-
nomic situation and its tendencies. Moreover, an Employment and Development Board should be appointed, to which a Treasury grant should be made annually for the purpose of bringing development schemes to the point of execution in readiness for the time when they should be pushed ahead in the interests of employment and trade. Among the schemes for which there is an urgent need, reference is made to a drainage scheme, protection against coast erosion, more extensive afforestation, electrification, slum clearance and the creation of a network of new roads.

In most of the other industrial countries, although there is no question for the moment of such big plans as those mentioned above, special public works have been organised for the purpose of giving productive employment to a certain number of unemployed, a method which is considered preferable to paying them benefits and leaving them completely idle. This preoccupation of the public authorities is particularly strong in Sweden, where the problem of the organisation of unemployment insurance continues to be closely bound up with the question of public works. In Poland (as in Austria and Germany) close relations of this kind exist, and an Ordinance of 26 April 1928 has amended and supplemented the measures already adopted. This Ordinance provides that out of the money provided in the budget of the Ministry of Labour for the assistance of the unemployed loans may be granted either to public administrations or to private companies which undertake special work with a view to providing employment.

In addition to the action which has been taken for a better organisation of public works, and which has been referred to first because it is in line with a formal Recommendation of the Conference, many other measures of an economic character were taken or projected in 1928 in various countries with a view to preventing or alleviating unemployment.

In Australia, a report was prepared by the Development and Migration Commission which makes a number of recommendations, including the following: (1) the compilation of regular statistics of employment and production and continuous research into the causes of recurring economic fluctuations; (2) the adoption of the principle of planning programmes of public works ahead for a term of years and of regulating expenditure on works within yearly periods; (3) the development of public employment exchanges and the supervision of privately conducted exchanges, the improvement of vocational training and vocational guidance for youths leaving school; (4) co-operation between the Commonwealth Bank and the private banks with a view to stabilising exchanges; (5) the extension of economic training for business and industrial executives and the improvement of private business management; and (6) the creation in each State of the Commonwealth of an Industrial Stability Committee to study plans for the correction of seasonal fluctuations.

In the United States, the Senate Committee on Education and Labour has been requested, as a result of the resolution adopted on the proposal of Senator La Follette, to undertake a careful investigation into the causes of unemployment and the means of preventing it.

In Japan, a permanent bureau for the investigation of unemployment has been set up in the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Ministry of the Interior, and it is also proposed to create an Inter-departmental Investigation Committee on Unemployment, composed of representatives of the Ministries of the Interior, Finance, Education, Foreign Affairs, Communications and Railways.

In Poland, a Decree-Act of 15 February 1928 set up an Institute for the study of prices and economic phenomena.

All the above are measures for investigating the problem. Reference may, however, be made among practical measures to an Act of 7 June 1928 in Bulgaria for the encouragement of undertakings belonging to various transforming industries. This encouragement will take the form in particular of facilities for acquiring building sites, the construction of roads, the reduction of transport charges, immunity from customs duties for machinery and materials, privileges for the exploitation of natural resources, preference in the allocation of contracts for public supplies.

In Great Britain, steps have also been taken for the encouragement of industry by relief of rates which are a burden on industry and by the derating of railways. With regard to the latter, the freight reductions resulting from this scheme are to be limited to export coal and fuel for iron and steel works. In addition, the export credit guarantee scheme will be continued for a further period of two years from September 1929. The British Government has also developed its safeguarding of industries policy by imposing customs duties on certain goods, and, notwithstanding Labour opposition, the House of Commons adopted a resolution on this subject, stating that the policy was the only means of maintaining the standard of living of the wage-earners, reducing unemployment and promoting national economy.

Different opinions have been expressed on various sides with regard to the relations between unemployment and the level of wages.
In Denmark, at a meeting held on 29 March 1928, Mr. Overgaard, Chairman of the Industrial Association and Industrial Council, stated that the average hourly wages of a male worker in Denmark, calculated in terms of gold, had increased since 1925 by about 30 per cent.; simultaneously, the number of unemployed, which was 44,000 at the beginning of March 1925, had risen to 72,000 at the beginning of 1928. According to Mr. Overgaard, it is impossible to deny the connection between this rise in gold wages and the increase in unemployment. He considered that it was a case of cause and effect, owing to the increased difficulty of competition with the industry of other countries.

A similar opinion was expressed in Great Britain by Professor Pigou in an article in the Economic Journal for September 1927. Professor Pigou comes to the conclusion that, on a broad view of the facts, at least 5 per cent. of the unemployment among insured workers may reasonably be attributed to the maintenance of rates of real wages above the level that would establish equilibrium between the demand for and the supply of labour.

Professor Henry Clay, in the Economic Journal for March 1928, discusses this argument. He draws particular attention to another possible cause of unemployment, viz. mal-distribution of labour, which Professor Pigou dismisses as relatively unimportant. The statistical evidence brought forward by Professor Clay shows that unemployment is lowest in industries where wage rates are highest by comparison with the 1914 standard, and worst where wage rates are lowest. Professor Clay concludes that, so far as high wages are an explanation of the present unemployment, it is the low wage rates of the depressed industries that are too high, not the high wages of the prosperous industries. The mal-distribution of labour not only explains the divergence between wage rates in different industries; it also affects the general or average level. If labour is badly distributed, then production will be down and the average level of wages compatible with full employment will be low. A better distribution of labour, even if it brought down wages in some high-rated occupations, might so increase production that the average wage rate would be raised.

The above shows how controversial this question of the relations between wages and unemployment is, even in scientific circles.

In the United States, the tendency towards a rise in wages is still considered in Government circles as a factor favouring the maintenance of economic activity. Mr. Ethelbert Stewart, the Commissioner of Labor Statistics, declared in July 1928 that, in order to deal with unemployment, child labour ought to be abolished and wages raised so as to enable workers to save money in order to enjoy leisure in their old age. The immediate remedy for unemployment, he added, was to be found in a general extension of the purchasing power of consumers—in other words, wages must be raised.

The problem of the relations between monetary fluctuations and unemployment continues to occupy the attention of an increasing number of economists in different countries. It is impossible here to enumerate the numerous books which have been published on this subject, which lead, as a matter of fact, to divergent conclusions. Reference should, however, be made to the new book written by Professor Irving Fisher—The Money Illusion—in which the eminent protagonist of monetary stabilisation pursues the vigorous campaign which he has undertaken, and refers in passing to the value of the investigations into unemployment which have been made by the International Labour Office. This question is being considered less and less as one of a theoretical character, and is being recognised to an increasing extent to be a matter of practical politics.

In Great Britain, the Conference on Industrial Reorganisation and Industrial Relations, better known as the Mond-Turner Conference, considered this question and communicated to the Chancellor of the Exchequer an agreed memorandum signed by the joint Chairmen (representing respectively the employers and the workers) of the Conference. This memorandum expresses the conviction of the signatories that it is impossible to restore prosperity to industry and trade unless the elasticity of currency and credit is so arranged to meet the requirements of industry and commerce that industrial recovery will not be arrested by the lack of credit facilities as soon as increased production becomes effective. The memorandum asked, therefore, that the Bank of England should not be so tied down by the provisions of a Gold Reserve Law as to be unable fully and freely to co-operate in the plans adopted at the International Economic Conference of Genoa in 1922 for preventing excessive fluctuations in the purchasing power of gold. In point of fact, the new Bank Act which was passed by the British Parliament some time afterwards took account to a certain extent of these considerations. Moreover, the Labour Party, at the Birmingham Congress in October 1928, also dealt with this question, and, after having considered the disadvantages arising both from a rise and from a fall in the general level of prices, and noting that the question of monetary policy is international rather than national in scope, decided to insert in its programme the following recommendation:

International action is required to secure at one and the same time stability of the exchanges and stability of the purchasing power of money.
Britain should assist in this, (1) by implementing as soon as possible the proposals at Genoa; (2) by amending its currency policy so as not to make an unnecessarily large drain on the gold resources of the world.

In order to show that progress is slowly but surely being made in the direction of international action along the lines indicated, it is sufficient to refer to the decision of the Council of the League of Nations, which has already been mentioned, on fluctuations in the purchasing power of gold. Part of the special report on unemployment submitted this year to the Conference is devoted to the effect of monetary fluctuations on instability of employment. It is hoped that the information contained will be of utility of employment. It is hoped that the information contained will be of

due weight.

The following information on overseas and continental migration is taken from this report.

149. — The Office has prepared a new survey of the general movements of emigration and immigration in a report which will appear shortly under the title Migration Movements 1925-1927. Figures are included in the report for one hundred countries or territories as compared with seventy-four in the previous report, which dealt with the migration movements of 1920-1924. The following information on overseas and continental migration is taken from this report.

150. Overseas migration. — The total number of overseas migrants is still much smaller than before the war and much smaller even than during the years 1920-1924. A certain increase took place in 1926 as compared with 1925, but in 1927 there was again a decrease. The table below gives some comparative figures for these years (in thousands):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Average for 1920-1924</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to immigration, there was a continuous and considerable decrease in Cuba, Mexico and Palestine during the years 1925-1927; on the other hand, the number of immigrants arriving in Argentina, Australia, Canada, and South Africa during the same period increased steadily. The other countries included in the following table (Brazil, New Zealand, United States) show a reduction in 1927 as compared with 1926. It will be seen, however, that in the case of the United States the decrease is insignificant, and that practically during the three years 1925-1927 overseas immigration in that country remained stationary, at about 170,000 to 180,000. During the last pre-war years the annual number of immigrants into the United States was about 1,200,000.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Average for 1920-1926</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to show approximately the extent to which migration movements have modified the composition of the population in the countries of emigration and immigration, the number of returning migrants must be deducted from the number of emigrants or of immigrants. This calculation is not always possible, but it has been done in the following
table for twelve European countries in 1926 and 1927 and for eleven of these from 1920 to 1925.

NET EMIGRATION IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES IN THOUSANDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average for 1920-1924</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emigrants on</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the outward</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>journey</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Returning</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emigrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net emigra-</td>
<td>386</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tion (excess</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of emigrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over return-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>ing emi-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grants) ...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* For the years 1920-1924 and for 1925 this table refers to Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Serbo-Croat-Slavonian Kingdom, Spain and Sweden. For 1926-1927 the same countries are included with the addition of Rumania.

If account be taken of the fact that the only European country with an important oversea emigration movement which is missing from the above table is Germany, it will be seen that the loss of population which is annually caused in Europe by emigration has, since 1920, averaged 335,000 persons per year.

As regards the direction in which the emigrants go, it may be mentioned that there has been a relative increase in the emigration from certain countries of the European continent, particularly from the East and South-East, to Canada, South America (particularly Argentina and Brazil), South Africa, and even Australia. In South Africa it is entirely due to the immigration of persons of other than British nationality that there is a net immigration at all.

As to the extent to which these emigrants emigrate permanently, it may be noted that from 1925-1927, the number of returning migrants from Mexico was about three-quarters of the number of immigrants, from Brazil about one-half and from Argentina and the United States about one-third.

151. Continental migration. — The statistics of continental migration (particularly in so far as land migration is concerned) have hitherto been, as a rule, less complete and accurate than those of intercontinental migration which more often includes a sea voyage.

It is for that reason that it is not considered possible to give any totals of the figures at present available similar to those which have been given for oversea migration.

The principal countries of continental immigration are at the present time: in Europe, France; in America, the United States; in Asia, Ceylon, Malaya and Indo-China.

In the case of France, the set-back in economic activity noted in 1927 has once more shown how largely continental migration movements are subject to the influence of economic fluctuations in the countries of immigration, either because this influence is felt automatically or because it causes the Government of the immigration country to adopt special restrictive measures. It will be seen in the table below how considerable the decrease in immigration was in France in 1927.

Germany, a country of oversea emigration, is at the same time a country of continental immigration. This last movement, which is intended to satisfy the constantly growing need for agricultural labour which cannot be met by the population of the country, increases considerably from year to year, but remains extremely small as compared with the situation before the war, when more than one million foreign workers were brought into the country each year for temporary work.

CONTINENTAL IMMIGRATION TO FRANCE AND GERMANY (IN THOUSANDS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Average for 1920-1924</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the case of the United States, the figures relating to continental immigration are below the true figures in consequence of secret immigration from Canada and from Mexico, which is considerable.

CONTINENTAL IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES (IN THOUSANDS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average for</th>
<th>1920-24</th>
<th>1925</th>
<th>1926</th>
<th>1927</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>158</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>147</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An interesting fact to be noted in connection with continental migration in America is the decrease, due to the crisis in the sugar industry, in migration to Cuba of negro labourers from other islands in the West Indies. There is, in fact, a considerable return movement on the part of these labourers to their country of origin.

With regard to Asia, the large emigration from India towards other countries on that continent amounted in 1927 to 220,000 as compared with 214,000 in 1926. According to the immigration statistics, which, as in the case of oversea migration, show higher figures than those of the emigration countries, it appears that
emigration from India to Ceylon rose from 216,000 assisted and non-assisted workers in 1926 to 285,000 in 1927. On the other hand, there was a reduction in Indian emigration to Malaya, where there was a crisis in the rubber industry. In spite of that crisis Chinese immigration in the Straits Settlements increased. There was an increase in the number of returned immigrants from Malaya to their country of origin (186,000 in 1926 and 243,000 in 1927).

152. — For the protection of emigrants, who are still very numerous, the International Labour Conference has adopted a number of Draft Conventions and Recommendations. The following notes indicate the measures taken in 1928 by the States Members to give effect to these decisions 1:

**Recommendation concerning Reciprocity of Treatment of Foreign Workers (1919)**

No new measures in 1928.

**Recommendation concerning Communication to the International Labour Office of Statistical and Other Information Regarding Emigration, Immigration and the Repatriation and Transit of Emigrants (1922)**

No new measures in 1928.

**Convention concerning the Simplification of the Inspection of Emigrants on Board Ship (1926)**

Ratification Measures

**Bulgaria**: Bill to ratify the Convention laid before the Chamber of Deputies.

**Canada**: Laid before Parliament on 20 February 1928 together with the Order in Council of 16 November 1927, confirming the report of the Law Officers of the Crown on the competence of the Dominion Parliament or the Provincial Legislatures in regard to the Convention.

**Colombia**: Submitted for consideration to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.

**Cuba**: Conditionally approved on 16 May 1928 by the Senate (application subordinated to legislation in force).

**Czechoslovakia**: Ratification registered on 25 May 1928.

**Finland**: The President of the Republic decided on 1 March 1929 to ratify the Convention and issued an Order for putting it into force.

**France**: Bill to ratify laid before the Chamber of Deputies on 1 February 1929.

**Japan**: Ratification registered on 8 October 1928.

**Luxembourg**: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

**Rumania**: Submitted to Parliament. Can only be ratified when the economic situation of the country makes it possible to introduce the necessary legislative reform.

1 No reference is made in these notes to the measures taken on the Convention and Recommendation concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents. The measures taken on these decisions are indicated in the sub-section dealing with social insurance, ante, p. 169.


**Uruguay**: By a Message dated 23 March 1928 the President of the Republic recommended the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies in their General Assembly to ratify the Convention.

**Recommendation concerning the Protection of Emigrant Women and Girls on Board Ship (1926)**

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

**Czechoslovakia**: Adopted by the Government of the Republic (24 May 1928).

**Other Information**

**Canada**: Laid before Parliament on 20 February 1928 together with the Order in Council of 16 November 1927 confirming the report of the Law Officers of the Crown on the competence of the Dominion Parliament or the Provincial Legislatures with regard to the Recommendation.

**Bulgaria**: Emigrants, who are still in number, are transported by foreign vessels, and they embark in foreign ports. The Government cannot therefore make the Recommendation effective.

**France**: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 4 February 1929.

**Romania**: Approved by the Council of Ministers on 12 February 1929.

153. **International activity.** — The most important event in 1928 was the second International Migration Conference held at Havana, Cuba, from 31 March to 17 April. The decision to convene this second meeting was taken at the first Conference of this kind held at Rome in 1924.

The Conference was attended by delegates of thirty-seven countries and observers from five countries. Representatives of the League of Nations, the International Labour Office, and the International Institute of Agriculture were present in an advisory capacity.

Like its predecessor at Rome, this second Conference was a technical conference and it adopted a large number of resolutions, which were analysed in detail in the Monthly Record of Migration for June-July 1928. One of these resolutions invited the League of Nations, the International Labour Office and the International Institute of Agriculture "to continue the work undertaken by them relating directly or indirectly to migration and hitherto carried out so effectively".

The Conference also expressed the wish that a third Conference should be held at Madrid on a date to be fixed after consultation with the Governments concerned.

Although the Havana Conference did not attract so much attention as the Rome Conference in 1924, it served a useful purpose in providing the opportunity
for an exchange of views between a considerable number of Governments on a group of problems affecting fundamental economic and political interests which are sometimes difficult to reconcile internationally. The result of this exchange of views was more or less general, and in some cases unanimous, agreement on a series of resolutions, which it now remains to endeavour to carry out by means of regular collaboration on the basis of the common interests both of the emigrants themselves and of the different countries concerned. It was clearly recognised by the Havana Conference that this practical work should be carried out by the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation within their respective spheres of action. The Office is gratified to note that the Havana Conference has thus put an end to any ideas which once seemed likely to develop of having a separate organisation for the purposes in question, and hopes that the International Labour Organisation will be given the opportunity to discharge fully those duties which it has been desired to undertake.

A few weeks before this Conference the sixth Pan-American Conference had also met at Havana. It was attended by delegates of all the Governments of Latin-America and of the United States, and it dealt with migration among other questions. A preliminary report, which had been prepared by Dr. Cartaya, of Cuba, drew the attention of the Conference to the importance of the work done by the International Labour Organisation and pointed out that, while the Pan-American Conference had in previous years considered immigration from the point of view of public health, it had never before dealt with the economic aspects. The resolutions adopted by the Conference on this subject after long discussions represent the views of a number of important countries of immigration and may be said to set out the immigration point of view of America.

The Conference declared that immigrants should not be exempt from the legislation or jurisdiction of the country in which they settle; every resolution concerning migration should be inspired by the principle of equality of civil rights between nationals and aliens and guarantee to emigrants the status of free men; the American States reserved the right to examine the conditions of arrival of immigrants and to determine their methods of action in this matter according to their own economic, political and social interests. Moreover, the Pan-American Union was invited to include in the agenda of the next Pan-American Conference the question of freedom of migration among the different American States. A draft Convention was also adopted on the subject of the legal status of aliens.

154. Bilateral agreements. — Bilateral agreements are becoming more common and more comprehensive.

The Franco-Belgian Labour Treaty of 24 December 1924 was ratified by France in March 1928; it had already been ratified by Belgium. It may be recalled that this Treaty aims especially at establishing complete equality of treatment for the workers of one of the two States employed on the territory of the other as regards conditions of life and work (wages, labour legislation, establishment, etc.). A similar treaty, which was signed by Belgium and Luxemburg on 20 October 1926, came into force at the beginning of 1928.

Several agreements have been concluded by European countries concerning seasonal migration. One of these, between France and Belgium, was signed on 4 July 1928. It concerns not only seasonal workers, but also workers who work in France but have their domicile in Belgium, to which country they return as a rule every day or every week. Provision is made for such workers to obtain an identity card from the municipality of the place where they reside, and these cards have to be visaed by the competent French authority.

Germany also concluded agreements concerning seasonal migration with Czechoslovakia and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom.

The agreement with Czechoslovakia dated 11 May 1928 provides that the recruiting, placing and contracting of Czechoslovak seasonal workers is to be carried out through the German Central Office for Workers and Czechoslovak State labour offices. The workers are to be engaged upon the basis of a contract of employment drawn up by the competent Committee on Agriculture and Forestry of the Reichsanstalt for employment exchanges and unemployment insurance. The German Central Office for Workers will communicate the needs of individual employers to the competent Czechoslovak State labour offices, which will visa the contracts and will choose, in agreement with the German Central Office, the workers who have been asked for. The agreement with the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom dated 22 February 1928 is similar in character.

France has concluded agreements with Great Britain and Germany for the exchange of student employees. The object of these agreements is to arrange and facilitate the admission into each country of 500 student employees per year, i.e. young men and young women who wish to go from one country to the other for a definite period, generally one year, in order to improve their knowledge of the language or of the commercial or industrial methods of the country while occupying a post in some industrial or commercial undertaking. In connection with the
Franco-British agreement, identical declarations were made by the French Minister of Foreign Affairs and the British Ambassador at Paris relating to the migration of workers between the two countries. While, generally speaking, vacant posts in each of the two countries are reserved to nationals, exceptions are allowed in favour of employees occupying a position of authority or confidence in British establishments in France or French establishments in Great Britain, language teachers, female domestic servants, lady companions, actors, actresses and concert, music-hall, cabaret and circus artists, other than orchestral players.

A new Mozambique Convention was signed by Portugal and the Union of South Africa on 13 September 1928 which, like its predecessor, relates among other things, to the recruiting of natives in Portuguese territory for work in the South African mines. The principal points of the agreement are that the number of Portuguese natives at present employed in the Transvaal mines shall be progressively and proportionately reduced during the next five years to a number not exceeding 80,000. The contracts of the labourers must not exceed twelve months, but the labourers may re-engage themselves for a further period up to a maximum of six months. One-half of the contract rate of pay during the final three months of the initial twelve months, and during any period or periods of re-engagement, shall be retained as deferred pay and shall be paid out only in the colony of Mozambique upon the return of the labourers to their homes.

In the British Empire, an agreement was concluded at the end of 1927 between the British Government and the Government of Southern Rhodesia, providing for free passages to be offered to young women going out from Great Britain to actual situations in Southern Rhodesia as domestic helps.

In September 1928, an agreement was arrived at between the British and Canadian Governments to provide assisted passages from Great Britain to Canada for the wives and families of industrial workers already settled in the Dominion.

In August 1928, too, an agreement was arrived at by the British and Canadian Governments for the emigration of men from Great Britain to Canada to assist in the harvest. The Canadian railway companies undertook to give a reduced fare outwards and inwards, to place the men in work and to take back those who were not placed. The Canadian Government agreed to co-operate with the railway companies in finding winter employment for those who chose to stay. The purpose of the scheme was to give miners and others an opportunity of working in Canada and of seeing conditions there for themselves. Mr. Amery announced in the British House of Commons on 19 November that of the 8,449 harvesters who had gone to Canada in August, 2,720 were still there at that date. The British and Dominion Governments have declared themselves satisfied with the results of the scheme, but, on the other hand, the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada criticised it very severely at their Convention in September 1928.

155. The tendencies of national regulations. — Migration depends primarily on the needs of the countries of immigration and varies, as a rule, in harmony with the economic fluctuations in those countries. In a large number of those countries there are possibilities of extending agricultural production and numerous measures have been adopted in the past year for the encouragement of land settlement.

In Brazil, numerous schemes have been adopted for the settlement of Japanese on the land in different States, particularly Para and Amazonas. The heads of a number of Japanese companies, who met in June under the auspices of the Japanese Prime Minister and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, decided to form a consortium, of which the capital was fixed at 10 million yen. Other schemes have been drawn up or are still under consideration for the settlement of Poles, Austrians, Hungarians, Romanians and others on the land. These schemes chiefly affect the States of Para, Amazonas, Rio Grande do Sul and Minas Geraes, where efforts are also being made to develop home colonisation. As was announced in last year's Report, the Government of the State of Sao Paulo has suspended payment of passages for immigrants going to that State. The President of Sao Paulo, in his Message to Congress on 14 July 1928, suggested that the policy of subsidised immigration should be abandoned altogether and other measures be adopted to encourage immigration, such as the introduction of new crops, development of cattle raising, extension of agricultural credit, etc.

In Chile, a Government Bill was submitted to the Senate in July for the establishment of agricultural settlements in certain districts with a view to breaking up large estates, intensifying and re-organising production, promoting family holdings and thus increasing the population. Sums not exceeding 20 million pesos per annum are to be spent for these purposes up to 1933.

In Paraguay, a certain amount of Mennonite immigration from Canada continued during 1928. The President of the Department of Lands and Settlements, in his report for 1927, stated that Paraguay was able to absorb only a small number of immigrants, and required, above all, persons possessing some capital for work on the land.
In Cuba, which is suffering from a severe economic depression, a Committee of National Economic Protection has been set up, and a sub-committee has been appointed to consider means of attracting suitable immigrants for settlement on the land. Until this can be effected, West Indian negro labour will continue to be imported on a temporary basis. The Government of Haiti, however, has forbidden emigration to Cuba and the Jamaican authorities are not very favourably disposed to the movement of Jamaicans there.

In the Dominican Republic, an Act was passed in 1927 which aims at facilitating land settlement.

There has been much discussion in Canada on immigration problems during the year. The prosperity of that country is sending up the number of immigrants, but some dissatisfaction is felt at the result, particularly with regard to the comparatively small number of British immigrants arriving. The Select Standing Committee on Agriculture and Colonisation of the House of Commons was therefore asked to investigate the whole question, and it presented a report which was agreed to by the House. As a result of this report the Government has simplified the medical examination in Great Britain and it has decided not to renew the agreement giving the railway companies special authority to recruit immigrants in continental Europe after its expiry in 1930.

The Prime Minister, in a speech on 6 August, stated that Canada was desirous of having British immigrants above all others, and since that time the Government has been considering various schemes submitted by the British Government for stimulating British immigration.

The Government of Southern Rhodesia has arrived at an agreement with the British Government for the granting of facilities to immigrants from Great Britain for land settlement and wage-earning employment in agriculture.

An interesting survey has been made in Palestine by a special commission appointed by the American Jewish Committee and the Zionist World Organisation. The purpose of this survey was to ascertain the resources, economic conditions and possibilities of the country and to facilitate the framing of a comprehensive and systematic programme of future constructive work.

A number of measures were taken during 1928 by immigration countries for the further regulation or restriction of immigration.

In the United States of America certain hardships had resulted from the application of the Act of 1924, particularly with regard to the separation of families, and the principal event of the past year was the passing of an Act on 29 May 1928 which represents a step forward in dealing with this question. Facilities are granted for the immigration of certain relatives of United States citizens and aliens lawfully admitted to the United States. It is stated in the press that, owing to differences between the provisions of this new Act and recent circulars of the Italian Government on emigration, difficulties have arisen over the application of the Act to different categories of Italian immigrants.

Considerable discussion has taken place as a result of the decision of an American Court which declared that aliens who went to the United States temporarily for purposes of employment were not immigrants but were visiting the country for business. The Secretary of Labor has invited Congress to pass legislation in order to stop the loophole which this decision seems to open. The question of Mexican immigration, which is not subject to quota restrictions, has also continued to preoccupy public opinion and parliamentary circles, and numerous proposals have been made to impose a quota on all immigration from the other American countries.

In Australia, the Prime Minister stated that the country was 98 per cent. British and was determined to remain so. It could afford to have 12 per cent. of immigrants non-British, as with the flow of British immigrants and the Australian birth rate the high British percentage could still be maintained. A friendly arrangement has been come to with Italy for the restriction of Italian immigration, 3,000 Italians having been admitted in 1928. A quota has been imposed on immigrants from Albania, Czechoslovakia, Estonia, Greece, Poland and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom.

In New Zealand, immigration has continued to be practically suspended owing to the economic situation. The National Industrial Conference, convened by the Government in March 1928, appointed a special Joint Committee to consider immigration questions, and it made recommendations concerning the nomination system, medical examination, the regulation of immigration in accordance with the state of the labour market and the control of the Immigration Department over immigration.

In South America there are few restrictive measures to record, but reference may be made to an Act in Venezuela which somewhat tightens up the regulations for the admission and stay of aliens in that country, and one in Panama, which, while regulating the admission of Japanese and Indians, practically excludes Chinese, Syrians, Turks and Negroes.
In Siam and the Straits Settlements, restrictive measures have been passed, due mainly, it appears, to the heavy Chinese immigration of recent years.

In Europe additional restrictions have been imposed in two countries, Czechoslovakia and Greece. In France, where economic conditions have steadily improved since the crisis in 1926, no fresh restrictions were imposed in 1928, but the supervision of the admission of foreign labour by the authorities was carried out more systematically. The foreign workers admitted were employed in agriculture more than in industry. In Germany, the Government is of opinion that every effort should be made to employ the greatest possible number of German workers in agriculture, thus making it possible to diminish the number of agricultural immigrants from Poland and other countries.

Two measures relating to the protection of immigrants after their arrival in the country of immigration may be noted. In Ceylon, a minimum wage has been fixed for Indian immigrants. In the United States of America, measures have been taken by the competent authorities for issuing identification cards for all immigrants arriving in that country, so as to enable the latter to prove that they have been legally admitted.

Among the immigration countries a similar broad distinction can be made between those which are seeking to develop their emigration and those which are imposing restrictions.

In Great Britain, the Industrial Conference Board, which was appointed by the Government for the purpose of facilitating the transfer of unemployed workers to other districts or occupations, referred in particular to the high fares and the complicated procedure for the emigration of assisted emigrants to the Dominions. Reference to the high fares was also made in the report of the Canadian House of Commons Committee, and negotiations were undertaken with the steamship companies for a reduction in the general rate, which resulted in an arrangement for a third-class rate of £10 for emigrants from Great Britain to Canada, part of the difference between this rate and the normal rate being paid by the British Government. During a visit to Canada in August, Lord Lovat submitted proposals to the federal and provincial authorities which would result, if adopted, in an emigration in 1929 of about 24,000 single men, 4,000 women for domestic work, 3,000 boys and 1,100 families. In addition, he proposed other schemes over a period of years. Facilities for training have been considerably extended by the British authorities, for it has been found that men and women who have had a twelve weeks' course of training in agriculture or domestic service have no difficulty in obtaining employment in both Canada and Australia.

In Japan, the population question as a whole was the subject of special consideration during the past year. So far as emigration is concerned, the Government prepared a budget including an increased amount for the assistance of emigrants. It is hoped to assist 24,000 emigrants to depart during 1929, mainly to Brazil, which is the principal outlet for Japanese emigrants at the present time. Subsidies have also been given to the Federation of Emigration Societies, which was set up as a result of the Act of February 1927. As in Great Britain, special attention has been devoted to training, and centres subsidised by the Government have been organised in various places. An Overseas Museum has also been founded in order to show prospective emigrants something of the land, life and customs of the immigration countries. While in Japan recently, the Director visited the emigrants' station at Kobe: the lines on which it is run, the hygienic precautions taken, and the information and instruction which are given to the emigrants make this station a model institution of its kind.

In Poland, the Government has been seeking for new outlets, especially in South America, and at the same time exercising a stricter control over emigration. Home colonisation is also being encouraged in order, if possible, to diminish the need for emigration.

A somewhat similar policy is being pursued by the Government in Czechoslovakia, where a new Emigration Institute was also created in December 1928, for the purpose of co-ordinating the activities of the different bodies dealing with emigration.

In Italy, the Government is carrying on its restrictive emigration policy. This policy aims at keeping as large a population as possible within the country and preventing the possibility of emigrants being absorbed by the immigration countries. The Supreme Emigration Commission has been abolished, and the "Opera Bonomelli", the Catholic institution for assisting Italian emigrants, was dissolved in June. Reduced fares for emigrants on the outward journey have also been abolished, and measures have been adopted to regulate, and in certain cases restrict, the emigration of relatives who wish to join members of their family abroad, while the Government is endeavouring to help Italians established abroad to return to Italy at least for a temporary stay. Seasonal emigration is also being encouraged, but such emigrants are not
allowed to take their families with them. Emigrants have to pay full fees for their passports, the number of shipping agents for emigration is strictly limited and the National Credit Institute for Italian Labour Abroad is now devoting its attention mainly to Italian colonies. Special efforts are being made to find employment for Italians at home by means of public works and encouraging the development of agriculture.

In Spain, the insurance of emigrants on board ship was reorganised in February 1928, but a new tax has been put on overseas passages, and other measures have been taken which show that the Government is endeavouring to restrict emigration, chiefly by stimulating economic activity and home colonisation.

In Denmark and Sweden, Bill shave been introduced into Parliament to complete and bring the emigration regulations in those countries up to date.

156. The movement of ideas. — To supplement the above survey of the national or international measures taken during 1928 by Governments or by voluntary associations which generally co-operate with them, it is proposed, as in past years, to review briefly the ideas which have been put forward at numerous meetings of non-official bodies and the suggestions made by them for a better organisation of migration.

The past year has witnessed a number of notable moves in favour of bilateral agreements. The most important of these is the resolution of the Inter-Parliamentary Union which recommended Governments to endeavour to conclude amongst themselves bilateral treaties seeking, if possible, to reconcile their policies and to safeguard the economic and social interests of migrants. The delegate of the United States stated that this Conference stated that he considered migration to be a purely domestic question, but this view is not universally held in that country. For instance, the National Association of Manufacturers, in considering the question of Mexican immigration in the United States, suggested that this was a problem for serious study and international negotiation rather than for drastic and hasty action. The immigration section of the National Conference of Social Work also considered the problem of Mexican immigration, and there was a general feeling in favour of an agreement between the Governments.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the discussion on migration at the meeting of the International Parliamentary Commercial Conference in 1927. At the 1928 meeting this Conference instructed its permanent Bureau to appoint a permanent migration committee for the purpose of investigating the problem of migration and submitting proposals to the Conference at a future session.

As in previous years, several declarations have been made by trade union organisations on migration questions. The International Union of Hotel and Restaurant Employees, for example, has drawn attention to the obstacles which migration restriction put in the way of hotel employees going to other countries.

In Australia, the Australasian Council of Trade Unions adopted a resolution declaring that the continued influx of immigrants must imperil the Australian workers' standard of living and that consequently the policy of the Government in respect of assisted immigrants is unsound. In Canada, the Trades and Labour Congress re-affirmed its opinion that Canada should be populated with the proper class of citizens, but that immigration should be carefully regulated. In the United States, the American Federation of Labor reiterated its policy in favour of restricted immigration. A different point of view is adopted by the General Federation of Jewish Labour of Palestine, which declared that a permanent immigration movement on a broad basis was necessary for the development of a Jewish Palestine and the realisation of the objects of Zionism. The only expression of labour views in an emigration country was made by the British Trade Union Congress, which declared itself very sceptical as to the beneficial effect of emigration on unemployment, and pointed out that those who were least able to secure employment in Great Britain were just those whom the oversea Dominions did not want.

The Permanent Conference for the Protection of Migrants held its fifth session in September 1928. It discussed the question of the insurance of passengers on board ship, on which it had been consulted by the International Shipping Conference, and it adopted resolutions with regard to returning emigrants disembarking without resources, the separation of families, etc. The problem of the insurance of passengers against accidents at sea had previously been considered on several occasions by the International Maritime Committee and, recently, by the International Shipping Conference. In June 1928 that Conference instructed a special committee to consider the possibility of drawing up insurance contracts which might be concluded between ship-owners and passengers.

Demographic problems, of which emigration is to some extent a special aspect, are attracting increasing attention. The International Labour Office is closely following the progress of the work which was undertaken by the World Population Conference in 1927, and the continuation of which has been entrusted to the International Union founded at Paris in June last for the study of population questions.
157.—From the above review it seems clear that in dealing with migration more perhaps than with any other subject, international measures are an absolute necessity and that more and more interest is being taken in the adoption of such measures. Both the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation have very serious responsibilities in connection with this problem, and it would seem that their competence to deal with it can no longer be disputed. The Economic Committee has already drawn up a Draft Convention concerning the treatment of foreigners which is to be submitted this year to an international conference. The draft deals particularly with merchants and manufacturers already established in a foreign country, but it declares that its provisions shall also benefit foreign workers and salaried employees who have been admitted into the country. Moreover, it includes a final Act in which the conference in question is invited to recommend that as soon as circumstances appear "favourable negotiations should be instituted with a view to restoring as far as possible "the free exchange of foreign labour". This proposal of the Economic Committee is referred to in more detail in the special report on unemployment submitted to the present Session of the International Labour Conference. Reference may, however, be made here to the opinion expressed on this subject by the Economic Consultative Committee at its Session in 1928, viz. that it is the International Labour Office which should undertake the task of framing the guarantees necessary for the carrying out of the above recommendation. Any such work would necessarily have to take full account of the view expressed by certain countries that the problem of migration should be considered as a domestic problem. There can be no question of infringing the sovereignty of States which in the exercise of their sovereign power desire to prohibit or control the establishment of foreign workers in their territory or to prohibit or control the emigration of their nationals. But all the questions dealt with hitherto by the International Labour Conference, such as hours of work, employment of women and children, right of association, social insurance, etc., are, like the problem of migration, national questions on which each State only assumes such undertakings as it wishes to assume. Moreover, from the standpoint of the International Labour Organisation and the duties assigned to it for promoting the protection of the workers by international agreements, emigrants must be treated on the same footing as any other classes of workers.

These considerations form the basis on which the Office continued during the past year its work of collecting and distributing information on the various aspects of the problem of migration. Special reference may be made in this connection to the big study of comparative legislation entitled Migration Laws and Treaties, of which the third volume, dealing with international treaties and conventions, is at present in the press, and to a statistical report Migration Movements 1925-1927. Again, in the special report on unemployment (Unemployment: Some International Aspects, 1920-1928) an important chapter is devoted to the relation between that question and international migration. Moreover, in accordance with a decision of the Governing Body, an International Conference of Migration Statisticians is being arranged.

It has been felt in some quarters that in carrying out work of this kind and supervising the ratification and application of Conventions and Recommendations which have already been adopted by the Organisation with regard to migration, the Office is not doing enough and is not adequately representing such interests as it is expected to discharge. This criticism may perhaps have been the origin of the measures which led to the meeting of the Conferences of Rome and Havana. The labour world also thought at one time of asking for the creation of a permanent international office to deal with migration problems. It has been shown that the International Labour Office ought to take the place of such an institution. No doubt it is desirable that the migration work of the Office should be extended along these lines. But surely this was the idea of the Governing Body when it decided at its Session in March 1929 to set up a committee on migration composed of some of its own members and a number of permanent experts whose assistance will ensure closer contact between the work of the Organisation and that of other institutions, such as the International Conference of Emigration and Immigration (Rome, Havana) and the Conference of Private Organisations for the Protection of Migrants.

Russian and Armenian Refugees

158.—It has already been stated in the sub-section on the organisation of the Office (§ 29) that, in pursuance of a decision of the Governing Body taken at its Session in June 1928, the Refugee Service will as from 1 January 1930 cease to form part of the Office and pass from its control and responsibility. The reasons for this transfer have been given. The chief duty of the Office was to help to place the refugees in employment. Most of this work has been practically completed, at least so far as it consisted of large-scale operations, and the main problems which now have to be dealt with on behalf of the refugees are political
and financial or problems connected with local assistance. As such, these problems come more properly within the competence of the League of Nations, High Commissioner for Refugees, who, in any case, has continued to deal with them from the beginning.

For present proposes, therefore, it is proposed to review briefly the more important aspects of the work done by the Office for the refugees during the past year, and to make such references as seem necessary to what has been done in the four years during which the Refugee Service has been attached to the Office. In 1925, when the technical part of the refugee work was entrusted to the Office, a large number of refugees had succeeded in becoming economically self-supporting, thanks to the passports and other facilities which had been furnished to them by the High Commission for Refugees, and which enabled them to move about more freely in search of employment or for the purpose of joining relatives or friends who were prepared to help them. Nevertheless, there were still about 400,000 Russian and Armenian refugees without any employment at all or without regular employment. Although the economic crises of the last few years have borne more heavily on the refugees than on other workers and have contributed to close many avenues of employment to them, it may be noted with satisfaction that the Office has been able to help them. Nevertheless, there were still about 400,000 Russian and Armenian refugees without any employment at all or without regular employment.

During the last four years, therefore, 200,000 refugees have been transformed into useful members of society. The Office certainly cannot claim all the merit of this operation, but it can claim that most of the refugees owe the improvement in their economic position directly or indirectly to the measures undertaken and executed in co-operation with the High Commission for Refugees.

It can easily be imagined that a very considerable number of applications have been made by refugees either to the Office or to the High Commission, according as the one or the other was the proper body to apply to, for the purpose of obtaining the advantages offered by one or other of the inter-governmental arrangements concluded between 1922 and 1928. Concrete figures based on statistics compiled by the Office show that, during the period in question, more than 60,000 refugees have been restored to an independent existence as a direct result of the action of the Refugee Service. These refugees have been settled in all parts of the world, from Australia to the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, but very largely in France, thanks to the good-will of the competent services of the Ministries of Labour and Agriculture and the close co-operation established between these services and the Office.

Last year's Report showed the principal directions taken by the action of the Office for the placing of refugees. It will be sufficient therefore to mention here the more important results obtained and the new possibilities which may arise for the rapid solution of the problem.

The major portion of the refugees transferred to France have been placed as industrial workers, and it is interesting to note the satisfactory manner in which this movement has developed. During the past year French employers, in fact, advanced more than half-a-million francs to enable refugees to take advantage of the contracts of employment offered to them. Another satisfactory feature of the refugee settlement work in France is the continual increase in the number of refugees established on métayage and similar contracts. This work is carried out in close co-operation with the "Service de la main-d'œuvre et de l'immigration agricole" of the Ministry of Agriculture and with the Russian Refugee and Agricultural Commission. A Service of Russian-speaking Agricultural Advisors has also been established in agreement with the Ministry of Agriculture, for the purpose of assisting refugees in the management of their farms and protecting them so far as possible from difficulties arising from their ignorance of the French language and of local agricultural conditions.

In this manner 1,495 refugees were successfully established in November 1926 and December 1928 by means of advances made by the High Commission. Mention should be made in this connection of an effort which has been made for developing this kind of settlement work and which may be of some interest to countries whose nationals are also employed in French agriculture. An agreement has been entered into between the High Commission and the French "Caisse nationale de crédit agricole", by which the latter agrees to grant advances to refugees for the purpose of enabling them to accept métayage and similar contracts on condition that the High Commission guarantees the "Crédit Agricole" against default in the stipulated repayments. This plan has the great advantage of economising the funds of the High Commission, and through the creation of a mutual guarantee fund the risks incurred by the High Commission are reduced to a minimum.

As regards the settlement of Armenian refugees in Syria, it may be stated that the efforts made by the Office and the High Commission in this direction have met with full success. It is only two years since the Mandatory Power invited the Office and the High Commission to co-operate in the solution of the problem created by the presence in the mandated territories of 90,000 Armenian refugees, of whom 40,000 were living in most precarious conditions in camps at Aleppo,
Alexandretta and Beyrouth. It is therefore very satisfactory to be able to report that about 8,000 of these refugees are now in course of establishment in agricultural and urban settlements, and that negotiations are pending which justify the hope that the necessary funds will be collected during the present year for securing the full execution, within a period of four years, of the plan drawn up two years ago by the Chief of the Refugee Service in consultation with the mandatory authorities. This plan provides for the settlement of the 32,000 refugees still remaining in the camps already mentioned.

As indicated in last year’s Report, the Office was called upon to co-operate in the solution of another refugee problem which, though of more modest proportions, was of a particularly urgent character. Reference was made to the situation of the Russian refugees remaining in Constantinople, to the provisions which were enacted by the Turkish Government in regard to them, and to the exceptional difficulties which hindered any attempt at evacuation. It was also pointed out that through the generosity of certain American philanthropic organisations in furnishing valuable financial assistance, the Office and the High Commission were enabled to take the most urgent measures for commencing the evacuation of the Russian refugees from Turkey and their settlement in other countries. Moreover, as the result of a special mission of the Chief of the Refugee Service to Angora, the Turkish Government had generously consented to suspend the application of the Decree expelling the refugees, in order to give the Office time to organise their gradual transfer to other countries.

In view of the progress made in this direction, the Turkish Government subsequently agreed to a further suspension of the Decree until 6 February 1929, by which time the Office and the High Commission had effected the evacuation of 1,700 refugees. Of the 1,800 remaining in Turkey, 1,000 had applied for Turkish naturalisation in conformity with the Decree. Measures have been taken for the settlement of 200 refugees in Palestine and 70 in France and many of the remainder had offers of employment in Brazil.

In this case, as in others, the Office confined itself to the technical work of finding employment for these refugees and ensuring that they were capable of carrying out the work required of them, and has left it to the High Commission for Refugees to find the necessary funds for their transport and settlement.

About 450 refugees have been transferred to South America. It must be admitted that this result does not correspond with the hopes raised in 1926, when the Office established delegations of the Refugee Service at Buenos Ayres and Rio de Janeiro. In a report submitted to the Governing Body in June 1928, the Chief Delegate for South America attributed the smallness of the results to the difficulties encountered in the matter of visas and entry formalities and to the high costs of transport and settlement compared with the sums usually required for the establishment of refugees. He considered, however, that the results, although modest, were very satisfactory, and that the benefits which might subsequently accrue to the refugees as a whole would be considerable, seeing that those who are now settled in South America, with better prospects for the future than they would have in Europe, are already beginning to attract relatives and friends in steadily increasing numbers.

As will be seen from the foregoing indications, the work done in the course of four years, in co-operation with the High Commission, has not been negligible. At least 60,000 refugees have been placed in employment as a direct result of the efforts of the Office. The majority of them are now in a stable position and can look forward to the future with confidence. Undoubtedly, the work is still unfinished, and the High Commission for Refugees will have great difficulties to overcome before arriving at a final and satisfactory solution of the formidable problem entrusted to it by the League of Nations.

As regards the Office, the measures adopted by the League of Nations will give it the opportunity of participating in a consultative character in the work of the new Inter-Governmental Advisory Commission for Refugees. The Office therefore will not abandon its interest in the question. Though it will no longer have any direct responsibility in the matter, the Office has had four years’ experience of the work, is well aware of the miseries suffered by the refugees, and will therefore be glad to co-operate, as in fact it did before 1925, in Dr. Nansen’s generous work.
V. Protection of Special Classes of Workers

Protection of Seamen

159.—Each year this Report has been able to record an increasing interest in the work of the International Labour Organisation for the protection of seamen. This work will be given fresh impetus by the discussions and proceedings of the Thirteenth Session of the Conference, which is to be devoted exclusively to maritime questions. The following tables, which record the progress made during 1928 in the ratification of the Maritime Conventions, illustrate the practical value and vitality of the work which is being done. A large number of ratifications have been registered for the Genoa Conventions and the two 1921 Conventions. It is hoped that the 1926 Conventions will also soon be ratified on as large a scale.

RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE LIMITATION OF HOURS OF WORK IN INLAND NAVIGATION (1920)

No new measures in 1928.

RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE LIMITATION OF HOURS OF WORK IN THE FISHING INDUSTRY (1920)

No new measures in 1928.

RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL SEAMEN'S CODES (1920)

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Estonia: The consolidation in a single Act of all the provisions relating to seamen was effected in Estonia by the adoption on 22 March 1928 of the Seamen's Act (9 July 1928).

CONVENTION FIXING THE MINIMUM AGE FOR ADMISSION OF CHILDREN TO EMPLOYMENT AT SEA (1920)

Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.
Germany: Adopted by the Reichsrat on 24 January 1929.
France: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 16 January 1928. Ratification will be recommended when Parliament has reached a final decision on the Act raising the age for school attendance to fourteen years.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

CONVENTION CONCERNING UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE FOR SEAMEN (1920)

No new measures in 1928.

CONVENTION CONCERNING UNEMPLOYMENT INDEMNITY IN CASE OF LOSS OR FOUNDERING OF THE SHIP (1920)

(a) Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

(b) Application Measures

France: Act of 15 February 1929 providing for the payment of unemployment indemnity to seamen in case of the capture, wreck or declared unseaworthiness of the ship.

CONVENTION FOR ESTABLISHING FACILITIES FOR FINDING EMPLOYMENT FOR SEAMEN (1920)

Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 6 August 1928.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

CONVENTION FIXING THE MINIMUM AGE FOR THE ADMISSION OF YOUNG PERSONS TO EMPLOYMENT AS TRIMMERS OR STOKERS (1921)

Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 7 July 1928.
Germany: Adopted by the Reichsrat on 24 January 1929.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

CONVENTION CONCERNING THE COMPULSORY MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG PERSONS EMPLOYED AT SEA (1921)

Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.
Cuba: Ratification registered on 7 July 1928.
Germany: Adopted by the Reichsrat on 24 January 1929.
Luxemburg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.
Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.
CONVENTION CONCERNING
SEAMEN’S ARTICLES OF AGREEMENT (1926)

Ratification Measures


CONVENTION CONCERNING THE REPATRIATION OF SEAMEN (1926)

Ratification Measures


RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE REPAIR OF MASTERS AND APPRENTICES (1926)

(a) Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Estonia: The Seamen’s Act of 22 March 1928 ensures the application of the Recommendation (9 July 1928).

(b) Other Information

Canada: Submitted to the Parliament of Canada on 20 February 1928 together with an Order in Council of 16 November 1927 confirming the report of the Law Officers of the Crown respecting the competence of Parliament or the provincial legislatures. Czechoslovakia: Submitted for opinion to the Czechoslovak navigation companies. Hungary: The Chamber of Deputies, at its sitting on 26 October 1928, and the Upper Chamber, at its sitting on 16 November 1928, took note of a report by the Minister of Commerce recommending that the Recommendation should not be accepted, since there exists at present no Hungarian maritime undertaking in a position to maintain a service at sea. Rumania: The situation does not yet allow of the adoption of the Recommendation by the Council of Ministers. Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom: Submitted for examination to the Ministry of Social Affairs.

RECOMMENDATION CONCERNING THE GENERAL PRINCIPLES FOR THE INSPECTION OF THE CONDITIONS OF WORK OF SEAMEN (1926)

Other Information

Canada: Submitted to the Parliament of Canada on 20 February 1928 together with an Order in Council of 16 November 1927 confirming the report of the Law Officers of the Crown respecting the competence of Parliament or the provincial legislatures. Czechoslovakia: Submitted for opinion to the Czechoslovak navigation companies. Estonia: The inspection of the conditions of work of seamen is entrusted to the Seamen’s Institute (Act of 31 January 1925), which carries out its supervision upon the lines of the principles laid down in the Recommendation. Germany: Will be taken into consideration when the Seamen’s Code is remodelled, so far as the Recommendation would require fresh legislative action.
Hungary: The Chamber of Deputies, at its sitting on 20 October 1928, and the Upper Chamber, at its sitting on 16 November 1928, took note of a report by the Minister of Commerce recommending that the Recommendation should not be accepted, since there exists at present no Hungarian maritime undertaking in a position to maintain a service at sea.

Rumania: The situation does not yet allow of the adoption of the Recommendation by the Council of Ministers.

Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom: Submitted for examination to the Ministry of Social Affairs.

160. Throughout the year which has elapsed since last year's Report the small staff which deals with maritime questions has been employed almost exclusively on the work of preparing for the October Conference. Nevertheless, every endeavour has been made to carry on the various other studies and investigations in which the maritime world is particularly interested. The following notes review the progress made in these two classes of work. This review will necessarily be a brief one, especially as regards the questions on the Agenda of the forthcoming Conference; only an historical outline of the work done on these questions can be given here, so as not to prejudice the conclusions to be laid before the Conference.

161. The international regulation of hours of work on board ship is the first and unquestionably the most important item on the Agenda of the October Session of the Conference.

The historical evolution of this question towards a solution was reviewed in last year's Report, which also gave an outline of the views of the parties concerned, and of the actual position in the various countries. This will, in effect, be a continuation of the collection of provisions relating to the working conditions of seamen, the publication of which was begun for the Maritime Conference in 1926.

The Office is conscious of having used its best endeavours in the interests of the preparation of the Conference and of having done all in its power to help towards an agreement such as it has had in mind since the check at Genoa. It hopes that, in view of the experience which has been acquired since 1920, the general terms in which the question has been put on the Agenda for 1929 and the existence of a better spirit of mutual comprehension among all parties, some definite solution will emerge from the next discussion of this most important problem.

162. The discussions at the Conference in October will also afford an opportunity for dealing with one of the aspects of the problem of social insurance for seamen, viz. the important and vital question of the protection of seamen in case of sickness and injury.

The results of the Office's preparatory work on this question will be condensed in an international report on "the individual liability of the shipowner towards sick or injured seamen, and sickness insurance for seamen".

This preparatory work, which is already well advanced, has revealed the fact that the liabilities of shipowners in cases of sickness and injury are regulated, in the main, on similar lines in the majority of commercial or maritime laws, and that in practically every maritime country of any importance provisions exist organising compulsory sickness insurance for seamen. It may therefore be confidently hoped that the Conference will be in a position to frame international regulations on this matter without any great difficulty.

The development in national laws and regulations on social insurance for seamen is, as in previous Reports, reviewed in that
part of this Report which deals with social insurance for workers in general.  

163. — The question of the promotion of seamen's welfare in port, which is to some extent connected with the protection of the health of seamen, is also an item on the Agenda of the October Conference. The Office's preparatory work on this problem will be based principally on the report on the same subject submitted to and approved by the Ninth Session of the Conference and the fresh indications which have since been formulated by the Joint Maritime Commission. Special efforts are being made to collect definite information on what has already been done in the principal ports of the world, either by the public authorities (central, municipal or consular) or by private initiative (organisations of shipowners and seamen, philanthropic or religious institutions, etc.), with particular reference to hostels, homes, refreshment rooms, recreation and sports centres, libraries, etc., and their financial resources, practical working and the conditions under which they are available to foreign seamen.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the interest taken in certain aspects of the problem to be discussed at the Conference by various bodies which deal with questions of social hygiene and welfare for seamen. Since then the principal associations interested have got into touch with one another with a view to formulating a joint set of proposals which they consider should be adopted.

The League of Red Cross Societies and the International Union against Venerable Disease have been the principal movers in this matter and have organised a conference on hygiene and welfare in the merchant marine which will be held at Geneva on 7, 8 and 9 October, immediately preceding the opening of the Maritime Session of the Conference. This Conference, which will also be held under the auspices of the International Union against Tuberculosis and the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association, will comprise representatives of a considerable number of voluntary organisations desirous of formulating a programme of international action for the promotion of seamen's welfare. The discussions will be based on reports proposed by the various bodies concerned in each country and discussed at national conferences.

The success of these measures cannot but considerably facilitate the work of the Maritime Conference.

164. — The fourth item on the Agenda of the October Conference is the question of the establishment by each maritime country of a minimum requirement of professional capacity in the case of captains, navigating and engineering officers in charge of watches on board merchant ships.

The decision to include this question in the Agenda was taken on the unanimous opinion of the Joint Maritime Commission. It should be pointed out, however, that, as certain doubts had been expressed as to the exact scope of the question in the form suggested by the Commission, the Governing Body made it clear that there was no question of definite the contents of a sort of international certificate, but that the object was simply to make it an obligation for all maritime countries to guarantee that their mercantile marine officers possess a minimum standard of professional capacity.

Bearing these indications in mind, the Office is endeavouring to carry on alongside its work for the October Conference, special reference may be made to the enquiry into conditions of work in the fishing industry.

It must be admitted that it has not been possible to prosecute the large-scale enquiry into the fishing industry generally as energetically as might have been desired, but further information has been collected in various directions. In accordance with the indications given by the Conference in 1926 and by the Joint Maritime Commission, the main object kept in view in this collection of information has been to provide the necessary basis for ascertaining whether the Conventions already adopted for the protection of seamen in the merchant marine might be adapted for deep-sea fishermen.

As regards the enquiry into conditions of work in fishing for sponges, pearls, coral and other submarine products, a more or less detailed account of the results of the first investigations carried out in pursuance of the resolution of the Maritime Conference in 1926 was given in the Director's Report to the Eleventh Session of the Conference. Since then further efforts have been made to collect information for the special purpose of ascertaining the possibilities of regulating safety and working conditions in those cases where the fishing is carried on with the help of diving apparatus.

It is realised, however, that, though regulations are necessary in these cases, there will be certain difficulties in making them effective. Some of these difficulties are of a technical nature, but the most serious relate to the procedure to be followed for arriving at an agreement on the matter — for, while the question

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1 See above, § 135, particularly p. 185 (Spain) and p. 181 (Italy).
only affects a small number of the States Members of the Organisation, any regu-
lations, to be effective, should also be ex-
tended to one or two States which are out-
side the Organisation.

166. — The question of the protection of
the health of seamen has been further
considered by the mixed committee known
as the Joint Technical Standing Committee
for the Welfare of Seamen, which was es-

tablished to co-ordinate the work of the
Health Section of the League, the Interna-
tional Labour Office, the League of
Red Cross Societies and the various
other bodies concerned.

This Committee held its third meeting
in Paris on 29 and 30 October 1928 and
dealt chiefly with the question of the
revision of the draft standard medical
guide intended for the use of ship's
officers on board vessels on which no
doctor is carried. Although it may be
difficult to secure the absolutely universal
adoption of this medical guide, it never-
theless appears certain that it will be
used in most merchant fleets alongside the
national guides in present use; some
countries have already suspended the
preparation of their own medical guides
pending the issue of the standard guide.

The Committee also gave further consid-
eration to the question of medical con-
sultations by wireless, a particularly im-
portant question which is, however, closely
bound up with the question of the stan-
dardisation of ship's medicine chests.

167. — As has been previously pointed
out on several occasions, questions relating
to the safety of crews fall into two groups;
while some of them do not directly or
exclusively affect ship's crews, others
have an essential bearing on their working
and living conditions.

As regards the former group of ques-
tions, the Office simply makes such repre-
sentations as seem desirable to other
organisations more competent to deal
with them, notably the Transit and Com-
munications Organisation of the League
of Nations. As regards the second group,
and in particular those which the Office
has already directly dealt with itself,
the Office is continuing its official action;
this is the case with the questions of
deck cargoes and overloading.

In last year's Report it was pointed
out that there was an increasing desire
in various countries for unifying inter-
nationally the provisions on deck cargoes
of wood, and that the International
Shipping Conference had already framed
draft regulations on this matter which
had been approved by the Joint Maritime
Commission. Having examined the posi-
tion, the latter body adopted a resolution
urging that the provisions relating to
deck cargoes should be included in the

Agricultural Workers

168. — The following ratification and
application measures were taken during
1928 on the decisions of the Conference
in favour of agricultural workers:
Recommendation concerning the Prevention of Unemployment in Agriculture (1921)

No new measures in 1928.

Recommendation concerning the Protection before and after Childbirth of Women Wage-Earners in Agriculture (1921)

Miscellaneous Information

Germany: The possibility of giving full effect to the Recommendation will be considered when the Workers' Protection Bill is passed.

Recommendation concerning the Night Work of Women in Agriculture (1921)

Miscellaneous Information

Germany: The possibility of giving full effect to the Recommendation will be considered when the Workers' Protection Bill is passed.

Convention concerning the Age for Admission of Children to Employment in Agriculture (1921)

(a) Ratification Measures

Belgium: Ratification registered on 13 June 1928.

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.

Germany: A new regulation of agricultural employment can only be undertaken after the passing of the Workers' Protection Bill, on which it must be based. The Government will then consider the possibility of ratifying the Convention.

France: Submitted on 19 January 1929 to the Chamber of Deputies; ratification will be proposed when Parliament has reached a final decision upon the Bill to raise the age for school attendance to fourteen years.

Luxembourg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

Netherlands: Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention adopted on 21 February 1929 by the Second Chamber of the States-General.

Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

Recommendation concerning Night Work of Children and Young Persons in Agriculture (1921)

Miscellaneous Information

Germany: The possibility of giving full effect to the Recommendation will be considered when the Workers' Protection Bill is passed.

Recommendation concerning the Development of Technical Agricultural Education (1921)

No new measures in 1928.

Recommendation concerning Living-in Conditions of Agricultural Workers (1921)

Germany: The possibility of giving full effect to the Recommendation will be considered when the Workers' Protection Bill is passed.

Convention concerning the Rights of Association and Combination of Agricultural Workers (1921)

(a) Ratification Measures

Colombia: Submitted for examination to the Advisory Committee of the Labour Office.


Luxembourg: Ratification registered on 16 April 1928.

Norway: Royal Decree of 1 March 1929 submitting the Convention to the Storting for ratification.

Uruguay: Ratification approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 6 September 1928.

169. — In the sphere of agricultural labour there are no large events to signalise: there have been no appreciable changes in labour conditions, in particular none in wages. The reason is to be sought in the general depression in agriculture in most countries. Prices of agricultural produce have fallen everywhere, while costs of production have failed to fall as low or have sometimes even risen. Moreover, Governments under the pressure of financial need are not relaxing taxation, indeed, are sometimes adding to it. Nor does the cost of living show any definite tendency to drop, so that the working classes are unable to accept any lowering of wages. This is a situation which might be described as without issue if no confidence could be placed in the combined effort of agriculturists, workers and Governments to save agriculture, an industry which is the foundation of peace and prosperity.

One of the factors in the agricultural situation which gives rise to the greatest anxiety is the rural exodus. The rural labour force — workers, small cultivators, craftsmen — is leaving the countryside and the villages and being drawn into the towns by factory, commercial and clerical occupations. The formidable results are a decrease in the areas of arable cultivation and an increase in land laid down to grass or left without cultivation, the disappearance of a number of small farms and the proletarisation of a proportion of the agricultural middle classes, a process which in its turn impels them to migrate to the towns. Agriculture is thus being attacked by a real disease the causes of which are complex but
which urgently calls for any remedies which are available.

In their alarm agriculturists themselves are demanding in their own countries Government intervention and action with a view to making cereal cultivation, which is specially exposed by reason of the increasing scarcity of labour, more profitable. Such intervention will be fruitful only if the countries concerned can come to agreements on problems touching commerce, credit, etc. But the first thing to do, if it is desired to check the rural exodus, is to improve conditions for the agricultural worker so that he will be induced to stay on the land. Agricultural workers migrate to urban industries because they find in those industries more continuous employment, more comfortable labour conditions, a more protected existence. No progress can claim to have been made until three problems have been attacked: the problem of seasonal unemployment, by the provision for agricultural workers of healthy and profitable winter occupation, as far as possible in their own locality; the problem of raising agricultural wages to compare with industrial wages; and the problem of social insurance, the burden of which, though heavy, should not cause any hesitation, for the only way out of the present crisis is by making some sacrifices.

There is without doubt in all circles an understanding of the gravity of the economic and social problems which are weighing on agriculture. This preoccupation is strikingly illustrated in a passage in a resolution adopted by the Ninth Assembly of the League of Nations, which endorsed the opinion expressed by the Economic Consultative Committee "that the systematic study of the problems of agriculture will be an important factor in the encouragement of economic co-operation between peoples".

Agricultural employers are as well aware as agricultural workers that some effort is called for to save agriculture. The same degree of importance is not necessarily attached by all to any particular remedy, but it can scarcely be doubted that the agricultural problem has riveted the attention of the two most interested parties.

Those who direct the associations of agricultural employers are persuaded of the necessity for offering to rural workers conditions corresponding to conditions in manufacturing industry and in urban employment if they wish to retain for agriculture an adequate and appropriate supply of labour. In May 1928 the President of the International Commission of Agriculture, speaking at Vienna on an occasion when the Director was present, stated that the errors hitherto common of which had prevented agriculture from ensuring to its employees a standard of life corresponding to that obtaining in industry could not be sufficiently deplored. Proceedings of national congresses also convey the impression that the preoccupation to which expression was given at Vienna by the Marquis de Vogüé is prevalent in all countries.

The same point of view prevailed at two workers' congresses, viz. the Fifth Congress of the International Landworkers' Federation, which took place at Prague in September 1928, and the Second Congress of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions of Landworkers, which met at about the same time at Munich. The first of these congresses discussed the workers' demands in the light of the economic situation in agriculture in the different countries and recorded its belief in the efficacy of the progress of agricultural science and of technical education among the rural population. At the Munich congress a great deal of importance was attached to rationalisation methods in agriculture; the sine qua non of these methods was stated to be the participation of the workers therein. This subject falls within the scope of the collective bargaining principle, a principle which ought increasingly to be adopted as the basis of relations between employers and workers.

The problem therefore has been plainly stated and the groups whose interests are involved are in principle agreed as to the remedies which can be applied — improvement in the workers' labour conditions, more labour legislation, more agricultural education, and rationalisation of agriculture.

170. Social legislation. — Admitting that general agreement exists as to the propriety of ensuring to land workers conditions which correspond to those offered by manufacturing industries, there is nevertheless no disguising that there is still much work to be done before the gap, or rather the abyss, between agriculture and industry in the sphere of social legislation can be bridged, as the following brief summary will show.

Compulsory social insurance. — In respect of sickness insurance, protection as complete as that given to industrial workers is also given to agricultural workers in eight countries only: Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, the Irish Free State, Norway, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Poland has to unify her legislation, the different parts of the country being still subject to different systems dating from before the war. In Denmark, sickness insurance is not compulsory, and is carried out through the agency of State-recognised funds. In all other countries where a compulsory sickness insurance system
exists it applies to industrial workers only.

In respect of old-age and invalidity insurance, agricultural workers are admitted to compulsory systems side by side with industrial workers in ten countries only: Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, Spain, and Sweden. To this list may now be added Austria, which has just put her new Act into operation; however, the Act admits agricultural workers to old-age pensions only at the age of sixty-five, whereas industrial workers are admitted at sixty. In Poland, the old-age insurance system operates only in the territory formerly under German administration. In Bulgaria and Luxemburg no class of agricultural worker benefits by the old-age insurance legislation.

In respect of insurance against industrial accidents agricultural workers are protected in nineteen States: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, Luxemburg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Sweden. Other countries give them partial protection, namely, Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, Cuba, Ecuador, Hungary, Norway, Peru, Rumania, Salvador, South Africa, Spain, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. This leaves a very large number of countries in which, while protecting workers in industry, fail to protect agricultural workers at all.

In respect of unemployment insurance, there is very little to say. Except in Germany, where a system of compulsory unemployment insurance has been adopted which applies to agriculture as well as to other industries, though excluding certain groups of agricultural workers, e.g., farm servants, agricultural workers are everywhere excluded from the advantages of this form of insurance. It is true that voluntary insurance has given good results in certain countries, for instance, in Denmark and the Netherlands, where strong and active workers' organisations exist; but in many progressive countries agricultural workers are wholly unprotected against the risk of unemployment.

The progress made in 1928 in social insurance has not been very striking. In Austria, under a Federal Act a compulsory system has been established which insures all agricultural workers, including farm servants, against accidents, sickness, old age, invalidity, and death. In France, the Social Insurance Act, which is to come into force next year, is giving rise to very lively discussion in agricultural circles, particularly among employers, who demand that it shall be amended so as to place the function of insuring agricultural workers in the hands of the mutual insurance societies.

Child labour. — Only a few countries have legislated to protect children employed on agricultural work, and even their action has been slight. Measures protecting children in agricultural occupations to the same extent as in industrial occupations are rare. Distinctions and exceptions are to be found throughout and their result is invariably to the disadvantage of the child employed in agriculture. These differences in legislation range from such a small distinction as that under which children may be employed on agricultural tasks for an hour or two longer on public holdiay than is permitted in industrial employment, down to a complete lack of all protection for child labour in the fields, a lack which is in really painful contrast with the protection extended to children employed in industrial occupations.

It must be admitted that it is a more difficult matter to protect children engaged in agriculture than those engaged in industry, many agricultural workers being tolerable, even useful, to children. The division of land has resulted in creating, alongside of large and medium-sized farms cultivated by hired labour, a number of small family holdings so organised as to preclude the persons who cultivate them from being able to abstain from using the labour of their own children at certain seasons. Nevertheless, in the opinion of the Office, the protection of child labour is a problem on which agriculture is too greatly neglects. Children of twelve to fourteen years of age too often replace men and women in exacting work which requires special strength and experience, through the complicity alike of the employer who economises on his costs of production by engaging child workers and of the children's parents who simply consider their result is invariably to the disadvantage of the child employed in agriculture. These differences in legislation range from such a small distinction as that under which children may be employed on agricultural tasks for an hour or two longer on public holdiay than is permitted in industrial employment, down to a complete lack of all protection for child labour in the fields, a lack which is in really painful contrast with the protection extended to children employed in industrial occupations.

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Wages. — It is not proposed to endeavour to analyse wages movements among agricultural workers. The Office is following this important problem closely and devoting special attention to the relation of wages to cost of living. But some mention must be made of a special aspect of this complicated question, namely, the minimum wage. Opinions differ as to whether it should or should not be adopted in agriculture. Some persons hold that, where it is found difficult to create workers' organisations, employers are able to impose wages below the minimum required to maintain the workers' families, to the great injury not merely of the special interests of agricultural workers but of the general interests of the community. Indeed, the countries where this is the situation are just those countries which need to attract foreign labour in order to open up great tracts of uncultivated or insufficiently cultivated land; but no current of immigration can be expected into a country where wages are too low. The general interest is also at stake in countries where the gap between agricultural and industrial wages induces the workers to leave the land. In reply to these arguments advanced in favour of the minimum wage, other persons are in favour of referring the business of wage fixing to collective bargaining. The laying down of a minimum wage by law is, in their eyes, useless and may even be risky, for the minimum may become a barrier beyond which it may prove difficult to proceed when the wages market or the employment market would justify an alteration in the reward allotted to labour. The divergence of opinion on this question obtains even within the organisations of agricultural workers. An enquiry carried through by the International Landworkers' Federation showed that the English, Netherlands and Polish organisations were favourable to the minimum wage in agriculture; the English organisation stated that English agricultural workers have considerably benefited by their Act on agricultural wages, while the Netherlands and Polish organisations are asking for legislation in their countries. The remaining organisations, including the Scottish organisation, declared themselves definitely opposed.

The question had been raised at the Fourth Congress of the Federation in 1926, but with a doubtful outcome. At the Fifth Congress of the Federation (Prague, 1928) a definite decision was taken which gave the victory to the principle of fixing wages by the method of collective bargaining. The English workers maintain their preference for their own legislation, which, however, is not simply a minimum wage Act but is itself based on the idea of the collective agreement. The British Government has made known, through a statement made by the Minister of Agriculture, that it proposes to maintain in force the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act, 1924, which covers England and Wales and sets up local wages committees for fixing agricultural wages rates.

Housing. — The importance of this question does not need to be argued. Efforts are being made in many countries to improve the housing of agricultural workers, though not often by means of special legislation, preference being given to indirect measures such as the provision of credit, pushing on of public works, etc. Mention may be made of the steps taken by Italy, where the Government has codified all the legislation dealing with agricultural improvements, systematised them and made them more effective, and in the course of this process has assigned a considerable amount of attention to housing problems. In France, the Loucheur Housing Act will encourage the construction and improvement of rural housing. French agriculturists are formulating requests at their congresses that the Act shall be amended to serve the interests of agriculture better.

171. Collective labour agreements. — The question of collective labour agreements was raised by the workers' group at the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference. The Office was prepared for the task entrusted to it; studies on this question have already been published and others are in preparation. There is nothing to indicate that the importance of this problem; its scope is familiar to every student of labour. The principle of collective bargaining is the result of necessity. Progress in methods of production makes organisation of employers and of workers essential, and the existence of such organisations and the need for standardising labour conditions in different enterprises and on different markets make it necessary and possible to conclude collective agreements, and this is true for manufactures and for agriculture alike. However, in agriculture certain difficulties arise. Agricultural workers are often scattered over the country: it is less easy to organise them or to maintain the necessary contacts between the organisations and their members. Moreover, there is less specialisation and also less permanence of occupation in agriculture than in manufactures. Hence, collective agreements may become much more easily from one category to another, from one country to another, and their organisations find it difficult to follow them up or to protect them and keep them in sight. Relations between employers and employed tend to maintain their individual character, which is of a certain advantage in the functioning of the farm, but is none the less a real impediment to any application of collective bargaining on a wide scale.

Mention has been made of the gulf which separates the world of agriculture...
and the world of industry in matters of labour protection. The workers' group is therefore well advised in arguing that the collective bargain could play a special part in agriculture. This side of the question should interest the Office above all others. How far are collective agreements in agriculture effective, and how far can their effectiveness be increased? And then there is the essential question of the enforcement and the legal scope of collective agreements. Here agriculture will have to fit itself into the various national systems and the considerable differences in the legal basis of the collective bargain in different countries will have to be enquired into as regards their effect on agriculture in view of the inadequate organisation of this branch of production and the very large number of employers and also of workers described as independent whom it embraces. A further difficult question is the choice between the local or district agreement and the national agreement. Standards of agricultural wages questions are aware how much weight agricultural workers lay on the principle of levelling up the low wages of one district to the higher standard obtaining in other districts; nevertheless, the conclusion of a single national agreement will hardly be possible in most countries except in the form of a "skeleton" agreement. Again, there is the question of the number of agreements. If agreements cover only certain groups of agricultural workers in a country, employers may be tempted to engage their labour force during times of economic depression from the unprotected groups of workers who for that very reason will constitute a cheaper type of labour; collective bargaining could then result in nothing but a deteriorated chaotic system, of no one. Finally, an examination of collective bargaining in agriculture cannot neglect the eternal problem of the definition of the classes of persons covered by the expression "agricultural worker". Is the small holder included among those competent to conclude collective agreements? Are the so-called agricultural industries, e.g. the sugar industry, included? These questions have already received answers in some countries. Italy has gradually taken certain definite decisions consequential on the enactment of the 1926 Act on Corporations, and these decisions have the effect of ranging the small cultivator, both share and cash tenant, with the worker. The system laid down in Spain by the Legislative Decree of 12 May 1928 is less known because never. Of the three corporations which are constituted from among the whole body of agricultural producers, the first, the corporation of agricultural labour, includes the employers and day labourers in the country districts; the second, the rural property corporation, includes landed proprietors and farmers, masons or any other person under a contract to work land belonging to someone else; and the third includes producers of agricultural raw materials and those who utilise or transform this produce. These three corporations are each composed of three joint bodies in the following order—local committees (district or inter-district), provincial committees and a national council. The functions of these bodies are to regulate the relations between the interests represented in each corporation and to prevent or settle disputes which may arise between them. The principle of joint representation is strictly applied. In short, the questions of collective agreements in agriculture are only part of the main question of the organisation of agriculture, to which the attention of the Conference has been frequently drawn.

**Salaried Employees**

172. — In regard to labour legislation, private salaried employees are in a special position, which varies in different countries. In some cases, as in Great Britain, no distinction is made between them and manual workers in the application of social legislation, or such distinctions are quite exceptional. In other cases, in addition to legislative enactments covering both manual workers and salaried employees, there are special enactments relating exclusively to the latter. In France, for example, the Act relating to hours of work and the Act relating to social insurance are applicable both to salaried employees and manual workers, while other Acts only apply to salaried employees (weekly rest, notice of termination of contract, etc.). In some countries (Austria, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Czecheslovakia, Finland, Hungary, Italy, Luxemburg, Peru, Poland) special Acts have been passed for regulating contracts of service of salaried employees. Generally speaking, the principal object of these Acts has been to consolidate provisions which were previously scattered through a large number of Acts. They are not intended to establish regulations opposed to the legislation affecting manual workers. As a matter of fact, a general survey of the position would perhaps reveal a tendency to unity in the development of labour protection measures, whether enacted for the benefit of manual workers or salaried employees. As a general rule, the developments in the regulation of the situation of salaried employees are chiefly to be seen in the provisions inserted in collective agreements. There are national collective agreements for certain categories of salaried employees in Germany (bank employees, insurance employees, Government employees) and in Austria (insurance
employees). This kind of contract does not appear to exist in Belgium, France or Great Britain. In Switzerland there is a model contract for bank employees which is of a national character inasmuch as it is applied by the great banks established in the principal towns. In Italy a very considerable effort was made during the year 1928 for the conclusion of collective agreements. Thirteen national agreements were concluded affecting thirteen categories of salaried employees. An agreement was concluded for commercial travellers and representatives. Other parties in preparation. Independently of the national agreements, 760 provincial agreements were entered into during the year. In Germany collective agreements exist covering several categories of salaried employees in a number of towns. In that country, as in Austria, there are agreements applicable to a State or several States (inter-regional). There are also regional agreements of an extremely variable character. The majority of agreements, however, have been entered into in the towns: they are special agreements for individual undertakings. In France and in Great Britain many agreements only affect a single undertaking. In Switzerland the practice of collective agreements does not exist to any great extent among commercial employees. The salaried employees' organisations are demanding a modification of the provisions of the Federal Code of Obligations with a view to enabling them to secure, with the assistance of the public authorities, the conclusion of collective agreements as soon as groups of employees in any profession or branch of industry demand the same. In Belgium and Luxemburg the practice of collective agreements among salaried employees is also very little used.

In last year's Report a survey was given of the position of legislation on some of the questions which affect salaried employees as such. It is proposed in the following notes to indicate the changes which have taken place during 1928.

173. Termination of contracts of service of salaried employees. — In France, an Act of 21 July 1928 has modified the provisions of the Labour Code in relation to the termination of contracts of service and the period of notice. The new Act introduces the principle of notice, which was not to be found in the earlier legislation. It thus confirms an existing custom. A period of notice is now included among the terminations of a contract of service may be terminated, and fixes the periods of notice and provisions relating to compensation in case of premature or unjustified dismissal. It further enumerates the cases in which a contract of service may be terminated and fixes the periods of notice and provisions for compensation in case of premature or unjustified dismissal. It indicates the cases in which an employer is entitled to terminate a contract without notice. It contains provisions relating to working regulations (distribution of hours of work, rest periods, payment of wages, etc.). Penalties are provided for infringements of the provisions of the Decree.

174. Restraint of trade clause. — In Czechoslovakia, a Bill has been introduced by the Government. It provides that any agreement between an employer and a salaried employee which limits the professional activity of the latter after the termination of his contract of service shall be null and void:

(1) if the agreement was entered into by an employee under age;
(2) if the employee was not in a position to discover manufacturing or business secrets;
(3) if his salary did not exceed 24,000 kč. at the date of the expiration of the contract.
In the case of an employee in receipt of a salary exceeding 24,000 kč, the agreement will only be effective subject to the following conditions:

1. if its object was the protection of the legitimate professional interests of the employer, and, among other things, if the employee in the course of his employment had discovered manufacturing or business secrets of the employer;
2. if the limitation refers only to professional activity in the branch of manufacture or business carried on by the employer and does not exceed a period of two years from the termination of the contract;
3. if the limitation in question, having regard to its object and the circumstances of time and place, does not from the point of view of equity create excessive difficulties for the employee in obtaining means of subsistence;
4. any agreement is null and void by which a third party undertakes for an employee to limit his professional activity after the expiration of the contract.

A restraint of trade clause is not valid if the employee terminates the contract through the wrongful act of the employer and declares in writing within one month that the clause is not binding on him.

Such a clause is void in case of illegal termination of the contract by the employer, unless the employer undertakes during the whole period of the restriction to pay to the employee the salary which he was receiving at the date of the breach of the contract.

An agreement by which an employer agrees with another person not to engage an employee or only to engage him subject to restrictive conditions is declared null and void and may constitute a cause of action.

If the employee is bound to pay compensation in case of infringement of a restraint of trade clause, the employer is only entitled to demand payment of the agreed penalty. He cannot in such a case claim the fulfilment of the obligations undertaken by the clause or the payment of damages for breach of contract. The agreed penalty may be reduced by the Court.

In Poland, section 10 of the Decree of 16 March 1928, relating to contracts of service of intellectual workers (salaried employees), provides that constraint of trade clauses shall not be valid unless concluded with an employee of full age. Any such clause must in addition be in writing, and the employer must undertake to pay to the employee during the whole period of the restriction at least one-half of the average salary which the employee received during the last three years, or, if the employment lasted for a shorter period, during the whole of the employment. Any such clause will apply only to the branch of business in which the employee was engaged. The period of the restriction must not exceed one year. It is provided that an indemnity by way of compensation must be paid not later than the end of each month. A restraint of trade clause will cease to be valid if the contract of service is terminated through the fault of the employer or if the latest remuneration of the employee does not exceed 6,000 złotys per annum.

On the other hand, in case of dismissal of the employee through his own fault, he will lose all right to the indemnity by way of compensation.

The above provisions apply to commercial employees, technicians, foremen and engineers.

175. Regulation of shop closing. — Shop-closing legislation, far from diminishing in importance since hours of work have been generally regulated in commerce, has on the contrary been considered an indispensable complement to such regulation. As the period of opening becomes shorter, it is being found necessary to issue special regulations making allowances for certain classes of shops to meet special needs.

In Denmark, an Act of 4 April 1928 made certain additions to the provisions of the Shop-Closing Act of 90 June 1922.

In the Netherlands, a Shop-Closing Bill was introduced in the Second Chamber by the Minister of Labour on 14 June 1928. This Bill, like the preliminary Bill mentioned in last year's Report, provides that shops are not to be open after 8 p.m. or before 5 a.m. Exceptions are allowed for certain periods and certain shops. At the time of the Budget debate in 1929 the Minister of Labour explained that the adoption of this Bill was necessary for the purpose of enforcing the Decree relating to hours of work in shops. The simultaneous introduction of legal regulations on hours of work in shops and shop-closing was just as indispensable, he added, as the simultaneous prohibition of night work in bakeries and of the sale of new bread before 10 o'clock in the morning.

In Poland, the Decree-Act of 2 March 1928 fixed the hour for the closing of shops at 7 p.m. at the latest, with the exception of restaurants, places for the sale of refreshing drinks, and newspaper and tobacco shops, to which special rules are applied.

This Decree repeals the earlier provisions under which the provincial and municipal authorities fixed the opening and closing hours.
By virtue of the new Decree-Act the hours must be the same in any locality for all establishments of the same class.

In the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, the Decree of 25 September 1924, under the Act of 28 February 1922 relating to the protection of workers, fixed the period during which commercial undertakings might remain open from 6 a.m. to 7 p.m. An order of the Minister of Social Affairs suspended the operation of this Decree.

A new Decree of 3 May 1928, amended on 20 July 1928, fixed the hours for opening and closing commercial undertakings, as follows: from 1 April to 30 September, shops are not to open before 5 a.m. or close later than 8 p.m.; from 1 October to 31 March, they are not to open before 6 a.m. or close later than 7 p.m.; the undertakings affected must also close for one hour between 12 noon and 3 p.m.

Elsewhere the legislative measures adopted are of a very limited scope. In Iceland, for example, the Act of 7 May 1928 is applicable only to shops in market towns, the Decree of 27 March 1928 in Guatemala only to hairdressing establishments, and the Rumanian Ministerial Order of 1 February 1928 only to druggists' shops.

In Czechoslovakia, the Union of Commercial Employees has petitioned the Government and the Chambers for a speedy amendment of the section of the Industrial Regulations of 1859, amended in 1907, which authorises the opening of shops between 5 o'clock in the morning and 8 o'clock in the evening, and, as regards provision shops, between 5 o'clock in the morning and 9 o'clock in the evening. The Public Administration Offices of second instance may, by virtue of these regulations, advance the closing hour to 7 o'clock at the earliest, or 8 o'clock in the case of provision shops, or postpone the opening to a time later than 5 o'clock. The Union wishes it to be made possible by agreement between employers and employees to fix the closing hour earlier than 7 o'clock.

In Switzerland, where shop-closing legislation is within the competence of the cantons, very few of these have adopted regulations. The Swiss Chamber of Salaried Employees, therefore, at its meeting on 14 and 15 September 1928, demanding among various other matters relating to the preparation of a salaried employees law, the adoption of federal regulations compelling all shops to close for the whole day on Sundays and public holidays and fixing the closing hour on ordinary days at 8 p.m. at the latest.

To supplement the above notes concerning private salaried employees, men-

1 Intellectual (Professional) Workers

176. — Last year's Report announced the constitution of the new Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers and outlined its initial tasks. The Committee's first session was held at Geneva on 22-23 October 1928, as stated ante, § 26. The Agenda included the following items: (1) the "conscience clause" concerning the termination of the employment of journalists in cases where the complexion of their paper is changed; (2) The "radius clauses" or clauses concerning the subsequent employment of engineers and technical workers leaving the service of an undertaking; (3) the finding of employment for artistes; and (4) inventions by salaried workers. The Committee had also to consider the Office's preliminary work on a report on unemployment among professional workers.

The question of the incompatibility which may arise for a journalist between his personal convictions and his professional duties was considered by the Committee, which soon realised that it was difficult to isolate this problem from the more general question of the contract of

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1 See footnote, above, p. 28.
employment. The Committee considered that the question ought to be taken up from the latter angle and that an attempt should be made for that purpose by eliciting the opinion of the parties concerned.

The "radius clauses" occur in the contracts of certain classes of salaried employees, principally technical staff, and their effect is to prevent such persons on the termination of their period of service in one undertaking from accepting further employment in a similar or analogous business. The workers affected demand that this system should be reconsidered and desire that at any rate a certain number of restrictions should be placed on its application. The Advisory Committee came to the conclusion that certain principles should be laid down with a view to preventing abuses. It was of the opinion that, in order to be valid, any clause of a contract of employment prohibiting a salaried employee, after the expiry of the contract, from carrying on another business by himself or from joining with others for the purpose of carrying on another business, or from entering the service of other employers, should be restricted to safeguarding the legitimate interests of the employer against the prejudice that would be caused him by the disclosure of manufacturing processes and by competition making use of the special knowledge acquired in his service. It was considered that the International Labour Office should get into touch with the interested parties in order to ascertain their views on the principles enunciated above. The Committee further submitted for the consideration of the Office a more precise question, viz.: What is the position of a judge when confronted with a penal clause inserted in a contract to guarantee the fulfilment of an obligation not to resort to competition? Should the penalty clause be applied as it stands, even if the total compensation that it provides for is clearly higher than the sum required to make good the damage caused by failure to fulfill the said obligation? May he, on the contrary, take the penalty clause into account only so far as is equitable, and proportion the compensation to the damage? The finding of employment for artistes is one of the problems in which the artistes themselves are most keenly interested. The Committee thought it too complex for immediate solution. However, it took note of a draft resolution submitted by Mr. Gallié on behalf of the International Confederation of Professional Workers, in which it was stated that the finding of employment for theatrical artistes by the intermediary of commercial agencies gives rise in most countries to regrettable abuses (charging of excessive fees, use of the agencies, on occasion, for immoral purposes); and that Article 427 of the Treaty of Versailles has established the principle that labour should not be regarded merely as a commodity or article of commerce, and that the existence of the above-mentioned abuses seems, in view of this principle, to condemn the activities of commercial agencies. The draft resolution therefore proposed that it is desirable to suppress commercial employment agencies for artistes as soon as possible and, pending their suppression, to subject them to strict supervision; and that concurrently with restrictive measures applying to commercial agencies, it is desirable to take measures for the development or the institution, either by public authorities or by professional organisations, of joint free employment agencies for artistes—agencies which give satisfactory results in the countries in which they already exist. The Committee further expressed the wish that either by correspondence or by the convocation of experts the greatest possible number of interested parties should be consulted. It held that the questions put should concern not only "spectacular performers", the term "professional artistes" being regarded as too narrow.

The question of inventions by salaried workers gave rise to a long discussion, in the course of which important differences of opinion appeared as to the extent to which inventors who are paid salaries should be protected. In view of the complicated nature of the question, the Committee decided in this case also that it was desirable to collect opinions on the widest possible basis. It therefore requested the Office to continue, in collaboration with the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, the study of this question and to collect further information and opinions, not overlooking the opinion of the United International Bureau of Industrial, Literary and Artistic Property at Berne.

With regard to unemployment among professional workers, the Office had drawn up, for a general study of this question, a plan which was fully approved by the Committee. It was agreed that certain points should be dealt with in collaboration with the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation.

Thus, in general, the Committee decided that further opinions should be obtained before an attempt was made to come to a conclusion on the questions submitted. This procedure makes it possible to compensate in a very satisfactory manner the necessarily limited size of the Committee; for whilst it is clearly impossible, for financial reasons, to include in the Committee representatives of all the interests affected, yet in view of the varied and complicated nature of the questions treated, it has always been understood that the Committee, once it has defined the problems and indicated the general direction in which their solution should be sought, may proceed to such consultations of experts as appear necessary.
In addition to the items on its agenda, the Committee found itself in the course of its discussions obliged to deal with certain general problems concerning the scope of its activities. It was in particular forced upon the Committee's notice that for the consideration of various questions a certain extension of its membership was desirable. It therefore declared that it would be desirable for the employees' organisations to take part in its work in order to enable it to undertake a comprehensive enquiry capable of achieving positive results. A number of recommendations submitted by its members on behalf of their organisations were also noted by the Committee. For instance, a recommendation was submitted by Mr. di Giacomo, representing the Confederation of Fascist Unions of Professional Workers, to the effect that:

... not only the intellectual workers who have a contract of employment should have recourse to the International Labour Office, but that the independent intellectuals and artists should do so as well, as they also have economic interests to safeguard and problems to solve—problems of apprenticeship, provident institutions, relief, etc.; and that it is essential to extend the measures adopted for manual workers to the intellectuals and artists of the whole world; that is to say, consideration must be given to provident institutions, relief, sickness insurance and the widows and orphans of intellectual workers.

Another recommendation was submitted by Mr. Rygier on behalf of the Polish Confederation of Professional Workers and the Union of Polish Professional Workers' Associations urging that the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers should deal with the following problems: (1) problems concerning the scientific, liberal, artistic, etc., professions; (2) problems concerning officials; (3) problems concerning salaried employees; and that:

the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers should appoint a sub-committee to study the programme of the professional workers for professional organisation and, in a general way, their economic and social programme.

Lastly, a further recommendation submitted by Mr. Gallé expressed the hope that:

the Committee would be composed exclusively of representatives of professional and international organisations, and would take no account of nationality.

Since the meeting of the Advisory Committee, some progress has been already achieved. The consultation of experts has begun, as requested by the Committee with regard to four of the questions considered by it. The question of the penal clause, in connection with the "radius clause", is under investigation, and the Committee will be able to submit to the next meeting of the Advisory Committee a fairly complete legal and documentary study of the state of legislation and jurisprudence on this subject in several countries.

The enquiry into unemployment among professional workers, the plan of which was approved by the Advisory Committee, has made considerable headway. Nearly 1,500 copies of the plan have been sent to a great number of national and international organisations, and new contacts have been established with engineers in all parts of the world. The scope of the enquiry is very wide; it aims at dealing with all the professions, and while it will endeavour to throw into relief different situations existing among them, yet it will not pause to search for a priori definitions. The general divisions of the report will be as follows: (a) collection of data concerning the extent of unemployment among professional workers and its individual and social consequences; (b) indication of its causes; (c) scheme of possible remedies.

It is as yet too early to forecast the documentary value of this report; but doubtless it will prove to be merely preliminary to a systematic series of studies of the individual professions. In this case it will become necessary to ask help from the various national administrations, especially for the statistical parts, in order to secure statistics as to unemployment among professional workers are extremely fragmentary and dissimilar.

During the past year several national and international conferences, conventions and congresses of professional workers were held in various centres. Several of these meetings were able to register considerable progress toward the attainment of professional unity through successful efforts toward federation or amalgamation.

In all these assemblies of professional workers, as well as in the regular activities of their associations, certain general tendencies may be discerned. They are all concerned with improving the professional organisation, the technical efficiency and the economic and social status of their members, so as not only to recover the position which they lost in the stress of the war and its aftermath, but also to render them, individually and collectively, more important factors in the political and industrial life of the present time.

In the various national and international movements, there is the same determination to achieve the same reforms, whether according to an ordered and symmetrical programme or opportunistically, one by one. Among the specific aims and objects advocated in the regular bulletins of these unions, federations and confederations or in their annual congresses, are to be found improvements affecting such matters as the journalists' conscience clause and schools of journalism, the engineers' radius clause and protection of titles, the physicians' position in face of the illegal practice of medicine, the artists' freedom of movement from country to country, the musicians' struggle against the threatening dominance of
mechanical music in cinemas, together with questions of a more general character interesting in greater or lesser degree nearly all categories of professional workers. Among these latter topics are included social insurance, provident funds, old-age pensions, sickness benefits, paid holidays, unemployment bureaux, apprenticeship laws, vocational guidance, collective agreements, type labour-contracts, regulation of hours, payment of overtime, minimum salaries, seniority rights, the giving of notice, arbitration before dismissal, the right of association, profit-sharing, inventors' rights, protection against the competition of foreigners, safety and hygiene in daily work. Thus it is evident that professional workers, abandoning in the face of changed circumstances their former individualism, are grouping themselves nationally and internationally in a new social solidarity, and are profiting at length from the example set them by the industrial workers in their trade-union movement.

The growing international consciousness among professional workers is illustrated not only by the declarations of their international congresses but also by their frequent appeals to the International Labour Organisation. To cite only three examples: the International Union of Artistes (Theatrical, Cinematograph, Broadcasting), assembled in congress, instructed its executive committee to request the International Labour Office to press for legislation in favour of national pension funds for artistes in the countries where no such legislation now exists; the congress of the Universal Theatrical Society expressed the wish that the International Labour Conference should draw up international regulations dealing with "the legal and social problems affecting all theatrical workers"; and the International Federation of Journalists asked for and collaborated in the preparation of the Office's study entitled The Conditions of Work and Life of Journalists. The requests for information received by the Office are increasingly numerous.

Under the impulsion of the multiple organisations and tireless activity of the professional workers, some legislative progress was accomplished during 1928. The Brazilian Act of July 1928, for example, regulates the organisation of theatrical enterprises and makes a contract between artiste and management compulsory. In France, bills have been submitted to Parliament for the creation of a national obligatory Medical Association (Ordre de Médecins) with disciplinary powers, such as exists already in Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, Spain and other countries; likewise for the institution of a similar Chemists' Association.

In Italy, the new statutes containing the special programme of the National Confederation of Liberal Professions and of Artists was approved by Royal Decree in December, while a draft Decree concerning the reorganisation of the Colleges of Barristers and Solicitors was approved in October by the Council of Ministers.

In Poland, three Governmental Decrees have begun to regulate the enjoyment by professional workers of different social insurances, the drawing-up of working agreements covering the methods of salary payments and indemnities in case of resignation or death, as well as regular statistical statements by employers with regard to salaries and mode of payment. On the whole, although legislative progress during 1928 was confined to a few countries, it may still be said that it was gathering momentum and promising more rapid and wide-spread reforms for the near future. Needless to add that statutory enactments are not always an adequate gauge of social advancement. Through collective agreements and other corporate achievements, the professional workers of the world have gained more in 1928 than is as yet registered in Acts of Parliament.

In conclusion it may be said that the professional workers' movement has grown in strength during the past year. The main gains seem to have been along the lines of professional organisation. In the trade union movement the usual order of progress has been from the single union to a federation of a given trade and from there to a confederation of several trades. The professional workers were slow in starting, and they have been eager to make up for lost time. The work of organising the individual professions and the effort to group them in general national and even international confederations have both been proceeding at the same time. In the early stages such double action must sometimes result in a slight statistical and organic uncertainty, but the increasingly firm formation of the various professional groups will soon give a clearer view of the whole situation.

Last year's Report quoted a certain definition of intellectual (or professional) workers, but indicated the difficulty of applying dogmatically a clear and simple definition to a complex and multiform social movement. This difficulty still subsists and will doubtless continue for years to come, but it need not constitute an obstacle to practical progress. A priori definitions of intellectual (or professional) workers, of employees and of officials are necessarily in danger of overlapping, especially as the same individuals would find themselves in different categories in different countries. One evidence of the fact that legitimate differences of opinion may still exist as to the frontiers between adjoining bodies of non-manual workers is seen in the fact that the Governing Body has found itself confronted with two
motions involving two distinct views of the question. One motion looks toward the establishment of a new, separate and autonomous committee on salaried employees, while the other provides for the admission of salaried employees to the present Advisory Committee on Professional Workers.

Whichever view prevails, the ultimate ideal of the unity of labour will hardly be adversely affected, since it is by this time fairly clear that the goal will be finally attained through the operation of the federative and confederative principle and not through direct absorption or amalgamation. There is, therefore, every reason to expect that the present Advisory Committee on Professional Workers, whether trade unionists, professional workers or employees.

Native and Colonial Labour

177. — The same division of the information to be presented under this heading has been adopted as in last year's Report. The situation in the individual territories is examined in the paragraphs headed "The National Movements", whilst the developments of international opinion and the work of the International Labour Organisation are summarised under "The International Movement". The information supplied by States on the application, in accordance with Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles, of ratified Conventions in their colonies is given in the Second Part of this Report.

A. — The National Movements

178. — It was pointed out in last year's Report that, apart altogether from humanitarian considerations, there was an increasing appreciation by administrations and employers of the necessity of the protection of native peoples in order to safeguard the present and future economic development of colonial territories. This movement has been even more marked during 1928. As will be seen from the following pages, almost all colonial territories in which there are European-owned undertakings have found increasing difficulty in obtaining an adequate and efficient labour force. In two territories, French Equatorial Africa and Spanish Fernando Po, measures have been taken to help in overcoming the difficulty by having recourse to Chinese and Indo-Chinese immigrant labour. It is, however, becoming widely recognised that the solution must be sought in the improvement of the physical and economic standards of the native populations. This increasing realisation that the successful development of colonial territories depends upon the co-operation of healthy and contented native peoples is the most encouraging feature of the situation as it presents itself to-day.

Belgium. — The anxiety shown by the Belgian Government in regard to the problem of the labour supply in the Belgian Congo increased during the past year. In the Director's Report to the last Conference, mention was made of the work of the Committee set up in 1924-25 to study this difficult problem. During the three years following the Committee's report, the application of the principles recommended has been hindered by serious practical difficulties, since the colony has developed economically even more rapidly and demands for labour have accordingly increased.

For these reasons the Government felt it necessary to proceed to a further consultation, which was entrusted at the beginning of 1928 to an Advisory Labour Committee under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister, who is Minister for the Colonies. This Committee endeavoured to define the term "economic zones", which notion had already been outlined in the 1925 Commission's report. The term was held to mean those districts which have already been penetrated ("saturated") to such an extent that the suspension of the grant of further land concessions and the prohibition of recruiting appear necessary. The Committee also laid down certain important principles relating to the operations of recruiting. Recruiting, it was held, could not be allowed to involve constraint. Nevertheless, it was admitted that the intervention of the administration and active encouragement on its part were still necessary to persuade the natives to collaborate with the Europeans. The Report endeavoured to define the degree to which this encouragement could be undertaken by the administration without becoming a kind of moral pressure for the benefit of particular undertakings.

It seems probable that the recommendations of this Committee will tend to give the Government's policy a new direction in regard to the recruiting of native workers. At the same time, it is to be noted that it has been found necessary to admit a period of transition between the present system and the system which will result from the enforcement of the suggestions made.

The report on the administration of the Belgian Congo for the year 1926, which has been recently published, shows that the colony is not lacking in men fit for labour, but in men who are willing to labour without compulsion. With the object of encouraging the natives to undertake employment on European estates, a Draft Decree has been submitted to the Minister for the Colonies, which would introduce reforms in the labour system in respect of: (1) the measures of medical aid to be provided for the workers; (2) the liability of the employer for the sup-
port of the wives and children of recruits who are not housed in their home villages; (3) the obligation on the employer to justify his claims for labour and to prove that he is doing all in his power to substitute machinery for hand labour; (4) lastly, the avoidance of intensive recruiting operations by any one district, the holder of a recruiting permit not being allowed to begin his operations without obtaining the visa of the local authorities.

The problem of the labour supply gave rise in 1928 to much discussion in the Belgian press. Several writers raised the question whether the labour resources of the colony were not already fully utilised. Mr. Louwers, for example, who is a member of the Colonial Council and Secretary General of the International Colonial Institute, went so far as to consider a change in the political economy of the colony. His argument 1 is to the effect that the progressive industrialisation of the Congo is creating a black proletariat divorced from its natural surroundings, forming a factor in depopulation; if native cultivation were developed, the native would remain in his own locality where he would evolve normally, and where his living conditions and his health would be gradually improved. Mr. Louwers' contention has been disputed, in particular by Mr. Lippens, honorary Governor-General of the Congo, who defended the social policy of the colonial companies, showing that 10 per cent. of the total exports were used for health protection.

During 1928, no important labour legislation was adopted. Reference should, however, be made to an Order of 30 April 1928, modifying and completing the Order of 7 September 1927, regulating porterage in the Katanga Province and an Order of 7 May 1928, providing for the acclimatisation of natives from other districts recruited or engaged for employment in the industrial regions of the Upper Katanga.

The report on the administration of Ruanda-Urundi during 1927, contains certain interesting details on the labour system in this mandated territory. The labour used by the various Government services, the missions and private undertakings totals an average of about 20,000 workers a day, of whom some 8,500 are porters.

Certain important texts relating to labour in the Belgian Congo have been recently extended to the mandated territory. An Order dated 15 December 1927, for example, extends to Ruanda-Urundi the Congo Decree of 16 March 1922 on labour contracts. This Decree also regulates the recruiting of native workers. In addition, an Order dated 15 December 1927 applies in Ruanda-Urundi the Congo Decree of 11 January 1926, introducing and defining the apprenticeship contract system.

Probably the most important problems arising in connection with labour in this territory relate to over-population and the means of encouraging native emigration. The 52,000 square kilometres, which make up the total area of the country, do not offer sufficient means of expansion for its five million inhabitants. The Belgian Government has held it necessary to authorise recruiting for undertakings situated in other districts where the climate is favourable and similar to that of the territory, provided that these undertakings are properly organised as regards hygiene. An Order of 11 February 1928 has modified as follows the Order of 7 December 1926, regulating native emigration. The only workers who may be signed on are adult native males certified fit for all forms of labour. The duration of the contract may not exceed three years' work or 38 months' absence from frontier to frontier. Wages must be at least equal to those received by the workers engaged in the place of their previous residence and rations to which the workers are entitled are laid down in detail as well as the conditions of transport. The workers must be housed by the employer in roomy and healthy huts. The employer is responsible for medical aid, and also for the repatriation of the worker at the end of his period of service.

British Commonwealth. — Public opinion in Great Britain, which is keenly interested in colonial affairs, has been provided with valuable material for thought and discussion in the reports of the delegation of four members of Parliament which visited Tanganyika in September and of the official Commission which investigated the possibility of closer union in East Africa. Both reports, and more especially the more important official report, deal at some length with native policy, including labour questions, and both mark a further stage in the history of the development of colonial policy by their unquestioning acceptance of the principle of trusteeship for the native peoples.

In the British East African Dependencies the most important event of the year was the visit of the Commission appointed by the British Government to report on the possibility of closer union. The Commission's Report published in January 1929 makes certain proposals of a political and administrative nature which would result in greater co-operation between Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda. The majority of the Commission recommends that in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland the status quo be maintained, while the Chairman suggests a closer connection between these territories and Southern

1 Developed in particular in an article in the Revue Belge of 15 January 1928; "Pour un redressement de notre politique coloniale".
Rhodesia. Probably the greatest importance of the Report, however, is that it attempts to render explicit the general expressions relating to the principle of trusteeship, which for many years have been gaining currency in political controversy and common speech without attaining clarity. The Commission states that the chief need in Eastern and Central Africa to-day is that there should be applied throughout the territories as a whole, continuously and without vacillation, a "native policy" which, while adapted to the varying conditions of different tribes and different localities, is consistent in its main principles. . . . Whatever constitutional changes are introduced in any local legislatures, they must not be such as to jeopardise the maintenance of accepted principles on the vital matter of native policy, or, expressed differently, if the immigrant communities are to be associated, as suggested in our terms of reference, in the trusteeship for the natives, this must not give them power to vary the terms of the trust.

The increasing importance of native labour policy in the various East African Dependencies is reflected in certain laws passed during the year and in certain pronouncements made by the Governments.

In Kenya, an Ordinance has been passed to make more stringent the obligation to comply with certain forms of forced labour at present evaded by adult males who illegally send women and children to perform the work for which they are liable and rely on the produce of the women to pay any fines which may be imposed. To meet this situation the Ordinance imposes imprisonment as an alternative or in addition to a fine. A protest against the measure has been addressed to the Legislative Council by the native association known as the Kavirondo Taxpayers' Welfare Association. It states that "the urgent need is to make thought to abolish forced labour altogether, and replace it by voluntary paid labour, rather than to impose increasing penalties. . . . Able-bodied natives would very much rather be employed near their homes, than become wage-earners away from home, and. . . voluntary wage-earners will never be lacking to accept employment in the Reserves, if forced labour is done away with and, voluntary paid labour substituted for it."

In connection with another Ordinance relating to the powers of district councils, the same association has pressed for the adoption of workmen's compensation which "is a well-established principle in native thought and practice."

In Nyasaland, Ordinances Nos. 15 and 16 of 1928 regulate the position of natives residing on private estates. Such natives may work for wages for the owner of the estate in lieu of or in abatement of rent.

In Tanganyika, an Ordinance was passed on 16 November 1928 to amend the Masters and Native Servants Ordinance. The former system, by which any administrative officer might issue a permit to recruit labour, was found to be unsatisfactory, and one of the purposes of the new Ordinance is to give the Labour Commissioner more control over recruiters by confining to him the issue of permits. Another section of the Ordinance abolishes the punishment of imprisonment without the option of a fine, and the power to arrest without warrant for labour offences, including that of desertion. A third purpose effected by the Ordinance is the compulsory medical examination of natives recruited for periods of service exceeding sixty days.

Another Ordinance issued in Tanganyika in 1928, the Employment of Porters (Restriction) Ordinance, empowers the Governor in Council, whenever satisfied that adequate facilities can be provided for the transport of merchandise by other means than human porterage, to prohibit or restrict the employment of porters except for the conveyance of personal baggage.

The Tanganyika Government is continuing its efforts to restrict the employment of forced labour. A circular dated 31 December 1927, containing instructions regarding the employment of communal labour by native authorities, lays down the principle that "where the service required is one which in a civilised country would be performed by a local authority against a rate paid by the individual, unpaid labour may for the present be requisitioned but our policy should be gradually to substitute payment in money instead of in labour."

In particular, the Governor in an address to the Legislative Council in January 1928 referred to the advocacy in a certain section of the press of a policy of forced labour. He stated that such persons "should pause and reflect that it is only the strongest ethical reasons against any such policy the practical obstacles are insurmountable. The unofficial section of the Legislative Council vehemently denied that they in any way shared the views regarding forced labour which had been thus advocated.

In his Director's Report to the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference, a summary was given of a statement made by the Belgian Government regarding the seasonal migration of Ruanda-Urundi natives to Uganda. It was alleged that the conditions of labour of these workers in the employment of native planters had been found to be insanitary, and that this, added to a tendency on the part of the workers to
reduced them to an unfit physical condition and resulted in a high death rate.

By letter of 2 June 1928 the British Government forwarded to the Office a memorandum from the Governor of Uganda explaining the position. For many years past there had been a small seasonal migration into Uganda from Ruanda-Urundi which, owing to the influence of good conditions and comparatively high wages, recently increased. Conflicting reports, difficult to substantiate, reached the Governor of Uganda to the effect that returning migrants were met on the border and robbed of their wages and clothes by agents of the Chiefs in the mandated territory. In Uganda some of the immigrants were absorbed in Government work. They were subjected to strict medical examination and housed and fed en route for their employment. Of the remainder, the majority found ready employment on native plantations. Wages on these estates varied from 7/- to 14/- a month. The labourer worked spasmodically for from two to six hours a day, generally on small tasks. In some cases he was supplied with food, but more often he preferred after two to four hours' work with one employer, to wander to a neighbouring plantation where he worked for a short time in exchange for a plentiful supply of food. The health of immigrant labour employed in this manner caused no grounds for alarm. The labourer returned to his country of origin in a fitter condition than when he arrived. The Governor of Uganda therefore considered that the view mentioned in the Director's report regarding employment on native plantations was not founded on fact. On the other hand, the memorandum from the Governor of Uganda stated that there was another aspect of the problem of migration which, at one time, caused considerable misgivings. This was in connection with the surplus immigrants who were unable to find work. With the object of investigating the whole question, the Governor appointed a Committee to recommend measures which would have the effect of safeguarding the indigenous population, while at the same time benefiting the immigrants themselves.

During 1928 the Uganda Government issued a series of rules strengthening the safety measures to be adopted in the use of machinery, while the Labour Department issued instructions to the effect that, before permitting the recruitment of labour, a labour officer is to satisfy himself that adequate housing exists on the estate or place where such labour is to work.

The importance attached to the transport problem in Tanganyika is paralleled in Northern Rhodesia. In opening the Fifth Session of the Legislative Council, the Governor stated that much of the labour difficulty was caused by the transport problem. According to him, if the loss in time and energy occasioned by the labourer having to walk hundreds of miles to his place of employment could be saved, the potential value of the labour supply would be increased by something like 50 per cent.; at the present moment many natives take three weeks or more to complete their journeys and, with a scant and uncertain supply of food on the way, not seldom arrive and engage upon labour to which they are unaccustomed in a half-starved condition.

In the Sudan, once again progress is noted in the manumission of slaves. According to a despatch from the Government of the Sudan dated 29 May 1928, 700 slaves received their freedom during the year in Southern Kordofan. The ex-slaves, instead of being dispersed to seek a livelihood by precarious means, have been settled in local colonies, which it is hoped will provide an adequate absorbtion into the existing tribal administration. On the Abyssinian frontier refugees are allotted land for building and cultivation and in certain cases, where large parties have entered the Sudan in a state of destitution, loans have been issued repayable after the harvest. Information which has recently been collected in the Fung and White Nile provinces has disclosed the existence of a number of slaves brought by Arabs from the Abyssinian border during the last few years. The matter is being made the subject of a close investigation and a number of slaves have already been freed.

On 11 September 1928 the Government of the Union of South Africa concluded a Convention with the Portuguese Government for the purpose of regulating various questions of common interest to South Africa and Mozambique, including the introduction into the Union of native labourers from Mozambique. A summary of this agreement is given below in connection with the Portuguese colonies.

In South Africa, during 1928, the problem of the place to be taken by the native in the economic structure of the State and the related problems of native trade unionism continued to receive much attention. The investigations of the Wage Board established under the Wage Act of 1925 led to several enquiries into the cost of living of native workers in urban localities, and the Minister of Labour in certain cases fixed minimum wages based on the Board's reports. The Board itself appears to consider one of its most important functions to be the diminishing of the gap between the wages paid to natives and those paid to skilled Europeans. It has stated that the Wage Act "makes no distinction between em-
Ballinger, a British trade unionist, has been they may be rightly classified as skilled. In some instances they work side by side. If the Board were to make a recommendation for native employees as a class of employees it would in effect be singling out certain employees only from a group of employees in the same way as it would if it dealt with only red-haired or blue-eyed employees. The Board, therefore, holds that employees cannot really be classified as natives or non-natives, though they may be rightly classified as skilled or unskilled.

As regards the native trade union movement, considerable confusion has been apparent in recent developments. A dispute within the chief native union, the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union, has led to the formation in Natal of an independent body. An attempt has since been made to organise the Transvaal with similar objects. At Cape Town a similar movement has apparently not succeeded. It is, moreover, also reported that a communist federation of native workers is being formed. In the meantime, the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union has been making efforts to improve its organisation and to prevent the recurrence of the financial mistakes committed in the past. To assist in this work, Mr. Ballinger, a British trade unionist, has been nominated adviser. Since his arrival in South Africa, Mr. Ballinger has explained that the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union's immediate programme is to sectionalise its members on the Rand according to industries, which would establish the occupational basis on which white South African unions are organised.

The white trade unions are showing increasing interest in the question of native organisation. In January 1928 the South African Trade Union Congress decided not to accede to a request for affiliation made by the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union. At the same time, however, it declared itself favourable to periodical meetings between the two organisations for consultation on matters of common importance, and such meetings have since been held. In the various unions a similar tendency towards closer collaboration with the natives can be traced. As a result of a canvass of the trade unions in the Transvaal, Natal and Orange Free State, the Trade Union Congress Executive issued a statement contending that industry as a whole would benefit if unions admitted all workers to membership irrespective of race or colour. It recommended that where white organisations could not do this, parallel unions should be formed for the natives. Later, the Executive of the South African Mine Workers' Union decided to recommend the removal of the colour-bar from the Union's constitution and the admission "of any mine workers earning a minimum wage based on the white standard for the particular grade or class of work on which they are employed."

For the Mandated Territory of South-West Africa the Union of South Africa Government, reporting on conditions in 1927, had to chronicle an unsatisfactory health situation in the diamond fields and in the various mines. The average number of natives employed in these occupations during 1927 was 10,082. The total number of deaths was 402, giving a mortality of 39.83 per thousand per annum. The corresponding figures for the previous year were 263 and 21.80 per thousand per annum. Influenza was responsible for half of the total death rate during the year. The labourers chiefly concerned consisted of raw natives who had either been recruited in Ovambo or had come down in search of work from Angola and Northern Rhodesia. They had previously been put little, if at all, in contact with civilisation. Though of excellent physique, they were unaccustomed to industrial employment. They were well fed and were housed under much better conditions than other natives among whom the mortality was not so great.

In Southern Rhodesia, the same conclusions are being drawn regarding the health of natives unaccustomed to industrial employment. The Chairman of the Rhodesian Native Labour Bureau, which recruits in Northern Rhodesia, stated on 30 May 1928 that many of the natives recruited in the past year were not yet immune to the local types of disease such as influenza. He considered that a heavy incidence of disease amongst newly arrived recruits is apparently inseparable from opening up new and more distant sources of supply, for experience shows that after a few years the natives living in such districts acquire much the same immunity as the local natives.

In pursuance of the policy of economic self-determination in the British West African Dependencies account is being taken of the dangers from the competitive activities of large-scale enterprises in other tropical areas, and much attention is being given to the consideration of schemes whereby native methods of production can be improved and the position of the African producer rendered secure.

A Labour Code was prepared during the year in Nigeria and was enacted in February 1929. This Code, which combines the existing Master and Servant Ordinances, the Native Labour (Foreign Service) Ordinance and the Employment of Women Ordinance, also makes a certain number of amendments which had appeared desirable in the light of present require-
ments and of the legislation in force in other colonies.

In the British Cameroons, satisfactory progress continues to be made in the eradication of slavery. Only five cases of slave dealing were tried in the provincial court of the Cameroons Province during 1927 as compared with 41 in 1926; in the Northern Cameroons only 12 cases came before the courts during the year. During 1927, 12,938 labourers were employed on the European plantations in this mandated territory. Their conditions of labour are reported to be satisfactory and the standard of health in the plantation camps to be higher than in the villages of the ordinary African population. The death rate amongst these labourers was under eight per thousand. The new Labour Code for Nigeria contains provisions applicable in the British Cameroons. Under this legislation, it is proposed to declare the Cameroons plantations to be a "labour health area", or an area with regard to which the Governor-in-Council is empowered to make regulations regarding the planning and lay-out of towns and villages, and other sanitary conditions.

In the Gold Coast, where, as in Nigeria, the system of production by native owners prevails, there are a number of European enterprises of which the most important are the gold, manganese and diamond mines. The energetic measures which have been taken during the last few years to improve conditions of labour and reduce the high mortality and morbidity rates of native workers in the mines continue to be effective and recent official information shows that among the 10,719 labourers employed in the mines during the year ending March 1928, the total death rate was 13.38 per thousand. Of these 1.27 per thousand were due to accidents, this being the lowest accident death rate on record for these mines.

In the Gold Coast and in the Mandated territory of British Togoland, which is administered by the Government of the Gold Coast, very few survivals of the system of slavery remain. Nevertheless, since none of the enactments which deal with the matter expressly abolishes the legal status of slavery, proposals for legislation in this sense are being considered with a view to making the legal position perfectly clear. In the opinion of the authorities, however, such measures will make no practical difference in the life of the people since, in practice, any so-called slave is free to leave his master and is fully aware of his opportunities for making his wishes known.

It was stated in last year's Report that measures were being taken in Sierra Leone for the abolition of unpaid compulsory labour in connection with certain public services in the Protectorate. The first step towards a system of payment for this labour was taken on 1 January 1928, after which date native labourers called up for work on the construction and repair of Government buildings, of native construction in the Protectorate, received payment at the rate of 6d. per man per day. In reply to a question asked in the Legislative Council in November 1928, it was officially stated that it was the determined policy of the Government gradually to abolish, as far as finances permitted, all unpaid communal labour employed on public works and that it was hoped that the next step would be the payment of all labour called up for the maintenance and construction of roads.

Seasonal inter-island migration of workers takes place on a large scale in the West Indian islands and there is a considerable amount of legislation in the British West Indies for the protection of such workers. In St. Vincent, where labourers emigrate chiefly to Cuba and Santo Domingo for work on the sugar-cane plantations, an Ordinance, No. 10 of 1927, has been enacted which provides for the registration of recruiters of labour for certain foreign countries, for deposits to ensure the repatriation of such labourers, for provision for the families of such labourers during their absence, and for the establishment of proper contracts of service.

In certain islands in the British West Indies, compulsory labour on roads is sometimes called for as an alternative to a money contribution for road maintenance. This practice has recently been abolished in Dominica by the Road Ordinance 1914 Amendment Ordinance No. 1 of 1928.

In Cyprus, four enactments have been recently adopted extending the scope of labour protection. The Hours of Employment Law, 1927, empowers the Governor-in-Council to make orders limiting hours of work in any shop, factory, store or place of trade or business. The Shop Hours Law, 1927, empowers the Governor-in-Council to make orders limiting the opening hours or prohibiting the opening of a shop for serving customers on Sundays. The Protection of Female Domestic Servants Law, 1928, provides for the compulsory registration of any girl of less than eighteen years of age who is employed as a servant. The Employment of Young Persons and Children Law, 1928, prohibits the employment of children under twelve years of age in any industrial undertaking, other than an undertaking in which only members of the family are employed. As a normal rule, in such undertakings the employment of young persons under fourteen years
of age is limited to four hours in each day and that of young persons between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years to six hours in each day. No young persons may be employed in industrial undertakings at night, which is defined as a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning. Employers are required to keep a register of the young persons in their employment. The Governor-in-Council may make rules regulating questions of health and safety in any industrial undertakings in which children or young persons are employed.

The serious economic situation in the mandated territory of Palestine to which reference was made in last year's Report has improved. Whereas in May 1927 the number of unemployed had reached the high figure of 8,300, in August 1928, it had sunk to 1,200 and by the end of the year had decreased still further.

In view of the improvement in the situation, the Government, which had for a long time been pursuing an extremely cautious policy with regard to immigration, authorised the issue of 600 immigration certificates under the Labour Schedule of the Immigration Ordinance for the six months beginning 1 November 1928. These authorisations permitted the admission of 300 unskilled agricultural workers, 150 men for employment in industrial undertakings, 100 women workers and 50 skilled artisans. No such immigration had been authorised since September 1927.

The difficulties which arise as a consequence of the disparity in the wages and standard of living of Arab and Jewish workers continue to be a constant factor in the economic situation. This disparity led in 1927 to trouble in the Petach Tikvah orange-growing areas where Jewish growers had sold their crops on the trees to Arab merchants and employed Arab labour to carry out the picking while at the same time there were a large number of unemployed Jewish workers in the district. In order to avoid similar occurrences during the 1928 season the Government Representative at a joint meeting with the orange growers and the representatives of the local Workers' Council, suggested that the growers should make it a condition of their agreement with the Arab merchants that a certain number of Jewish workers should be employed. The growers did not consider that they could make this condition and violent demonstrations again occurred during December 1928.

There are signs that the Arabs are on their side giving consideration to their economic situation. Arab tailors, carpenters, smiths and porters decided early in the year to form trade unions and suggestions have been made in the Arab press that a special commission should be appointed to investigate the economic problems of Arabs in Palestine. In the meantime the Government Commission which was appointed in November 1927 to make a thorough study regarding the rates of pay of unskilled labour in the country has completed its enquiries and made its report which, it is understood, has been forwarded to the Colonial Office in London for approval.

During the year, a number of experts visited the mandated territory under the auspices of the Joint Palestine Survey Commission, a body appointed by the Zionist and other Jewish Organisations for the purpose of advising on various aspects of the problems of Jewish settlement in the country and of drawing up a general plan for future activity based on sound economic principles. The Commission carried out a broad survey of Jewish activities in Palestine since the war and made a number of recommendations concerning immigration, agriculture, industry, education, public health, labour and finance.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the measures of labour legislation which were passed during 1927. No ordinances dealing with the protection of labour were passed during the year 1928 but mention may be made of the regulations issued under the Trades and Industries Ordinance of 1927.

In view of the dissatisfaction which had been expressed by the workers with regard to the restriction of the field of application of the Workers' Compensation Ordinance of 1927 to workers in specified trades and industries involving special danger, the Jerusalem Worker's Council requested that it might be extended to cover workers in agriculture, transport and clerical work and that compensation might be granted not only in cases of accident but also of industrial diseases. This proposal was, however, not acceded to by the Government.

During the latter half of the year the General Federation of Jewish Labour forwarded a memorandum to the Government asking what measures it was proposed to take with regard to the provision made in the Palestine and East Africa Loans Act of 1928 concerning the payment of fair wages on the works proposed thereunder. The memorandum also complained that the Jerusalem Municipality, for reasons of economy, had allocated all its road contracts to contractors employing non-Jewish labour, and asked that the Government should intervene to ensure that a proportion of public municipal works corresponding to the proportion of the Jewish population in the respective areas concerned should be reserved for contractors employing Jewish labour. The memorandum also suggested that a permanent system should be agreed upon for determining the proportion of Jewish workers to be employed.
in Government works and that this should be fixed on the basis of the number of Jewish wage-earners and of the contribution of the Jewish population towards the revenue. At a meeting held subsequently between the representatives of the Government and of the General Federation of Jewish Labour, it was stated on behalf of the Government that exploitation of Jewish labour by contractors on the Haifa harbour works would not be permitted, although the Government was not prepared to establish a definite fixed minimum wage. As most of the unskilled work would be paid by piece rates the question of the enforcement of the minimum wage rate would not arise. A reasonable proportion of Jewish workers would be employed, though it was not possible to give an undertaking regarding a fixed percentage. The question of establishing a 48-hour week for the skilled labour employed on the works would be considered. Foreign labour would not be imported for employment on the construction of the harbour unless it was absolutely indispensable.

In Iraq, where forced labour can be levied under the Irrigation and Bunds Law of 1923, it came to the notice of the authorities during 1927 that proper arrangements were not always made for the payment and accommodation of tribal labour employed temporarily on work on dykes. Instructions were therefore issued to the local authorities that the law in question was to be interpreted as meaning that the responsibility for the payment, rationing and accommodation of labour employed on irrigation works from which they would directly benefit devolved upon the bigger tribal tenants, and that cultivators should not be deemed to be liable to furnish unpaid labour for such work while at the same time providing their own accommodation, tools and rations.

The absence of labour legislation in this mandated territory was the subject of comment by the Permanent Mandates Commission at its Fourteenth Session held in October-November 1928. In its report the Commission expressed the opinion that, in view of the industrial development which was taking place, much advantage might be gained if the experience of the Mandatory Power in regard to the regulation of conditions of labour could be made fully available to the Government of Iraq.

In the Federated Malay States, two enactments amending the Labour Code were passed in 1928. Enactment No. 1 of 1928 provides inter alia for the publication in the vernacular of abstracts of the Labour Code affecting Indians, for the allotment of lands to labourers for grazing or garden cultivation, for the imposition of penalties in the case of non-payment of standard wages, and for fixing standard wages for working children. Enactment No. 8 of 1928 gives the Controller of Labour greater powers in enforcing sanitary regulations on small employers.

In the Straits Settlements and the Unfederated Malay States of Kedah, Johore, Kelantan and Brunet, similar measures were adopted.

In Sarawak, labour legislation has been codified on the general lines of the very detailed Malayan laws in Order No. L-3 (Labour Protection) and Order No. N-3 (Netherlands Indian Labourers' Protection).

In British territories in Australasia and Oceania, two features of special interest are the steps taken towards the development of a system of free labour in certain territories, and the measures taken to improve the quality of the produce of native cultivators.

In the Northern Territory of Australia, the Aboriginals Ordinance of 1918-1927 was amended during 1928 by an Ordinance intended to afford increased protection to aboriginal wage-earners. Under this Ordinance, no person of Asiatic or negro race may be granted a licence to employ female aboriginals, and licences for the employment of male aboriginals by such persons may only be granted by the Chief Protector of Aboriginals.

An interesting provision for the protection of certain native means of gaining a livelihood is contained in the Queensland Aboriginals Protection and Restriction of Sale of Opium Acts Amendment Act of 1927, which prescribes that certain areas within the territorial waters of Queensland may be set apart and reserved solely for the use of the natives of the Torres Strait Islands and Queensland aboriginals for the getting by swimming and diving of pearl shell, bêches-de-mer, or trochus shell.

The ultimate aim of the Administration in Papua is the establishment of a system of free labour, and the effect of the Natives Non-Indentured Service Ordinance, which was passed on 7 December 1927 for the facilitation of the employment of free labour as opposed to indentured labour, will be watched with interest. Before the coming into force of this Ordinance, natives might be employed without a contract for a period not exceeding three months. The new Ordinance abolishes this time limit, but imposes a limit on the distance from his home at which a native may be so employed, the distance in the case of a male being 20 miles and of a female, four miles. Free labour may therefore be employed for three months wherever the home of the native, and for an indefinite
period at a distance not exceeding that prescribed. Provision is made for the inspection of the places of work of natives employed under the Ordinance. At the end of 1926, before the drafting of the new Ordinance, over 1,200 free labourers were engaged on contracts not exceeding three months, and the new facilities will no doubt cause an increase in these numbers.

According to a recent report, there has been a decrease in the number of natives employed under contract in Papua, 8,447 being employed on 30 June 1927 as against 9,547 on 1 July 1926, while the total number employed under contract for varying periods during the year 1926-1927 was 15,115. This decrease is stated to be due to a number of causes, including the closing down of certain mines, the introduction of cattle for keeping down undergrowth, the increasing use of artificial copra dryers, and the use of mechanical tractors. Frequent inspections of conditions of labour are carried out and the general treatment of natives engaged under contract is reported to be very satisfactory.

In New Guinea, where provisions for the employment of free labour for a period not exceeding three months exist under the Native Labour Ordinance, consideration is being given to the possibility of extending these provisions in the same way as has already been done in Papua, by permitting natives whose homes are within 25 miles of their place of employment to be engaged for a definite period without requiring them to enter into contracts of service.

In this mandated territory an important decision has been made with regard to the principle of compulsory cultivation by natives. In 1924, the Administration had adopted a policy of agricultural development which required the cultivation on certain lands of plants and crops by all able-bodied natives and, in addition, at the discretion of the competent authority, the cultivation of sufficient food crops for the maintenance of themselves and their families. As the result of consideration of these regulations, however, the legal authorities of the Mandatory decided that certain of the provisions were inconsistent with the terms of the legislation applying the mandate, and the Mandatory informed the Permanent Mandates Commission during 1928 that important amendments had been made in the Regulations. The effect of these amendments is definitely to limit compulsory cultivation in New Guinea to the planting, harvesting and storing of crops by the individual native for his personal benefit and that of his family.

According to an official report on the Gilbert and Ellice Islands Colony, the method of application of the system of communal labour in the Islands was closely investigated during the year 1926-1927 and arrangements were made to ensure that no native should, as the result of the negligence of village officials, be called upon to work outside his own settlement.

A reference was made in last year's report to the effort made by the Government in Western Samoa to help the natives to place their copra on the overseas market in order that better prices might be obtained than had hitherto been paid by the local traders. Up to the end of September 1927, about 100 tons of high grade copra were placed by the Administration on the London market with considerable advantage to the native producers. The continuance of the disturbance in the Mandated Territory has made it impossible to proceed further with this scheme.

In Fiji, the Native Regulations were recently revised and extended by the Native Regulation Board and were brought into force at the end of 1927. The amendments made include provision for the payment of money in lieu of communal labour by natives absent from their villages, and for the restriction to such chiefs only as hold hereditary rights thereto of the right to demand personal services from their people, power being retained to the Governor to suspend the privilege in case of abuse.

The 1927 Government Report for Hong Kong surveys the results obtained through the enforcement of Ordinance No. 22 of 1922 regulating the employment of children in factories. In the earlier stages of the application of this measure, a large number of the younger children were dismissed from the factories, since the owners found it easier to dispense with child labour than to comply with the requirements of the Ordinance as regards hours of work, overtime and holidays. The children so dismissed have not been replaced and it is now admitted that the absence of child labour need not affect output. In factories where children have been retained the conditions of the Ordinance have been accepted without serious objection. No European firms in the Colony employ children under the age of fifteen years and the total number of children employed has been reduced generally, until at present there are not more than 150 children under that age regularly at work in factories.

In 1927 the Illegal Strikes and Lock-outs Ordinance was passed, based on the British Trades Disputes and Trade Union Act. Another Ordinance of the year was the Factories (Accidents) Ordinance No. 3, under which regulations have been issued for the prevention of industrial accidents.
The situation caused by the denunciation of the 1914 Convention, which authorised recruiting in Liberia of natives for employment in Fernando Po. It does not seem probable that a rapid agreement will be reached on a nature likely to facilitate the immigration of Liberian workers to Fernando Po. During 1928 Fernando Po employers only recruited a small number of workers in Liberia.

In qualified circles it is considered that the solution of the important problem raised by the lack of labour in Fernando Po must be found in an improvement in the conditions of the workers. In this way, a greater number of Liberian natives might be attracted, as well as natives from the continental districts of Spanish Guinea. In addition, measures of this nature would tend to make employment more attractive to the natives of Fernando Po, who have degenerated owing to alcoholic excess.

For these reasons the Governor of Spanish Guinea issued an Order at the beginning of 1928 stipulating improvements in the food of native workers, while a decision of 4 May 1928 provided for an improvement in their sanitary conditions.

Provisions of a general nature for the protection of Spanish natives in the Gulf are contained in the Royal Order of 17 July 1928 approving the statutes of the Protectorate of Natives. This official organisation is entrusted with supervising the well-being and mental and moral development of the natives, who are regarded as minors towards whom the administration has the duties of a guardian, with protecting the natives who do not enjoy full civic rights, with receiving their complaints, with informing the competent authorities of any breaches of the labour laws, and finally, with granting the certificates of exemption provided by Decree No. 1261. Decree No. 1261, which was also promulgated on 17 July 1928, provides that the natives of the Spanish territories in the Gulf of Guinea, who have attained a sufficient educational and moral level, may receive certificates of exemption by which they are granted the full exercise of all civic rights.

While endeavouring to increase the numbers of labourers and the output of agricultural labour by the adoption of measures likely to improve living conditions, the Government has recently decided to import Chinese workers into Fernando Po. A Decree of 25 September 1928 lays down the conditions subject to which such labour may be supplied to employers.

It may also be noted that a Decree of 5 October 1928 requires all natives who are resident in the urban centres of Spanish Guinea to supply, within any one year, 40 days' prestation labour for local work of a public nature. Section 1 provides that alien natives and those in State employment are exempt from such labour. The Decree also lays down that this labour is to be called up so as to prejudice the workers' interests as little as possible. Commutation and substitution are permitted.

France. — During 1928 the problem of the native labour supply continued to receive much attention both from the governors of the colonies and from the home authorities, while reference to it can be found again and again in the reports and speeches of the governors-general.

In last year's Report it was stated that this problem had been referred by the Minister for the Colonies to the Superior Council of the Colonies, which had entrusted it to a special labour committee. After long discussions, continued during 1927 and 1928, certain general principles were embodied in a report submitted in February 1928 by the Superior Council to the Minister for the Colonies. A summary of these principles is given below.

The report begins by showing that the economic development of the French possessions depends on the labour supply, and that the existing supply is insufficient for present requirements. The intensive recruiting of workers presents many dangers, threatening the production of the necessary food supplies. At the same time, it would be unwise to expect any appreciable success through the introduction of large numbers of alien workers. The French colonies must therefore try to make their own native populations suffice, for which purpose an exact balance must be maintained between the workers left or placed at the disposal of undertakings and those occupied in the maintenance and development of the production of foodstuffs. To further this end, several courses are necessary: (1) the present labour supply must be maintained and increased by developing its physical capacities and by preventing it from drifting towards foreign colonies; (2) the output must be increased by improved organisation, in which connection the measures recommended are the introduction of more machinery and the development of technical education; (3) the number of workers available must be increased by abolishing unnecessary services and by limiting recruiting for the army; (4) the workers must be secured suitable material and moral conditions as well as guarantees against arbitrary conduct. In this last connection the
measures recommended include the organisation of recruiting and the institution of a labour contract wherever these contracts do not exist, the extension of arbitration committees and repressive action in case of the embezzlement of advances.

The above is an outline of the recommendations made by the special Labour Committee of the Superior Council of the Colonies. The Economic Council held a plenary sitting to examine the same problem; the essence of the conclusions which it reached is outlined below.

1. Forced labour is not permissible.
2. Workers may be requisitioned for compulsory labour of a temporary or local nature, but always on condition that the work is exceptional and of a purely temporary character, that it is in the interests of the State or of public bodies and that its performance is accompanied with all necessary guarantees for the protection of the workers and their equitable payment.
3. The first duty of the colonial administration should be to further the notion of the necessity for work as an essential factor in all individual or collective progress and in all improvement in welfare and prosperity.
4. In the case of each colony, appropriate labour regulations should be issued to protect the respective interests of the employers and the workers, taking account of local circumstances. The regulations contained in the Decrees and Orders already in force are held to form a satisfactory basis for such action. The local administrations should outline a model contract, securing the necessary guarantees to both parties concerned. The recruiting of labour within any single colony or any single group of colonies should be free.
5. The administration should intervene in the recruiting of labour for private undertakings, not merely to supervise such recruiting, but also to facilitate and regularise it by encouraging such adjustments in the groupings of the native peoples as may be necessary to put an end to the famines enfeebling and decimating the populations.
6. The waste or misuse of labour in any form must be prevented by avoiding abuse in the enforcement of prestation labour and encouraging undertakings with advanced equipment through the grant of priority and by a series of obligations imposed on the employer the worker in employment in the colonies.
7. A considered labour policy should also include an encouragement of the birth rate, a campaign against infantile mortality and the development of technical education.

The question of the colonial labour supply has not occupied the attention of Government institutions only. It also gave rise during 1928 to important work on the part of the chief private associations. In particular, mention may be made of the enquiry undertaken by l'Association Colonies-Sciences on "the agricultural labour supply in the Colonies". This Association appointed a sub-committee which undertook an enquiry and adopted certain conclusions for the development of the labour supply.

The Union coloniale française has also shown an interest in the labour question in the colonies. During the past year, its studies in this respect have referred chiefly to the application in French West Africa of the workmen's compensation law and the general application to the colonies of French legislation relating to social insurance.

In Algeria, the administration has been chiefly occupied during 1928 with extending the application of the Eight Hour Day Act to various Algerian undertakings. Four Decrees promulgated on 25 January 1928 contained public administrative regulations for the application of the Act of 29 April 1919 in certain industries.

Last year's Report outlined the initial steps taken in Morocco towards the establishment of a system of labour legislation: A Decree (Dahir) of 13 July 1926, contained the first measures of labour protection, and an advisory labour Committee was set up at Rabat. During 1928 the chief event was the coming into force of the legislation relating to industrial accidents on the basis of the Dahir of 25 June 1927. By this Dahir the principle of the employers' responsibility as regards his workers was established, and by a series of obligations imposed on the employer the worker in employment in Morocco, whether French, Moroccan or alien, enjoys the benefits guaranteed to him in France. During 1928 a number of supplementary laws were also issued. Morocco thus possesses an industrial accidents code, which is a partial extension of the French system to the Protectorate, rather than a rigid application of this system.

Otherwise, the general system of labour regulation set up by the basic Decrees was not modified during 1928 except in some small points of detail. A Dahir issued on 22 May amended the Dahir of 13 July, chiefly in regard to the powers of labour inspectors and the provisions existing for protecting the health and safety of the workers. Another Dahir dated 10 March amended the law in force relating to the payment of wages and to provident schemes. Finally, a Dahir dated 7 July permitted certain exceptions in the laws in force relating

1 The Superior Council of the Colonies, which was reorganised by the Decree of 6 October 1925, is composed of: (1) the Colonial Council; (2) the Colonial Economic Council; (3) the Colonial Legislative Council. The Superior Council of the Colonies is an advisory body under the Minister of the Colonies.
to periods of rest, hours of work, and the night work of women and children. The application of this series of laws is becoming more and more complete owing to the work of the inspectorate. During 1927 labour inspectors paid nearly 4,000 visits of inspection. They were able to secure improvements in regard to the health and safety of the workers, especially in the building industry, in regard to which there was no protection before the application of the Dahir of 18 July 1926.

The most important factor in the problem of European development in French Equatorial Africa is still the construction of the railway from Brazzaville to the Atlantic and the consequent native labour difficulties. A new agreement with the concessionaire company was reached on 30 August 1927, with the object of reducing the number of natives employed and effecting an improvement in the conditions of their employment. Health measures have been adopted in the form of increasingly strict medical examination of the workers before recruitment, successive examinations while en route for their employment with the repatriation of doubtful cases, periods of acclimatisation, of training and of rest, etc. These measures are recognised to have been necessary, but their effect is stated to have been reduced in the practical results of recruiting by increasing the proportion of workers who are not actually at work. The question has, therefore, arisen whether the work can be completed solely by French Equatorial African labour. In a speech delivered at the opening of the Government Council in November 1928, the Governor-General, who the year before had already considered the importation of Asiatic labour, stated that an agreement had been reached by the Minister for the Colonies with the Governor-General of Indo-China for a first experiment with 800 Asiatic workers.

Various laws were passed during 1928 with the object of protecting the natives recruited. The most important of these were the Instructions of the Governor-General under date 31 March 1928 relating to the protection of the health of the workers on the railway. These instructions regulate in detail the treatment of natives in all stages from their villages to the workplaces. Among other measures adopted for the protection of the railway workers were two Orders dated 23 December 1927, one limiting the employment of native workers on the railways to one year or eighteen months, and the other fixing wages at from 1 fr. to 1.50 fr. a day. An Order dated 20 February 1928 instituted at Pointe Noire a health service entrusted with the execution of the various measures prescribed. Among other laws affecting labour conditions, mention may be made of the Order of 15 December 1927 by which private undertakings, employing less than 25 workers under contract, are required to maintain medical and first aid supplies in proportion to the number of workers employed, and the Order of 14 September 1928 completing the Order of 7 October 1926, regulating apprenticeship contracts in the colonies of French Equatorial Africa. Finally, various Orders have been issued defining for each colony the rations for the native workers, the number of workers who may be recruited, the minimum purchase price of native products, the number of days "prestation" labour which may be enforced and commutation fees.

In French West Africa, the administration’s chief efforts have been to intensify agricultural production essentially on a basis of native production. As regards labour policy, the administration continues to attempt to retain its local labour resources, chiefly by the supervision of native migratory movements. An important Decree of 24 April 1928 regulated emigration. Many of the French West African natives are attracted by plantations in the neighbouring foreign territories; in particular, the Upper Volta supplies an annual contingent of some 100,000 men for the cocoa plantations in the Gold Coast. Although this is almost entirely a seasonal emigration, a certain number of the emigrants gradually attract to the neighbouring colonies their women, children and friends, and tend to settle there permanently. The purpose of the Decree of 24 April was effectively to control all natives leaving the territory by land or sea and to discourage such migrations.

In French West Africa, native labour legislation is contained in the general Decree of 22 October 1925, completed by the Order of 29 March 1926, and by the Instructions to the Lieutenant-Governors of the various colonies, issued on the same date. The application of these laws depends on the economic development of each colony. Considerable progress has been made in this respect in 1928, particularly in the Upper Volta, three Orders issued by the administration of which may be mentioned. The central feature of the new labour legislation is the establishment of labour offices, which are responsible for estimating the amount of native labour available, for facilitating the relations between employers and native workers, for centralising demands for and offers of labour, and for giving their opinion on the local labour regulations and conditions. The first of the three Orders mentioned above is, therefore, an Order of 3 August 1928 creating a labour office in the Upper Volta. The second is an Order of 6 November, setting up in the Upper Volta three arbitration committees in accordance with section 14 of the Decree.
of 22 October 1925; the third is an Order of 6 November laying down special conditions for the engagement of native workers for commercial, industrial, forestry and other undertakings covered by the general regulations.

These general labour regulations, contained in the Decree of 22 October 1925 and the various Orders applying this Decree, cover the conditions of employment of native workers in commercial, industrial and agricultural undertakings but not those of native workers in Government employment, the Government being reputed to observe all the conditions necessary for the maintenance of the health of the labour it uses. Nevertheless, in view of the development of public works and the quantity of labour thereby required, the Governor-General, in a circular dated 1 January 1928, drew the attention of the Lieutenant-Governors of the various colonies to the necessity of hastening the elaboration of special regulations regarding workers employed by the Government.

In the speech he delivered at the opening of the Government Council of November 1928, the Governor-General gave interesting details of the extent to which labour is now used in French West Africa. He estimated the number of adult males available in the colony at 1,900,000. These 1,900,000 adult males, in theory, if four-fifths remained in the villages, give a total labour supply of 2,450,000. At the present moment, some 200,000 are employed by the Government, in commerce, industry and agriculture, or are serving in the Army. This represents 7.48 per cent. of the total male adult population, including Moors, Peulhs and Tuaregs. This proportion is 2.49 per cent. higher than that unanimously accepted as a maximum by authorities on questions of population. In a country which is essentially agricultural, it is impossible to increase this proportion to any marked degree without endangering the general economic situation. The labour we are obtaining is all the labour it is possible to obtain. Mechanical devices must be used so that the maximum output possible can be reached. 

In the African territories under mandate there has been no important modification during the year in labour legislation. In the French Cameroons, owing to the stabilisation of prices, the fixing of wages at scales which enable the workers to lead a normal life and the extension of the use of machinery, private undertakings have been able to continue their work without notable difficulties, and the arbitration committees have had very few cases brought before them. An Order dated 26 March 1928 extended to the whole territory the provisions of the Order of 10 November 1923 regarding work books. An Order of 12 June prohibited recruiting in certain districts in the Yaoundé Province. Finally, an Order dated 26 September extends to the Cameroons the Decree of 24 April 1928 regulating the emigration and movement of natives in French West Africa.

In French Togoland an Order issued on 19 May 1928 contains details for the application of the Decree of 29 December 1922 issuing native labour regulations. The chief provisions of this Order relate to the strict enforcement of labour contracts, particularly as regards health matters. Three compulsory medical examinations are required, the first at the time of departure from the place of recruitment, the second at the time of arrival at the place of employment, and the third at the expiration of the contract. The same Order enables a married recruited worker to bring a wife with him, regulates the question of advances to contract workers, and contains various provisions regarding arbitration committees and offences against labour legislation.

In Madagascar, the administration is endeavouring to develop native production and at the same time to further the prosperity of European undertakings. For the first, native education is of primary importance, and it was partly with this aim in mind that the Agricultural Department was reorganised in accordance with an Order of 11 July 1928. As regards the development of European undertakings, the problem of the native labour supply arises in no less acute form than in other French possessions. The Governor-General's policy, as formulated, for example, in a speech pronounced at the opening of a session of the Economic and Financial Delegations of Madagascar on 17 September 1928 aims at "giving the most complete and effective support to all undertakings worthy of such support, while, on the other hand, refusing all aid to undertakings which do not fulfil their engagements, or which pay their workers inadequately, and such undertakings which by their interested assistance of natives who wish to remain idle, are prejudicing the whole work of colonisation to the most serious extent". The Governor-General also raised the question whether it was not necessary to modify the Labour Charter as fixed in Madagascar by the Decree of 22 December 1925, so as to prevent the abuses which were arising with increasing frequency in the case of labour contracts. By a circular of 15 February 1928, the Governor-General, noting that this Decree was but ill-enforced, especially as regards the examination of employers' registers and of work books, so that fictitious labour contracts were becoming more and more numerous and the natives were being encouraged

1 Allowing for an average reduction of 35 per cent. for the unfit.
to remain idle, laid down stricter conditions to ensure the correct registration of labour contracts. This circular was completed by a second dated 20 April 1928 relating to the visi 3 of labour contracts. The Governor-General has also given strict instructions for the rigorous punishment of embezzlement of advances and loans. A similar policy can be traced in a circular of 5 September 1928 for the repression of vagrancy in Madagascar.

Among other texts issued in 1928 in reference to labour matters, mention may be made of the Order of 7 March containing a special work book for native domestic servants who are not subject to the labour contract system contained in the Decree of 22 September 1925, the Order of 11 July creating arbitration committees in the principal towns of 36 provinces, the Orders of 12 January and 15 November concerning technical education, and a decision of 7 March fixing the minimum wage of native workers in the various districts. An important Order of 25 April reorganised the native medical services.

For the execution of important public works the Governor-General has approved a system by which men belonging to the second portion of the native contingent who have not been mobilised may be used for the construction of a railway connecting the East coast of Madagascar with Betisoer. The workers are grouped in sections of 200 men and assembled by races or sometimes by villages. Married workers may be accompanied by their wives. The introduction of alcohol into the camps is prohibited. A decision dated 30 October 1928 fixes the maximum period of such employment at two years.

In last year's Report mention was made of the important progress accomplished in Indo-China through the Orders of 25 October 1927, by which the first steps were taken in establishing a labour code for Indo-China. This legislation has been the subject of very different commentaries: In the report submitted to the Chamber of Deputies during the discussion of the colonial budget for 1929, certain of these objections were brought forward. A new system of labour regulation, it was stated, would increase the formalities required in connection with recruiting. As a result of the criticisms raised by the application of the provisions of the Code, the important Chinese works at Cholon are exempt, although a part of the native population so employed is living in very wretched conditions, making advisable the extension to them of the measures of protection contained in the new regulations.

The application of these regulations, nevertheless, is continuing normally in the various provinces of Indo-China. In Annam an Order of the Governor dated 31 March 1928 contains instructions in accordance with the general rules provided in the Order of 25 October 1927 regarding the emigration of Tonkinese labour. In Cochinchina an Order of 26 June 1928 also applies the general legislation prescribing, for example, the institution of an infirmary for every fifty natives employed, and the appointment of an assistant medical officer for undertakings employing more than 1,000 coolies and encouraging the construction of new villages. An Order of 19 December 1927 provisionally applies to Kuant-Tcheou-Wan the Order of 25 October 1927 regarding the protection of native and alien Asiatic labour employed under contract in agricultural, industrial and mining undertakings in Indo-China.

During the Director's recent visit to the Far East he was able to make a short stay in Indo-China. The problems he discussed with the Governor-General and the Government services were rather those reserved for treatment in the second part of this Report, being connected with the application of Article 421 of the Treaty of Peace, i.e. with the possibility of introducing into the French colonies reforms contained in the Conventions ratified by France. This is a question of some urgency, since Indo-China is at the present moment passing from the first stage of development by individual planters to development through large-scale industrial and financial companies.

In conversations the Director heard something of the remarks and sometimes criticisms raised by the application of the Decrees of October 1927. On the one hand, the Europeans of Tonking complained of the attempts being made to encourage a vast migratory movement severe obligations, without giving them in return the privileges they had a right to claim, in particular, in connection with desertion.

Other critics have pointed out that however detailed the regulations may be, they still remain incomplete, since they apply only to workers employed on European estates and not to workers employed by natives or by Chinese, so that, in particular, the important Chinese works at Cholon are exempt, although a part of the native population so employed is living in very wretched conditions, making advisable the extension to them of the measures of protection contained in the new regulations.
towards the south, depriving them of the labour which is at present plentiful. Perhaps by a better organisation of the existing labour supply in Cochin-China it will be possible to control the speed at which this movement is being effected. On the other hand, the Central Government placed at the Director's disposal much information showing the systematic efforts which have been made now for over a year, to supervise labour conditions. This information proves that already more than paper results have been achieved.

The 1927 Report on the mandated territory of Syria and the Lebanon gives certain information on the labour system in force. No steps have yet been taken to protect workers against general or occupational diseases or against industrial accidents, or for the protection of women, young persons and children. In the Lebanon, however, the Government prepared a draft relating to industrial accidents; this draft was not adopted by the Chamber. The Syrian Government undertook an enquiry to establish the importance and distribution of the labour of women and children in industry with a view to possible regulation. From this enquiry it appears that there are about 5,000 women and children employed in Syrian industry. Almost all these workers are employed in small workshops, most of them consisting of workers of the same family. In these circumstances the administration considers that it would be difficult to organise a system of inspection for women and children.

As regards "prestation" labour, commutation, which at first was only allowed in exceptional circumstances, tends to become the rule, and payment in kind is also the exception.

Italy. — A Decree of 5 January 1928 extended to Tripoli and Cyrenaica Regulations No. 1422 of 28 August 1924 for the application of the Decree of 30 December 1928 concerning compulsory insurance against invalidity and old age. In July 1928, the Institute of Social Insurance, an organ of the National Social Insurance Fund, extended its operations to Tripoli.

In application of Decree No. 188 of 8 March 1914, authorising the Minister for the Colonies at the beginning of each sponge fishing season to fix the benefits payable in cases of industrial accidents, a Ministerial Decree was issued on 28 February 1928, fixing the benefits to be paid by shipowners or masters to sponge fishers injured in the course of their employment.

Netherlands. — No considerable changes were made in the labour legislation of the Dutch East Indies in 1928. The Free Labour Ordinance (Staatsblad, 1911, No. 540), which originally governed labour agreements not subject to penal sanction concluded between employers in the Outer Provinces and natives not belonging to the Province where they are employed, was amended in the course of the year in order to enable its provisions to be applied to natives belonging to the Province employed in undertakings, the inaccessibility of which, for example, makes such protection necessary (Staatsblad, 1928, No. 341). Further, a draft Ordinance was introduced in the Volksraad in September, the effect of which would be to amend the Coolie Ordinances so as to allow coolies who have completed their first contracts ("immigration contracts") to make re-engagement contracts in another province contemporaneous with or near to the province in which the first contracts were completed, provided that the conditions of labour are approximately the same.

Apart from legislation, however, the year brought a number of interesting developments.

As a result of negotiations between the Labour Office in Batavia and the Directors of the Government gold, silver and tin mines, it was decided that, as from 1 January 1929, penal sanctions would be abolished in the case of the re-engagement contracts of coolies who had already worked for five consecutive years in the mines. It was further decided that coolies who had completed their first contract (of three years) under penal sanctions would, if re-engaged, work under a modified system of inspection by the Government.

Towards the end of the year the Resident of Jokyakarta, a densely populated province of Java, proposed to the Government that the province should be temporarily closed to persons professionally engaged in recruiting coolies for work in the Outer Provinces under penal sanction contracts. The object of the proposed measure was to facilitate the recruiting by the Jokyakarta labour exchange of workers for undertakings, mainly in South Sumatra, which were ready to take workers on free labour contracts. Previous experiments are reported to have shown that there was a considerable demand for such workers, but that recruiting was hampered, inter alia, by the competition of the professional recruiters. The Resident's proposal was not accepted, but the labour exchange nevertheless proceeded with arrangements for recruiting on a large scale, in view of the big demand for labour.

An interesting initiative was taken during the year by the Rubber Planters' Association of the East Coast of Sumatra (A.V.R.O.S.). After exhaustive enquiries this Association decided to recommend to its members the adoption of a scheme of old age and invalidity pensions for their coolies. The old age pensions payable to coolies after 25 years' service are fixed at 7 1/2 guilders a month for men and 6 guilders a month for women; invalidity
pensions of the same amounts will be payable after shorter periods of service. The expediency of reducing the daily hours of work of coolies from ten to nine is under consideration by the Permanent Labour Commission at Medan at the request of the Government.

Since 1 January 1928 three labour inspectors, with the necessary interpreters and administrative staff, have been responsible for the inspection of conditions in the "panglongs" or small wood-cutting undertakings situated on the coast of Sumatra opposite Singapore and on the adjacent islands. Previous to the extension of labour inspection to these undertakings on 1 January 1925, the conditions of labour of the Chinese employed, which are fully described in a report of the Batavia Labour Office that was published in 1927, were in every way deplorable. The action of the labour inspectors since 1925 has already improved the situation, and it is hoped that the reinforced staff will be able to effect further improvement.

It may here be mentioned that there have been a number of signs of the growing appreciation of the value of the labour inspection system. Speakers in the Volksraad urged the creation of a special Labour Department in Batavia — the Labour Office there is at present a part of the Department of Justice — and an increase in the number of inspectors. Even more significant perhaps was the adoption by the Volksraad in July of a motion in favour of the extension of the labour inspection system to Java and the promise of the Government spokesman that it would be considered when ways and means could be found. Meanwhile, although inspection of labour conditions in Java is no part of the regular duties of the inspectors, they are called upon from time to time to make special enquiries.

Reference has been made above to various measures tending to the limitation of the use of the penal sanction contract system. Two other events deserve to be placed in record: Replying to a debate in the Volksraad on 5 July 1928, the Director of Justice said on behalf of the Government that it was still the Government's intention that a beginning should be made on the time limit of the penal sanctions in 1930. Before this debate the Government had requested the Permanent Labour Commission in Medan, which must report in 1929, in pursuance of Section 24a of the East Coast of Sumatra Coolie Ordinance, on the possibility of restricting the penal sanctions, to assist the Government with its advice in the framing of the amendments to the Coolie Ordinances which must be considered in 1930. The immense importance attached by all sections of opinion to the penal sanctions question has been shown during the year by the extraordinary amount of public discussion. It is impossible here even to summarise these discussions — at the one end of the scale is a large body of public opinion which considers the retention of the penal sanctions to be absolutely indispensable for the maintenance and development of the plantations of the Outer Provinces; at the other end are those who would proceed rapidly with the complete abolition of the penal sanctions and who consider that the plantations would not suffer from the employment of coolies under contracts which did not contain penal sanction clauses. Among the proposals for limiting, without abolishing, the use of the penal sanctions may be noted the suggestion that coolies who have completed the three years' initial contract with penal sanctions should only be allowed to re-engage under contracts without penal sanctions — in other words, the penal sanctions for re-engagement contracts would be abolished. One writer estimates that from 70 to 85 per cent. of the coolies on the East Coast of Sumatra are working under re-engagement contracts, so that the proposed measure would greatly reduce the extent of the use of penal sanctions.

During the Director's visit to the Far East he was able to realise the interest and sometimes even the passion with which this whole problem of the penal sanctions is approached by Dutch public opinion. In inviting the Director the Dutch Government had no doubt hoped to enable him to form a personal opinion on this controversial problem. But with the little time at his disposal it was impossible for him even to plan a skeleton enquiry. If from the purely philosophical point of view and from that of social ethics, which is a phrase used in the present discussions, there could be no doubt as to the Director's general attitude, it would have been rashness on his part to contest without examination the economic considerations brought forward by the supporters of the maintenance of the penal sanctions. All the Director was able to do was to receive the memoranda and notes of the Employers' Federation urging the need for keeping the penal sanctions in the interests of the very existence of the plantations, and, on the other hand, the contrary opinions of Dutch or native political associations which are pressing for the immediate abolition of the penal sanctions.

These papers will be given the publicity they deserve in the Office's periodicals. At the same time the Director decided, to meet the wish expressed by the Dutch Government that the Office should know all the facts, to send Mr. Grimshaw, Chief of the Native Labour Section, on mission to Java and Sumatra. Mr. Grimshaw remained several weeks in these islands and was able to study in detail the life
of the contract workers, from their recruitment to the execution of their contracts on the plantations.

It hardly seems necessary, in reply to certain ill-founded criticisms that have been made, to recall once again that the International Labour Organisation is not competent to impose any measures on sovereign States and that the rules by which it is bound give every security to the economic interests concerned.

Portugal. — A Code regulating the various questions arising in connection with native labour in the Portuguese African colonies was promulgated at the end of 1928. Before examining this law, the adoption of which is an event of considerable importance in the evolution of Portuguese colonial legislation, mention will be made of certain measures relating to native labour adopted in various Portuguese colonies during the year.

In Portuguese Guinea, Order No. 29 of 5 March 1928 contains provisions relating to the residence and clothing of native workers and at the same time reduces wages. Section 2 of this Order provides that the minimum rate of wage for each day's work shall be one escudo and the maximum 1.50.

In Angola, Orders No. 20 of 23 January 1928 and No. 97 of 21 May 1928 prohibit the carriage of persons or goods by porters in various districts. Decree No. 8 of 30 April 1928 contains provisions for the medical and sanitary protection of native workers migrating to San Thome and for native workers in State or private employment. Order No. 100 of 22 May 1928 provides for the application of the Portuguese Decree No. 14,466 relating to un- medical and sanitary protection of native workers migrating to San Thome and for native workers in State or private employment. Order No. 100 of 22 May 1928 provides for the application of the Portuguese Decree No. 14,466 relating to unhealthy or dangerous undertakings and sanctions regulations regarding health and safety in industrial undertakings.

In Mozambique, Decree No. 74 of 9 June 1928 provides that all natives who have worked regularly in State employment and who are permanently incapacitated from work as a result of illness or old age are entitled to a monthly allowance.

The greater number of native workers employed on the mines of the Transvaal come from Mozambique. At one time it was feared that the gold and coal mines of the Rand would lose this labour supply. As stated in last year's Report, the Portuguese Government had decided to denounce as from 1 June 1928 the first part of the Convention with the Government of the Union of South Africa relating to the recruiting of Mozambique natives. On 11 September 1928, however, a new Convention, covering these important points and based on an agreement reached at Lisbon on 11 May, was signed by representatives of the Union Government and of the Portuguese Government.

The Convention is divided into four parts, the first part dealing with native labour. Under its provisions, the Portuguese Government authorises the recruiting of native labourers for employment in the gold and coal mines of the Transvaal. A representative of the Portuguese Government is to act as curator of Portuguese natives within the Union. Within the five years following the signature of the Convention the number of Mozambique natives employed in the mines is to be reduced progressively to a maximum complement of 80,000. The contracts of Portuguese natives are not to extend beyond 12 months, though such natives may re-engage themselves for a further period of six months. After the first nine months, one-half of the estimated average contract rates of pay is to be retained and paid to the natives in Mozambique on their return thereto.

Portuguese natives who do not return to Mozambique at the end of their period of contract are to be regarded as prohibited immigrants in the Union and thereby subject to the provisions of the immigrants' regulation laws of the Union. Natives may be authorised to seek employment in the mines without the intervention of the recruiting organisation. Any such native, however, falls within the quota of 80,000 mentioned above.

The second and third parts of the Convention relate to port, railway and customs questions.

In the fourth part it is provided that the Convention is to be in force for a period of 10 years, and that five years after its signature it is open for either Government to call for a revision of its terms, whereupon, in default of mutual agreement, the Convention lapses six months after the date of receipt of notice of termination.

Any dispute that may arise relative to the interpretation of the Convention which cannot be settled by direct negotiations is to be submitted to arbitration. In default of agreement on the choice of such arbiters, the President of the Permanent Court of International Justice is to be requested to make the necessary appointments.

As stated above, the most striking event in connection with labour legislation in the Portuguese African colonies is the issue of the Native Labour Code, approved by the Decree of 6 December 1928, repealing the general Native Labour Regulations of 14 October 1914. Below will be found a summary of the chief provisions of this new Code.

Sections 8 to 23 lay down that the State shall exercise its trusteeship for the natives through a curator-general. Among the duties of this official are to assist in the drawing up of labour contracts; to ratify those concluded without the
co-operation of the authorities, to supervise the execution of the clauses of the contract both by employer and by worker, to prevent breaches of the provisions of the Code, to receive complaints relating to the execution of contracts, to annul contracts and to take any necessary measures for the application of the provisions for the protection of the native workers or to induce them to fulfil the obligations which they have accepted. Finally, in all litigation arising from the execution of labour contracts the curator-general acts as the legal representative of the native workers.

Sections 24 to 86 contain provisions dealing with the recruiting of native workers. The Code provides that as a general rule no one is to recruit without a licence issued by the administrative authorities. Such a licence, which is valid for one year and renewable annually, may only be issued after the payment of a fee and the deposit of a money security. The recruiting licence in principle is personal and non-transferable; it may be cancelled by the competent authorities. Persons recruiting native labourers are under an obligation to bring them before the competent authorities, who must take part in the drawing-up of the contracts whenever the workers are engaged for employment outside the area where they were recruited. To prevent any possible abuse in recruiting, the Code expressly prohibits recruiters from leading the natives to believe that they represent public authorities or that they are recruiting by order of public authority or for Government employment. Recruiters are, moreover, prohibited from making any sales on credit to natives or any advances other than those provided in the contract, or from resorting to violence to compel the natives to undertake employment.

The Code stipulates that the colonial Governor may temporarily prohibit recruiting operations on grounds of native policy or of public health and may also fix certain zones within which the recruiting of workers for employment beyond the colony is prohibited.

The authorities are instructed to facilitate recruiting operations by informing recruiting agents of the districts in which recruiting is most favourable and by advising the natives to work while explaining to them that they are under no compulsion to undertake employment. The authorities are forbidden to recruit workers for private employment to accompany or to send anyone in the company of recruiting agents, to place members of the native police at the disposal of such agents, and generally to take any measure implying a measure of compulsion as regards the natives.

The Code provides that all male natives shall receive a "work book" containing the following details: name, place of residence, occupation, details regarding any contracts of employment they used to hold, an indication of manner in which work was accomplished. Mention may also be made in these books of the payment of taxes, of any preventive medical treatment received and of land or cattle owned. Any native undertaking employment is required to produce this book so as to prove that he is free to accept the new employment.

Sections 95 to 163 relate to contracts of employment. Contracts may not be made with natives who are old or suffering from diseases rendering them unfit for work. Women may not enter into contracts to work away from their homes unless they are accompanied by a member of their family or engaged for domestic services. Natives under 14 years of age may not be engaged for agricultural or industrial employment. Those between 14 and 18 years of age may accept employment only with the consent of their father, mother or person acting as guardian. The contracts are to contain information regarding the period of contract, the nature and place of employment, the amount of wages and the advances granted to the natives. Section 110 provides for a nine-hour day and a weekly rest day.

The Code defines certain obligations to which the employers are liable. Employers are prohibited, for example, from demanding excessive labour from women or minors, from compelling natives to buy goods from them or from selling natives alcoholic drinks. They are moreover under an obligation at the end of the period of employment to bring the natives to the authorities in whose presence the contract was originally concluded. The employers are liable for repatriation expenses. Contracts authorising corporal punishment or not stipulating for the payment of a fixed money wage are invalid.

Contracts of employment may only be drawn up without the co-operation of the authorities in the two following cases: (a) when the worker is normally resident in the district of employment; (b) when the worker offers himself for employment without the intervention of a recruiting agent. (However, the Governor may in certain urgent and exceptional cases authorise the conclusion of other contracts without the assistance of the authorities.) Any contracts concluded without the assistance of the authorities must, nevertheless, be approved by the authorities, for which purpose a summary is to be communicated to them. Any contract concluded without the assistance of the authorities and without their approval
does not entitle the employer to require the execution of the obligations accepted by the worker.

With the exception of the cases mentioned above, contracts of employment are concluded in the presence of the competent authorities, i.e. the curator or his agents. The authorities are required to assure themselves that the parties accept all the clauses of the contract voluntarily. The maximum duration of labour contracts is also fixed by the Code. This maximum is two years or three years, according to whether the employment is to be undertaken within or without the colony. In all cases contracts are individual except where the worker is accompanied by his wife or children. Contracts by which the worker undertakes to proceed to another Portuguese colony may not be concluded except with the authority of the Minister for the Colonies.

The Labour Code also contains provisions relating to the feeding, housing, clothing and medical relief of native workers. Whenever the place of employment is distant from the usual residence of the workers, the employer is under obligation to erect a hospital under the direction and daily inspection of a medical officer.

By section 270, workers injured in their employment are entitled to the following benefits: (1) in the case of total incapacity for a period not exceeding three months, benefits equal to the wages the worker would have received if the accident had not occurred; (2) in the case of total incapacity for a period exceeding three months, benefits equivalent to half wages; (3) in the case of total and permanent incapacity, a pension of a third of the wages which the worker received at the time of the accident.

Women are exempt from work during one month before confinement and one month after. The Code also contains provisions relating to workers' children.

The basis of the previous Portuguese legislation was the principle of the moral and legal obligation to labour laid down in the General Regulations of 14 October 1914, which have been repealed by the new Code. According to this principle every fit native of the Portuguese colonies was obliged to provide for his maintenance and progressively to improve his social condition by labour. Any native who did not work by his own accord was compelled to appear before the authorities, who endeavoured to persuade him to work by offering him suitable employment. Should the native refuse to accept this employment he could be sent to an employer in need of labour. This form of compulsion was described as "compulsory labour". If, in spite of the compulsion thus exercised, the native continued to refuse the employment offered him and remained idle, he became guilty of vagrancy and for this offence could be brought before the courts and convicted. The second form of compulsion was described as "correctional labour".

The new Code institutes an entirely different system. By sections 3 and 294 forced labour for private employers is prohibited. A mention of the previous obligation is still to be found in section 3 of the new Code, which refers to the moral obligation incumbent upon the natives to procure the means of subsistence by labour. This obligation, however, appears to be purely moral, since it is supported by no legal sanction. Section 328 fixes the various penalties to which officials are liable who supply forced labour to private employers and section 344 stipulates that any private employer who uses compulsion to oblige a native to undertake contract employment is liable to a maximum fine of 10,000 escudos or to imprisonment.

Compulsory labour for general public purposes is authorised: (a) in the execution of public works when it has been found impossible to obtain sufficient voluntary labour, and (b) in emergencies (fires, floods, invasion of locusts, epidemics).

Compulsory labour for local public purposes is authorised for the keeping clean and maintenance of villages, water courses, wells and local roads.

A last form of compulsory labour which may be authorised consists of the cultivation of certain lands in the native reserves, subject to the condition that the produce remains wholly the property of the natives themselves.

The Code contains detailed provisions regarding the remuneration of the forms of forced labour which are permissible. Compulsory labour for general public purposes is to be remunerated or assisted by the authorities. Natives employed on public works are to receive the same wages as voluntary workers and are entitled to the same benefits as regards food, housing, transport, medical relief, etc. In the case of labour in emergencies, the natives are to receive food and housing if the duration of the labour renders such provision necessary, and a bonus on the completion of the labour. No remuneration, in the direct sense of the term, is provided for forced labour for local public purposes or for compulsory cultivation in the native reserves. Nevertheless, the Administration is required to supply the natives with the necessary assistance in the form of materials, seeds, etc., should the natives be unable to obtain these unassisted.
The natives liable to compulsory labour are those between 14 and 60 years of age, while exemption is provided for the sick and unfit, sepoyos in State or authorised private employment, natives under contract and headmen. Natives returning from beyond a colony are exempt from compulsory labour for six months after their return. Women are not liable to forced labour for public purposes or for the execution of any labour outside their home districts.

Finally, it is of interest to note that the new Code sets up in the Ministry of the Colonies a Central Council for Labour and Emigration, on which the Portuguese African colonies are represented. The duties of this Council are to give advice on questions connected with native labour and emigration and to propose to the Minister for the Colonies the adoption of any measures covering native labour. Section 809 moreover provides that in certain colonies a local council of labour and emigration is to be created with the same duties in connection with the colonial Governor as the Central Council has with the Minister for the Colonies.

United States of America. — The annual report of the Governor of Alaska states that labour conditions in the Territory, where some native Indians are employed, continued to be satisfactory during the year ended 30 June 1928. Wages were satisfactorily adjusted to living costs.

For Hawaii, the 1927 report also comments on the satisfactory labour conditions on the sugar plantations, where a large number of Filipinos are employed. The Sugar Planters' Association is paying much attention to the housing of workers and is replacing the old barracks type of labourers' quarters by independent cottages.

In the Philippine Islands, a workmen's compensation law was passed during 1927. Many complaints reached the Government regarding long hours of work, which ranged from eight to ten hours a day in industry, from nine to twelve in agriculture, and from eight to ten in mines. No legislative action has, however, been taken, though, as stated in last year's Report, the Director of Labour has declared in favour of eight-hour legislation.

In Porto Rico, the Department of Labor has drawn attention to the low wages current, especially in home-working industries. The average wage for a group of 552 women employed at home amounted to $1.50 a week for from 60 to 72 hours of labour.

For the Virgin Islands, the Governor's report for 1928 refers to the importation of labourers from Porto Rico. The Porto Ricans have demanded higher wages than those hitherto paid to the native labourers, which has resulted in a general increase in wages. The Porto Ricans have also demanded better and more sanitary living quarters and, as a result, many of the houses have been repaired and the villages cleaned.

B. The International Movement

179. Conferences and congresses. — The problems of colonial and mandated territories generally, and native labour questions in particular, continued to claim the attention of international conferences during the past year. Missionary conferences, both Catholic and Protestant, the Inter-Parliamentary Conference, the Congress of the Labour and Socialist International, and others devoted considerable time to various aspects of these questions. Insistence on the principle of "trusteeship," on the need for a new native policy, and on the necessity for the improvement of the conditions of life and work of the native constantly recurs in the proceedings of the most various bodies.

It is impossible to give an account of the numerous Catholic conferences and study circles which have discussed native problems during 1928, but mention must be made of a meeting which took place at Juilly (France) in July to study "the social question in the missionary field" and especially "the organisation of labour in Moslem countries." At this meeting it was decided to create "a group of missionaries, sociologists, jurists and economists...for the purpose of drawing up, in the light of the Papal Encyclicals, a Christian native policy, and to attempt to realise it gradually, keeping in touch with the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation." On the question of "forced labour," the Catholic Union for International Studies sent out a detailed questionnaire to missionaries in Africa.

The big event in the Protestant missionary world was the meeting of the International Missionary Council in Jerusalem from 24 March to 8 April 1928, which was notable for the attention paid to racial and economic problems. One section of the report adopted by the Council stated "that the churches everywhere and the missionary enterprise...have not been so sensitive of those aspects of the Christian message as would have been necessary sensibly to mitigate the evils which advancing industrialism has brought in its train," and outlined the problems arising from, and the principles to be borne in mind in regulating, the penetration of Western economic civilisation into countries hitherto little affected by it. Governments were urged at once to stop the practice of employing forced labour by companies or private individuals and also, except in cases of immediate
and unforeseen national emergency, by public authorities, while detailed recommendations were made with regard to the treatment of other native labour problems. The Council also declared of vital importance the establishment of an adequately staffed Bureau of Social and Economic Research and Information, to work in close contact with the International Labour Office among other organisations concerned with social and economic subjects.

The same desire to strengthen the social character of mission work has been manifested at other Protestant missionary meetings, notably at the International Conference organised by the Student Christian Movement at Liverpool in January 1929, where attention was particularly drawn to the Office's activities.

As regards political conferences, it may be noted that at the Conference of the Inter-Parliamentary Union in August the Colonial Committee drafted a resolution relating to mandates, which will be submitted to a future conference and which laid special stress on the principle of trusteeship. An important and detailed resolution on colonial policy, containing inter alia a number of principles for the protection of native labour, was passed at the Third Congress of the Labour and Socialist International.

180. Work of the Office. — In connection with native labour, the Office for several years was forced to limit its work to a study of certain particular sides of the labour problem in colonial territories. More was impossible, in view of the very small number of officials who could give time to this work and of the insufficient information at the Office's disposal. Gradually, however, the work was co-ordinated, information became more abundant and more systematic, and the new section of the Diplomatic Division, created in 1927 specially to study questions of native labour, has been able to improve its means of information and its methods of work. It can now be said that the Office has definitely commenced the study of the problems raised by native labour. It would be difficult to exaggerate the valuable assistance the Office has received from its Committee of Experts during this period of organisation. The Committee, whose members were selected so that the Committee as a whole might represent as complete a knowledge as possible of labour problems in the various colonial territories, has already held two sessions.

Perhaps the most interesting result of its preliminary labours has been to show that, in spite of the diversity of conditions in the territories under consideration and their varying degrees of economic and social evolution, it is even now possible to find some common principles for the legal protection of all native peoples. Moreover, these common principles are not merely theoretical: the laws and regulations show that they have already taken a positive form. It is indeed striking to note how the various national laws, dealing at approximately the same time with problems of the same nature, are finding solutions along very similar lines. Such facts cannot but be encouraging for the Office in its search for principles susceptible of general application in colonial labour legislation.

The Native Labour Section is now in receipt of nearly all the primary sources of information published in regard to native labour. Reference was made last year to the desirability of a special publication through which it would be possible to disseminate more easily and regularly the information which the Office is collecting. A decision in favour of such a publication was taken by the Governing Body in October 1927, but it was not possible to make financial provision before 1929.

According to present arrangements, the first number of the new publication, which will be a quarterly one, will appear in June. It is not necessary to insist here on the services which such a publication will be able to render. In particular it will enable the colonial administrations to gain a better knowledge of the methods followed and of the results achieved in territories other than their own. The Office is also convinced that this publication will make it possible to verify the tendency towards the adoption of similar principles and methods in colonial labour legislation which the Office has noted in the course of its comparative study of colonial laws.

Among the various native labour problems to which the Office's attention is inevitably drawn, it will be remembered that the Committee of Experts gave the first place to the problem of forced labour as most ripe for international treatment; this problem has indeed been treated legislatively along very similar lines in the various territories. Information collected by the Office was accordingly brought before the Committee of Experts at its first session in July 1927. It has since been completed, partly with new texts the Office was able to obtain and partly through personal information supplied by the experts. Embodied in the Grey Report, this information has been communicated to the Governments in preparation for the first discussion of the question, which will take place at the present Conference. It may be added that before preparing the final text of the draft Questionnaire annexed to the Report, the Office brought it before the Committee of Experts during its second session, held in December 1928. The Conference now has the question of forced labour on its Agenda and it is for the Conference to decide the subsequent development of international action in this domain.
There could be no better introduction to the general study of native labour conditions than that provided by the examination of the question of forced labour. In the course of this examination, the Office has almost inevitably had its attention drawn to other problems of the life and labour of native peoples, and it is already preparing the study of closely connected questions. In the 1928 Report it was stated that a beginning had been made with the documentary study of the question of contract labour. During the past year a series of preliminary studies were completed and submitted to the Committee of Experts during its session held in December. At the same time, the Office put forward a suggested plan of study, divided into four main sections dealing respectively with the recruitment and engagement of the workers, the conditions of labour as regulated by the contract, the renewal of contracts, and the inspection of labour under contract. This plan was approved by the experts with certain additions as a basis for the study of the subject. Of the subjects in the proposed plan of study, the Committee was only able to consider in detail the recruitment and engagement of workers. On this point it formulated a number of important general principles.

The Committee took the view that the system to be aimed at was one of free relations between employer and worker, and the replacement of the system of recruiting under contract, wherever and as soon as circumstances permit, by the establishing of institutions entrusted primarily with the centralisation and the dissemination of information regarding the supply of and demand for labour: they might also have functions connected with the safeguarding of the interests of workers and employers. The Committee realised, however, that it might be long before this aim could be achieved in the case of backward peoples, particularly in sparsely populated territories. The immediate object to be achieved therefore is the regulation of recruiting in such a way as to prevent abuses and to safeguard the health and welfare of the native populations. With this object in view, the Committee recommended that before permitting recruiting under contract in any given area, the administrations should take into consideration the possible effects of the withdrawal of the adult workers from the native communities concerned on the well-being of those communities. The Committee therefore suggested that in examining requests for permits to establish enterprises which will need labour and thus lead to an increase in recruiting, the administrations concerned should see that the economic development of the territory remains in harmony with the necessary social adjustments and should endeavour to avoid the creation of a situation which might lead the chiefs or other authorities to exercise pressure on natives to induce them to take employment.

As regards the machinery of recruiting, the Committee proposed that, without prejudice to the admitted duty of the administration to encourage natives to work, administrative officers should not act as recruiting agents for private undertakings. In no case should the chiefs or other tribal authorities act as such agents, and, if recourse is had to their good offices, care should be taken that they exercise no pressure on the workers to induce them to accept employment; they should in no case be remunerated. It is held that the conduct of recruiting operations as a business carried on by persons not working on behalf of an administration or of one or several specific employers or organisations should be subject to a number of safeguards. Recruiting by employers or their agents, or by organisations of employers or organisations subsidised by employers should only be permitted under Government licence. The issue of such licences should be subject to a number of safeguards. Lastly, the Committee was of opinion that the system of recruiting by using workers employed in the actual undertaking for obtaining labour for that undertaking might be encouraged subject to certain guarantees.

The Committee of Experts will continue the study of this question and of the other problems of the contract labour systems outlined in the plan of study, at its next meeting. The work the Office is undertaking in this connection will certainly be greatly facilitated by the direct and personal information brought back by the Chief of the Native Labour Section from his visit to the Dutch East Indies and the Union of South Africa.

In connection both with forced labour and with contract labour, the Office's chief efforts in colonial questions are for the moment directed towards the protection of the native workers. Such is inevitably the case, in view of the fact that the most urgent task is to make impossible the abuses which arise almost spontaneously from the penetration of backward areas by civilised ethnic groups endeavouring, sometimes with excessive zeal, to further the development of the natural wealth of these territories. Nevertheless, alongside this task of protection, which is preventive in character, it is possible to conceive of a positive native labour policy, the object of which would be to strengthen the resources of the native populations, to regularise their food supplies and to obtain labour facilities for them. Far from showing no interest in this second side of colonial labour problems, the Office is already turning its attention towards it and will continue to do so. Moreover, the work of protection in its limited sense, but as interpreted by the Office, involves in itself positive action,
in particular in guaranteeing a sufficient food supply, suitable housing conditions, and the remedying of distress caused by accident and sickness. It is the Office's task to endeavour to induce colonial administrations to introduce measures of this positive nature, at first in the laws dealing with labour performed under various methods of compulsion, and later, in the labour conditions of all natives, whatever be the form of their employment.

Special Countries—Asiatic Enquiry

181.—That the rapid development of the importance of the great countries of Asia in the economy of the world is being accompanied by an ever-increasing attention to labour problems and labour legislation and an extended participation in the work of the International Labour Organisation was shown in last year's Report. No signs of a slackening of this movement have been visible during 1928; on the contrary, all the indications point to an acceleration.

The documentary enquiry which the Seventh Session of the Conference instructed the Office to undertake into conditions of work in Asiatic countries is making steady progress. It must, however, be admitted that this progress has not been as rapid as could have been wished. Nevertheless, it is hoped to make substantial progress in the course of the year 1929.

As in previous Reports, the following paragraphs give an outline of the main events in the social evolution of the principal Asiatic countries during 1928.

182.—India.—During the year 1928 both social legislation and labour organisation made considerable progress in India. Two important legislative measures were passed: the first amended the Trade Union Act of 1926 with a view to clarifying the provisions in respect of appeals; and the second amended the Indian Mines Act of 1928 with the object of limiting the hours of work in mines to twelve a day in addition to the existing provisions of sixty hours a week above ground and fifty-four hours a week below ground. Bills were also introduced for amending the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1928 and regulating trade disputes. The most important proposals of the Trade Disputes Bill were the establishment of courts of enquiry and boards of conciliation. Another important step taken by the Government of India was the decision to reduce the number of women working underground in mines by 10 per cent. per annum on the basis of the number of such women employed in 1926; this arrangement is to come into effective operation from 1 April 1929. Of the activities of the Local Governments in labour matters, the most important were the publication by the Government of the Punjab of a report on unemployment and the enactment by the Government of Bombay of an Act for maternity benefits.

Prolonged industrial disputes, resulting in some cases in rioting and bloodshed, took place during the year in several important industries, such as the cotton mills, steel and iron works, and railway workshops. While the total number of workers involved or of the working days lost in all industrial disputes is not yet known, the general strike in the Bombay cotton mills alone caused the loss of 21 million working days to the industry and of 3.5 crores of rupees, or over £2,600,000, in wages to the workers.

The trade union movement made considerable progress. The number of trade unions in the Bombay Presidency alone increased from 72 in December 1927 to 88 in September 1928. Of the latter number, 28 were registered under the Trade Union Act of 1926. The total number of trade unions in the whole country was 120 with a membership of about 200,000, in addition to several public employees' unions with a membership of about 50,000.

Of the various provincial and national trade unions holding annual meetings, the most important is the All-India Trade Union Congress, which held its congress at the end of the year and passed resolutions, of which the most important were on the following subjects: (1) immediate legislation in favour of adult franchise, the eighth-hour day or forty-four hour week, fixing of minimum wages, provision for old age, widows' and orphans' pensions, maternity benefit, and weekly payment of wages; (2) protest against the policy of employers who seek to reduce the cost of production by reducing the number of workers employed and increasing the output of the remaining workers; (3) protest against the employment of police and military forces on every occasion of strike and lock-out; and (4) the holding of an Asiatic Labour Congress at Bombay. Indian labour was represented during the year in the drafting of a national constitution and in the All-Parties National Convention. The proposed constitution would guarantee freedom of association and provide for the enactment of laws securing a living wage for every worker, providing for the protection of motherhood, and the welfare of children, and against the economic consequences of old age, infirmity and unemployment. The growing importance of labour is still more indicated by the introduction in the Bombay Legislative Council of a Bill for representation of labour in the municipality and the formation in Bombay of a labour
representatives' committee for safeguarding labour interests in national, provincial and municipal Governments.

The rise into prominence of labour organisations other than trade unions is still another feature of the labour movement during the year. Since 1918 the labour movement had developed along the lines of trade unionism. Within the last few years, however, there have grown up radical labour organisations, such as the Communist Party and the Workers' and Peasants' Parties. By the end of the year the latter organisations held the first All-India Workers' and Peasants' Parties' Conference, which was attended by about 200 delegates from the different parts of India.

183. Japan. — One of the notable events during the year 1928 was the ratification by the Japanese Government of the Conventions concerning workmen's compensation for occupation ailments and equal treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents, adopted at the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference, and the Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship, adopted at the Eighth Session. Japan has thus now ratified nine Conventions and during the Director's visit to Japan, at the end of 1928, the possibility of a number of further ratifications was discussed.

The most important measure of labour legislation which falls to be recorded is the revision of the Regulations concerning employment in mines. The revised Regulations contain the following three important provisions: (1) The limitation of the maximum number of working hours per day to ten hours, including a compulsory rest period of one hour, for all miners engaged in underground work, regardless of age or sex. This is the first measure regulating the hours of work of adult male workers; it is to come into operation on 1 September 1980. (2) The prohibition of the employment of women and young persons under sixteen years of age between the hours of 10 p.m. and 5 a.m., provided that such persons may be employed at night for a specified period, subject to permission, in coal sorting above ground when three or more alternating shifts are employed. Moreover, where such persons are employed in two or more alternating shifts, their hours of work may be extended by one hour from 10 to 11 p.m., providing permission be obtained. This provision is to be enforced from 1 September 1988. (3) The prohibition of underground work by women and young persons under sixteen years of age, except when authorised, in coal mines where the coal seams are thin. This provision is also to come into operation on 1 September 1983.

As regards legislation proposed, it may be noted that during the year the Bureau of Social Affairs of the Department of the Interior drafted a Bill relating to compensation for workers otherwise employed than in factories and mines, a Bill relating to social insurance for seamen and a Bill relating to the relief and protection of the poor. The Bureau also announced proposals for the revision of the Factory Act and the Health Insurance Act and prepared new regulations for safety and hygiene in factories. These Bills and proposals are to be introduced during the coming session of the Imperial Diet. The Trade Union Bill, which had been under discussion for many years, will not however be introduced during the coming session.

Three plans for dealing with unemployment problems have been suggested by the Bureau of Social Affairs: (1) The creation by public institutions of reserve funds in readiness for periods of unemployment; (2) the establishment by private concerns of reserve funds for the payment of allowances to discharged workers; and (3) the introduction by the State of unemployment insurance. In order to carry out these schemes, an Unemployment Research Bureau is to be established in the Bureau of Social Affairs in the coming year. The Bureau also asked for credits for the assistance of emigrants, chiefly to Brazil, whose number is substantially larger than the previous year.

In September an Economic Commission was established as a Government institution. This Commission is composed of the members of the Cabinet and influential business men under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister. Its chief function is to investigate the problems relating to the development of industries, increase of efficiency in production, equitable distribution and in particular the completion of measures for social policy.

The number of industrial and agricultural disputes decreased by approximately 25 per cent. as compared with that of the previous year. A mention, however, should be made here of the occurrence of a strike at Noda near Tokyo, which lasted for 217 days—a record duration in the history of labour disputes in Japan.

Because of the continuous depression of economic activities during the year, the chief effort of the trade union movement was directed toward internal adjustment, particularly unification, rather than towards external expansion. The divergences of principles and political tendencies among the workers' organisations, however, made this objective very difficult to attain. Finally, on 20 December, the Japan Labour and Farmers' Party, Japan Farmers' Party, Proletarian Masses' Party, and four other moderate parties were amalgamated into a single party called the "Japan Great Masses' Party" (Nihon...
At the same time, the five right wing trade unions, the General Federation of Labour, Seamen's Union, General Federation of Labour in State Undertakings, League of Naval Arsenal Unions and the Ship Officers' Association held on 5 December the first meeting of the newly organised association called the Council for the Promotion of Labour Legislation. These five organisations had been already united in their participation in the election of the Workers' Delegate to the International Labour Conference. Further, the farmers' organisations merged during the year into two unions: the National Farmers' Union (Zenkoku Nominsū) and the All-Japan Farmers' Union (Zen Nihon Nominsū), the one representing the left wing and the other the right wing. The left wing trade unions have been inactive since the dissolution in April by the police of the Labour and Farmers' Party and two other similar organisations; an attempt to re-establish the Labour and Farmers' Party on 22 December was unsuccessful owing to the action of the police.

In last year's Report, it was mentioned that the free employment exchanges for seamen established by the Joint Maritime Board had begun working. During 1928, important collective agreements were concluded between the Shipowners' Association on the one side and the Seamen's Union and the Ship Officers' Association on the other, through the medium of the Board. These agreements provide for relief for shipwrecked seamen, minimum wages for seamen, and minimum salaries for officers and engineers.

Another feature of the year 1928 was the preparation by the cotton manufacturers of Japan for the abolition of night work, which is to be enforced from 1 July 1929. According to press reports, the cotton spinners are increasing the number of spindles in order to compensate for the expected reduction of output caused by the abolition of night work.

In April 1928 the Nanking Government promulgated an Act on the solution of industrial disputes. This Act applies to the whole of China, including Mongolia, Tibet and Fuzhou. It specifies the principles of all former legislation of the Central or Provincial Governments concerning the solution of industrial disputes. It adds that regulations for its application may be issued by the local authorities with the approval of the Central Government; and the special municipality of Shanghai issued on 28 June 1928 regulations of this nature. Towards the end of 1928 a Factories Bill was drawn up by a committee on social legislation, under the direction of the Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Labour, and is now being examined by the Legislative Council of the Nationalist Government. The principal provisions of this Bill are as follows:

It would apply to all factories in Chinese territory employing more than thirty persons. The employment of children of less than fourteen years of age is prohibited. Young persons between fourteen and sixteen years of age may only be employed on light work. A month's notice is required for the cancellation of labour agreements. Hours of work of adult workers are in principle limited to eight, though possibilities are allowed for exceptions on condition that the daily maximum does not exceed ten hours. Young persons may not work more than eight hours a day. The employment of women between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. is prohibited, and that of young persons between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. Adult workers are allowed a half-hour break after five consecutive hours' work, and young persons after four consecutive hours. For children, rest is made compulsory for the first rest of at least eighteen consecutive hours. Employees who have worked regularly for a period of six months are entitled to a week's holiday, and those who have worked for one year to two weeks' holiday. Chapter VI of the Bill speaks of the average output per worker. It provides for a minimum wage fixed in each district according to the cost of living. The payment of wages must be effected not less frequently than twice a month.

Chapter VII contains the regulations of profit sharing. The profits made by any company, minus the sums placed to reserve and the interest on capital, which is in principle fixed at 8 per cent., are divided equally between the employees and the shareholders. The remainder is assigned to the directorates, and the remainder divided between capital and labour. The profits which are to be assigned to each individual worker are based on his wages, seniority and work. The Bill makes provision for certain minimum health installations in the factories, and for safety measures and the education of the workers. Chapter X is concerned with works councils, which are composed of employers and workers' representatives in equal numbers. The duties of the works councils are to fix the "average" output per worker, to settle disputes between workers or between employers and workers, to manage grants and funds for the benefit of the workers, etc. The Bill provides that the period of apprenticeship shall not exceed three years. It also provides for minimum wages for apprentices who have served a certain time. Workers under sixteen years of age are required to be allowed ten hours a week and workers over sixteen years of age five hours a week for educational purposes. The Bill provides for compensation and pensions in case of industrial accidents. Women workers are to receive a total of two months' paid leave before and after childbirth. Women and young persons may not be employed on dangerous work. Chapter XV deals with inspection. Chapter XVI contains penalties for breaches of the provisions. These penalties may amount to 300 dollars for an offence.
the Bill states that by its promulgation all former regulations concerning factories, either of the central authority or of the local authorities, are repealed.

It is of importance to note in the present Chinese legislation that, although the Nanking laws are theoretically the only laws applicable throughout the country, there is no tendency to enforce a rigid uniformity. In practice industrial conditions in the different localities are so dissimilar that the Nanking Government has been compelled to authorise, at least provisionally, the application of certain local legislations, the purport of which sometimes differs from the legislative decisions of the Central Government. Nevertheless, in spite of these temporary difficulties, the efforts of the provincial or local administrations towards social progress are of interest. In the province of Kwangtung, in May 1928, the provincial Government issued provisional regulations on labour conditions covering the whole province. A draft Labour Code has also been prepared by the provincial Government of Kwangtung and is shortly to be brought before the Central Nanking Government for promulgation as an experimental measure. In addition, the municipality of Shanghai has just published a series of provisional regulations on different labour questions.

In addition to developing its social legislation, the new Chinese Government has strengthened its administrative machinery. In the Central Government, labour questions are entrusted to the Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Labour. In each of the provincial Governments a department has been created dealing with labour questions, together with other agricultural, industrial and commercial questions. Finally, in Shanghai and other important industrial towns, there are Bureaux of Social Affairs under the municipal authorities.

Workers' organisations in China continue to progress. Following the communist insurrection in Canton at the end of 1927, the authorities dissolved or re-organised most of the old trade unions. It is stated that in the single province of Kwangtung 40 per cent. of the trade unions were dissolved. On the other hand, committees for the reorganisation of the trade unions have been set up, in which the workers are represented beside the Government authorities. These committees have a threefold task: protection of the trade unions against communist influence, unification of the trade union movement, and education of the workers. They are putting into effect a systematic plan of trade union organisation thought out by the Government and the Nationalist Party. Although this policy is still in its initial stages, it is worthy of note that the membership of the reorganised trade unions is rapidly increasing. As yet there is no National Labour Confederation, though certain of the more important trade unions have a more or less national organisation—for example, the engineers' and the seamen's trade unions.

Another symptom is the fact that trade unions are increasingly limiting their attention to trade union matters. There no longer occur between trade unions those open conflicts for political purposes which used to rage in the country. Moreover, trade union action for the education of the workers is developing. It is possible to believe that in a short time the Chinese working class, gradually won by modern ideas, will be able to collaborate actively in international developments, as it has always desired.

### VI. The Workers' Living Conditions

#### Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time

185. — Apart from three or four countries and two or three special features, it cannot be said that there have been great progress or important events during the last twelve months as regards the subject of the utilisation of spare time. It is true that the activities and initiatives referred to last year have continued to develop in the normal way, and though there has, generally speaking, been no important movement in the matter, there are at any rate no great disappointments to be deplored. The Office would, however, be glad to have fuller information and reports from the States and organisations, under the 1924 Recommendation. It surely is obvious that the most effective way of ensuring progress in this matter is by the dissemination of information on the activities and experiments which have been carried on.

The following is all the information officially received by the Office as to the action taken during 1928 to give effect to the 1924 Recommendation:

**General Information**

- **Bulgaria**: Ukase of 17 January 1929 approving the Recommendation.
- **Czechoslovakia**: Referred on 31 January 1929 to the Cabinet with a view to opening the procedure required for adoption.
Regret was expressed last year that the first problem dealt with in the 1924 Recommendation, viz. the preservation of spare time, had not received all the attention it merited. The same observation must unfortunately be made again this year. The questions of transport and arrangement of the working day still constitute a serious obstacle which prevents large numbers of workers from enjoying their spare time to the full. The difficulties of the problem are not ignored, but it is not thought incapable of solution, and satisfactory results have, in fact, been obtained from local transport organisation committees, composed of the various groups concerned, which have been instituted in various places.

The second section of the 1924 Recommendation deals with the hygiene of the community, which is closely bound up with the question of spare time. In this matter the active movement referred to last year has in no way relaxed. Public authorities have made great efforts to supply the workers with the hygienic facilities which they demand. Public baths, open both in winter and summer, have increased in number, and there seems to be almost a spirit of emulation between different towns and different countries in this matter. In some places large masses of people crowd towards the public baths with an enthusiasm which cannot be attributed to the fact that it is the fashion, and which certainly owes much to the reduction in the working day and the pleasure which the worker may still have after leaving the workshop in the remaining hours of sunshine. There is no lack of examples of this keenness for fresh air and water, but the case of Vienna may be quoted, where every day some 20,000 persons visit one only of the four municipal establishments set up in summer on the Danube.

As regards institutions concerned with family life, physical culture, and intellectual development, with which the fourth paragraph of the 1924 Recommendation deals, attention may be drawn, in reference to the first of these points, to the great national competition in two stages organised in Italy by the National Spare Time Association to encourage the furnishing and decoration of the home. The success of the local furnishing exhibition for workers' dwellings organised at Venice in November 1927 encouraged the Dopolavoro Association to try an experiment on a larger scale. Exhibitions were prepared in October 1928 at Milan, Florence and Naples from which a quantity of practical articles of furniture and decorative objects within the means of the working classes were selected for a national exhibition at Rome in January 1929.

The movement in favour of athletics and physical culture continues to spread, as was to be foreseen. Those who are trying to place physical action within reach of the workers are concerned at the moment with one or two special questions. One of these, which was referred to in last year's Report, is being still more closely considered, viz. the avoidance of competitions for money prizes. Another is the question of arranging for medical supervision of those who take up these recreations and, if possible, a choice of exercises adapted to the needs of each, particularly for correcting occupational deformations and remedying the consequences of faulty attitudes.

The Office, which maintains excellent relations with national and international athletic organisations, considered that the moment had come to get athletic circles to examine the present situation from the standpoint of hygiene and workers' spare time and at least to initiate a discussion on these subjects. The Office, therefore, approached a certain number of individuals with whom it was already in touch and who, to its knowledge, took special interest in these questions. Some twelve of these individuals from various groups and representing various views were invited to Geneva on 19 and 20 March, and asked for their opinions on the best means of ensuring that the workers should enjoy the advantages of the great movement in favour of athletics and physical culture and on the work which might be done in this direction. This exchange of views was of great value in throwing light on present problems and showing how the obstacles might be removed which still prevent the workers from enjoying all the benefits of physical culture, as recommended in the 1924 Recommendation. The Office could not but be deeply interested in the views of the individual doctors, writers or athletic leaders long known for their experience and influence in this matter. The opinions expressed, which deal principally with the respective advantages of games and physical culture, medical supervision, instruction in physical culture, athletic grounds, and corrective exercises, will be of great value to the Office in its studies.

Regular progress is also being made in promoting facilities for intellectual and artistic culture. In some countries, such as Germany, there have been great efforts on the part of the trade unions, while in others there has been vigorous propaganda by various private organisations. The public authorities are helping to a greater or lesser extent in different places, either by subsidies or special privileges. In the field of international action, mention may be made of the first International Congress on Popular Arts, organised at Prague in October 1928 by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. The Office, which was represented...
and which had prepared for the occasion a short memorandum on popular arts and workers' spare time, took note of a resolution in which the Congress, convinced that popular arts and, in particular, applied arts ought to play an important part in workers' spare time, took note of a resolution in which the Congress, expressed the desire that the International Labour Office should, with the collaboration of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, Governments, and of workers' educational associations, make a comparative study of the action taken to encourage popular arts among the workers.

In the matter of intellectual and artistic culture, there are two directions in which progress has been more striking and more rapid than in others, as was indeed to be expected: the cinema and broadcasting. It is obviously unnecessary to emphasise the development of the cinema in recent years, and, though there may still be a number of determined opponents of the silent drama, no one can deny the prominent part which it plays in the recreation of the working class. It is equally unnecessary, however, to emphasise the inadequacy of the so-called "educational films", which might exercise considerable influence, but which until recently, though until recently, through being badly planned, the lack of specialists in the subject, and failure to attract and organise an adequate public, have mostly been failures.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the International Congress which first at Paris, under the auspices of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, and subsequently at Basle, dealt with this question of the cinema. The work begun by these two congresses is being continued by permanent bodies. The proposal made to the League of Nations by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, and subsequently at Basle, dealt with this question of the cinema. The work begun by these two congresses is being continued by permanent bodies. The proposal made to the League of Nations by the Italian Government was also mentioned. As has been already indicated, 1 this proposal had produced positive results, and was now envisaged at Rome an International Educational Cinematographic Institute, on a similar basis to the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation at Paris. The new Institute, managed by Mr. de Féo, who is well known to all who are interested in cinematography, deals with all questions relating to the production, distribution and utilisation of educational films. Its work is of the highest interest as regards spare-time movement, where it will also deal with school films. From the outset, Mr. de Féo has arranged for close collaboration with the International Labour Office, which, incidentally, is represented on the board of management of the Institute.

Broadcasting, again, is spreading and developing with remarkable rapidity. There are now in Germany more than four million receiving sets. This is double the number of two years ago, and the greater part of the receivers belong to the workers. In Czechoslovakia the number of members of the Workers' Radio has doubled in two years and is now at least 300,000. One fact of interest has been brought to light by the organisers: the development of broadcasting has meant a considerable falling off in the number of persons frequenting cafés, without, however, diminishing the attendance at educational meetings, as was at one time feared. On the contrary, it has been noticed that the attendance at these meetings is particularly great when a lecture is given by some individual already widely known through broadcasting. It has also been noticed that the courses of instruction and lectures broadcasted have been extremely profitable to the rural population.

Wherever an interest is taken in workers' education, efforts are being made to ensure that the workers should enjoy the advantages of broadcasting. The Italian Dopolavoro Association has ten minutes at its disposal at the broadcasting stations, at one of the most favourable moments of the day, viz. 9 p.m., for some instructive talk on one of a wide range of subjects. The British Institute for Adult Education has also come to an arrangement with the Broadcasting Corporation for the organisation of lectures and performances, the programmes of which, with explanatory notes, are distributed three months in advance, in order that the public may be suitably prepared for hearing them. It may be recalled in this connection that broadcasts have been arranged by the Correspondents' Offices of the International Labour Office (cf. ante, § 68), and there is evidence to show that they have been highly appreciated by the workers.

As regards the further matters referred to in the concluding paragraphs of the 1924 Recommendation—the co-ordination of local activities, the wise expenditure of energy, etc.—it may be noted that a number of Governments are endeavouring, if not to stimulate the spare-time movement as a whole, at least to become acquainted with its various aspects and to obtain an accurate idea of what is happening, thus showing their desire to help, by publishing the information collected, in the encouragement of fresh activities and collaboration in those which are already being carried out. Mencione has been made in this connection of the enquiries or soundings made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States of America in various matters connected with spare time. This year the Rumanian Labour Ministry has also carried out a general enquiry into the lines on which facilities for the utilisation of spare time are being developed, under the different headings included in the 1924 Recommendation. The results of the enquiry, published in January.

1 See above, § 41.
1928, show that the spare time movement is already of importance in this country.

There are two countries in which the co-ordination of the various activities of the public authorities is particularly noteworthy, as has been pointed out in previous Reports — Belgium and Italy. These countries have been energetically continuing the work begun a few years ago.

At the end of 1927 there were more than 500,000 workers enjoying the advantages of the Italian Dopolaravoro Association. There is no direction in which this Association has not made itself felt. Large numbers of exhibitions, competitions and activities of various kinds have followed each other in 1928; dramatic societies, the cinematograph and music, athletics and excursions are becoming increasingly popular throughout the whole country.

In Belgium a further step was taken in September 1928, when the House of Representatives passed a Bill originally proposed by Mr. Louis Piérard. This Bill provides for the appointment of a Supreme Council of National Education of an advisory character, which will suggest to the Government all measures considered suitable for developing popular education and ensuring the best utilisation of workers' spare time. While this new body differs considerably from that hoped for by the author of the Bill, it is none the less evidence of a desire, which is widely felt in Belgium and which had already led to the formation of local committees, to organise spare time on rational lines by providing rallying points and the necessary stimulus. The discussions in the House of Representatives showed the great value put on the spare-time principle, which, according to the Minister of Science and Art, Mr. Vautier, is one of the greatest conquests of modern thought.

Housing

186. — After ten years of effort and experiment, frequently accompanied by disappointment, the housing policy of a large part of Europe at least appears to be now entering the phase of achievement on a large scale.

In Great Britain and Germany, building has at last advanced sufficiently to be gradually overtaking the housing shortage during the war and post-war years, while at the same time meeting the requirements of the annual increase in the population and the necessity of replacing old houses. In England, for example, some 400,000 houses (the estimated shortage being between 500,000 and 1,000,000) have been built since 1924 in addition to current annual requirements. In Germany the net increase in the number of houses between 1924 and 1928 was 1,089,622. The number built in the last three years was 804,190, of which current requirements account for 650,000, while the rest, 154,190, represents the extent to which arrears have been met. Both in France and Belgium considerable progress was made in 1928. In the former country the passing of the Loucheur Act will result in the construction of 260,000 houses in the course of the next five years. In Belgium the funds at the disposal of the Belgian National Cheap Housing Society have been considerably increased, and the society contracted a loan of 800 millions only a few months after the loan of 100 millions borrowed in 1927. In Italy, building activities are increasing, encouraged by the resumption of freedom of contract in the matter of rents, etc., the last restrictions being due to be abolished in 1930. Moreover, in most of the countries which remained neutral during the war it would seem that the crisis has been overcome, at least in its most acute form.

In Central and Eastern Europe, however, the situation is less favourable, particularly in those countries where exaggerated inflation took place and which are still suffering from a real shortage of capital. Among the succession States of the former Austro-Hungarian Monarchy, the only one to carry out a continuous national housing policy has been Czechoslovakia, where the currency was fairly quickly stabilised. As regards Austria, it is only at Vienna that building activities have been widely resumed, owing to subsidies granted by the municipality for new houses out of moneys collected by taxes on old houses, taxes which absorb most of the income of the landlords. In Poland and Hungary, as well as in the Balkan countries, where housing conditions are inferior to those obtaining in Western Europe, housing measures are still confined to local activities on a small scale, e.g. the construction of a small number of houses for special classes of tenants such as officials, members of co-operative societies, or, in other cases, indigent families. In Greece, however, the arrival of large numbers of refugees' raised housing problems calling for action on a large scale, which, although at first provisional, is now being directed towards a definite solution of the question.

The important results already obtained throughout a large part of the continent of Europe have been accompanied by considerable alteration in the methods of financing the building of houses. While most new houses before the war were built by private contractors, the public authorities only intervening for limited classes of tenants or with a view simply to the erection of model dwellings, the crisis resulting from war and post-war conditions caused public authorities to play an important part in housing construction. In Germany, for instance, the experience of 1927 shows that 60 per cent.
of the houses built were undertaken by public authorities, (nearly 50 per cent. by public building societies, and 10 per cent. by local authorities). In Great Britain some 40 per cent. of the small houses built since 1919 have been undertaken by local authorities. In France, the whole programme under the new Act will be carried out by companies for the construction of cheap houses, or building loan societies.

The work of public and semi-public institutions in connection with housing obviously depends on the financial assistance given by the State. Should this assistance not be forthcoming, either because the State restricts its subsidies for reasons of economy or because the crisis which called for State intervention has disappeared, the work of these institutions collapses immediately. A striking example of this is shown by the Netherlands. While the crisis remained acute, the Government contributed generously to the funds required for building and the number of houses built through the agency of public and semi-public institutions was between 50 and 60 per cent. of the total number. This proportion fell, however, to approximately 15 per cent. when the Government stopped its contributions, which it regarded as an exceptional measure. Even after this setback, however, it is probable that public action in the matter of housing will be more extensive than it was before the war.

The greatest problem in connection with housing is always the financial problem. The question which has to be solved every year is where to find the necessary funds and how to utilise them for speeding up building. It would not appear, however, that there were any important changes of principle in this matter in 1928.

Outside Europe, the housing question has been a totally different matter, as there has been no serious shortage to deal with such as the war caused in European countries. In countries occupied by the white races, housing policy is consequently at the same stage as it was in Europe prior to 1914. In the United States, however, there has been a remarkable development of building societies, which have succeeded in providing private houses for a considerable part of the population. Another noticeable feature is the interest of the authorities in town planning questions. Further, in the majority of non-European countries inhabited by the white races, housing policy is to some extent allied with the opening up of new districts.

Lastly, in countries principally inhabited by coloured races, housing problems are also entirely different, and one or two enquiries recently made show that there is scope here for a great deal of work, even without attempting as yet to introduce western standards.

In the international field, new developments are taking place. The International Housing and Town Planning Federation, which has its headquarters at London, held a Congress at Paris in July 1928, at which half of the agenda consisted of housing questions. A further Congress will be held at Rome in the autumn of 1929.

In addition to the above Federation, but in close personal contact with it, there has arisen a new body, the International Housing Association. This Association deals with nothing but housing and will in all probability make a special point of keeping in touch with public and semi-public bodies directly concerned with housing matters, while the other Federation views the question as one of the problems connected with town improvement and is chiefly concerned in bringing together private movements in favour of housing reform. The new Association, which was constituted by a Provisional Committee at the Paris Congress mentioned above, was definitely formed in January 1929 at Frankfurt, where it has its headquarters.

Mention should also be made of the Conference held at Munich in May 1928 by the German District Housing Association, to which a number of foreign delegations were invited. This Conference made a systematic study of the housing policies of the different countries.

The Office made a point of being represented at these various meetings in order to establish or maintain contact with those who specialise in housing problems. It also took an active part in the International Conference on Housing Statistics arranged by the International Town Union at Munich in May 1928. The Office's enquiry into the unification of housing statistics¹ was taken as a basis for the work of this Conference and the draft Resolution submitted by the Office was adopted without modification.

Independently of this special question, the Office is continuing its enquiries into the housing problem in general. In accordance with a decision of the Forty-Second Session of the Governing Body (October 1928), it is considering the publication in 1929 of a preliminary enquiry into the housing policy in European urban centres, which will continue the enquiry published in 1924 ². It will be followed later by a number of other enquiries into housing problems in European rural districts, and housing problems in non-European countries (a) in which white races predominate, and (b) in which coloured races predominate.

Co-operation

187. — Co-operation is perhaps the most effective method of improving the workers' living conditions. The valuable results obtained by direct relations between consumers' co-operative societies and organisations of agricultural producers in keeping down the prices of foodstuffs necessary to existence were described in last year's Report. It is proposed this year to indicate what the co-operative societies on their part can do for housing, utilisation of spare time, and, in short, for working-class family life.

It is true that in their present phases, the growth of industry and town life tend to separate more and more definitely the sphere of work from what may be termed the sphere of life, i.e. that sphere in which the individual enjoys full liberty of action without other hindrance than that imposed by the general rules of law. The family, which is the smallest economic unit and the smallest social group, has partly, and in some cases totally, abandoned its productive functions, but it remains the centre around which private life turns, and its importance in this respect increases in proportion as the two spheres of work and life, formerly almost indistinguishable, only overlap to a small extent which is continually decreasing.

It may be said that co-operative societies, in so far as they are the continuation or the complement of, or a substitute for, the household as regards some of its functions, help in the organisation of family life. A few examples may be quoted from recent publications to show what has been done in recent years by co-operative societies to organise family life, to provide it with a background, to give the workers an opportunity for relaxation and recreation, to maintain their health, and to safeguard them against some of the risks incident to their condition.

The bodies chiefly concerned in this connection are co-operative housing societies and town consumers' co-operative societies. It is in fact principally in the towns that life is remote from work, and agricultural co-operative societies, craftsmen's co-operative societies or workers' productive co-operative societies are more closely connected with conditions of work than with the conditions of life which are at present under consideration.

Co-operative housing societies are of various types but may be broadly classified in two groups: those which let to their members houses which they have built or bought themselves, and those which give credit for the purchase of a house.

Those of the first type, i.e. tenant-proprietor co-operative societies, have developed to a remarkable extent in Germany, where their number has trebled from 1913 to 1927, having increased from 1,330 to 4,508. It is these societies which deserve the credit for having enabled families to pass from "tenants barracks" to private houses in a comparatively short period. In Germany again, as well as in Austria, in places where large tenement houses were inevitable or preferable, housing co-operative societies have increased the additional amenities of the houses (bathrooms, laundries, drying rooms, meeting rooms, libraries, reading rooms, gardens and sports grounds). Similar societies have also grown in number in Denmark, where the first was founded in 1865; in France, where the recent Loucheur Act will lead to their further development; in Italy, where there were, in 1927, 449 societies belonging to the national co-operative union (Ente Nazionale della Cooperazione), comprising 49,876 members, and responsible for the construction of houses to a total value of 1,170,253,062 lire; in Sweden, where the Stockholm Co-operative Housing Society has just begun certain new buildings fitted with the latest improvements (wireless receiving centre, shots for household rubbish, carpet-beating apparatus, sports grounds, collective nurseries, etc.), the rents of which are 25 to 30 per cent. lower than the usual Stockholm rents.

The second type of co-operative housing society, which is really a co-operative savings bank granting credits for building, is chiefly met with in the Anglo-Saxon countries. In Great Britain, at the end of 1927, it was estimated by the Registrar of Friendly Societies that the building societies had nearly one-and-a-half million members. Loans to members amounted to nearly £56,000,000 sterling for 1926 (£9,131,017 in 1913), while loans on mortgage due since 1890 amount to approximately £198,000,000. The number of persons living in houses built with the aid of co-operative organisations is estimated at 9,000,000. The members of the societies are persons of small income, as is seen from the fact that the average loan on mortgage per person amounts to £387. In the United States, too, during the last ten years the number of members of Building and Loan Associations rose from 4,000,000 to 11,000,000, and their funds from 2 milliards to 7 milliards of dollars. Tenant-proprietor co-operative societies are also met with. The Monthly Labor Review recently gave an account of a society of this kind run by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, which is finishing its seventh building. The first six buildings provide accommodation for three hundred families of tenant-proprietors, who have organised a great number of co-operative activities: co-operative store, co-operative society, co-operative tea-room, theatre, co-operative motor-bus, library, music room, collective nursery, games room and sports ground, orchestra, courses of instruction in Jewish history and in Hebrew.
The United States is also the country of rural telephone co-operative societies. The distance which separates farms makes the need of telephonic communication felt. At the same time, the great distances are an obstacle to the construction of telephonic lines (absorption of a large capital sum, difficulty and expense of upkeep, uncertain income). In certain districts farm tenancy contracts, being for a short term, constitute a further difficulty. At least two farms out of five have the telephone, and 82 per cent. of country telephone undertakings are run on co-operative lines or partly so.

In Europe, the electrification of country districts, which is not only of use for farm work but is also a means of changing and improving rural conditions of life, is largely due to co-operative societies. In Germany the number of co-operative electricity companies is four times the pre-war figure. On 1 January 1928 there were 6,120 of these societies, supplying approximately 150 million kilowatts, or very nearly one-quarter of the total energy supplied by the country electricity stations of Germany. A supply organisation, including eight large country co-operative societies, is supplying and popularising the use of electrical household appliances throughout the country districts; kitchen utensils, irons, vacuum cleaners, etc. In France, the co-operative electric supply societies are supplying not far short of 1,200 villages having a population of 840,000 inhabitants. More than 6,000 kilometres of cable are in use and the length is constantly increasing.

In Czechoslovakia there are some 1,300 co-operative electric distribution societies and there are also co-operative electric supply societies. That of Drazice is one of the largest producers of electricity in Central Europe. It is universally admitted that the manner in which spare time is utilised is part of the proper organisation of life. In this field, too, the co-operative societies have done a great deal for the exercise of faculties which are only utilised to a slight extent, if at all, during industrial work, for the satisfaction of the desire for culture, and for mere recreation as well. Their work deserves to be better known and justifies the mention which was made of them, on the proposal of the general secretary of the International Co-operative Alliance, in the Recommendation of the Conference on the utilisation of workers' spare time, where they were referred to together with industrial associations as suitable for representation on district or local committees for co-ordinating and harmonising the activities of the various institutions providing means of recreation.

In the first place, by the very way in which they work, in their boards and general assemblies, they offer their members an opportunity of taking part and utilising capacities which would otherwise be unemployed, thereby satisfying the desire for action and the taste for enterprise manifested by numbers of them. Moreover, as they are in touch with family households, it is natural that they should deliberately take up the problem of family recreation and educational work. Among their periodicals (which amount to more than 1,000 and of which six million copies approximately are printed, according to statistics published by the International Co-operative Alliance, which only refer to its own members) there are a large number of home magazines. The British consumers' co-operative societies occasionally organise photographic competitions. Some societies have organised exhibitions of domestic arts and crafts, with the avowed intention of providing distraction from mechanical and monotonous work, of satisfying the creative instinct, and of making work in spare time a pleasure.

The co-operative organisation has supported what is one of the most widely adopted and doubtless one of the most suitable forms of spare-time employment. The upkeep of a small garden is a healthy and absorbing exercise entirely different from industrial work, a source of supply for the household, and even to some extent an insurance against industrial crises. The tenants of workers' allotments have frequently formed co-operative societies to meet the various requirements arising out of this subsidiary occupation—for the purchase in common of seeds, shoots, the smaller livestock, fodder, etc., or for the joint utilisation of machinery (baking machinery, crushing machinery and manure factory in the Hamburg district).

It would be almost impossible to mention for each individual country the efforts made, even by the consumers' co-operative societies alone, to supply their members with opportunities of recreation. The following figures, however, may be given for Germany. In 1927, 185,187 persons took part in 528 recreational evening gatherings organised for their members by eighty-three consumers' co-operative societies; 78,520 women shared in 405 evening parties for women; 90,693 persons attended 381 lantern lectures, 561,887 persons attended 1,817 lectures with films, organised by 188 societies; 57,483 children attended 166 lantern lectures specially arranged for them; 125,880 children were present at young people's cinematograph shows, etc. In all, including meetings for co-operative propaganda and education, the societies forming part of the Central Union of German Consumers' Co-operative Societies organised in 1927 no fewer than 11,957 meetings, at which 3,859,479 people were present.

In France, similar efforts are being made on a smaller scale, though statistics are at present less complete—libraries,
lectures, cinematograph shows, music schools, athletic societies, popular fêtes, excursions, visits to museums, factories, garden cities, technical schools. The Consumers' Co-operative Society of the Department of the Somme has its own theatre, which holds 1,500 persons. The large British consumers' co-operative societies organise concerts and other entertainments which contribute both to strengthening the social bond between the members and employing their spare time. While some members occupy their spare time as performers in choral societies or orchestras, others find their recreation in listening to the performances. In some societies the list of entertainments is so long that it has to be carefully prepared and printed in advance. The London Co-operative Society, for instance, which is the largest, though by no means the only, consumers' co-operative society in London, gave thirty-one concerts between October 1926 and April 1927, with the assistance of well-known artists and groups of its musical members. The members of the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society at Woolwich, again, have formed three young people's choral societies, four adult choral societies, three orchestras and sixteen dramatic groups. An idea of the aesthetic value of the musical groups of the London and district co-operative societies and their power of attracting large audiences may be had from the fact that they gave a performance of "Cavalleria Rusticana" at the Albert Hall on 12 January 1929. Both in Great Britain and even more in the United States, there are co-operative cinematograph undertakings largely organised by consumers' co-operative societies or with their help.

Still more worthy of notice are the efforts of co-operative societies to give their members and employees who so wish opportunities and means of completing their education, either generally or technically. During the season 1925-1926, the Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society organised 69 adult classes, 28 young people's circles, 6 libraries for its members, etc. The London Co-operative Society and the other great British co-operative societies have similar institutions. They are also found in many other countries: Finland, Sweden, Czechoslovakia, etc. There are also scholarships for members or their children, providing advanced or university education (the Turin Railwaymen's Co-operative Society).

Then again, with regard to holidays, there is the tourist organisation, which has a great attraction for co-operators in several countries, perhaps most of all in Great Britain. The two great British societies referred to above, whose programmes are in the possession of the Office, have organised tours in Germany, Belgium, Denmark, France, Sweden and Switzerland. There is a tendency for these tours in different countries to be organised on an international footing by means of exchange between co-operative societies. Hotels and pensions are also being run on co-operative lines at the seaside and in forest and mountain districts. In Germany there are several co-operative societies known as the "Ferienheimgenossenschaft", the best known of which is that of Jena, which had 5,000 members in 1927, with eleven places to stay at. In Finland, the Central Consumers' Co-operative Union and the Consumers' Co-operative Society of Tampere have purchased land, the former at the seaside near Helsingfors, the latter on an island of the lake on which it is situated, and have erected buildings and arranged their property so as to be able to receive either their members or their staff for week-ends and short holidays. In France, a national holiday "colony" society has been formed by the chief consumers' co-operative societies. It maintains for the benefit of co-operators five "colonies", one of which is in the mountains and four at the seaside, which were visited in 1928 by 8,611 "colonists" for periods totalling 9,197 weeks. In Great Britain, again, there are holiday establishments, which sometimes serve as headquarters for summer schools. The Royal Arsenal Co-operative Society, for instance, owns the establishment of Shornells, on the outskirts of London; the Ipswich Consumers' Co-operative Society runs a boarding-house at the seaside, etc. The same system is found in Sweden. The Union of Swedish Consumers' Co-operative Societies owns a pleasant and comfortable building on the estuary of Stockholm at Saltsjöbaden, where the International Co-operative Summer School of 1927 was held. The Swiss Union of Consumers' Co-operative Societies has even decided recently to offer a certain number of co-operators in special circumstances a free week's holiday in its holiday establishment at Weggis, on the banks of the Lake of Lucerne.

Closely connected with the question of spare time is that of health and medical attendance. A few examples may be quoted from the numerous and varied forms of benevolent work done by all kinds of co-operative societies in safeguarding their members from certain social dangers.

In the first place, there is the question of fresh air and sunshine for children in the larger towns, and this question is dealt with by consumer co-operative societies in France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, etc. In Germany, there are the children's colony established in 1919 on the banks of the Gulf of Lübeck by the great Hamburg Consumers' Co-operative Society (the colony is open for eleven months in the year and has already taken in 7,000 to 8,000 children free of charge, each one for four weeks).
the Sperenberg Children's Colony, established in 1927 by the Berlin Consumer's Co-operative Society; and that of the Consumers' Co-operative Society of München-Sendling. In France, children from the larger towns are sent to live with provincial co-operators for small sums or au pair. There are also the Aerium of the Society for Consumption, Construction and Savings of Hamburg, known as "Produktion"; and that of the Trieste Consumers' Co-operative Society, which pays over 25 per cent, of its profits to its members. Lastly, the Trieste Consumers' Co-operative Society in 1928 paid for 140 children of its members while staying for a month at its seaside colony, arranged for 15 children to spend six months at its open-air school for the prevention of tuberculosis and is also proposing to establish a mountain colony.

A number of other institutions, both for special objects and of a general character, have been established by co-operative organisations with a view to ensuring that their members should have the benefit of free or inexpensive treatment, as well as allowances when ill, and these advantages are also occasionally enjoyed by their staff. These institutions also assist in a variety of circumstances (accident, disablement, unemployment, death, marriage, birth, etc.) which constitute a heavy burden on small incomes. A few typical institutions may be mentioned. In the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom there are special sanitary co-operative societies belonging to a national federation, whose object is to disseminate ideas of hygiene and hygienic conduct and to provide medical treatment. On 30 June 1926 they had 8,281 members. During 1926, 16,819 persons received treatment in their dispensaries, and their doctors had made 1,988 visits. In Canada, in the Province of Alberta, a similar medical co-operative service was organised in 1925.

The majority of the consumers' co-operative societies also act as savings banks and encourage in every possible way a spirit of thrift among their members. In Germany, some of the larger consumers' co-operative societies have formed a special fund (Notfonds) in addition to their deposit and savings banks, in which members may leave their deposits either wholly or partly and on which they may draw when required. Both kinds of deposits are entitled to interest at a fixed rate. As an example, the Co-operative Society for Consumption, Construction and Savings of Hamburg, known as "Produktion" had at the end of 1927 a deposit balance of more than 80 million marks for 96,511 accounts, while the "Notfonds" had a balance of 1,067,800 marks for 58,689 accounts. The value of these institutions is shown by the fact that in 1927 the savings bank and the "Notfonds" met withdrawals respectively of 23,448,154 marks and 1,275,851 marks. In the United States, the credit unions play a similar rôle as regards town workers. In June 1928 credit unions were to be found in 27 states. Those in the State of New York, for instance, increased to 115 in 1927 and had 71,519 members. At the end of the same year they had a deposit balance of 1,008,657 dollars. Loans to members during the year amounted to 19,122,414 dollars. A savings and credit bank in New England recently published statistics of its work. It appears that loans were destined as to 81.1 per cent. for the purchase of coal, 19.9 per cent. for medical and hospital expenses, 11.8 per cent. for repayment of debts, etc. In Belgium, benevolent funds have been established by a large number of consumers' co-operative societies, which pay benefit in money and in goods in cases of injury, sickness, birth or death. In France, again, the larger consumers' co-operative societies have established "solidarity funds" for their members (allowances in case of birth, death of the member or the member's wife or husband, marriage of member's child), mutual insurance organisations (dental clinics, medical and surgical clinics, co-operative drugstores). Less frequently there are pension funds and occasionally an orphanage, as in the case of the Advisory Chamber of Manufacturing Workers' Associations. In Italy, the Trieste consumers' co-operative society pays over 25 per cent. of its profits to a special fund which gives allowances in the form of goods to its members in case of prolonged illness, death, etc. The Co-operative Alliance of Turin has instituted a free medical service for the 10,000 families which belong to the alliance (32,000 visits in 1927), and it also possesses a central drug store with laboratory and seven subsidiary chemists' shops (annual turnover approximately 3 million lire).
This general review of the co-operative institutions which comprise the less well-to-do households and assist them in employing their time outside working hours may terminate by mentioning the existence of some fifteen insurance institutions established by central consumers' co-operative societies. These institutions, which are sometimes established in collaboration with the trade unions, undertake chiefly life insurance, but, in certain cases, fire insurance and accident insurance, and are to be found in Germany, Belgium, Finland, Great Britain; Hungary, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia and the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics. The majority of the institutions are members of the International Committee of Co-operative and Labour Insurance Societies established in 1922.

VII. The Workers' General Rights

188. — Last year's Report included for the first time a chapter on the workers' general rights. This chapter was devoted to certain problems which fall, perhaps, outside the strict limits of the safeguarding of labour standards, but which nevertheless would appear to merit a place in the forefront of any discussion of present-day social questions. Indeed, the deep and growing interest in these problems is so great that it is at times difficult to follow their evolution.

In this chapter it is proposed to trace, by the light of recorded facts, the growth in certain of the principal countries of a system of labour law side by side with the general law; a system of labour law having its own characteristics, but as yet for the most part uncodified.

Although certain questions of labour law such as social insurance and protective measures generally have always been considered as of a special nature, there are other questions which are only gradually becoming separated from private law, with its essentially individualistic conceptions, and are tending to develop into a system of labour law of an essentially collective nature. This is particularly noticeable in those countries where individual contracts of employment and collective agreements have their corresponding methods for the settlement of disputes, in the shape of labour courts and conciliation and arbitration respectively.

Basic to this collectivistic labour law at present in course of evolution is the right of association in trade unions. This is the basis for all such institutions as economic councils, works councils, profit-sharing, participation in the management of undertakings, etc., and is also an essential condition precedent to any measures on the subject of "industrial relations". Accordingly, in the following rapid review of these various aspects of the workers' general rights this right of association should logically be considered first.

Right of Association in Trade Unions

189. — The Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference adopted a Resolution presented by Mr. Acevedo, Government delegate for Argentina, in which the Governing Body was asked to instruct the Office to continue to publish studies on the right of association in trade unions in order to clarify the idea of freedom of association; and, furthermore, to examine in what form the question might be put on the Agenda of a future Session of the Conference with good prospect of success.

As was expected, therefore, after the discussion of the question of freedom of association at the Tenth Session of the Conference, the Governing Body is again called upon to deal with this problem.

As has been stated in previous Reports, there is hardly any other question so pressing and of such fundamental importance as this. There is no social movement which is likely to have such a deep and widespread influence as trade unionism, both nationally and internationally; and it would in any case be impossible for the Office to do otherwise than follow the day-to-day development of the trade union idea with the closest attention.

In conformity with the above Resolution the Office has continued to publish monographs on freedom of association. Four volumes of studies have appeared: the first consists of an international study; the three others contain monographs on the law and practice relating to freedom of association in all of the European countries. A fifth and final volume will be devoted to the principal oversea countries.

With the help of the information thus brought together, each country will be in a position to compare its own experience with that of others. In spite of great divergences in methods of regulation, there is no doubt that this comparison will bring out the fundamental unity of the problem of freedom of association.
The fact is that trade unionism, a world phenomenon, is governed to some extent by its own law. Sprunging from the same social needs, it develops along substantially the same lines and produces substantially the same effects. An instrument of progress from the time of its inception, it constitutes in its maturity a principle of order and of organisation. Hence the Office's confidence in the success, at a near date, of an international agreement on the question of freedom of association.

In reviewing the new developments during 1928, and the modifications made in existing regulations in the field of the right of association, it is clear that the general object of legislation in each country has been to shape the law relating to trade unions in such a way as to promote their social usefulness.

Argentina is on the point of endowing its trade unions with a new law, which in its main lines is based on the draft Questionnaire drawn up by the Office on freedom of association. The principal features of these new regulations, according to a memorandum by the Legislative Division of the National Labour Department, are as follows:

The status of employers' associations and trade unions is to be regulated by a single law, in accordance with the spirit of the Argentine Constitution, which guarantees the right of association to all inhabitants of the country without distinction. Employers' associations and labour unions are required to recognise one another, in order to facilitate the settlement of labour disputes and the drawing up of collective agreements.

The trade union is to be founded on the principle of freedom of association according to the formula proposed by the Office at the 1927 Session of the Conference: the right of workpeople and employers alike to combine for the collective defence of their interests qua workpeople and employers; the right of combinations for trade union purposes to pursue their objects by all such means as are not contrary to the laws and regulations in force for the maintenance of public order.

These objects, which the associations and unions are authorised to pursue, may be economic, industrial, commercial, agricultural, moral or intellectual.

The constitutions of these associations and unions must give the name of the organisation, its headquarters, its object, the conditions of admission and resignation of its members, the composition and powers of its directing bodies, the rules relating to dissolution, and must contain also a clause relating to compulsory recourse to conciliation.

The associations and unions are to be incorporated and have the right of representation on bodies dealing with questions relating to labour legislation, industrial disputes, etc.

In France, the question under discussion is the right of public servants to combine. Mr. Chaubrun's Bill, (an analysis of which has already been given in these pages) which grants trade union rights to public servants, was discussed in the Chamber of Deputies on 13 and 16 March. The President of the Council opposed the measure, declaring that he saw no possibility of discussion until the rights and duties of public servants had been legally defined. The Chamber supported this opinion.

Mr. Chaubrun, after the return of the new Chamber, again put forward his Bill. On 30 June Mr. Poincaré once more expressed the point of view of the Government, making in particular the following declaration:

I have never entertained the thought that it is possible now to take away the right of public servants to combine to defend their collective interests, and I would add that for a number of years I have declared publicly that to my mind the legal form of these associations (Act of 1901 or Acts of 1884 and 1920 on trade unions) is a secondary matter. . . . It is not difficult to declare that, unionised or not, public servants never have the right to strike; whether they are unionised under the Act of 1884 or whether they form associations under the Act of 1901 is of no importance. . . .

But the time has come to establish a legal system which leaves public servants their specific liberty, which does not withdraw the rights which have been granted to them to form associations or unions, but which lays down precisely the individual and collective duties which they are bound to discharge. We shall submit to you the necessary Bills, which we shall ask you to adopt and for which we take full responsibility.

It seems clear from these declarations that the Government fully intends to confer upon unions of public servants the benefits of the Trade Union Acts of 1884-1920, but that it proposes to define the limits of these rights in the future Bill relating to public servants. These declarations caused a stir among the parties affected. They fear, rightly or wrongly, that the new legislation may include two restrictions which, in their eyes, would amount to a denial of trade union rights: the first of these restrictions being a refusal to permit federations covering public servants of different classes, and the second a refusal to permit the federation of public servants with industrial workers.

However that may be, the central organisations of public servants—the managing committee of the General Confederation of Professional Workers, at its meeting on 13 June 1928, and the National Federation of Public Servants' Trade Unions at the Paris Congress on 27 to 30 November—demanded the recognition without reserve of the trade union rights of public servants.

The Labour Commission of the Chamber of Deputies, at its meeting on 28 November 1928, decided, by 17 votes to 5, in favour
of Mr. Chabrun's Bill. The matter remains at this stage.

In Great Britain, as a result of the Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act of 29 July 1926, an account of which was given in last year's Report, the trade unions have been obliged to revise their rules in order to bring them into harmony with the new measure.

In conformity with section 5 of the Act, which defines the legal status of organisations of civil servants, the Treasury has promulgated new Regulations laying down in what conditions civil servants may belong to trade unions.

According to these Regulations, established civil servants are forbidden to belong to a union other than an "authorised union", unless they have been members of such union for at least six months before the coming into force of the Act, and there has accrued or begun to accrue the right to a future payment under the rules of the union, in the case of incapacity to work, superannuation, death, or the death of wife, or as provision for children.

State employees who have become established civil servants since the coming into force of the Act are also authorised to continue membership in a union as long as they are not promoted to a position of supervision or management if under the rules of the union there has accrued or begun to accrue the right to any future payment.

Civil servants who follow an employment or occupation in addition to their civil service duties may be members, delegates or representatives of a trade union whose principal object is to influence by any means the rate of remuneration or the conditions of employment of the persons engaged in such employment or occupation.

In order to obtain legal authorisation, the unions of civil servants must make written application to the Registrar of Friendly Societies, who will forward it, together with his comments, to the Treasury. The latter will decide finally as to whether the application shall be granted.

As a result of the new Act also, British trade unions have been obliged to redraft the clause relating to the political fund.

Under the former Act the rules of trade unions authorised to carry on political activities usually included a clause indicating what proportion of the trade union contributions should be paid into the political fund, and the trade union members who wished that no part of their contributions should be utilised for political purposes were required to fill in and send to the secretary of their branch a form exempting them from contributing to the political fund. The new Act reverses the procedure. In order to be able to utilise for political aims a part of the dues paid by a member, the trade union must provide a form applying for membership in the political fund, made out according to the terms prescribed by the Act, and have it filled in and signed by the member.

The trade unions, therefore, whether registered or not, which desire to carry on political activities must:

1. obtain from their members authorisation to modify the rules;
2. draw up a draft amendment to the rules and submit it to the Registrar of Friendly Societies who will decide whether it is in conformity with the law;
3. make Mr. Joshi's Bill to enable unregistered trade unions to enjoy the same legal immunity as at present enjoyed by registered trade unions.

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Provided that nothing is illegal if done or procured to be done by two or more persons in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute or in restraint of trade, unless it be an offence when committed by one person.

Mr. Joshi's argument in favour of his proposal was along the following general lines:

Trade unions are now organised all the world over as a legitimate method of protecting and furthering the cause of labour. The Trade Unions Act of 1926 is only an instance of the recognition of this principle in India, though only to a limited extent. The said Act, however, protects only such of the trade unions, their members and office-bearers as are "registered" under the said Act. It affords no protection to trade unions which are not registered.

In the infant state of the trade union movement in India and even afterwards some trade unions may not get themselves registered under the Act. It is, however, absolutely necessary to protect the members and office-bearers of such trade unions from the criminal liability for their acts done in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute or in restraint of trade. Moreover, under the present unorganised condition of labour in India there will be many cases when two or more persons may combine themselves without forming a trade union in furtherance or for the
protection of the interests of labour. The actions of such persons also require to be protected from the consequence of section 120-B of the Indian Penal Code.

It is, therefore, necessary for the protection of the members and office-bearers of unregistered trade unions and unorganised workers to amend the existing criminal law and to bring it into line with the English law and with the Indian Criminal Law as it stood before 1913.

This object is sought to be achieved by modifying the definition of the term "illegal" by adding a proviso to it at the end of section 48 of the Indian Penal Code as given in clause 2 of the Bill.

Mr. Joshi’s Bill, brought up for discussion in the Legislative Assembly on 8 September 1928, was finally rejected by 57 votes to 49.

Such are a few of the aspects of the development of trade union legislation during the past year. It is now proposed to examine separately the legislative development of countries in which an attempt has been made to pass from a purely trade union form of organisation to a corporate form.

In Spain, the corporate form of organisation created by the Decree of 26 November 1926, which has already been analysed in previous Reports, was completed during 1928 by two new Decrees. The first of these, dated 20 May 1928, extends corporate organisation to agriculture. The second, dated 23 August 1928, provides for the creation of a Corporations Department under the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.

The Decree relating to corporate organisation in agriculture provides for the constitution of three groups of corporations. The first of these groups is made up of rural employers and country day labourers; the second, of landowners and their tenants; the third, of producers of agricultural raw materials and those using and transforming these materials. It is the duty of each of these groups, within its own province, to fix the conditions of labour contracts and to deal with the difficulties which may arise in the execution of these contracts. The first two groups will constitute, in the same manner as the national corporate organisation, a series of joint bodies: in the first degree, local joint committees; in the second, regional joint committees; with the corporate councils at the top of the structure. It is possible to appeal against a decision given by the corporate bodies of the first degree to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. The third group will be constituted on the basis of arbitration commissions, the nature of which will vary according to circumstances and the special structure of each industry. Relations between the three groups will be established by a central commission, national in scope, on which the various branches of agriculture will each have a representative.

The preamble to the second Decree states that, in view of the rapid development of joint bodies, it is necessary to create a General Corporations Department, under the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, whose duty it will be to direct and supervise the new organisation.

The General Corporations Department will be composed of: (1) a president, a general secretary and deputy president, all nominated by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare; (2) members of the Supreme Labour Council, the provisional Corporations Commission, the Permanent Commerce Commission, the Home-Work Commission, and the Corporate Services Commission.

The Department will be divided into three sub-sections which will deal respectively with (1) the organisation of joint committees, (2) the working of joint bodies, (3) the establishment of the corporate register.

It will also be the duty of the General Corporations Department to study questions relating to the national corporate organisation and the organisation of the system of home-work.

In Italy, the reform of the trade unions has been continued. In previous Reports the general principles behind this reform have been considered. It is closely bound up with a still larger movement—a change in the structure of the State itself. Its most fundamental features are a systematic and disciplined form of workers’ representation, the setting up of corporations in which employers’ and workers’ representatives collaborate in the interest of national production, the fitting of these corporations into the general mechanism of the Fascist State, and control by the Fascist Party. Such have been and are the broad lines of the new organisation. During 1928, in conformity with these general principles, but also under the pressure of experience and of certain political and moral factors, new and important steps have been taken.

In the first place, the trade union organisation has suffered a considerable modification. As has been noted in a previous sub-section of this Report, the Regulations issued under the Trade Union Act provide for the recognition of (1) six National Confederations of employers comprising respectively employers engaged in industry, in agriculture, in commerce, in banking, in land transport, and in water and air transport, (2) six National Confederations of wage-earners, comprising the workers engaged in the same six main branches of production, and (3) a National Confederation of the liberal and artistic professions. In each of the six main branches of production the Trade Union Act and the Regulations under it provide for the constitution of a central corporative body linking together the Confederations of
employers and of wage-earners. Representatives of these main organisations of employers and of workers, thus legally recognised, set to make up the National Council of Corporations. Further, for the election of the new corporative Chamber of Deputies each of the thirteen National Confederations puts forward an equal number of candidates. As is evident, all these provisions imply a certain parallelism of employers’ and of workers’ organisations.

The employers, who were already organised in separate groups, were able to set up without any great difficulties the six National Confederations thus provided for. The workers, however, had been organised hitherto in a single trade union: the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions. Up to 1928 this situation had been allowed to continue; in place of the seven National Confederations of workers, provided for by the law, there were seven federations, of which six had been placed (without any autonomy of their own) under the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions, which had held most of the power in its hands.

On this account there had been introduced into the model constitution of each of these six federations a clause laying down that it was to be presided over by the president of the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions and that its general secretary was to be nominated by the president. The Federation of Water and Air Transport was the only one to receive recognition at once as an autonomous association.

This dissymmetrical organisation of employers and of workers naturally made the creation of corporate bodies and of the National Council of Corporations more than a little difficult. The Fascist Grand Council of Corporations, in its session in November 1927, had already considered this question, and the Chief of the Government had referred to it on 6 May 1928 at the National Congress of Fascist Trade Unions.

The question was raised whether the “trade union stage” should not now be succeeded by the “corporative stage”. It was suggested that a necessary preliminary to the setting up of the corporations was the internal reform of the workers’ organisation, giving the National Confederations of workers an autonomous position similar to that of the National Confederations of employers. By Decree dated 22 November 1928 the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions ceased to be officially recognised, and the former secretaries-general of the six dependent federations became presidents of the autonomous National Confederations which took its place.

This reorganisation necessitated the redrafting of the constitutions of these organisations. The number of constituent associations has been considerably reduced. Trade unions covering less than a single province have been abolished and associations of workers engaged on more or less similar types of work have been amalgamated. Trade unions covering one province only have been reformed on a regional and sometimes a national basis, when their membership did not appear sufficient to ensure a normal activity and development. Similar amalgamations have been brought about in the case of National Confederations of various crafts.

As a result of this reorganisation, the number of national associations has been reduced from 75 to 39, and the number of individual trade unions from about 12,000 to 3,300.

The new constitutions confer upon the lower degree of trade unions freedom of action as regards the disciplining of their members and the discussion and conclusion of agreements. These associations are empowered to conclude agreements within the limits of their areas, with the assistance of provincial unions, where such exist, but the higher associations have the right to take their place when occasion requires.

The officers of the National Confederations and of trade unions of the first degree are appointed by the general meeting of members, provided such choice obtains the approval of the Government (section 7 of the Trade Union Act). The officers of the National Federations and of the provincial unions are appointed by the president of the National Confederation to which these associations belong. It should be noted, however, that these provisions only apply to the future, the first presidents of the Confederations having been nominated by Governmental Decree.

The political circumstances in which this reform was adopted have been much discussed, but do not concern this Report. There has been a certain amount of controversy in Italy itself as to the effect which this reform is likely to have on the development of trade unionism. What this will be remains to be seen. It is necessary, however, to note what are the intentions of the initiators of this reform. Mr. Bottai, Under-Secretary of State for Corporations, in a speech at Luca, defined them as follows:

This process of “unblocking” the National Confederation of Workers (he stated) will give life to the worker’s organisations. . . .

At the Ministry of Corporations, where many hundreds of collective agreements have been discussed, we have often noticed in the past that the employers’ side comes to the discussion well furnished with facts, while the workers’ side sometimes contented itself with vague statements having no practical value. Why is this? Because in a scattered organisation it is impossible to move quickly and to make complete preparations for each sector of the national production. Henceforth the workers’ Confederations, being more concentrated, will be able to have recourse to the legal, technical and economic advice which is indispensable for trade union or corporative action.
The Under-Secretary of State for Corporations added:

The trade union organiser ought to be a man who knows, above all, the laws relating to labour and Italian production, and who is well acquainted with the general conditions of production and with the special conditions of the particular branch of production in which the workers he is leading are employed. We expect therefore from the specialisation of workers' organisations a better preparation and a more adequate understanding of the needs of Italian workers.

The main object is thus to give life to local organisations and to produce workers' representatives who shall be really qualified to perform their task. In point of fact "corporative culture centres" have already set up special classes in a number of towns for the instruction of trade union organisers. The Genoa "centre" had an attendance last year of 250. Its programme for 1929 includes not only theoretical instruction but also visits to workshops on the Riviera, to factories in the North of Italy, as also visits to Tuscany and the South for the purpose of studying agricultural conditions on the spot, the métayer system, the work of day labourers, movements of population within the country, etc.

Such a development may perhaps be looked upon as a logical and, in some ways, inevitable consequence of the system. In a disciplined hierarchy such as Italian trade unionism, is there not likely to be a grave risk of lack of interest within the organisation, making it necessary to stir up activity at the base, as in other systems it is necessary to curb it at the head when development is too rapid?

As a matter of fact, the same question has arisen both in the past efforts of the Confederation of Trade Unions to recruit its officers and also in the discussions taking place at present as to the rôle of the trade union representatives in the factories.

From the point of view of the Italian State generally, the reform takes still another direction. The Chief of the Government in laying the matter before the Council of Ministers stated:

This reform is a new step towards the realisation of the corporate ideal. It tends to strengthen and not to enfeebles the legitimate defence of the interests of the working classes which, by means of legally recognised trade unions, of corporate organisation and of the magistracy of labour, may realise their complete moral unity only in the Fascist State and by means of a structure typical of the Fascist revolution: the Ministry of Corporations.

Mr. Mussolini has also expressed the same thought in another way. This "unblocking" of the workers' organisation gave him the opportunity of affirming that "working-class unity is a democratic myth". The thought here is clear. There is no need for a central organisation of the working classes since it is in the Fascist State that the desired unity is realised.

Political theories are not suitable subjects for discussion here. It has already been said that the Office is following closely and objectively the Italian experiment with its many formulas which give food for thought. The Office will continue in this attitude. But one thought necessarily obtrudes itself time and again: quite apart from the democratic tradition (with which it has not always been in harmony), does not this search for working-class unity, in all industrial States, correspond perhaps to certain psychological requirements or even to certain urgent social needs? Some of the actions of the Fascist organisation would seem to indicate that account is being taken of these needs.

The second main fact in the reform of Italian trade unionism has been the establishment of the National Council for Corporations. This Council, provided for by section 4 of the Decree of 2 July 1926, which sets up a Ministry of Corporations, necessarily had to come into existence once the "corporative stage" had begun. A Bill was presented to the Grand Fascist Council on 10 April 1929 and has received the unanimous endorsement of the members of the Council. At the time of writing, the details of this measure are not yet known, but an official communiqué published at the end of the meeting shows the great importance likely to be attached henceforward to this institution. Its functions would appear to be very considerably enlarged as compared with those laid down in 1926.

In the first place, the Chief of the Government as such is to be president of the Council, the Minister and the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations being appointed as substitutes. The Council is divided into seven sections, one for independent workers, the others, which are of a joint nature, corresponding to the main branches of national production. It is no longer merely a consultative body, but now has to draw up Bills and Regulations for organising and regulating production and labour. It will publish rules for the co-ordination of the various social measures, of the relations established by collective agreements, of the economic relations between the different categories of production represented by the recognised trade unions, even overriding the provisions of the Trade Union Act and the Regulations issued under it. The sections and sub-sections of the Council will have the same attributions and powers of the corporation, the plenary assembly, comprising some 100 members, dealing with general questions. A central corporate committee will be set up to take the place of the central inter-trade-union committee and will be presided over by the Secretary of the Fascist Party. The inter-trade-union committees of the provinces become provincial corporations, taking over the functions of the labour organisation.
and social welfare sections of the provincial economic councils, which are now abolished. (As to these sections, cf. the Director's Report to the 1928 Session of the Conference, p. 261.)

The attention of the Conference should above all be drawn to one provision of the Bill by which the Chief of the Government has the power to invite representatives of the permanent international organisations in which Italy takes part by means of delegations nominated by the Government, to attend the sittings of the Council as observers. This evidently refers to the International Labour Organisation and may be regarded as a token of the interest which the Italian Government attaches to the Office's endeavours and of the Government's goodwill towards international collaboration.

To turn now to the means by which the construction of the Fascist State on a corporative basis is being pursued and accomplished.

The Parliamentary reform which was described last year has now come into force. In January the Decree of dissolution of the former Chamber of Deputies elected by universal suffrage was promulgated. In February the trade unions and the associations and institutions with cultural, educational and social aims laid before the Grand Fascist Council the names of candidates in the numbers prescribed. The final list of 400 deputies "designated" by the Grand Council was submitted for the approbation of the committees for the plebiscite on 4 March and the new legislature was inaugurated on 20 April.

This Chamber, corporative in its origin, as affirmed by the Grand Fascist Council, has functions of a political nature.

The Italian conception of the corporative Chamber, which does not emanate solely from the trade unions and in the composition of which the Grand Fascist Council takes a decisive part, does not coincide in point of fact with the conception of a Chamber of Trades nor can it be looked upon as a form of representation of economic interests.

An interesting problem will be to harmonise the powers of the Chamber and the powers of the National Council of Corporations so far as concerns the preparation of Bills dealing with economic and social questions.

Finally, one further point should be noted. In the new organisation of the Fascist State, the Grand Fascist Council is the supreme Parliament. Set up by Mr. Mussolini immediately after his accession to power, the Grand Council still remained, up to 1928, a party organisation without legitimate powers and without any place in the Constitution. This situation has been regularised by the Act of 9 December 1928, which defines the Grand Council as the "supreme organ for the co-ordination of all the activities of the form of government arising out of the Revolution of October 1922".

It is not for this Report to analyse in detail the composition and attributions of the Grand Council. For present purposes, i.e. with reference to the question of trade union organisation and its part in the State, it should be noted, however, that the presidents of the thirteen main Confederations of employers and of workers and the president of the National Institute of Co-operation are ex-officio members. It is necessary to note also the distinction made — a distinction new in Italy — between ordinary laws and constitutional laws. It is compulsory for these latter to be submitted, first of all, to the Grand Council for its consideration. Since the corporative organisation of trade unions is considered as a constitutional law, the trade union and corporative regime cannot therefore be modified except with the consent of the Chief of the Government, on whom depends the convocation of the Grand Council, and after the Royal Assent has been obtained. The Fascist Party thus become a sort of institution of the new State. It dominates, as it were, the corporative machinery from the centre, in the central corporative committee and in the provincial corporations (the former inter-trade-union committees), which remain under the direction of the Secretary-General and of the secretaries of the provincial federations of the Party.

In this way, founded upon the corporative system, the construction of the new Italian State has been accomplished. Should it be regarded as a form of economic collectivism? Should the Italian Charter of Labour be looked upon, as Mr. Sombart suggests, as the most modern and most complete form of capitalist organisation? The object here has been simply to summarise the texts and describe the new institutions set up. What the results of the experiment will be remains to be seen. It is worth noting, however, that the men responsible for this form of government deny that it is a form of economic liberalism or State socialism. They claim that the work is original in its nature: "Everything is to be brought under the principle of the corporation, which harmonises the wills of the various parties with the will of the State, and which alone can guarantee that economic discipline and control will not degenerate into the extinction of private initiative." These are the phrases recently used by Mr. Mussolini and Mr. Bottai.

1 Speech in the Senate by Mr. Bottai, 31 March 1929. Speech by Mr. Mussolini at the quinquennial Fascist Assembly, 10 March 1929.
Collective Agreements

190. — Attention was called in last year's Report to the considerable influence exercised by collective agreements of service on the relations between employers and wage-earners. It was remarked in this connection that the parties interested endeavoured to arrive at collective agreements wherever they possess the requisite capacity. During the past year events have shown that in many respects evolution is taking the direction indicated. The importance of collective agreements is more and more recognised in all the domains to which they extend, not only for the regulation of conditions of work in individual cases, but also for the development of labour law itself. As they affect, in fact, a very extensive and particularly important department of workers' protection and labour law, collective agreements in a very large measure open the way to legislation. In this respect the place of collective agreements in the legal system is significant. Although this place varies in different countries, and in some of them is by no means clearly defined, it may generally be said that collective agreements, while based on the principles of private law, distinctly encroach on the domain of public law. In two countries even—Italy and Spain—collective agreements of service may be considered as belonging principally to the domain of public law.

The last few months have furnished those in search of the best means of organising the relations between employers and workers with abundant material, from the application of existing legislation and the effect of decided cases, for estimating the importance of collective agreements as instruments of social peace.

It is natural, therefore, that efforts should continue to be made for the legal regulation of collective agreements. It is of special interest. They forbid the adoption of hostile measures by way of sympathy on behalf of persons who are not entitled to have recourse to such measures themselves. It may be concluded from this that the Act authorises the adoption of hostile measures by way of sympathy in support of lawful industrial disputes. The Act expressly stipulates that the associations must not have recourse to illegal hostile measures or support such measures in any manner whatsoever, but that, on the contrary, they are bound to use their influence with their members for the purpose of inducing them to abstain from such measures or to abandon the same. It should be observed that these provisions defining the obligation to preserve industrial peace may be extended by agreement, but not restricted.

Lastly, the provisions relating to liabilities have also a very wide scope. In principle employers, wage-earners, and their respective associations, are bound to make good all loss resulting from a violation of a collective labour agreement. The Act, however, provides for certain
cases in which, in specified circumstances, the obligation to pay damages is limited, or even completely disappears. A wage-earner cannot in any case be individually ordered to pay damages of more than 200 kronor. No penalties are imposed in addition to this civil liability. Owing to the agitation provoked, especially among the workers, by the passing of this Act and the Act providing for the establishment of a special Court, it was feared that the important collective agreements which expired last autumn would not be renewed as a result of the resistance of the trade unions. Events have proved, however, that this fear was not justified. Almost all the important agreements have been prolonged by the trade unions or renewed. The provision that the new legislation shall not apply to collective agreements concluded before 1 January 1929 and the possibility of excluding, by a clause in the agreement, the application of the provisions relating to liability have apparently contributed in a large measure to reassure the persons interested. The satisfactory way in which the Conference for Promoting Peace in Swedish Industry, held on 30 November and 1 December 1928 — which will be dealt with in the sub-section devoted to industrial relations — proceeded, also seems to show that the situation is much less strained and that both employers and workers recognise the value of long-term collective agreements in the maintenance of industrial peace.

Preparations with a view to the legal regulation of collective agreements are in progress in Czecho-Slovakia, in Belgium, where a Bill has already been discussed, and in Poland, where, according to a communication from the Minister of Labour to the Diet, a Bill has been submitted to the Council of Ministers.

In Germany also, legislative preparations appear to be fairly advanced, to judge by the publication issued for commemorating the tenth anniversary of the Ministry of Labour. The matter has already been regulated provisionally in Germany by the Order of 23 December 1918, which, with certain amendments, is reproduced in the Order of 1 March 1928 relating to collective agreements. This Order, however, is proving itself more and more insufficient, owing to the fact that it does not deal with a number of important questions, particularly the obligation to preserve industrial peace and the question of liability in case of breach of an agreement. In these circumstances the legal regulation of collective agreements, including those limited to particular undertakings (Betriebsvereinbarung), appears particularly urgent. The lock-out in the Ruhr has naturally drawn attention to the importance of the obligation on the contracting parties to preserve industrial peace and has led to the submission of numerous legislative proposals in the matter by the various political parties. It is interesting to note that one of these proposals, like the new Swedish legislation, provides for the institution of a special and rapid procedure for the settlement of legal disputes relating to the validity of collective labour agreements.

The recent development of collective agreements in Germany does not in general reveal any special changes. According to the latest official statistics, nearly 7,500 collective agreements were in force on 1 January 1927, affecting more than 800,000 undertakings and about 11,000,000 workers. While, as compared with the pre-war period, the number of collective agreements has diminished by nearly a third (32 per cent.) owing to industrial concentration, the number of undertakings to which such agreements apply has increased more than five times, and the number of workers subject to such agreements more than seven times the earlier number.

It would certainly be very interesting to possess more precise information as to the number, importance and contents of the collective labour agreements in Great Britain, where this institution originated. The Ministry of Labour intends during the year to publish the results of its enquiry into collective labour agreements. The latest publication of this kind was in 1910. Since then only more or less reliable estimates have been available.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the preponderant place occupied by collective labour agreements in the economic and social policy of Italy. The legislative work in this matter has been supplemented, among other things, by the important Legislative Decree of 6 May 1928, relating to the deposit and publication of collective labour agreements. The Act of 3 April 1926 relating to the collective relations between capital and labour and the regulations of 1 July 1926 for the application of the said Act already provided for the deposit and publication of agreements, failing which they would be treated as void. The new Legislative Decree and a Circular of the Minister of Corporations dated 18 July 1928, however, supplement the provisions of the Act by a series of detailed regulations. Under these new regulations a copy of every agreement applicable within the limits of any one province must be deposited at the Prefecture and the text of the same must be published in the provincial official journal. As regards agreements the field of application of which extends to more than one province, a copy of the same must be forwarded to the Ministry of Corporations, which publishes the text in extenso in its official
The Legislative Decree prescribes the period within which the deposit and publication of agreements must take place, subject to penalties. In case any collective agreement is not in conformity with the provisions of the Labour Charter as to the regulation of certain specially important questions (e.g. questions relating to workshop regulations, probation, the amount and nature of wages, hours of work, weekly rest, etc.) it will not be published and consequently will remain without effect.

The Legislative Decree further provides that the Ministry of Corporations and the Prefects must respectively transmit a copy of every agreement to the Ministry of National Economy and the competent inspection service. These authorities will, among other things, satisfy themselves that the legislation in force for the protection of labour has been observed.

The de facto development of collective agreements has, during the last year, proceeded at a still more rapid rate. The great employers' and workers' organisations deposited with the Ministry of Corporations more than eighty national or inter-provincial collective agreements for the purposes of publication as provided for by the Decree of 6 May 1928. These agreements apply to agriculture, credit and banking institutions, commerce and industry.

According to a declaration made by Mr. Bottai at the meeting in September 1928 of the Fascist Grand Council, 584 collective agreements were concluded between 1 January and 31 July 1928 for industry, 97 for agriculture, 84 for commerce, 12 for banking, 135 for land transport and inland navigation, and 4 for maritime and aerial transport. According to statistics, from the date of the creation of the Ministry of Corporations up to the date indicated above, 3,181 collective agreements were concluded, of which 67 were national agreements, 106 regional agreements, and 3,008 provincial agreements. Since that date the number of collective agreements has considerably increased.

It is clear from all these particulars that the great majority of workers now benefit by the regulation of conditions of work by collective agreement. This rapid extension of collective agreements to all departments of the national life was bound, in the nature of things, to involve difficulties in application. Thus the Fascist trade union journals have frequently denounced the unwillingness with which employers observe agreements and their tendency to depreciate the level of wages notwithstanding the solemn declarations of the Head of the Government and the Secretary of the Fascist Party. With a view to evading the law, they say, some employers dismiss workers in order to re-engage them at reduced wages and at the same time deprive them of their rights of seniority. This weapon is particularly effective in a country like Italy where labour is abundant.

The trade union press also complains of the "legal optimism" of the partisans of corporations. The doctrinaires, these papers declare, discuss the relations between economics and politics and between corporatism and trade unionism, and whether preference should be given to legislation or collective agreements in the regulation of labour, but they forget the concrete protection of working-class interests.

Agricultural landowners are especially accused of "not understanding the Fascist spirit" and of resisting in many provinces the rational exploitation of their land. The organ of the agricultural workers' unions declares that the most effective social policy for the improvement of agriculture consists in the creation of economic conditions favourable to agricultural workers. The necessary preliminary condition for this appears to be respect for contracts of service and the application of the trade union regulations to métayage as required by the Fascist Grand Council.

The trade union press has also raised the question whether preference should be given to national or local agreements. Employers are generally more favourable to the latter and would even prefer agreements limited to a single undertaking. On the other hand, the Lavoro d'Italia, expressing the sentiments of the Fascist trade unions, has set out the grounds of principle which should induce Fascism to favour the practice of national agreements. Labour should be remunerated according to its productivity and not according to the material requirements of the workers, which would tend to level down capacities and output.

The representatives of Fascist trade unionism claim the merit of preceding the employers' associations in the path of actual achievements, and accuse the employers' organisations of not having yet freed themselves from the old class mentality. Traders are accused of resisting the reduction of prices, industrial and agricultural employers of hampering the application of collective agreements favourable to the workers, sabotaging the system of trade union representation in individual undertakings, and applying minimum wages in an arbitrary fashion.

1 The texts of agreements are published in a separate supplement to the Official Bulletin of the Ministry of Corporations, several numbers of which have already appeared.

1 A Bill has recently been prepared providing for the extension of the legal regulation of collective labour agreements to métayage, small farming tenancies, etc.
The persistence of the workers' demands would seem to show, therefore, that the class struggle, although restrained and disciplined, remains acute, and that Fascism has perhaps provoked it in some quarters where it did not exist before. On several occasions the Fascist trade unions have complained that the sacrifices imposed for national economic reconstruction have been borne exclusively by the working classes. The Head of the Government, in his speech to the Fascist Trade Union Congress, himself declared that the workers and peasants, by accepting a reduction in their wages which might be estimated at a thousand million, had made a magnificent contribution to help to win the battle of the lira. He added that that would not be forgotten.

That the complaints reproduced by the Fascist trade union press are not entirely without foundation seems probable from the following particulars taken from a statement of the Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Corporations: Up to 30 January 1928 there were about a thousand cases of infringements of collective agreements according to notifications by the prefects, and 1,876 cases according to notifications to the trade unions by the persons concerned; 1,542 of these cases had already been settled at that date.

There are no official figures subsequent to that date. The situation, however, appears to have considerably improved since the coming into force of the Decrees relating to the settlement of individual disputes arising out of contracts of employment (cf. post, sub-section on The Administration of Labour Law) and relating to the deposit and publication of collective agreements.

In Finland, the event which contributed most to draw attention to the importance of the question of collective agreements was the dockers' strike, which broke out on 2 June 1928 and affected thirty ports and 10,000 workers.

Apart from an increase in wages, the conclusion of a collective agreement was the principal subject of dispute. The employers opposed this claim on the pretext that the trade union only included a minority of the workers concerned and was therefore not representative of the interests of the wage-earners, and, moreover, that it was under Communist influence. The employers also contended that, in view of the liberal legislation relating to individual contracts of employment, the institution of collective agreements was superfluous. Moreover, they maintained that, in the particular case, a collective agreement would be unsuitable owing to the instability and lack of homogeneity in the labour supply.

In view of the importance of the principle involved in the dispute, the International Federation of Transport Workers called upon the transport workers' federations in the various countries to boycott Finnish ships. The Scandinavian Transport Workers' Federation decided both to furnish assistance to the Finnish dockers and to extend the boycott to Finnish goods. The dockers' dispute was settled in the spring of 1929 through the intervention of the Ministry of Social Affairs, but, while the demands of the workers were accepted, they were unable to secure the conclusion of a collective agreement in the proper sense of the term.

The most important feature in connection with this dispute, however, is the repercussions which it had in the Scandinavian countries, notably Denmark. In that country the boycott not only affected ships flying the Finnish flag, but also all foreign ships carrying goods coming from or going to Finland. The Danish Association of Employers saw in these measures a violation of the "Concordat of September 1899", which still constitutes the basis of understanding between workers' and employers' organisations. The question was brought before the arbitration tribunal, which gave an award in favour of the employers' association. The Union of Unskilled Workers, to which the Transport Workers' Organisation is affiliated, replied by denouncing the Concordat. The employers disputed their right to do this, alleging that the denunciation took place at a time when the Transport Workers' Organisation was no longer affiliated to the Danish General Confederation of Workers, which was the only party to the agreement.

Meanwhile the unskilled workers' association has rejoined the Confederation, and it is now being asked whether the latter will not itself call for an amendment of the Concordat of September 1899, particularly as regards the provisions relating to sympathetic strikes.

In Sweden, also the measures adopted out of sympathy with the Finnish dockers threatened to affect the legislation on collective agreements. An amendment has been submitted to the First Chamber of the Riksdag by the President of the Swedish Employers' Association with the object of adding to the Act relating to collective agreements analysed above a provision forbidding the adoption by the parties to the agreement of any measures by way of sympathy on the occasion of an industrial dispute in a foreign country. No one can say what will be the fate of this proposal. For the moment both the employers' proposal and a Socialist counter-proposal for the repeal, pure and simple, of the Act relating to collective agreements have been rejected by the competent parliamentary committee.

What is specially important, as a striking example of the international repercussions of big industrial disputes, is the
fact that the Finnish dockers' strike has influenced the relations between employers' and workers' organisations in other Northern countries and has even affected, to an extent which cannot be clearly ascertained at the moment, the course of legislation on collective agreements in those countries.

As regards the United States, it is difficult, in the absence of precise statistical information, to follow the development of collective agreements closely. Contrary to the practice followed in Europe, the movement chiefly takes the form of "company agreements" concluded between the heads of one or more individual undertakings and the shop unions. This method has been applied especially in the railways. The system was inaugurated in February 1923 by the establishment of a collective agreement between the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and the shop unions of that Company. It was subsequently extended, with some modifications, to the Canadian National Railways. Recently, the Chicago and North Western Company signed an agreement of the same kind with fourteen shop unions. The great majority of the railway workers in the United States are at present subject to company agreements.

It will be clear from this rapid survey that legislation relating to collective agreements made considerable progress in 1928. It will be seen particularly that the collective regulation of conditions of work is more and more gaining ground over regulation by individual contracts.

The last observation holds good independently of the form taken by the legal regulation of collective agreements, whether the law leaves it to the parties themselves to conclude such agreements or regards their conclusion to a greater or lesser extent as falling within the attributions of the State itself. It applies even to States which have so far abstained from regulating the system of collective agreements by legislation, as is the case especially with Anglo-Saxon countries.

Conciliation and Arbitration

191. — Legislative changes affecting conciliation and arbitration have been relatively few during the past year. In Australia, the important amendment to the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act mentioned in last year's Report has been adopted. This, among other things, aims at preventing overlapping between State and Federal tribunals; develops conciliation and voluntary arbitration; lays down provisions designed to enforce the observance of awards; and includes a large number of improvements in procedure. In the South African Parliament, a Bill has been under consideration amending the Industrial Conciliation Act, 1924, in certain particulars, as a result of the practical experience gained in applying this measure. In Sweden, the new legislation already referred to in connection with collective agreements has been put into force, and a Labour Court has been set up to deal with disputes arising out of the interpretation of such agreements, the decision of this Court being final. In the U.S.S.R., an Order dated 29 August 1928 lays down new regulations for the settlement of industrial disputes. Provision is made for joint committees in each undertaking, for conciliation chambers and for arbitration courts. Reference to arbitration may be at the request of either party to a dispute and the award is binding.

The general trend of legislation during the year has thus been in the direction of further compulsion. As usual, also, the principle of compulsion has been the subject of considerable debate.

In any discussion of "compulsory" conciliation and arbitration, it is always necessary to distinguish between the compulsory reference of a dispute to conciliation or to arbitration, as the case may be, and the compulsory acceptance of an award. How essential this distinction is has been clearly demonstrated in the Press discussions of the Bill now before the French Chamber of Deputies. This Bill, sponsored by the Minister of Labour, Mr. Loucheur, provides for the compulsory conference of the employers and workers concerned in any collective dispute, attempts at conciliation being obligatory on the request of either party both before any actual stoppage of work has taken place and, in the event of these efforts not being successful, after the strike or lock-out has occurred. In a number of the attacks made upon this proposal the compulsory reference of a dispute to conciliation has been confused with the compulsory acceptance of an arbitration award.

In practice it has usually been found that the compulsory reference of disputes to conciliation encounters comparatively few difficulties, but the compulsory acceptance of an arbitration award is altogether another matter.

During the course of the year this question of compulsory acceptance of an award has been the field of three notable struggles, in Australia, in Norway and above all in Germany.

In Australia, the strike of the waterside workers in the autumn of 1928 against an award of the Arbitration Court, although by no means the first of such revolts, was of such importance as to call for emergency legislation. In Norway, the strike of the building workers, which took full effect on 26 May 1928 and lasted till 23 July 1928, was likewise against
an award of the Arbitration Court, and thus definitely contrary to the law. Its occurrence was held by many to have dealt a severe blow at the compulsory arbitration system in that country. In Germany, the North-West group of iron and steel employers, rather than accede to a wage advance, declared a lock-out of over 200,000 men. An award issued by the Official Conciliation Board was rejected by the employers. It was then declared binding by the Minister of Labour. The employers, however, still refused to obey the award, and brought it before the Labour Court, alleging certain irregularities. A stoppage of work began on 1 November 1928. The case was carried from the Labour Court to the District Labour Court and thence to the Supreme Labour Court, but, before a final judgment was issued, the two parties were induced to accept a new award pronounced by the Minister of the Interior, who had been appointed arbitrator ad hoc, and the lock-out came to an end. Whether this settlement resulted in any considerable modification in the system of conciliation and arbitration it is difficult to say. On the whole, it seems probable that no fundamental change will be made, but the power to declare an award binding may perhaps be used with greater restraint as a consequence of this experience.

All of the three cases mentioned above would appear to illustrate in varying degrees how difficult it is in actual practice to enforce an award if one or other of the parties is strongly opposed to it, as also the tendency for any measure involving compulsory acceptance of an award to take on a political aspect.

By far the most interesting development in the general field of conciliation and arbitration, however, is the strong movement in a number of countries towards active co-operation between employers and workers. This question is dealt with at greater length in the sub-section devoted to industrial relations (post, p. 282), but requires at least to be mentioned in the present connection.

The movement first became prominent in the United States of America some three or four years ago. This movement, however, would appear on the whole to be of the nature of co-operation in single undertakings rather than between employers and trade unions generally.

The comparable movement in other countries has tended to take a collective form and considerable progress has been made, particularly in Great Britain. Reference has been made in preceding paragraphs of this Report to the series of meetings initiated by Sir Alfred Mond (now Lord Melchett) between a representative group of employers on the one hand, and members of the Trades Union Congress, headed by Mr. Ben Turner, on the other. These meetings have continued and a number of important conclusions have been reached. Those touching on the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes are particularly interesting, inasmuch as they proposed the creation of a National Industrial Council representative of employers and trade unions, one of the main functions of such a Council being to establish a standing joint committee for the appointment of joint conciliation boards. The two chief employers’ organisations, however, the National Confederation of Employers’ Organisations and the Federation of British Industries, have expressed their unwillingness to take part in setting up such a Council, but, on the other hand, have invited the Trades Union Council to meet with them, which invitation has been accepted. The meeting, which at the time of writing has not yet taken place, is notable as being the first of its sort in Great Britain.

Somewhat similar meetings in other countries between representatives of employers and workers have also been reported. The wage-earners on the other may also be mentioned1. In New Zealand, for example, the National Industrial Conference held in the spring of 1928, while reaching interesting conclusions on other matters, was not able to arrive at a unanimous recommendation on the question of conciliation and arbitration—the employers’ section contending in favour of an optional system, while the wage-earners were bent on maintaining the present system of compulsory reference of disputes to the tribunals provided.

It will be of great interest to see whether these meetings between employers and trade unions on a national scale result in co-operation in individual establishments comparable with that at present found in the United States. When negotiations are between employers generally on the one hand and wage-earners generally on the other, there is not usually the same immediate urge to reach practical conclusions as there is when employer and employees in a single undertaking agree to co-operate for their mutual benefit. But, on the other hand, methods of collaboration arrived at by the slower and, in some ways, more cumbersome method would seem likely on the whole to be more durable and possibly to fit in better with any complete and equitable process of rationalisation.

However this may be, there is little question that meetings on a national scale, such as those mentioned above, are likely to further the successful conciliation and arbitration of industrial disputes. For the two most essential factors, both in the prevention and in the settlement of disputes, are, first of all, substantial agreement as to the main principles on which the employer-employee relationship is based, and, still more important, an adequate appreciation.

1 See below § 103.
by both parties that their interests are to a great extent common, that it is impossible to secure optimum production without the full co-operation of the workers, and that high production standards at low cost provide the necessary foundation for a permanent increase in real wages. In so far as they tend to supply this necessary ground-work for agreement, these meetings are by far the most significant movement at present taking place in the whole field of conciliation and arbitration of industrial disputes.

Administration of Labour Law

192. — The outstanding event on this subject for the year 1928 was the notification of the Swedish Act of 25 May 1928, which has already been referred to, for the creation of a Labour Court. This Act, which came into force on 1 January 1929, sets up a special Court for dealing with " disputes on matters of law " with reference to collective agreements. The cases of action for which the new Court has jurisdiction are stated to be disputes as to the validity, application and construction of collective labour agreements, disputes as to the incompatibility of specified conduct with the provisions of a collective agreement or with the provisions of the Collective Agreements Act, etc. The Court, therefore, in contradistinction to the provisions of the new German Act of 28 May 1926 on labour courts, has no jurisdiction in disputes arising out of individual contracts of service. The fact that one country has found it necessary to create a special court for the settlement of litigation in the matter of collective agreements is symptomatic of the evolution which is taking place.

The Swedish Labour Court is composed of a President and six members. The President, and two members must be neutral; further, the President and one member must be members of the legal profession and have had wide practical experience in the administration of the law. The other members are required to have had special experience in social questions and labour law. Two of these latter members are nominated on the proposal of the principal employers' organisations, and the two others on the proposal of the principal workers' unions. All the appointments are made by the King.

In principle, the employers' and workers' organisations alone can bring a case before the Court. Their members can only do so personally when the organisation concerned fails to exercise its right. Conversely, when a case is brought against a member in his individual capacity, the organisation to which he belongs must also be joined. Special emphasis is laid in the Act on the duty of the Court to settle each case as far as possible at one hearing. Though the Court is a court of first instance, its decision is final. The new Act repeals the Act of 28 May 1920 on the creation of a Central Arbitration Board.

It was stated in last year's Report that the new German Act on labour courts had come into force. Although it is difficult, after less than two years of the operation of the Act, to express any definite opinion on it, the publication issued by the Ministry of Labour of the Reich to commemorate the tenth anniversary of the foundation of the Ministry (which has been referred to in previous connections) expresses the view that on the whole the Act has met with the approval of the parties concerned. Nevertheless, in different directions of secondary importance, in particular in regard to the representation of the parties (lawyers are not allowed to appear in courts of first instance), certain modifications have been called for on different sides. The rapidity of the procedure is regarded as one of the principal merits of the labour courts (during their first six months 527 labour courts of first instance had to deal with nearly 165,000 cases).

Good results have also been produced by the provision which gives the labour courts jurisdiction not only in disputes between employers and employed with reference to the application of individual contracts of service (the old industrial and commercial courts also had jurisdiction in these matters), but also in litigation of the same kind between employers' and workers' organisations with reference to the application of the compulsory provisions of collective agreements. Important questions affecting labour law have lately been raised by the collective disputes which have been dealt with. Although the Labour Court of the Reich has not been long in operation, it has been able to settle a considerable number of contentious cases and so contribute to the development of uniform labour legislation. Special reference may be made to the judgment given by the Labour Court of the Reich on the validity of the arbitration award which was declared to be binding by the Minister of Labour in connection with the big dispute in the iron and steel trade in the Ruhr (cf. ante, sub-section on Conciliation and Arbitration). This judgment is of fundamental importance for the administration of labour law as a whole and industrial conciliation. It shows clearly the important place which is taken by the system of labour courts in the creation of a uniform body of labour law.

In Poland, the Legislative Decree of 22 March 1928 on labour courts, which was referred to in last year's Report,
has since come into operation. It is not possible at present, however, to give any definite information on the results of its application.

In Italy, the Decree of 28 February 1928, which was also referred to in last year's Report, came into operation on 1 October 1928. As the details of this measure were not known when last year's Report was compiled, its main features are reviewed below.

The new Decree abolishes the special tribunals which previously existed. The cases dealt with by these special tribunals now come within the jurisdiction of the magistrates or the ordinary courts, according to the material importance of the case. The same is the case with individual disputes arising out of collective agreements. The magistrates and ordinary courts also have jurisdiction in civil cases relating to the application of collective agreements when brought by employers' or workers' organisations which are legally recognised against employers or workers in particular. An employers' representative and a workers' representative nominated from special lists, from which the heads of the occupational organisations are excluded, sit as assessors; but their attendance is only required when one of the parties at the first hearing makes a request to that effect.

Civil actions by recognised organisations (referred to above) which are brought for breach of collective agreements can only be heard if the plaintiff has previously lodged a protest with the organisation to which he belongs. Employers or workers who fraudulently evade the obligations of a collective agreement or the rules prescribed by corporate bodies are punishable by a fine of from 100 to 5,000 lire, without prejudice to the rules of the general law as to civil liability. The obligations of a collective agreement are considered to be evaded within the meaning of this provision if workers are employed on conditions less favourable than those laid down by the agreement.

On 6 October 1928 an Act instituting a suitable, rapid and economical procedure for dealing with certain labour disputes was put into force in Ecuador.

Similarly, a special Act on the administration of labour law was promulgated on 28 December 1928 by the Free City of Danzig.

Industrial Relations

193. — As was stated in last year's Report, the Office attaches considerable value to the various forms of action which are being taken in different countries to improve industrial relations. This attitude has been officially confirmed. The Conference last year adopted a special Resolution on the subject, for the carrying out of which the Governing Body, at its Session in October 1928, approved a plan of systematic study. In its work on this question, as has already been indicated in the sub-section dealing with the Office's relations with the United States of America, the Office has been assisted by a member of the staff of Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., of the United States, Mr. T. G. Spates, who is attached to the Office and helps it to compare what is being done in the United States with the work done in Europe.

It has frequently been pointed out that there are marked differences in the conception of "industrial relations" ruling in the United States, on the one hand, and in Europe, on the other. Efforts have been made to distinguish the two conceptions, and it is frequently concluded that the American expression is wider than the European. It is pointed out, in support of this view, that industrial safety and health conditions are regarded in the United States as falling within the field of industrial relations, while in Europe they are not included. But such an attempt to distinguish between the American and European conceptions of industrial relations is not really satisfactory. "Industrial relations" does not denote a number of questions for study, for example, works councils, employment management, co-partnership and profit-sharing, welfare work, safety, etc. It connotes an attitude of mind.

In point of fact, what is meant by industrial relations throughout this new movement is the idea that greater attention should be given to the human factor, its physical, psychological and moral aspects. In Europe there is a tendency to treat this question separately, apart from problems of hygiene, safety, unemployment, etc., but in the United States, where there is no industrial legislation on a wide scale, there is a tendency to approach the whole problem of labour protection from this new attitude. Hence, indeed, the value of contact on this matter between Europe and America. Europe may find in American experience means of renewing its methods of dealing with the different phases of its industrial problem.

A particularly interesting development is the accelerated movement during 1928 towards mergers and consolidations of business and industrial enterprises in the United States. During the year there were some fifty mergers of important and well-known enterprises covering practically every department of industry, and this trend is going on at an increasing

1 See above, p. 9.
rate. From the standpoint of industrial relations, it is particularly significant, because it means that at an accelerated rate an increasingly large number of workers is coming under the control of an increasingly small number of directors, and this condition is particularly vital in a country where there is a minimum amount of protective labour legislation and where social benefits enjoyed by workers, essentially on a basis of voluntary action by individual employers, may be altered or cancelled by changing policies dictated by the financial interests which seem to be responsible for the movement towards greater consolidation.

Some idea of the important place which the subject of industrial relations occupies in the United States and of the extent to which it has become a part of the public conscience may be gained from the following list of selected organisations and institutions which, in addition to Government agencies and labour unions, specialise in some degree in the study and promotion of this question:

National Safety Council; The Taylor (Scientific Management) Society; Russell Sage Foundation (Department of Industrial Studies); Young Men's Christian Association (Industrial Department); Society of Industrial Engineers; American Association for Labour Legislation; Bureau of Personnel Administration; Princeton University (Industrial Relations Section); Metropolitan Life Insurance Company (Policy Holders Service Bureau); Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America; American Council on Education; Labour Bureau, Inc. ; Workers' Education Bureau of America; Personnel Research Federation; National Child Labour Committee; Academy of Political Science; National Bureau of Economic Research; National Institute of Industrial Psychology; National Civic Federation; National Industrial Conference Board; American Management Association; Social Science Research Council.

These organisations are supported by membership dues, individual or industrial subscriptions, philanthropic foundations, etc.

A further proof of the importance attached to this subject in the United States is the place that it holds in the instruction given in such Universities as Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Dartmouth, University of Pennsylvania, Ohio State University and the University of Illinois, as well as in summer schools.

Further, important statements in favour of industrial relations have been made by employers in the United States. Mr. Charles M. Schwab, for example, Chairman of the Board of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation, stated at the annual meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers:

Forward-looking managements, as well as far-sighted representatives of employers, are coming to realise that if full benefits are to be had from the creations of engineers, industry must be viewed as a co-operative undertaking in the advancement of which every supervisor and every employee is an important factor. Experience shows that industry's most important task in this day of large-scale production is management of men on a human basis. . . . Under present-day economic conditions in the United States workers are more than producers; they constitute the very backbone of large-scale consumption.

As regards Great Britain, further reference must be made to the "Mond Conference", the Conference on Industrial Reorganisation and Industrial Relations. The scope of the work of this Conference is very extensive and practically embraces all the various matters dealt with in the present chapter on the workers' general conscience. Its programme in the matter of industrial relations in particular covers a very wide field. This subject, which was one of the eight main questions which the Conference had on its agenda, included the following points:

(a) trade union recognition; (b) collective bargaining; (c) security and status: the formulation of means for increasing security of employment and for raising the status of the industrial worker, including the new standing wage scheme; (d) victimisation of employees or employers; (e) legal regulation of hours of labour; (f) management and labour; (g) works councils; (h) information: the provision of information on the facts of industry to all those concerned in industry; (i) preliminary investigation: the application of preliminary investigation into potential causes of industrial disputes before their actual declaration; (j) the extension of the function of industrial courts; (k) factory legislation; (l) health and unemployment insurance (national and industrial); (m) provision of machinery for suggestion and constructive criticism; (n) maintenance of personal relationship.

This Conference has attracted widespread interest outside Great Britain. When, for example, the Swedish Government was considering the calling of a national Conference on industrial relations, it applied to the International Labour Office for information as to what had been done in Great Britain.

In Australia also, where much interest has been taken nationally in the improvement of industrial relations, the British Conference has been closely followed, and the suggestion has been made that a representative delegation from Australia should visit Great Britain to observe the working of industrial relations there.
The Prime Minister addressed early in the year a request to representative organisations of employers and workers in the Commonwealth to nominate delegates to a proposed Industrial Peace Conference. The Conference was to be attended by thirty-six delegates nominated by trade unions, employers' organisations, financial circles, agricultural organisations and the National Council of Women. Among the suggested subjects on the agenda were the present distribution of the proceeds of industry between those taking part in production and methods of removing any unfairness found to exist, and the control and management of industry, and the question of giving workers a share therein. It was found impossible, however, to bring this suggested conference together.

Nevertheless, opinion continued to develop both on the employers' and on the workers' side in favour of the holding of such a Conference. The Associated Chambers of Manufacturers took the initiative in inviting the workers to a national Conference. Eventually, after many difficulties, appointments were made, both of employers and workers, and on 6 December the National Peace in Industry Conference met for the first time at Melbourne. Thirty-seven delegates attended, twenty representing employers' organisations of all the States and seventeen representing the Australasian Council of Trade Unions and the Trades Hall Councils of the six capital cities. The Australian Workers' Union, which was allotted three delegates, declined to attend.

Among the subjects for discussion proposed by workers or by employers were the following: the effect of industrial legislation upon industry and employment; the basis for determining wages; the security and status of the workers; the means of securing co-operation stimulating and cheapening production, and extending the system of payment by results; methods of dealing with disputes, in place of courts and legal tribunals, such as joint industrial councils and works councils; the status of unionists and the recognition of unionism; the participation of the workers in the management of industry; the provision of a greater share of the national wealth for the workers; the repeal of industrial legislation which contributes to conflict and industrial unrest.

After some preliminary meetings, the Conference appointed a committee to prepare a definite joint agenda for the next session, and it then adjourned until 1929.

In New Zealand, the steps taken by the Government to call a National Industrial Conference were immediately successful. The Prime Minister opened on 27 March 1928 an Industrial Conference comprising representatives of the trade unions, employers, primary producers, chambers of commerce, manufacturers, banks and economists. The Conference was summoned by the Government to consider various aspects of industrial relations, including arbitration and conciliation legislation. It was able to reach agreed conclusions on certain questions including unemployment, immigration and workmen's compensation, but came to no agreement on the question of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act.

In certain European countries also, steps have been taken for securing an improvement in industrial relations. In the Netherlands, the National Federation of Employers addressed a letter to representative workers' organisations in January inviting them to a Conference for the discussion of the possibilities of collaboration in industry. The invitation was accepted and the first meeting of the Conference was held on 10 February. The Conference agreed that there were a number of questions on which an understanding and a measure of collaboration could be reached.

In Sweden, again, an Industrial Conference which was convened by the Government and to which reference has already been made, took place on 30 November and 1 December 1928 in Stockholm. It was attended by about 200 representatives of employers and workers, and was presided over by the Minister for Social Affairs, Mr. Lübeck.

After a general discussion in which some thirty delegates took part, the following resolution, which had been drafted in co-operation with the leaders of the Swedish Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Trade Unions, was submitted by the Minister for Social Affairs:

The Conference finds that it would be desirable to appoint a delegation whose duty it shall be to sum up the points of view and suggestions put forward at the Conference which have obtained general support among the participants, and to propose measures for realising the aim of the Conference, the promotion of collaboration and industrial peace to the benefit of industry and the community as a whole; and it requests the Swedish Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Trade Unions each to nominate five members of such a delegation and the Government to appoint a suitable number of members, including representatives of engineers and foremen.

This resolution was unanimously adopted by the Conference, which also decided to refer to the delegation in question all the proposals which had been submitted to it verbally or in writing.

Although this Conference only represents the first step towards a far-off objective, it did, as its President said, useful publicity work and clearly had an immediate effect in producing the calm atmosphere which was noticeable towards the
end of the year in the negotiations for new collective agreements. For the first time for a number of years these negotiations were carried out without any disputes arising beforehand, and, what is more significant still, the agreements which were concluded are to run for two years, whereas since the war they have very seldom run for more than one year.

In this favourable atmosphere, which to a certain extent seems also to have had its effect on politics in general, the work of the Conference was carried out in accordance with the programme outlined by the Minister of Social Affairs. The joint delegation referred to in the above resolution, which includes the Governor of the Province of Gothenburg as Chairman and the President of the Employers' Federation and the President of the Trade Unions Confederation as Vice-Presidents, began its work with a meeting in Stockholm at the end of January 1929. This meeting gave special attention not only to the question of organising information on industrial relations, but also to rationalisation, the related question of piece-work rates, the training of foremen, etc.

Other action has also been taken which shows the great interest being manifested in Sweden in industrial relations. Joint periodicals prepared by employers and workers are being published by a number of important industrial undertakings. Further, a proposal will be laid before the forthcoming Congress of the Iron and Steel Workers' Union suggesting that a joint office for wages statistics should be created by the employers and workers in the industry concerned. Industrial peace conferences in individual industries, particularly in the building industry, are also contemplated.

Publicity in favour of improving industrial relations has been actively carried on. The record of the sittings of the National Conference has been widely distributed; numerous talks have been given on the wireless, for example by the President of the joint delegation and the Minister of Social Affairs himself; and meetings of employers and workers have been organised by the Swedish Association for Workers' Education and by a number of workers' colleges.

Generally speaking, all this activity is being favourably received. It is therefore curious to note that some apprehensions have been expressed, among others, by a well-known economist. It seems to be feared that "organised goodwill" between employers and workers may endanger the interests of consumers and the community at large.

Neither in France nor in Germany have any steps been taken for the calling of a national conference on industrial relations. The reason is that machinery already exists in those countries for the study of problems which would fall within the orbit of an ad hoc conference of this kind, i.e. the Economic Councils referred to in a later sub-section (post, § 195).

In conclusion, reference may be made to a further development which is taking place in the field of industrial relations in Europe, viz. the endeavours to set up "management associations" consisting primarily of managerial and technical officers of industrial companies. The development of industrial relations in the United States has undoubtedly profoundly influenced the discussions that have taken place not between employers' associations and trade unions but between groups of the officers in various works specially concerned with employment and personnel questions.

Profit Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management

194. — Unquestionably the most interesting development in profit-sharing — using the term in its widest sense — is at present taking place in the United States in the shape of employee stock-ownership plans. In 1915 only about 60 companies had inaugurated such plans. A recent report made by the National Industrial Conference Board lists 389 companies having some scheme in operation by which employees are given facilities for purchasing stock in the company for which they work. It is estimated that altogether 1,000,000 wage and salaried workers in the United States own or have subscribed for over 1,000,000,000 dollars' worth of such stock. These estimates, it should be said, exclude bonus and other schemes where stock is given outright to the employees. Without going into details of method, it is obvious that employee stock-ownership plans tend to give the worker an added interest in the undertaking in which he is employed, but there is also the evident danger that any decline in the prosperity of the undertaking is liable to affect both the income and the savings of employers who have invested in it.

In Great Britain, the annual survey of profit-sharing and labour co-partnership shows that in 1927, 447 schemes of profit-sharing were in operation in 440 firms or societies with some 235,000 employees entitled to participate in the benefits provided by these schemes. Since the end of the World War, there has been a slow but steady growth in profit-sharing in Great Britain. The average annual addition to earnings, however, has not
been great, ranging between £8 and £10 per head during recent years, which represents some 4 to 5 per cent. addition to earnings.

Turning to the question of workers' participation in management, two Acts dealing with works councils adopted during the year require to be mentioned. There is, first of all, the German Act of 28 February 1928 amending the Act of 4 February 1920 on works councils, and, secondly, the Act of 5 September 1928 of the Free City of Danzig, providing for works councils. Since this latter Act reproduces almost exactly the provisions of the German Acts of 4 February 1920 and 28 February 1928, it need be no more than mentioned here.

On the other hand, to understand the bearing of the new German Act, it is necessary to recall very briefly the reasons basic to this reform.

As from 1926, the central trade union organisations of Germany, that is to say, the General Confederation of German Trade Unions, the Federation of the Trade Unions of Salaried Workers, the German Federation of Christian Trade Unions and the Federation of the Hirsch-Dunker Trade Unions have been unanimous in proposing certain amendments to the Works Councils Act with the object of remedying certain faults revealed by experience.

The works councils were particularly opposed to section 23 of the original Act, by which it was incumbent upon general managers of undertakings to set up the electoral college which organised the elections of works councils whenever the previous works council had neglected to do this or when a new works council was to be constituted. If the general manager refused to nominate the electoral college there was no legal means of obliging him to do so. Consequently, in many establishments the functioning of works councils depended, in point of fact, upon the goodwill of the employers.

It was necessary, therefore, in the first place to take from the general managers this exclusive ability to convene and to constitute the electoral college and to hand over such power, if not to those actually concerned, at least to an independent person such as the president of the labour court, who would take action upon the request of the workers privileged to vote, or of an organisation of the wage-earners, or of the factory inspectorate. The first section of the new Act accordingly amends the former section 23 by giving what is, in substance, satisfaction to this desire.

In the second place, it was necessary to protect the wage-earners in so far as concerned the rights given to them by the Works Councils Act against any hindrance or undue influence exercised by the general manager. Section 2 of the new Act amending section 95 of the earlier Act deals with this question.

Lastly, in order to complete the guarantees given in sections 1 and 2, it was also necessary to provide that, even in the absence of a works council, there should be the possibility of prosecuting an employer who infringed the provisions of section 95. With this object in view, section 3 of the new Act amends section 99 of the earlier Act, by giving instructions to the factory inspector or to the authority designated by the Government of the country to carry out prosecution in the event of offences of this nature occurring.

In the United States, a number of cases of direct participation in the management of certain undertakings have been recorded during the past year. There have been occasional instances where private employers have withdrawn from a business and turned it over to their employees. An outstanding and most significant development along this line is that of the management of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company which, having apparently decided to devote itself exclusively to the telephone business, announced that it would sell the Graybar Electric Company, which was the electrical supply distributing unit, formerly identified with the Western Electric Company, to the employees. Particular significance is attached to this action because of the size and importance of the interests involved, the Graybar Electric Company being the largest company in the country distributing electrical supplies.

Mention may be made also of a particular form of workers' representation upon the board of directors, an interesting example of which occurred during the year. The Interborough Rapid Transit Company, of New York City, which over a long period has had rather unsettled labour conditions due to the antagonism towards the company's union plan by the Electrical Workers' Union, elected the president of the company's union to a post on the board of directors.

A still more interesting case is that of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers' Union in Milwaukee. The largest clothing making firm in Milwaukee had been under contractual relations with the union since 1919, but in 1928 declared its intention to operate on an open-shop basis. A stoppage of work took place, but neither side showed any signs of yielding. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers accordingly decided to set up a factory of their own and took on the men and women formerly employed by the recalcitrant firm. The product of this new factory is being sold to Hart Schaffner and Marx, the great Chicago manufacturers, whose good relations with the Union are well known.
Participation of the Workers in National Affairs

195. During the year 1928 national economic councils have established themselves more firmly and increased their activities.

In Germany, the Bill to transform the provisional National Economic Council into a permanent institution was discussed for the first time in the Reichstag in November 1928. It was subsequently referred to the Commission on national economy. While awaiting a settlement of the question, however, the work of the provisional Council is proceeding normally.

In France, the Bill brought in by the Government on 17 November 1927 on the legal constitution of the National Economic Council, which was analysed in last year's Report, was referred to the Finance Committee for examination and will presumably be discussed in the near future.

Two sessions of the National Economic Council were held in 1928, at which the problem of national equipment, first broached in 1927, was again studied. The Council also decided to institute an enquiry into the principal branches of national economic activity, in order to ascertain in what way their position might be improved and their work co-ordinated in the common interest of manufacturers, workers, consumers and the State.

The work of the National Economic Council has earned for it a prestige which ensures its future and establishes its place in national life. The Prime Minister stated in the Chamber of Deputies on 13 January 1929:

On the conclusions of the enquiry held by the National Economic Council, we shall take such legislative action as is indicated both for the development of national economic equipment, for the rationalisation of certain administrative services, for the settlement of the housing question and for the reduction — this is of great importance — of the number of middlemen in the transport and sale of agricultural products and other foodstuffs or goods necessary to life. The Bill before you is for the organisation of the Economic Council, and it is highly desirable that it should be passed as soon as possible.

As regards Italy, the main lines of the new constitution of the Supreme National Economic Council were described in last year's Report. Its action as regards labour may be mentioned here. It is due to the thorough consideration by the Council of the regulations on hygienic conditions of labour, which had been discussed at enormous length for years past, that regulations on the subject were eventually adopted. The Council has drawn up reports of the highest interest on scientific management and compulsory sickness insurance. With regard to the latter question the discussions of the Council have resulted in the appointment of a committee to draft a Bill for the establishment of this great social benefit throughout the kingdom.

The competent Ministry has issued instructions for the constitution of the fourth section of provincial economic councils, i.e. the labour and social welfare section. In these sections the seats are divided, subject to changes necessitated by local conditions, in the proportion of three-fourths to four-fifths between representatives of employers and workers in agriculture, industry, and commerce, the other seats being allotted to representatives of other forms of activity which are particularly important in a given district.

At the same time, according to the Bills on the organisation of the National Council of the Corporations and the transformation of joint trade union committees into provincial corporations (see ante, sub-section 189) the functions of the fourth section are to be fulfilled by these provincial corporations.

As in previous years, great activity was displayed in 1928 by the National Economic Council of Czechoslovakia, which held no fewer than 99 meetings, 16 of which were meetings of committees and 83 of various sub-committees.

The appointment of a National Economic Council has also been considered in Finland. What may be considered as a first step in this direction was the appointment by the Government in November 1928 of a committee to examine ways and means of improving the economic situation and of laying down guiding principles for national economic policy. This committee will include representatives of banking, industry, shipowners, agriculture, co-operative societies, the trade union movement and various public departments, including the Ministry of Social Affairs. A special sub-committee will be appointed to deal with social questions both in themselves and in relation to economic matters.

In Great Britain, public interest in the creation of a central body for economic co-ordination has again been concentrated on the Melchett-Turner Conference, which adopted a resolution on 4 July 1928 according to which "it is desirable for the continuous improvement of industrial reorganisation and industrial relations that a national industrial council should be formed", and it is recommended that the necessary steps for its formation should be taken immediately ". The council should consist of workers' representatives, who would be the members of the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, and an equal number of representatives of the employers nominated by the Federation of British Industries and the National

1 See above, § 191.
Confederation of Employers' Organisations. The three main functions of the national industrial council would be: (1) to hold regular meetings once a quarter for general consultation on all questions concerning industry and industrial progress; (2) to establish a standing joint committee for the appointment of joint conciliation boards, as set out in detail in the resolution adopted on the prevention of disputes; (3) to establish and set to work machinery for continuous investigation into industrial problems.

Again, among the conclusions of the Liberal industrial enquiry, the creation of an economic general staff is proposed with the following duties: (1) to study current economic problems; (2) to coordinate and, where necessary, to complete statistical and other information required by the Government and by Parliament; (3) to call the attention of the Cabinet (or the committee of economic policy) to important tendencies and changes; (4) to suggest to the Government plans for solving fundamental economic difficulties, such, for instance, as unemployment, development of national resources, etc. According to this proposal a national committee of economic policy would be formed to consist of the following: the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the President of the Board of Trade, the Minister of Labour, the Minister of Health, the Minister of Agriculture.

Lastly, in the recent programme of the Labour Party it is proposed to create a permanent national economic committee for "improving the organisation of industry, increasing economic efficiency and raising the standard of life".

It will thus be seen that not only are national economic councils continuing and developing in countries where the experiment has already been made, but the idea is taking root in other countries, and plans are being formed. There is a growing tendency to appeal to common discussion, to negotiation and to joint action by the great organised economic forces when crises have to be overcome and ways opened to economic and social progress. The world of labour, through the organisations which it has voluntarily formed, is becoming more and more closely associated with national economic life, just as the newer international law is associating it more closely with the organisation of international economic life.

The importance of these facts is undeniable. The prestige of labour throughout the world is increasing in proportion as collective life is developing on regular lines and becoming rationalised.
GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

196. — The discussion on the budget at the last Assembly of the League of Nations proved an occasion for severe and unexpected criticism of the International Labour Organisation, based on political rather than budgetary considerations. One speaker bluntly declared that this Organisation was nothing more than a machine for adopting Conventions which no one desired to ratify or a mill for grinding out publications which no one wished to read. There was no great difficulty in dispelling the impression which such assertions might have conveyed to the Fourth Committee of the Assembly, and the budget proposed by the Governing Body was adopted without any reduction. It is difficult, however, to avoid a certain feeling of mortification at such criticism, the injustice of which is amply shown by the record of the work and progress of the Organisation in its various fields of activity contained in the preceding pages.

"Publications which no one wishes to read!" Although all Office publications are distributed gratis to the Governments of the States Members and often also to organisations constitutionally represented at the Conference, yet the sales continue to increase and the income from this source is now 170,000 francs per year. Countries not using one of the official languages are constantly demanding that these publications should be translated into their languages. Very soon certain of the reviews in non-official languages will be able to pay their way. "Publications which no one appreciates!" Reference has already been made to some of the praise which Office reports have received from responsible and authoritative persons, not only in the States Members, but also in America and Russia.

The most encouraging progress during 1928, however, has probably been in the field of international labour legislation. Critics allege that no State wishes to ratify the Conventions and that consequently the whole system set up in 1919 is doomed to failure. The unprecedented increase in the number of ratifications last year is a sufficient reply to such criticism. While former Reports have noted some thirty-four or thirty-five fresh ratifications per year, and on one occasion fifty-seven, no fewer than seventy have been registered between 15 March 1928 and 15 March 1929. It seems as if the Governments of the important industrial States are now vying with each other, and others which were hitherto indifferent or hesitating are taking action which will give living value to the International Labour Conventions. If the States of South America follow the example of Chile and Cuba in the matter of ratifications, then future years will bring in good harvests.

Nor is this all. It has been said—and there have perhaps been times when the criticism seemed to be not entirely without foundation—that Conventions which had been ratified were not always properly carried out. Recent developments are taking or have already taken the sting out of this criticism. Two years ago a Committee of experts was set up to examine the annual reports from each State under Article 408 of the Peace Treaty on the application of the Conventions ratified. At first it seemed that this Committee would have difficulty in obtaining recognition for its authority. Some of its members, discouraged by the initial opposition, were tempted to resign their mandate. The discussions at the last Conference, however, not only approved the work of the Committee but encouraged it to continue and extend its task. The States, too, have readily replied to the requests addressed to them for enlightenment or fresh information, and the remarks or findings of the Committee have proved sufficient to induce several States to take legislative measures. All this shows that the Conventions are not a dead letter, but, on the contrary, are producing practical and beneficial results.

This does not, of course, imply that in the future the application of the principles now accepted will progress naturally and spontaneously, or that the international machinery is now in good order and can be left to run automatically.

In the first place, the experience of some ten years has shown that international...
life is never natural or spontaneous, but
the result of a constant and stubborn
effort of will. It would soon fade and
disappear if the international institutions
did not constantly make it their business
to foster and renew it by regular work
and fresh ideas.

Secondly, there are certain tasks (some of them of exceptional importance) which no amount of hard work has so far been able to master. The ratification of the Eight-Hour Treaty is an example. Reference is frequently made to the “failure” of the Eight-Hour Convention, but such a term is another unmerited criticism, seeing that all the time sure and steady progress is being made. In several countries a fresh stage towards the acceptance of the eight-hour day was reached in 1928. The momentous decision taken in 1919 is being consolidated in actual practice. Despite all the misunderstandings and uncertainties, the Office is convinced that Great Britain’s proposal for revision is a clear proof of the feeling shared by all peoples that complete international agreement on this vital question of hours of work must be reached. At the same time the Office is well aware of the enormous difficulties which have still to be faced before a way out of the present temporary impasse is found.

More than ever it is still clear that the machinery of the Organisation itself is far from complete. The first Conventions provided for a consideration of their working and of the desirability of revision or modification at least once in ten years. In the case of these first Conventions this period will soon have elapsed, yet no detailed procedure has been arranged for carrying out these operations. If they are not properly thought out and prepared, these operations might bring down, like a house of cards, the new and still fragile system of labour legislation which has been built up with such care and effort. The Governing Body has adopted the rules which affect it, and it remains for the Conference at the present Session to settle the rules which it will follow in this matter. Until the conditions of international life have developed and been more clearly realised; the system contained in the Peace Treaties must be secured and supplemented.

Thus, side by side with tangible results, there remain unsolved problems which demand redoubled vigilance and activity. At the same time fresh tasks are urgently claiming the Office’s attention. The present Session of the Conference, for example, is to tackle the problem of forced labour. This will be the Conference’s first venture into the difficult question of native labour, which differs so widely from modern industrial labour and of which the main objective is not so much to protect the producers against excessive mechanisation as to save and preserve human lives against innumerable dangers. Once the Conference succeeds in its first delicate task of abolishing forced labour, limiting it to public objects, or regulating its employment, it will no doubt have occasion later to continue its humanitarian work on other aspects of the native labour problem. Then again, there are in the older industrial communities certain classes of workers who have become conscious of their interests, feel that they are insufficiently protected against the hardness of their work or life, and are demanding special reforms for their benefit; salaried employees, technical workers and professional workers. Some special international regulations will no doubt have to be framed for these workers.

To complete the mechanism of the Organisation, to overcome present difficulties, and to put in hand the new tasks which wait to be undertaken, the Office will need all the help and support it can command. How far can it count on the necessary help and support being forthcoming, and what are the prospects for the future?

These Reports have occasionally referred to the disappointments which have been caused to the Office from time to time by political vicissitudes: now and again Governments or parties whose identification with the principles of the Peace Treaties seemed to justify the Office in counting on their full support have been handicapped by circumstances and failed to fulfil its expectations. Many minds are still uncertain as to the value of democratic forms, it sometimes seems as if methods consecrated by age-long tradition have lost their power, and new experiments are being tried. But the relative efficacy of various political systems in accelerating social progress is still a matter for discussion.

Does the economic situation give more solid grounds for hope? Year by year its improvement has been noted. The stabilisation of financial conditions, the improvement of commercial relations and of technique, rationalisation, concentration and economic agreements are all fresh factors which may pave the way for further progress in the work of the Organisation. It is often necessary and in some respects only fair to take account of the conditions of production in each particular case, but at the same time the abolition of the privations and sufferings still endured by the workers and condemned to disappear by the Treaty of Peace cannot be made an excuse for indefinitely waiting for favourable economic conditions. It is not proposed to discuss this question again, since it has been frequently dealt with in recent Reports and its discussion is not yet closed. Nevertheless, the fact remains that the economic improvement in recent years justifies certain fresh hopes.

In the last resort, however, any examination and assessment of the factors which may contribute to the development of
the work of the Office always lead back to the importance of moral forces. Progress can only be made with the ratification and application of Conventions if the occupational organisations (those of the employers as well as those of the workers but particularly the latter) are clearly conscious of their destiny and appreciate the value of legislation for securing their protection and liberty. The problem of social reform, as has frequently been stated, is essentially a problem of faith and will.

From this point of view, the achievements of recent years, in face of numerous difficulties and obstacles, surely justify confidence in the future.

Last year's Report referred with pleasure to one bright patch on the horizon, namely, the splendid urge among the workers and their organisations towards a higher culture, intellectual emancipation and moral improvement. This movement is still continuing. Only recently a young French author, Mr. Guéhenno, expressed the essence of these aspirations of the people as follows: "The masses of humanity have never been more eager, more beset with needs and desires. You were never more exacting, more uncompromising, more dissatisfied... If the true glory of man is in his inward life, and if the richest inward life is a sign of the highest civilisation, then you are certainly on the right path."

The Office, in the course of its publicity work for spreading the principles and practice of Part XIII of the Treaty, observes with the greatest satisfaction that these aspirations are everywhere identical, whether the workers are organised as Socialists, Christians, Fascists, or Communists. The highest and purest hopes of humanity are universally the same. Urged by such hopes, the wills of men must eventually combine to achieve those elementary reforms in working and living conditions which are the prime and essential condition of civilisation.

It is not only in countries with a long industrial tradition, however, that the power of the influence and action of the International Labour Organisation can be seen. During last year its horizon has widened considerably. Touch has been established with countries whose civilisation is old, but whose industry is still young, with races whose instincts as well as their tradition and culture make them in general ready to accept and follow the great common principles contained in the Pact of the League of Nations or in the International Labour Charter. But there are still innumerable prejudices, conflicting interests, profound and at times apparently insurmountable misunderstandings, not to mention the feelings of hostility which exist in more or less varying degrees between the white and yellow races. Communism, too, with its direct, clear-cut and brutal propaganda frequently helps to stir up hatreds which no material marvels of modern technical progress can allay. But, as the Office pointed out in a report to the Governing Body, its affirmation of the principles of the Organisation and its efforts to have them understood and translated into practice should make itself create fresh possibilities of conciliation and peace.

Surely an effective contribution will have been made towards abolishing the sharp sense of racial inequality when uniformly equitable and humane working conditions are established for all, when the benefits of protection and insurance are extended, in forms suited to their traditions, to native workers as well as to those in large industrial countries. To establish the reign of justice and equity in labour conditions is surely to work for peace.

Thus, in carrying out the special task assigned to it, the Office can justly claim to be doing its share in the general work of the League of Nations.

Geneva, 20 April 1929.

ALBERT THOMAS.
APPENDIX TO THE FIRST PART.

International Labour Legislation.

Below will be found official information upon the ratification of Conventions which has come to the knowledge of the Office since the publication of the Director's Report to the Conference and up to 30 May 1929.

Ratifications registered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Convention</th>
<th>Date of adoption of the Convention</th>
<th>Date of registration by the Secretariat of the League of Nations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>Seamen's articles of agreement</td>
<td>Ninth Session, 1926</td>
<td>10.5.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Use of white lead in painting</td>
<td>Third Session, 1921</td>
<td>5.4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Simplification of the inspection of emigrants</td>
<td>Eighth Session, 1926</td>
<td>5.4.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Unemployment indemnity (shipwreck)</td>
<td>Second Session, 1920</td>
<td>21.3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Rights of association and combination (agriculture)</td>
<td>Third Session, 1921</td>
<td>23.3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>Weekly rest (industry)</td>
<td>Third Session, 1921</td>
<td>11.5.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Workmen's compensation for accidents</td>
<td>Seventh Session, 1925</td>
<td>27.3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases</td>
<td>id.</td>
<td>27.3.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Equality of treatment (workmen's compensation)</td>
<td>id.</td>
<td>27.3.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total number of ratifications registered is now 351.

Ratifications authorised.

In Germany, the Reichstag approved on 23 April 1929 the ratification of the Draft Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery (Eleventh Session, 1928) and on 2 May 1929 the ratification of the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea (Second Session, 1920), the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers, and concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (Third Session, 1921).

In Italy, the "Official Gazette" of 12 April 1929 published an Act for the approval of the Conventions concerning seamen's articles of agreement and the repatriation of seamen (Ninth Session, 1926).

In Rumania, an Act for the ratification of the Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants (Tenth Session, 1927) was published in the "Official Monitor" of 6 May 1929.

Ratifications recommended.

In Germany, on the occasion of the submission to the Reichsrat of the Workers' Protection Bill, the Cabinet of the Reich approved, on 11 March 1929, and subsequently submitted to the Reichsrat the Conventions concerning employment of women during the night, fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment (First Session, 1919), concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings (Third Session, 1921) and night work in bakeries (Seventh Session, 1925).

In the Netherlands, a Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture (Third Session, 1921) was adopted on 21 February 1929 by the Second Chamber of the States-General.

Other measures.

The Government of the Irish Free State submitted on 20 February 1929 to the Dail and Seanad the Draft Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery (Eleventh Session, 1928).
SECOND PART

Summary of Annual Reports under Article 408.
SECOND PART.

Summary of Annual Reports under Article 408.

Article 408 of the Treaty of Peace of Versailles and the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace read as follows:

Each of the Members agrees to make an annual report to the International Labour Office on the measures which it has taken to give effect to the provisions of Conventions to which it is a party. These reports shall be made in such form and shall contain such particulars as the Governing Body may request. The Director shall lay a summary of these reports before the next meeting of the Conference.

This Article, the first of the series (Articles 408-420) having as their object to secure effective and uniform application of the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference, involves three distinct obligations: (1) an obligation on the Members to make annual reports to the International Labour Office on the measures which they have taken to give effect to the provisions of Conventions to which they are parties; (2) an obligation on the Governing Body to prescribe the form of such reports and the particulars which they should contain; (3) an obligation on the Director of the International Labour Office to lay a summary of the reports before the next meeting of the Conference.

In conformity with these obligations the Governing Body has prescribed the forms for the annual reports upon the twenty Conventions in force for which reports have become due; the annual reports themselves have in most cases been regularly received from the Members; and, since 1924, summaries of the reports, which had previously been printed in extenso in the Report of the Director, have been duly laid before the Conference each year.

In this Second Part of the Report of the Director to the Twelfth Session of the Conference the summary of the annual reports in respect of the year ended 31 December 1928 is herewith formally laid before the Conference.

The report of the Committee of Experts appointed by the Governing Body, pursuant to a Resolution of the Eighth Session of the International Labour Conference, to examine the annual reports made under Article 408 will be laid before the Conference after it has been received by the Governing Body at its Forty-fifth Session, together with communications from various Governments forwarding supplementary information on points mentioned in the report of the Committee.

The reasons for the appointment of the Committee of Experts were fully explained in the introduction to the Second Part of the Director's Report to the Tenth Session of the Conference. It may be recalled here that for some years, with the development of the application of Conventions and the increasing volume of annual reports, the question of devising ways and means for the Conference to consider the reports usefully had been brought into the foreground. Various proposals were made, which led to the adoption by the Eighth Session of the Conference in 1926 of the following Resolution:

The Eighth Session of the International Labour Conference,

Considering that the reports rendered by the States Members of the Organisation under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles are of the utmost importance,

And that careful examination of the information contained therein is calculated to throw light upon the practical value of the Conventions themselves and to further their general ratification,

Recommends that a Committee of the Conference should be set up each year to examine the summaries of the reports submitted to the Conference in accordance with Article 408,

And requests the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to appoint, as an experiment and for a period of one, two or three years, a technical Committee of experts, consisting of six
or eight members, for the purpose of making the best and fullest use of this information and of securing such additional data as may be provided for in the forms approved by the Governing Body and found desirable to supplement that already available, and of reporting thereon to the Governing Body, which report the Director, after consultation with the Governing Body, will annex to his summary of the annual reports presented to the Conference under Article 408.

Effect was given to the final paragraph of this Resolution by the Governing Body, which, in a series of decisions taken at its Third-third, Thirty-fourth, and Thirty-fifth Sessions, appointed a Committee of Experts as an experiment and for a period of two years. This period elapsed in 1928, but the Eleventh Session of the Conference, in adopting the report of its Committee on Article 408, recognised that the work of the Committee of Experts had given useful results and invited the Governing Body to maintain it. Accordingly, the Governing Body, at its Forty-second Session, decided to re-appoint the Committee on the basis of tacit renewal from year to year. The Governing Body also decided to raise the number of the members of the Committee to ten by the appointment of Mr. Erich. Further, at its Forty-fourth Session, the Governing Body appointed Dr. McNair in the room of the late Professor Carless Davis. The Committee of Experts is therefore composed as follows:

Sir Selwyn Fremantle, C.S.I., C.I.E., Ex-Member of Council of the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces; Ex-Member of the Viceroy’s Legislative Council for the purpose of the Factory Bill.

Mr. Jules Gautier, President of Section in the Council of State; Vice-President of the Economic Council of France.

Professor Gini, University of Rome; President of the National Institute of Statistics; Member of the Council of the International Institute of Statistics.

Professor Ignacy de Koszembark-Łyskowski, Professor of Roman Law and late Rector of the University of Warsaw.

His Excellency R. Waldemar Erich, Finnish Minister at Stockholm; Professor at the University of Helsingfors; Ex-President of the Council of Ministers of Finland.

Dr. A.D. McNair, LL.D., C.B.E., Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College Cambridge.

Mr. von Nostitz, President of the Administrative Tribunal of Saxony; Chairman of the Social Reform Society.

Mr. Quadrat, Engineer; Secretary-General of the Masaryk Labour Academy at Prague.

Professor William Rappard, Professor and late Rector of the University of Geneva; Member of the Permanent Mandates Commission of the League of Nations; former Director of the Mandates Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

Mr. Tschoffen, Senator; former Minister of Labour, Industry and Social Welfare, of Belgium.

No changes were made in the functions of the Committee of Experts at the time of its re-appointment. They therefore remained as defined in the report of the Committee on Article 408 of the Eighth Session of the Conference, and may be summarised as follows:

(a) To examine the annual reports with a view to noting the cases where the information supplied appears inadequate for a complete understanding of the position with regard to the application of the Convention concerned, either generally, or in a particular country. Where the information appears inadequate generally, the Committee may suggest that the Governing Body should consider such modification of the form for annual reports as would secure greater precision. Where the information appears inadequate in the case of a particular country, the Committee may suggest that the Office should ask by correspondence for such further details as it may be possible to request within the limits of the forms for annual reports approved by the Governing Body.

(b) To examine the annual reports with a view to noting differences in the interpretation of the provisions of Conventions in the several countries which have ratified them, without, however, prejudging in any way the question as to what the right interpretation may be.

(c) To formulate its observations in a technical report to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.

In the introduction to the Second Part of the Director's Report to the Eleventh Session of the Conference an account was given of the work of the Committee of Experts at its meetings in 1927 and 1928, and it was shown that the result had been an improvement of the forms for annual reports and the securing of fuller information in the reports themselves or through the replies of the Governments to the observations of the Committee. The discussions at the Eleventh Session of the Conference further demonstrated the utility of the work of the Committee as a means of facilitating the examination of this part of the Director's Report by the Conference. Both in the Conference Committee on Article 408 and in the plenary sitting of the Conference, the discussions

were remarkable for the increasing interest shown in the problem of the application of ratified Conventions and for the wide comprehension of the purposes of Article 408. It may be anticipated that this development will be accentuated at the present Session, and that the discussions on this part of the Report will continue to gain in clarity and amplitude.

The Conference will again be able to utilise the work of the Committee of Experts together with this part of the Director's Report as a basis for its discussions. The mandate of the Committee having been renewed, as stated above, by the Governing Body, the Office invited the experts to meet on 21 March 1929. Mr. Tschoffen was again appointed as Chairman and Mr. Jules Gautier as Reporter of the Committee. Sittings were held from 21 to 23 March, and of the 241 annual reports which were due to be received by the Office, the Committee was able to examine 223. The reports of Chile and Greece had not reached the Office and could not, therefore, be considered, although the reports of the Greek Government have been received since the meeting of the Committee and are included in the summary.

As already stated, the report of the Committee of Experts on its examination of the reports for 1928 will be submitted to the Conference, together with the supplementary information subsequently furnished by the Governments, after it has been received by the Governing Body. It will be seen that the Committee, in addition to reporting upon its examination of the annual reports, also makes a number of suggestions regarding a question which was raised at the Eleventh Session of the Conference and referred to the Committee by the Governing Body at its Forty-Second Session, i.e. the question of the extension of the Committee's work to include the examination of the practical application of the Conventions in countries which have ratified them. In view of the importance attached to this question by the Article 408 Committee of the Eleventh Session of the Conference, this part of the Experts' report will no doubt be considered with especial interest at the present Session.

The summary of the annual reports here laid before the Conference covers the Conventions adopted by the Conference at its First, Second, Third and Eighth Sessions, and three of the Conventions of the Seventh Session; the period dealt with is the year ended 31 December 1928. The system followed in preparing the summary is the one used last year. The summary of the reports relating to each Convention is preceded by a table showing the countries which have ratified the Convention and are under the obligation to furnish reports, the date of registration of each ratification and the date upon which the last annual report was received. This table is followed in some cases by brief introductory notes on special points which do not fall strictly within the framework of the reports. Under I is given for each country a list of the legislation under which the Convention is applied. Under II are given in small type the provisions of each of the relevant Articles of the Convention and any special questions contained in the form of report relating to an Article, followed in each case by an account of the national law relating to the Article in question or of any other measures which may have been taken with a view to application. Under subsequent headings are collected the information given by the reports regarding the provisions of the Convention to colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing, in virtue of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and the relevant Article of each Convention, the dates on which the provisions of the Convention came into effect in each country and information relating to enforcement measures. In the last place are given summaries of the replies of the Governments to the additional question asking for a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention concerned is applied in each country.

* * *

1 The following abbreviations are used in these lists:


L. S. = Legislative Series of the International Labour Office.

Convention limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week.

This Convention first came into force on 13 June 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>6. 9.1920</td>
<td>26.12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14. 2.1922</td>
<td>18. 2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>15. 9.1925</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>24. 8.1921</td>
<td>14. 1.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>19.11.1920</td>
<td>27. 3.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>14. 7.1921</td>
<td>7. 2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>13. 6.1921</td>
<td>8. 2.1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

The report of the Greek Government states that the Convention was ratified by Greece under the Act No. 2269 published in the Official Gazette of 1 July 1920, and that it is being enforced gradually by special Decrees relating to various branches of industry. In its covering letter the Greek Government further states that the Liberal Party, which has recently assumed power, remembering that it was the first to ratify, in 1920, all the Washington Conventions, has hastened to promulgate the Decree of 3 January 1929 introducing the eight-hour day in the following industries:

(a) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration and demolition of any building;

(b) Construction of railways and tramways;

(c) Construction and alteration of ports, docks, piers, canals, inland waterway installations, roads, tunnels, bridges, viaducts, main and ordinary sewers, wells telegraphic and telephonic installations gas works, waterworks, or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for any such works;

(d) The continuously working branches of the following undertakings:

Chemical manure and acid works, paper mills, glass works, lime, cement and plaster works, brick and pottery works, flour mills, manufactories of wine, alcohol and drinks, breweries, manufactories of ice, manufactories of essence of turpentine and tar, gas and electricity works, undertakings for the production of gelatine, oxygen and bisulphide of carbon.

As will be seen from this enumeration the eight hour day has now been applied, inter alia, to the most important branches of production and to the workers, about 20,000 in number, employed therein. As regards the application of the same system to the other branches of the national industry, the Government, which recognises that the working day, under normal conditions, should not exceed eight hours, is constrained to proceed gradually in consequence of the economic depression which continues to weigh upon the industries of the country.

The application of the Conventions fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to industrial employment, concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth, concerning unemployment and concerning the use of white lead in painting has not yet given satisfactory results; the application of these Conventions has been seriously hindered by the disastrous consequences of the extremely prolonged period of war and of the 1922 catastrophe.

The consequences of the unhappy war in Asia Minor are still felt to such an extent that it is necessary to reckon with a period of constant, systematic and energetic effort before the country can reach conditions guaranteeing the normal development of its economic and social life.

The present Government, imbued with the noble principles of Part XIII of the Treaty of Peace, realised as soon as it
came into power that it would be impossible to create these normal conditions without improving, as far as possible, the situation of the workers. For this reason it proposes to introduce into the Chamber, in the near future, a series of Bills for the purpose of guaranteeing the due application of the Conventions in question and also of developing existing labour legislation."

The Minister for National Economy added that he had reason to believe that the Delegates of the Greek Government to the present Conference would be able to announce that the Bills which were then in preparation had already been submitted to Parliament.

As regards Rumania, the provisions of the Convention are applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women, and the regulation of hours of work which came into force on 13 April 1928. In accordance with § 52 of this Act Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.

Act of 14 June 1921 to provide for an eight-hour day and a forty-eight hour week (L. S. 1921, Bel.).

Royal Orders issued in application of the above Act and relating to exceptions and to the conditions of labour in certain industries and commercial undertakings.

Bulgaria.


Decree No. 24 of 24 June 1919 concerning the eight and six hour day. Order No. 2834 of 2 August 1919 in application of Decree No. 24 of 24 June 1919.

Act of 1922 concerning the ratification of the Hours Convention, giving the force of law to Decree No. 24 of 24 June 1919.

Czechoslovakia.

Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the eight-hour working day (L. S. 1919, Cz. 1-3)

Order of 11 January 1919 in pursuance of the Act respecting the eight-hour working day (L. S. 1919, Cz. 1-3).

Circular of the Ministry of Social Welfare to all administrative authorities respecting the interpretation of the provisions relating to the eight-hour day, dated 21 March 1919 (L. S. 1919, Cz. 1-3).

Greece.

Act No. 2269 of 1 July 1920 (O. B. Vol. II, No. 1, p. 20).

Special Decrees issued in application of Act No. 2269 (L. S. 1924, Gr. 1 and 4; 1925, Gr. 2).


Decree of 24 July/6 August 1912 constituting the Labour Inspection Department (B. B. Vol. XVII, 1913, p. 302).


India.

Indian Factories Act of 24 March 1911 as subsequently amended (L. S. 1926, Ind. 2).

Indian Mines Act (§ 23) of 23 February 1923 (L. S. 1925, Ind. 3).

Orders issued in 1921 by the Railway Department.

Rumania.

Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. (L. S. 1928, Rum. 1).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

Article 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "industrial undertaking" includes particularly:

(a) Mines, quarries, and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, repaired, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up or demolished, or in which materials are transformed; including shipbuilding and the generation, transformation, and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind.

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland waterway, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, waterwork or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for or laying the foundations of any such work or structure.

(d) Transport of passengers or goods by road, rail, sea or inland waterway, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves or warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

The provisions relative to transport by sea and on inland waterways shall be determined by a special conference dealing with employment at sea and on inland waterways.

The competent authority in each country shall define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

In addition, please state what decisions, if any, have been taken in regard to the last paragraph of Article 1.

Belgium.—The Act of 14 June 1921 does not apply to agriculture. It applies to industrial undertakings and to the offices of commercial undertakings (§ 1), and it has been extended by Royal Orders to apply to the other employees of the
majority of commercial undertakings, in addition to the office employees. The report adds that, as this extension to commercial undertakings is to be made general, there would be no purpose in distinguishing between industry and commerce and this has therefore not been done.

Bulgaria. — The Health and Safety of Workers' Act, upon which the Decree of 24 June 1919 is based, applies to all industrial and commercial undertakings, to handicrafts, and, if the work is dangerous or unhealthy, to home work where only members of the same family are employed. Agriculture is excluded. The report states that no line of division has been laid down between industry and commerce, since the Decree covers both. The line of division between industry and agriculture is determined in practice without any precise definition.

Czechoslovakia. — The Act respecting the eight-hour working day of 19 December 1918 applies to undertakings subject to the Industrial Code or carried on as factories, to undertakings, works and institutions carried on by the State, by public or private associations, funds, societies and companies, to mining undertakings, and to persons regularly employed for wages in agriculture and forestry who live outside the household of the employer (§ 1 of the Act). The report adds that, given the wide field of application of the Act, it has not been necessary to define the line of division which separates industry from agriculture.

Greece. — The Act No. 2269 of 1 July 1920 embodies the text of the Convention. For the Decrees issued in application of this Act see under Article 12. The report states that the competent authorities have not yet defined the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture. Nevertheless, for the application of the Convention, the definition of "industrial factories and workshops", as opposed to "agriculture", which is given in § 2 of the Royal Decree of 14-27 August 1913, holds good. Agriculture, cattle-breeding, forestry, and works of a similar nature having the character of the preparation of the producer's own products are excluded from the application of this Decree.

India. — See under Article 10.

Rumania. — §§ 34 and 35 of the Act of 9 April 1928 make the Act applicable to all industrial undertakings, which are defined in the same terms as in the Convention. The Ministry of Labour, after consulting the Superior Labour Council, decides the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

**Article 2.**

The working hours of persons employed in any public or private industrial undertakings in any branch thereof, other than an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed, shall not exceed eight in the day and forty-eight in the week, with the exceptions hereinafter provided for.

(a) The provisions of this Convention shall not apply to persons holding positions of supervision or management, nor to persons employed in a confidential capacity.

(b) Where by law, custom, or agreement between employers' and workers' organisations, or, where no such organisations exist, between employers' and workers' representatives, the hours of work on one or more days of the week are less than eight, the limit of eight hours may be exceeded on the remaining days of the week by the sanction of the competent public authority, or by agreement between such organisations or representatives; provided, however, that in no case under the provisions of this Article of the Convention, § 2, sub-section 1, of the Act of 14 June 1918 provisions that actual hours of work may not exceed eight in the day and forty-eight in the week. By § 1, last sub-section, the Act does not apply to work in establishments in which only the members of a family, under the authority either of the father or mother or of a guardian are employed, provided that these establishments have not been classified as dangerous, unhealthy and noxious and that steam boilers or mechanical power are not used. Persons invested with directive or confidential functions are also excepted by § 2, last sub-section, but not persons holding positions of supervision. The persons deemed to be invested with confidential functions have been defined by Royal Orders of 28 February 1922 (L. Š. 1923, Bel. 2), 29 August 1926 and 22 December 1927; these persons are, generally speaking, managers, heads of departments and foremen. As regards the provisions of paragraph (b) of this Article of the Convention, § 2, sub-section 2 of the Act provides that, when Saturday afternoon is a holiday, the limit of eight hours may be exceeded on the other days of the week in order to make the time up. This exception is subject to authorisation granted by Royal Order when certain conditions have been complied with, more particularly the conclusion of agreements between the employers and the workers concerned, represented either by the organisations to which they belong or, in default of such organisations, by delegates. Further, § 10 forbids employers to prolong the working hours beyond nine in the day. As regards work organised in shifts, § 3 of the Act allows the limit of eight hours in the day and forty-eight hours in the
week to be exceeded in undertakings in which work is organized in successive shifts, provided that the duration of actual work, averaged over a period of three weeks, does not exceed eight hours in the day and forty-eight hours in the week. The maximum daily hours of work of workers on the shift system are fixed by § 10 at ten hours.

Bulgaria. — The Eight and Six Hour Day Decree limits the hours of work of adult workers to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week except in undertakings which are dangerous to the health or life of the worker, where the work is limited to six hours in the day. Bulgarian legislation does not appear to contain the exceptions provided for in paragraphs (a), (b) and (c). The report states that when work is organized in three shifts, there is no extension of hours of work, but only a succession of shifts, each shift working 16 hours continuously once a week."

Czechoslovakia. — § 1 (1) of the Eight-Hour Day Act provides that "the actual hours of work of workers shall, in principle, not exceed 8 hours within 24 hours or 18 hours in the week. " No provisions concerning the categories covered by paragraph (a) are contained in the Act. As regards paragraph (b), § 3 (1) of the Act provides that "the distribution of the daily and weekly hours of work and the fixing of definite breaks in work shall be a matter for agreement between the employers and the workers. " In the Circular of the Ministry of Social Welfare of 21 March 1919 respecting the interpretation of the Act, this provision is amplified as follows: "The hours of work were fixed in principle only at eight per diem exclusive of breaks; a definite limitation is prescribed, namely, that the hours of work shall not exceed 48 in one week. Subject to this limitation, work may be distributed between the separate days of the week in any way that is convenient, by agreement with the workers; so that more than eight hours may be worked on certain days of the week in order that hours may be shorter on some particular day, e.g., Saturday. " The exception provided for in paragraph (c) is not mentioned in the report.

Greece. — Decrees have been issued in pursuance of the Act of 1 July 1920 in respect to the undertakings enumerated under Article 12 and stipulating that the hours of work shall not exceed eight in the day and forty-eight in the week. No reference is made in these Decrees to the exceptions provided for in paragraphs (a), (b) and (c).

India. — For the general conditions of application of the Convention to India see under Article 10. As regards the exception provided for in paragraph (a), § 29 of the Factories Act of 24 March 1911 as subsequently amended and § 24 of the Mines Act of 23 February 1928 reproduce the provision of the Convention. The provisions of paragraphs (b) and (c) have no application to India.

Rumania. — § 34 of the Act of 9 April 1928 fixes hours of work at eight in the day and 48 in the week, not including rest periods. Under §§ 3 and 36 the Act does not apply to undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed under the control of the father or mother, unless these undertakings have been classified as dangerous or unhealthy; to seamen and persons employed in transport by sea or on inland waterways; to persons holding positions of supervision or management or employed in a confidential capacity; to home workers; or to persons in domestic employment. § 37 provides that where by custom or agreement between the parties the hours of work on one or more days of the week are less than eight or work is completely stopped, the limit of eight hours may be exceeded on the remaining days of the week provided that the weekly limit of hours of work is observed and that the daily limit of hours of work does not exceed ten hours. § 38 lays down that where persons are employed in shifts they may be employed in excess of the hours laid down provided that the average number of hours over a period of three weeks does not exceed eight in the day or forty-eight in the week. § 43 provides that regulations issued by the Ministry of Labour after consultation with the Superior Labour Council and the Health Council, may reduce the hours of work in undertakings classified as unhealthy or dangerous.

ARTICLE 3.

The limit of hours of work prescribed in Article 2 may be exceeded in case of accident, actual or threatened, or in case of urgent work to be done to machinery or plant, or in case of "force majeure", but only so far as may be necessary to avoid serious interference with the ordinary working of the undertaking.

Belgium. — § 9 of the Act of 14 June 1921 provides that the limitation of working hours may be exceeded in the case of work undertaken to deal with an accident, actual or impending, urgent work required to be done to machinery or material and work imposed by force majeure or unforeseen necessity, in so far as its execution outside the normal working hours is indispensable to avoid serious hindrance to the normal working of the undertaking. The extra hours worked in pursuance of § 9 must be paid for as overtime (§ 10).
**Bulgaria.** — § 8 of the Order of 2 August 1919, issued in application of Decree No. 24, provides that "in exceptional and unforeseen cases such as fires, explosions, breakage of machinery or pipes, cases in which certain damage or danger is threatened to the undertaking or the staff, hours of work may exceed eight or six hours a day."

In such cases the workers have a right to compensatory rest.

**Czechoslovakia.** — § 6 (1) and (2) of the Act of 19 December 1918 provides that permits may be issued for prolonging hours of work by not more than two hours a day and during not more than sixteen weeks of the year when extra work is necessary owing to an interruption caused by force majeure or accidents, or in the public interest, or for other important reasons, and if no other measures are practicable. By § 6 (3) these extra hours of work must be specially remunerated as overtime. Further, the general limitation of overtime specified in § 6 (4) does not apply to emergency work, especially repairs, where danger to life, health, and the public interest is involved, provided that such work is only carried on for a limited period unavoidably necessary for technical reasons and cannot be carried out during the usual hours of work.

**Greece.** — Most of the Greek Decrees make special reference to these classes of exceptions. In other cases they appear to be covered by the ordinary provisions relating to exceptions.

**India.** — According to § 30 (3) of the Factories Act, the limitation of hours of work does not apply to work on urgent repairs. In the case of mines, the Mines Act provides that a mine manager may permit persons to be employed in excess of the statutory working hours on such work as may be necessary to protect the safety of the mine or of the persons employed therein.

**Rumania.** — Under § 41 of the Act of 9 April, 1928 the limitation of working hours may be exceeded in the case of urgent work absolutely necessary to prevent accidents, or where accidents have occurred to repair the damage done and restore the undertaking to normal working order, and in case of urgent repairs to be done to machinery and in other cases of force majeure, to remove all serious obstacles to the normal working of the undertaking. § 47 provides that in the exceptional cases covered by § 41, if permission for an exception has not been previously requested, the hours of work may be extended by the employer on his own authority, but for three days at most. In such cases the employer must inform the factory inspector within three days that such has been made of this provision.

**Article 4.**

The limit of hours of work prescribed in Article 2 may also be exceeded in those processes which are required by reason of the nature of the process to be carried on continuously by a succession of shifts, subject to the condition that the working hours shall not exceed fifty-six in the week on the average. Such regulation of the hours of work shall in no case affect any rest day and may be secured by the national law to the workers in such processes in compensation for the weekly rest day.

**Belgium.** — It is provided by § 4 of the Act of 14 June 1921 that the limitation of working hours laid down in § 2 may be exceeded in those processes in which, by reason of their nature, work cannot be interrupted. The duration of actual work for each worker may not however, exceed fifty-six hours in the week, averaged over a period of three weeks; the King may authorise the taking of this average over a period other than three weeks. Without prejudice to the rest periods prescribed by the Sunday Rest Act, the workers engaged in these processes must be given one or more compensatory holidays, the total duration of which may not be less than twenty-six full days in the year. (For the list of processes classified as continuous, see below under Article 7.)

**Bulgaria.** — The report states that the extension of hours of work to fifty-six in the week is not authorised by the Decree No. 24 of 1919.

**Czechoslovakia.** — § 4 (3), (4) and (5) of the Eight-Hour Day Act provides that, in certain groups of continuous undertakings, specified by the Minister for Social Welfare, "when it would not be otherwise possible to alternate the shifts (alternation of the night and day shifts) and the work cannot be interrupted for technical reasons without considerable disturbance to the manufacturing process, and attention and supervision are necessary," the daily or weekly hours of work fixed in § 1 may be extended provided that the shifts are so arranged that the 32 hours' period of rest of each worker falls on Sunday at least every third week and that the hours by which the weekly 48 hours of work are exceeded are paid as overtime. In the interpretative Circular of 21 March 1919 it is explained that this system is only to be employed where it is impossible to ensure alternation of shifts by means of a relief shift. It is further pointed out that the effect is "that one shift is allowed the 32 hours' period of rest during Saturday and Sunday, while the other two shifts work 16 hours each without a break. The period of rest for these two shifts is thus reduced to 24 hours in the week in question, and the working hours of all three shifts are extended from 48 to 56." (For the list of continuous processes, see below under Article 7).
Greece. — The Greek Decrees contain no provisions analogous to those of this Article. The Greek Government has, however, communicated in its report a list of processes which are considered in Greece as being necessarily continuous in character under Article 4. (For this list, see below under Article 7.)

India. — This Article does not apply to India. It may, however, be noted that the Indian Factories Act does not permit exceptions from the provision relating to the sixty-hour week in respect of continuous processes. Further, as regards the weekly rest in continuous processes, § 30 (1) of the Factories Act empowers the Local Government, subject to the control of the Governor General in Council, to exempt, on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons from the operation of the provisions of § 22 (1) which prescribes that "no person shall be employed in any factory on a Sunday, unless (a) he has had, or will have, a holiday for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday..." and provided that no substitution of another day for Sunday "shall be made as will result in any person working for more than ten consecutive days without a holiday for a whole day."

Rumania. — § 40 of the Act 9 April 1928 allows the limit of hours of work to be exceeded in continuous processes which have to be carried on by a succession of shifts, provided that the working hours do not exceed 56 in the week on the average. This does not affect the weekly rest for which provision is made by the Act of 17 June 1925.

ARTICLE 5.

In exceptional cases where it is recognised that the provisions of Article 2 cannot be applied, but only in such cases, agreements between workers' and employers' organisations concerning the daily limit of work over a longer period of time may be given the force of regulations, if the Government, to which these agreements shall be submitted, so decides.

The average number of hours worked per week over the number of weeks covered by any such agreement shall not exceed forty-eight.

Belgium. — § 5, sub-section 2, of the Act of 14 June 1921 provides that a limitation of working hours equivalent to that prescribed by § 2 may be established by the King over a period longer than a week in the exceptional cases in which it is recognised that the provisions of § 2 cannot be applied. This prerogative may only be exercised by the King as a result of, and in conformity with, agreements between the employers' and workers' organisations. (For the cases in which this exception has been applied, see below under Article 7. See also under Article 6.)

Bulgaria. — The Government reports that the Decree No. 24 of 1919 does not permit such agreements between employers and workers as are provided for in this Article. Under § 18 of the Health and Safety of Workers' Act, the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour, after consulting the Superior Labour and Social Insurance Council, may make modifications in working hours, but this has not yet been done.

Czecho-Slovakia. — § 1 (5) of the Act of 19 December 1918 provides that the Minister for Social Welfare in agreement with the Ministers concerned may allow for particular groups of undertakings, especially transport and agricultural undertakings, an arrangement of hours differing from the normal arrangement provided that the total number of hours of work over a period of four weeks does not exceed 192 hours. The Circular of 21 March 1919 specifies that only hours worked in excess of 192 in four weeks are to be counted as overtime. The Circular further defines the occupations which may be permitted to benefit by this arrangement as those "in which hours of work are usually extremely long, on account of the nature of the processes involved, so that 48 working hours cannot conveniently be spread over a week."

(For the list of these undertakings, see below under Article 7.)

Greece. — This Article does not apply.

Rumania. — § 39 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that the limitation of hours of work need not be made by the week if the nature of the work confines it to certain seasons or if it is affected by certain atmospheric and agricultural conditions; or if the limits laid down are found to be impracticable. In any case the average number of hours of work, calculated over the number of working weeks upon which the parties have agreed, may not exceed 48 in the week. The effective working hours of young persons under 18 years of age and of women may in no case exceed eight in the day or 48 in the week.

ARTICLE 6.

Regulations made by public authority shall determine for industrial undertakings:

(a) The permanent exceptions that may be allowed in preparatory or complementary work which must necessarily be carried on outside the limits laid down for the general working of an establishment, or for certain classes of workers whose work is essentially intermittent.

(b) The temporary exceptions that may be allowed, so that establishments may deal with exceptional cases of pressure of work.
These regulations shall be made only after consultation with the organisations of employers and workers concerned, if any such organisations exist. These regulations shall fix the maximum of additional hours in each instance, and the rate of pay for overtime shall not be less than one and one-quarter times the regular rate.

Belgium. — As regards permanent exceptions, § 9 of the Act of 14 June 1921 provides that the normal limitations of working hours may be exceeded in the case of preparatory or accessory work which must of necessity be executed outside the time assigned for the general process of production. The conditions of application of this provision are defined by Royal Orders. The King may also prescribe exceptions in the case of persons whose work is essentially of an intermittent nature. Temporary exceptions are permitted by § 7 of the Act, which provides that an authorisation to work hours in excess of the prescribed maximum may be granted as a result of an agreement between the employer and the organisation or organisations to which the majority of his workers belong, or, in default of an organisation, the majority of the workers. This authorisation is granted by the Minister of Labour on the report of the labour inspector or competent mining engineer, in order to enable an employer to cope with unusual increases of orders occasioned by unforeseen events. The authorisation may not be granted for more than three months in any one year; it must specify the period by which the normal working day may be prolonged, and such prolongation may not exceed two hours in the day. The report further states that the exceptional systems for seasonal industries, etc., provided for in §§ 5 and 6 of the Act of 14 June 1921, are considered by the Belgium Government to come under Article 6 (b) of the Convention. § 5 provides that the King may establish a limitation of working hours equivalent to the normal limitation, but spread over a period longer than a week, in the case of seasonal industries, undertakings where the sole motive force is the wind, and undertakings where the sole motive force is water and which may be brought to a standstill by drought or inundation. Under § 6 it may be prescribed by Royal Order that the normal limitation of working hours may be exceeded in industries or branches of industry in which the time necessary for the completion of the processes cannot, by reason of their nature, be precisely determined, and in industries in which the materials in course of treatment are subject to rapid deterioration. Overtime may also be authorised under § 7 in the case of industries covered by §§ 5 and 6. All work done in excess of the normal limitations of working hours in pursuance of §§ 5, 6, 7 and 9 must, under § 13, be paid for at a rate exceeding the normal remuneration by not less than 25 per cent. for the first two hours of overtime, 50 per cent. for every succeeding hour, and 100 per cent. for Sunday overtime. (For details of the application of these exceptions, see below under ARTICLE 7.)

Bulgaria. — The Government reports that the exceptions provided for in Article 6 of the Convention are not permitted by Decree No. 24, and that such exceptions are treated as contraventions rendering employers who make use of them liable to fines.

Czechoslovakia. — Permanent exceptions are permitted by § 7 (1) and (2) of the Eight-Hour Day Act in the case of subsidiary operations which must necessarily precede or follow work and for the handing over of work where this is necessary in the interests of continuity. For essentially intermittent work, the Czechoslovak Act, in § 7 (3), provides that in undertakings serving a public need the regular hours of work of particular groups of workers may be extended if the work does not occupy more than six hours a day although the worker has to remain on duty for longer hours. This extension can only be made in virtue of collective agreements sanctioned by the Minister for Social Welfare. The regulation of hours of work of railway-workers, however, is decided by the Minister for Railways, after consultation with the workers. § 7 (4) provides that additional hours worked in virtue of these provisions are to be paid for as overtime. As regards temporary exceptions in cases of pressure of work, permission to work overtime not exceeding two hours a day during not more than sixteen weeks in the year may be granted in virtue of § 6 of the Act by specified authorities if no other measures are practicable. The interpretative Circular further lays down that before permits are issued it should be considered whether the need for extra work can be met by increasing the number of workers, to the extent of working two shifts. § 6 (4) fixes the maximum amount of overtime which may be permitted: “Overtime shall not extend altogether beyond 20 weeks or 240 hours in the year.” By § 6 (3) these extra hours of work count as overtime and must be specially remunerated. As regards the rate of pay for overtime, the report states that, although §§ 6 (3) and 7 (4) do not lay down a minimum rate, the practice in Czechoslovakia, where there is a highly-developed system of collective agreements in all branches of wage-earning employment, is that overtime is paid in principle at rates exceeding one and one-quarter times the regular rate. (See also under ARTICLE 7.)

Greece. — No permanent exceptions are provided for in the Decrees. Temporary exceptions may be authorised by the competent authorities (prefects, factory
whose work is essentially intermittent; limitation of hours of work preparatory times the regular rate. 

rated at a rate at least one and a quarter for complementary and preparatory work, 

increasing production. Additional hours and work required by the necessity of 

exempt from the normal 

production of articles of prime necessity, 

exceptions, § 30 (2) of the Factories Act 

hours worked in excess of sixty in any 

hours of overtime permissible is defined 

the factory to deal with an exceptional 

hours of overtime permissible is defined 

in § 46 of the Mines Act that the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, exempt any local area or any mine or group or class of mines or any part of a mine or any class of persons from the operation of all or any specified provisions of the Act, and, on the occurrence of any public emergency, a Local Government may, by an order in writing, confer any exemption which might be conferred by the Governor General in Council. No exemptions have, however, been granted in respect of hours of work in mines. As regards temporary exceptions, § 30 (2) of the Factories Act authorises the Local Government, by general or special order, to exempt for such period as may be specified in the order and on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, any factory from all or any of the provisions of §§ 21, 22, 27 and 28 relating to hours of work, breaks and weekly rests, on the ground that such exemption is necessary in order to enable the factory to deal with an exceptional press of work. Under § 31 of the Factories Act, hours worked in excess of sixty in any one week in virtue of exemptions granted for complementary and preparatory work, intermittent work, continuous processes, production of articles of prime necessity, or seasonal industries, are to be remunerated at a rate at least one and a quarter times the regular rate.

India. — As regards permanent exceptions § 30 (1) of the Indian Factories Act empowers the Local Government, subject to the control of the Governor General in Council, to exempt, on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, preparatory and complementary and essentially intermittent work from the operation of the provision for a sixty-hour week and eleven-hour day. As regards mines, it is provided in § 46 of the Mines Act that the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, exempt any local area or any mine or group or class of mines or any part of a mine or any class of persons from the operation of all or any specified provisions of the Act, and, on the occurrence of any public emergency, a Local Government may, by an order in writing, confer any exemption which might be conferred by the Governor General in Council. No exemptions have, however, been granted in respect of hours of work in mines. As regards temporary exceptions, § 30 (2) of the Factories Act authorises the Local Government, by general or special order, to exempt for such period as may be specified in the order and on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, any factory from all or any of the provisions of §§ 21, 22, 27 and 28 relating to hours of work, breaks and weekly rests, on the ground that such exemption is necessary in order to enable the factory to deal with an exceptional press of work. Under § 31 of the Factories Act, hours worked in excess of sixty in any one week in virtue of exemptions granted for complementary and preparatory work, intermittent work, continuous processes, production of articles of prime necessity, or seasonal industries, are to be remunerated at a rate at least one and a quarter times the regular rate.

Rumania. — §§ 42 and 45 of the Act of 9 April 1928 exempt from the normal limitation of hours of work preparatory or complementary work which must necessarily be carried out outside the normal working hours; those classes of workers whose work is essentially intermittent; and work required by the necessity of increasing production. Additional hours worked in virtue of the exceptions for preparatory and complementary work and for increasing production must be paid at at least 25% more than the normal rate. These exceptions are to be defined in detail by regulations prepared after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations, where such exist.

**Article 8.**

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every employer shall be required:

(a) To notify by means of the posting of notices in conspicuous places in the works or other suitable place, or by such other method as may be approved by the Government, the hours at which work begins and ends, and where work is carried on by shifts, the hours at which each shift begins and ends. These hours shall be so fixed that the duration of the work shall not exceed the limits prescribed by this Convention, and when so notified they shall not be changed except with such notice and in such manner as may be approved by the Government.

(b) To notify in the same way such rest intervals accorded during the period of work as are not reckoned as part of the working hours.

(c) To keep a record in the form prescribed by law or regulation in each country of all additional hours worked in pursuance of Articles 3 and 6 of this Convention.

It shall be made an offence against the law to employ any person outside the hours fixed in accordance with paragraph (a), or during the intervals fixed in accordance with paragraph (b).

In addition, please forward specimen copies of the notices and forms specified in this Article.

Belgium. — §§ 15, 16 and 17 of the Act of 14 June 1921 contain provisions regarding the methods of making known to the workers the hours of work and any alterations that may be made. The Act provides inter alia for the posting of notices specifying the hours at which the normal working day begins and ends and the breaks, and for the keeping of special registers showing the number of hours of overtime worked and the number of workers who have been employed. The competent authorities have not drawn up forms for these notices and registers.

Bulgaria. — It is provided in § 14 of the Order of 2 August 1919, issued in application of Decree No. 24, that every undertaking must insert provisions in its works regulations corresponding to those of the aforesaid Decree relating to hours of work and rest.

Czechoslovakia. — The Industrial Code prescribes in § 88 (a) that workshop regulations must be posted in all undertakings employing more than 20 workers specifying inter alia the working days, hours at which work begins and ends, and times of breaks. As regards undertakings employing fewer than 20 workers, the report remarks that the posting of workshop regulations in small factories and workshops does not appear to be necessary as employers and workers in such undertakings are in much closer personal contact than in large undertakings. However, the report adds, the
question of workshop regulations is dealt with in the collective agreements which also apply to undertakings employing less than 20 workers.

**Greece.** — The Decrees provide that in every establishment time tables are to be posted containing the names and exact occupations of the persons employed therein, the hours of the beginning and cessation of work and breaks (if any); such time-tables are countersigned by the inspector having jurisdiction or, if absent thereof, by the competent police authorities.

**India.** — §§ 35 and 36 of the Indian Factories Act and §§ 28, 32 and 33 of the Mines Act contain provisions to give effect to this Article.

**Romania.** — The report states that § 57 of the Regulations for the application of the Act of 9 April 1928 — the Regulations came into force on 5 February 1929 — requires the heads of undertakings subject to the Act to notify by means of the posting of notices in a conspicuous and permanent fashion the hours at which work begins and ends and the rest periods. Any alteration in the time-table must be brought to the notice of the employees in the same manner 24 hours before it comes into force. Administrative measures will be taken to require the heads of undertakings to keep registers in which overtime hours worked must be entered.

**ARTICLE 10 (British India only).**

In British India the principle of a sixty-hour week shall be adopted for all workers in the industries and trades at present covered by the factory acts administered by the Government of India, in mines, and in such branches of railway work as shall be specified for this purpose by the competent authority. Any modification of this limitation made by the competent authority shall be subject to the provisions of Articles 6 and 7 of this Convention. In other respects the provisions of this Convention shall not apply to India, but further provisions may be made with respect to the hours of work in India shall be considered at a future meeting of the General Conference.

**India.** — In execution of this Article the Government of India has caused legislation to be enacted introducing the following limitations of working hours: (a) In factories, which are defined in § 2 (3) of the Factories Act as "any premises wherein, or within the precincts of which, on any one day in the year not less than ten persons are simultaneously employed and any manufacturing process is carried on, whether any such power is used in aid thereof or not, which have been declared by the Local Government, by notification in the local official gazette, to be factories", no person may be employed for more than sixty hours in any one week (§ 27) or more than eleven hours in any one day (§ 28). (b) In mines, which are defined in the Mines Act as "any excavation wherein any operation for the purpose of searching for or obtaining minerals has been or is being carried on", and including "all works, machinery, tramways, and sidings, whether above or below ground, in or adjacent to or belonging to a mine" provided that it shall not include any part of such premises on which a manufacturing process is being carried on unless such process is a process for coke making or the dressing of minerals", no person may be employed for more than six days in any one week and, above ground, for more than sixty hours in any one week, or, below ground, for more than thirty-six hours in any one week (§ 28). The Act was amended during the year in order to restrict hours of work in mines to a maximum of 12 hours in any consecutive period of 24 hours and to provide for work by a system of shifts. The amendment will not, however, come into force until 7 April 1930. (c) As regards railways, Article 10 prescribes that the sixty-hour week should be adopted "in such branches of railway work as shall be specified for this purpose by the competent authority". In pursuance of this provision the Government of India decided, by Order of 3 September 1921, that the sixty-hour week should be adopted for workshop staff and station staff not employed in connection with the working of trains. By a later decision of 21 January 1922, the above Order was modified with the effect of excluding the following classes of electrical workers on railways: (i) Running and maintenance staff of power-house; (ii) Maintenance staff in shops who can be classed as millwrights; (iii) Maintenance staff on outside work who are required to work on maintenance of electric installation, distribution mains, etc. The report states that the question of extending the application of the sixty-hour week has been for some time under consideration by the Government of India. The matter was referred to the Indian Railway Conference Association which, at a meeting held in October 1927, adopted a resolution containing rules. This resolution has been approved by the Railway Board in respect of the State managed railways and by the several boards of directors concerned in respect of company managed railways. The question of their enforcement is under consideration.
ARTICLE 12 (Greece only).

In the application of this Convention to Greece, the date at which its provisions shall be brought into operation in accordance with Article 19 may be extended to not later than 1 July, 1924, in the case of the following industrial undertakings:

(1) Carbon-bisulphide works,
(2) Acids works,
(3) Tanneries,
(4) Paper mills,
(5) Printing works,
(6) Sawmills,
(7) Warehouses for the handling and preparation of tobacco,
(8) Surface mining,
(9) Foundries,
(10) Line works,
(11) Dye works,
(12) Glassworks (blowers),
(13) Gas works (firemen),
(14) Loading and unloading merchandise;
and to not later than 1 July, 1924, in the case of the following industrial undertakings:

(1) Mechanical industries: Machine shops for engines, safes, scales, beds, tacks, shells (sporting), iron foundries, bronze foundries, tin shops, plating shops, manufactories of hydraulic apparatus;
(2) Constructional industries: Lime-kilns, cement works, plasterers' shops, tile yards, manufactories of bricks and pavements, potteries, marble yards, excavating and building work;
(3) Textile industries: Spinning and weaving mills of all kinds except dye works;
(4) Food industries: Flour and grist-mills, bakeries, macaroni factories, manufactories of wines, beers, and drinks, oil works, breweries, manufactories of ice and carbonated drinks, manufactories of confectioners' products and chocolate, manufactories of sausages and preserves, slaughterhouses, and butcher shops;
(5) Chemical industries: Manufactories of synthetic colours, glassworks (except the blowers), manufactories of essence of turpentine and tartar, manufactories of oxygen and pharmaceutical products, manufactories of lila seed oil, manufactories of glycerine, manufactories of calcium carbide, gas works (except the firemen);
(6) Leather industries: Shoe factories, manufactories of leather goods;
(7) Paper and printing industries: Manufactories of envelopes, record books, boxes, bags, bookbinding, lithography and zinc-engraving shops;
(8) Clothing industries: Clothing shops, underwear and trimmings, workshops for pressing, workshops for bed coverings, artificial flowers, feathers, and trimmings, hat and umbrella factories;
(9) Woodworking industries: Joiners' shops, coopers' sheds, wagon factories, manufactories of furniture and chairs, picture-framing establishments, brush and broom factories;
(10) Electrical industries: Power houses, shops for electrical installations;
(11) Transportation by land: Employees on railroads and street cars, firemen, drivers, and carters.

Greece. — The Government reports that, in pursuance of the Act of 1 July 1920, Decrees have been promulgated regulating the hours of work in:

 Manufacture of leather goods and trunks,
 paper and printing industries (manufacture of envelopes, record books, boxes, bags, and bookbinding, lithography and zinc-engraving shops),
 tobacco factories (defined as enclosed spaces where tobacco is cut or packed in boxes or made up into cigarettes),
 paper-making industry,
 underground work in mines,
 manufactures of lead shot and lead pipes,
 manufacture of cement squares, slaughterhouses.

The Government further states that the application of the eight-hour day was approved by the Advisory Labour Council during 1928 in the case of pork butchers, building, railway construction, etc., and to continuous processes. (See also introductory note above.)

ARTICLE 13 (Rumania only).

In the application of this Convention to Rumania the date at which its provisions shall be brought into operation in accordance with Article 19 may be extended to not later than 1 July, 1924.

Rumania. — The report states that for a large part of Rumania, and the most important industrially (Transylvania and the Banat) the legal eight-hour day and 48-hour week was already in force in 1919 under Decree No. XII of the former Directorial Council. In the other provinces the legal limitation of hours of work to eight in the day was effected by older measures which dealt especially with the employment of women and children. Until the Act of 9 April 1928 came into force the eight-hour day actually existed to a large extent in industrial undertakings throughout the country, either under collective agreements or works regulations. The Act of 9 April 1928 has brought the legal eight-hour day into force throughout the country.

ARTICLE 14.

The operation of the provisions of this Convention may be suspended in any country by the Government in the event of war or other emergency endangering the national safety.

In addition, please state whether such suspension has been effected, and, if so, for what industries, periods and areas.

Belgium. — § 12 of the Act of 14 June 1921 provides that the King may suspend the operation of the limitations prescribed in or provided for by the Act: (1) in case of war or other event menacing danger to the national security; (2) whenever in the opinion of the Superior Labour Council and the Superior Council of
Industry and Commerce it is a national necessity that the means of exchange indispensable for the importation of the requisites of existence be ensured by the development of export trade. The report states that up to the present no advantage has been taken of these powers.

**Bulgaria.** — No application has been made of this Article.

**Czechoslovakia.** — No application has been made of this Article.

**Greece.** — The report states that the application of the Convention was adjourned to one year after the signature of the Treaty of Lausanne, this action being necessitated by the long period of war through which the country had passed and the settlement in the country of the refugees whose numbers equal one-quarter of the native population.

**India.** — No application has been made of this Article.

**Rumania.** — § 44 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that in case of war or other emergency endangering the national safety the provisions of the Act may be suspended by decision of the Council of Ministers. The report states that no use has been made of this power up to the present.

### III.

**Article 7 of the Convention is as follows:**

Each Government shall communicate to the International Labour Office:

(a) A list of the processes which are classed as being necessarily continuous in character under Article 4;
(b) Full information as to working of the agreements mentioned in Article 5; and
(c) Full information concerning the regulations made under Article 6 and their application.

The International Labour Office shall make an annual report thereon to the General Conference of the International Labour Organisation.

Please give:

(a) A list of the processes which are deemed to be necessarily continuous in character for the purposes of Article 4.
(b) Full information as to working of the agreements mentioned in Article 5, i.e. a list of such agreements, showing the industries and classes of workers covered, together with, as far as possible, the texts of such agreements.
(c) Full information concerning the regulations made under Article 6 and their application, i.e. a list of such regulations, together with the texts thereof, in so far as they may not already have been communicated under I of this report, at the same time stating what method was adopted for the consultation of organisations of employers and workers.

**Belgium.** — The report of the Belgian Government contains the following information supplied in application of Article 7 of the Convention:

(a) Necessarily continuous processes (**Article 4**).

The report explains that the 56-hour week is not worked in all the processes contained in this list, which includes processes such as the manufacture of steel by converters and the rolling of iron and steel which are carried out continuously for six days and interrupted from Sunday morning to Monday morning. It is also pointed out that the extent of the continuous processes varies from one undertaking to another in the same industry; it depends upon the plant or whether the undertaking is or is not a branch of an undertaking working continuously. Finally, the report states that the list of continuous processes changes with the introduction of new industries or new processes; it is not, therefore, strictly limitative, and processes not mentioned may possibly be assimilated to those contained in the list.

1. **Undertakings inspected by the Mines Department**

**N.-B.** In this list, the expression "processes necessary for the working of a machine" means:
(a) the running of the machine, (b) the feeding and product removing processes; (c) the running of any auxiliary apparatus the working of which is necessary for that of the principal machine.

**In all industries.** — Power production (steam, electricity, compressed air) necessary for the continuous processes of a given industry; maintenance of first班 cannot be put out and rely every day; watching of premises and plant; hygiene and first-aid services, in so far as necessary for the continuous processes.

**In underground mines and quarries.** — Processes necessary for the continuous working of pumps and ventilators; processes necessary for the repair of shafts and galleries which demand continuous maintenance work; work in connection with shafts which it is necessary, for safety reasons, to be able to use at any time; deep soundings; processes for the congelation of earth in the sinking of shafts.

**Surface quarries.** — Processes necessary for the continuous working of pumps.

**Coke works and coal bye-products works.** — Processes necessary for the working of coke-furnaces; processes necessary for the working of apparatus fed or traversed by coke-furnace gas; processes necessary for the continuous working of apparatus for the recovery or treatment of bye-products.

**Coal amalgam factories.** — Nil (but see above under **In all industries**).

**Lime, cement works, etc.** — Processes necessary for the working of furnaces, whether normal combustion or slow combustion during specified hours, according to the type of furnace.

**Works for the roasting, calcination, etc. of ores.** — Processes necessary for the continuous working of furnaces.

**Blast furnaces.** — Processes necessary for the working of blast furnaces; processes necessary for the working of apparatus fed or traversed by blast furnace gas.

**Steel and iron works.** — Processes necessary for the working of the refining apparatus (furnaces, converters, etc.)

**Iron and steel rolling mills.** — Processes necessary for the working of the roll trains.

**Zinc works.** — Nil (but see above under **In all industries**).

**Lead and silver works.** — Processes necessary for the working of furnaces used in treating ores, refining and desilverisation of crude lead, including testing.

**Copper, tin and nickel works, etc.** — Processes necessary for the working of furnaces used in the treatment of ores and mattes and in refining metal.
Zinc and copper rolling mills, etc. — Processes necessary for the working of the roll trains and the recoating furnaces.

II. Undertakings inspected by the Factory Inspectorate.

Gas works. — Processes necessary for the production and distribution of gas.

Waterworks. — Pumping (boilers and steam pumps); filtering (continuous maintenance work on the filter beds and working of the sluices for distributing the water over the filters).

Artificial ice works. — Processes necessary for maintaining the requisite degree of cold.

Electricity works. — (See above under I).

Glass works. — Glass blowing: work in connection with the hot glass, i.e. melting furnaces (blowing) and annealing, and accessory work (gazogenes, engine-men, firemen, etc.); mechanical glass works: work in connection with the melting furnaces, and accessory work (gazogenes, engine-men, firemen, etc.).

Crystal and hollow glass works. — Maintenance of fires, particularly for heating of furnaces and work in connection with the arches or colours.

Plate glass works. — Watching of furnaces and work in connection with gazogenes, workshops (polishing processes), and accessory work (gazogenes, engine-men, firemen, etc.).

Manufacture of refractory products. — Work in connection with the roasting of these products.

Chemical works. — All processes involving chemical operations in which time is an important factor; manufacture of sulphuric acid, sulphate of soda, nitric acid, carbon disulphide, sodium sulphide, chloride of lime, chemically pure acids.

Manufacture of artificial silk. — Collodion processes: work in connection with the furnaces for the concentration of acids used for the recovery of alcohol; other work in the distillery and the spinning-mill; viscous and acetate of cellulosic processes: work in connection with the chemical preparation of the pulp, and in the spinning-mill.

Manufacture of jern and apple paste. — Boiling, pressing and refining.

Coke furnaces. — (See under I above).

Cement works. — (See under I above).

Tar and wood distilleries. — Tar: processes necessary for the working of the distilling furnaces and apparatus; wood: processes necessary for the preparation of the raw material for distilling; processes necessary for the manufacture of bye-products (formaldehyde, acetate of soda, etc.).

Manufacture of ceramic tiles. — Work in connection with the baking of the products and the heating of the drying apparatus.

Mechanical brick and tile works. — Processes necessary for the baking of the bricks in vaulted furnaces, circular or Hoffman furnaces, and zig-zag furnaces; all necessary operations (artificial drying, watching of ventilators and apparatus for the recovery of sulphurous anhydride).

Manufacture of alcohol and yeast. — Work in connection with the malting of grain for the manufacture of alcohol; work connected with the production of yeast; work connected with the manufacture of alcohol from molasses.

Sugar factories. — Processes necessary for the manufacture of raw sugar.

Gelatine factories. — Treatment of the bones by acids and the successive neutralisation processes; boiling of the liquids and the drying processes.

Manufacture of soldered or non-soldered steel tubes. — Processes necessary for the manufacture of these tubes.

Manufacture of oxygen and hydrogen. — Process of electrolysis of a solution of potassium (work in connection with the batteries of the electrolyzers); process of liquefaction of air (work in connection with the columns of liquefaction and distillation); in both processes, the work of compression of the gases and filling of the receptacles.

Manufacture of galvanised iron and cast-iron. — Processes necessary for the maintenance of the annealing furnaces and zinc baths.

Enamel works. — Work in connection with the baking of the enamels.

Malt works. — Watching and work in connection with the germination.

Manufacture of china and porcelain. — Work in connection with the baking of the products.

(b) Agreements provided for in Article 5.

Under §§ 5, sub-section 2, of the Act of 14 June 1921, Royal Orders have been issued authorising special time-tables for the following classes of workers: (1) travelling signalling squads on the State railways; (2) workers of the State railways and of the Electricity Office whose places of employment are variable; (3) labourers and other permanent way workers employed by the State railways to open padlocked level-crossing gates; (4) workers of the Telegraph and Telephone Department whose places of employment are variable. In each case, agreement with the draft regulations communicated by the State Railways Department was notified by the trade union representing the majority of the workers; as regards the travelling signalling squads, the only one consists of a smaller number of workers, agreement was given by means of a properly organised referendum.

(c) Regulations made under Article 6.

(1) Permanent exceptions. — Permanent exceptions have been made by Royal Order under § 6 of the Act of 14 June 1921 for preparatory and complementary work in the baking industry (workers on preparatory work being allowed to begin at 2 a.m. and workers on complementary work to finish at 10 p.m. provided that they do not exceed eight hours in the day and forty-eight hours in the week), and for the intermittent work of certain classes of workers on the State railways (level crossing keepers, point-keepers, level crossing and point keepers, ticket collectors and waiting-room attendants at minor stations, men and women ticket distributors, persons engaged in delivering notices, bridge-keepers and assistant bridge-keepers), and telegram distributors.

(2) Temporary exceptions. — Authorisations to work overtime in virtue of § 7 of the Act of 14 June 1921, and subject to the conditions laid down in that section were granted during 1928 in respect of undertakings in the following industries: building, carpentering and cabinet-making, food, textiles, metals, clothing, artistic and precision printing, hides and skins, tobacco, chemicals, paper, special industries, ceramics, quarries, glass works and transport. The total number of authorisations was 1,180, and the 48,457 workers affected worked 9,515,285 hours overtime. Under § 5 of the Act, Royal Orders granting exceptions for seasonal industries have been issued in the following cases: undertakings where the sole motive force employed is wind or water; hire of horse-drawn motor vehicles; manufacture and repairing of automobiles and cycles, and upholsterers; hand manufacture of firearms; building of public works; quarries and brick-making; clothing and subsidiary industries; food industries; retting of flax in ponds; manufacture of biscuits, gingerbread and marzipan; retting of flax in streams; manufacture of biscuits, gingerbread and marzipan; retting of flax in ponds; lemonade and aerated water factories; laundries in holidays resorts; electric tramways along the coast; confectioners' shops in Bruges and along the coast; timber saw-mills, manufacture of straw hats; preservation of eggs by the freezing process. Under § 6 of the Act, general authorisations to work up to a specified maximum number of hours overtime have been granted by Royal Orders in the following cases: furniture removal, taxicab, carrying and carting undertakings; load-
ing and unloading work in ports; fish curing and preserving of vegetables and fruit; transportation, loading and unloading of goods, shunting of trucks, weighing of trucks and other vehicles (in so far as necessary to an industrial undertaking); plate-glass making; manufacture of artificial slates; manufacture of varnish (boiling guns and finishing varnishes); manufacture of gum, gelatine and bone glue (emptying moulds, cutting, placing on sieves and carrying to gelatine drying rooms); vulcanising of rubber goods (vulcanising); electroplating (electrolytic baths); galvanisation of iron and cast iron by a hot process (iron galvanising); manufacture of artificial silk by the collision process (denitrifying, bleaching and drying); glazing of powders; manufacture of photographic requirements (coating and drying photographic plates, films and papers and treating them with barytes); manufacture of composition mouldings for frames; manufacture of glucose and of amalgams of cement and stones; manufacture of artificial wool; electricians employed by the Electricity Office; printing and kindred industries (binding, boarding, stitching, paper-making, lithography, photogravure and heliogravure, phototypography, colouring, typography—except the printing of daily newspapers—, machine-rooms, type casting, block making, electrotype). The exceptions granted under §§ 5 and 6 of the Act were made subject to a twofold consultation: (a) that of the most representative employers’ and workers’ organisations: the Belgian Central Industrial Committee, the Belgian Trade Union Committee, and the Belgian Confederation of Christian Trade Unions; (b) that of the Superior Labour Council, composed of equal numbers of employers, workers and sociologists.

Bulgaria. — The Government states that the list and information required by this Article are not furnished because the Decree No. 24 of 1919 does not permit the exceptions allowed by Articles 4, 5 and 6.

Czecho-Slovakia. — In application of Article 7 the Czechoslovak Government has communicated the following information to the Office:

(a) Necessarily continuous processes (Article 4).

The undertakings “in which the process is continuous” and which are permitted, “for the purpose of the regulation of shifts, to extend the daily or weekly hours” on condition “that the employed persons shall have their 32 hours’ weekly rest at least every third week on a Sunday, and that the hours by which the weekly total of 48 hours is exceeded when the shifts are alternated shall be paid for as overtime”, are given in § 11 of the Order of 11 January 1919 as follows:

(1) Ironworks.
(2) Metal works.
(3) Enamelling works.
(4) Lime kilns, plaster of Paris, magnesite, dolomite works.
(5) Brick works, works for the manufacture of fireproof stones, carbon biscuit and emery cupolas.
(6) Kaolin washing works.
(7) Pottery works.
(8) Glass works.
(9) Works for the manufacture of carbon electrodes and other objects made from plastic carbon.
(10) Works for the manufacture of goods from wood fibre.
(11) Works for the manufacture of accumulators.
(12) Works for the manufacture of cork sheets.
(13) Works for the manufacture of wood fibre cellulose.
(14) Water mills and windmills.
(15) Malt works and breweries.
(16) Works for the drying and sulphurating of hops.
(17) Sugar factories.
(18) Liquorice works.
(19) Syrup and grape sugar (starch sugar) works.
(20) Drying works for chicory, beet, potatoes, vegetables and fruit.
(21) Jam, fruit pulp, and sausage factories.
(22) Spirit distilleries and refineries, yeast works.
(23) Starch works.
(24) Winning of natural mineral waters and their salts.
(25) Chemical works.
(26) Fat works.
(27) Petroleum refineries and kerosene works.
(28) Works for the manufacture of gas for light, heat and power.
(29) Independent electrical works, and electrical works which only form a subsidiary part of an undertaking.

(b) Agreements provided for in Article 5.

The Czechoslovak Government reports that, in virtue of § 1 (5) of the Act, § 1 of the Order of 11 January 1919 provides that in the following undertakings, the arrangement of hours of work may be spread over a period of four weeks, provided that the total number of hours of work within this period does not exceed 192 hours:

(1) ...........
(2) ...........
(3) Tile works.
(4) Glass works with continuous furnaces.
(5) Pottery works in which melting and muffle furnaces are used.
(6) Foundries, for work in connection with cupola furnaces.
(7) Mills and saw works driven by water.
(8) Breweries in the summer.
(9) The manufacture of soda-water in the summer.
(10) Building operations in work on the building site.
(11) Waterworks.
(12) Work in connection with the procuring of natural ice.
(13) Forwarding and transport undertakings.
(14) River and sea baths.
(15) Electricity works.
(16) Lumbering.

(c) Regulations made under Article 6.

(1) Permanent exceptions. — Under § 7 of the Act no special permission is required as regards additional hours worked in the case of subsidiary operations which necessarily precede or follow the processes of production. As examples of such operations the Act cites the heating of boilers, cleaning of workrooms, feeding of animals, etc., to which the Circular of 21 March 1919 adds the setting of the dough in bakeries making black bread. The handing over of work, in cases where it is necessary for the continuity of operations, is assimilated to preparatory and complementary work. As examples the Circular of 21 March 1919 cites reporting for duty on railways, handing over cash in post offices, transference of waiters' duties in restaurants, etc. As regards intermittent work the exceptions for undertakings serving a public need permitted by § 7 (3) of the Act must be specified in collective agreements sanctioned by the Ministers concerned, except in the case of
railways, where they are decided by the Minister for Railways after consultation with the workers' representatives. The only indication regarding the categories of workers to whom these exceptions may be applied is given in the Circular of 21 March 1919 (as particular groups of workers in the railway and postal services, and inspectors employed by public utility undertakings. (See also above under Article 6.)

(2) Temporary exceptions. — The report gives the following statistics of overtime for which permission was granted under § 6 of the Act during the period 1 January to 31 October 1928: Permits were granted to 4,760 undertakings (0.78 per cent. of the total number of undertakings covered by accident insurance, or 6.2 per cent. after deduction of agricultural undertakings); the total number of workers employed in these 4,760 undertakings was 873,865 (22.0 per cent. of the total number of wage-earners or 67.9 per cent. of the wage-earners covered by accident-insurance); the number of workers who worked overtime was 251,484 (6.3 per cent. of the total number of wage-earners or 19.5 per cent. of the wage-earners covered by accident-insurance); the total number of hours of overtime expressed in working days of eight-hours was 1,670,878 or 278,479.7 working weeks.

Greece. — In application of Article 7 the Greek Government has supplied the following information:

(a) Necessarily continuous processes (Article 4).

(1) Tank-furnace glassworks.
(2) Breweries.
(3) Alcohol distilleries.
(4) Manufacture of sulphuric acid, hydrochloric acid and nitric acid.
(5) Electricity works (lighting and power).
(6) Gas works.
(7) Lime and cement works.
(8) Lead works.
(9) Manufacture of ether.
(10) Ore roasting furnaces.

(b) Agreements provided for in Article 5.

No such agreements have been made.

(c) Regulations made under Article 6.

See under Articles 6 and 12.

India. — The Government has forwarded the following information in application of Article 7:

(a) Necessarily continuous processes (Article 4).

The Indian Factories Act does not permit of exemptions from the provisions relating to the sixty-hour week in respect of continuous processes.

(b) Agreements provided for in Article 5.

Article 5 does not apply to India.

(c) Regulations made under Article 6.

Temporary exceptions. — Rules have been made providing that where women are employed on overtime the maximum weekly hours may not exceed 66. In the case of men, the following limits have been fixed by the Local Governments by rules made under § 37 of the Factories Act: Madras, Coorg, and Mysore, 12 hours daily (ordinarily) or 72 hours weekly; Bombay, 72 hours weekly; Bengal, 40 hours overtime monthly; United Provinces, 12 hours daily; Punjab, 12 hours daily; Bihar and Orissa; 12 hours daily; Central Provinces, 72 hours weekly; Assam, 12 hours daily; North West Frontier Provinces, Ajmer-Merwara, 12 hours daily. The report adds that as the organisation of workers is not sufficiently developed in India it has not been possible to take advantage of the provisions of Article 6 regarding consultation with responsible associations of employers and workers.

Rumania. — The report contains the following information under Article 7:

(a) Necessarily continuous processes (Article 4).

A list of necessarily continuous processes will be drawn up after the promulgation and publication of the regulations for the application of the Act of 9 April 1928. At present for administrative purposes necessarily continuous processes are held to be those which are enumerated in § 16 of the Regulations under the Weekly Rest Act of 1925.

(b) Agreements provided for in Article 5.

No such agreements have been concluded.

(c) Regulations made under Article 6.

The following employments are considered as permanent exceptions: heating of boilers, cleaning of workrooms, preparation of machinery so that the factory is ready at the hour when work begins, and other similar work; the classes of workers whose work is essentially intermittent, as, for example, railway and market porters, men in charge of rafts, watchmen, horse-drivers and other similar classes. Work required by the necessity of increasing production is treated as a temporary exception, which is allowed only by special permission of the Ministry of Labour, after consultation with the Superior Labour Council. The permission is given only if the report of the factory inspector shows that the pressure of work is due to unforeseen events, that it is in the public interest and that an agreement has been concluded between the employers and workers concerned.

IV.

Article 16 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or
(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates and possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention. Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have influenced the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.
Belgium. — The Government states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo or to the mandated territories, as local conditions do not at present permit of such application.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

V.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 6 September 1926.

Bulgaria. — 1 July 1924.

Czechoslovakia. — 18 March 1922.

Greece. — 13 June 1921, general date of coming into force of the Convention. The report, however, indicates that the date of coming into effect in Greece was 10 July 1920, although the practical operation of the provisions of the Convention was suspended until one year after the signature of the Treaty of Lausanne, i.e. 24 July 1924. See also introductory note above.

India. — In the case of factories, the provisions came into effect on 1 July 1922 and, in the case of mines, on 1 July 1924. In the case of railways, the instructions were issued by Government in September 1921.

Rumania. — See the summary of the report upon Article 18 of the Convention.

VI.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The factory inspectorate and the engineers of the Corps of Mines supervise the application of the legislation and regulations in question in the undertakings within their sphere of inspection. An abstract of the contraventions reported is published monthly in the Revue du Travail.

Bulgaria. — The application of the Bulgarian Decree is entrusted to the factory inspectors under the control of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour.

Czechoslovakia. — The supervision of the Eight-Hour Act devolves upon the factory inspectors as regards industry and upon the mines inspectors as regards mines.

Greece. — The application of the relevant laws and regulations is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the inspector of mines.

India. — The Factories Act is administered by the Local Governments, subject to the control of the Governor General in Council, through their factory inspectors. It is the Local Governments who are empowered to make rules for the application of the Act, although a model set of rules was drawn up by the Government of India in 1922 and communicated to the Local Governments for their guidance. In addition to the factory inspectors the Local Governments may, under § 4 (4), appoint other public officers to act as inspectors and the District Magistrates are all inspectors under the Act. The Mines Act is administered by the Government of India through inspectors of mines who are appointed for the whole of British India by the Governor General in Council (§ 4). Nevertheless, the Local Governments may appoint mining boards and committees which may exercise such of the powers of the inspectors as they may consider necessary for the purpose of deciding or reporting upon any matter referred to them (§§ 10-12) and the District Magistrates may exercise certain of the powers and perform certain of the duties of inspectors, subject to the general or special orders of the Local Government. In the case of railways, the authority for the enforcement of application is the agent of the line.

Rumania. — § 49 of the Act of 9 April 1928 makes the inspectorate appointed under the Act concerning the organisation of the factory inspectorate of 13 April 1927, responsible for reporting infringements of the Act.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the factory inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under VI.

Bulgaria. — The report states that the Convention is applied in a satisfactory manner in industrial undertakings. Contraventions generally take place in small undertakings where supervision is more difficult owing to the distance from the factory inspectors' offices. These contraventions have various causes, the most important being the fact that patriarchal relations often exist between employers.
and workers. During 1928, fines amounting to about 400,000 leva were imposed.

Czechoslovakia. — The Ministry for Social Welfare states that detailed information regarding the action taken by the factory inspection services in the course of their duties in supervising the application of the provisions relating to the eight-hour day will be available when the report of the Czechoslovak factory inspection services for the year 1928 is published (the report for 1927 was issued in December 1928).

India. — Detailed information regarding the working of the Factories and Mines Acts is published by the Government of India and furnished to the International Labour Office.

Constitution concerning unemployment.

This Convention first came into force on 14 July 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
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<td>5. 2.1929</td>
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The Greek Government states that a new Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance which was promulgated by the previous Government in virtue of powers granted by the Chamber of Deputies, is now before the Chamber for adoption. The Government proposes to ask the Chamber to adopt the Decree after amending the unemployment insurance provisions. (See also introductory note to the Hours Convention.)

The Italian Government states that the new measures which have been adopted are completely in accordance with the general principles laid down in the Italian Labour Chapter and with the obligations resulting from the ratification of the Convention.

The report of the Spanish Government for 1928 gives an account of the measures taken for the introduction of a scheme of unemployment insurance, and cites a Royal Order of 22 October 1928 providing for the preparation of a scheme of subsidies for the relief of involuntary unemployment. The Order states that the National Provident Institute, after consulting the participating funds at a meeting in June 1928, and the National Advisory Commission of Employers and Workers at the plenary meeting held in July 1928, approved a preliminary draft scheme for the relief of involuntary unemployment, which has in due course been transmitted to the Ministry of Labour. The Order goes on to say that “as the Institute has itself pointed out, however, the realisation of this scheme assumes the systematic and extensive organisation of employment offices and the establishment of a financial basis for the new service. These essential conditions may, as was stated in the Royal Order of 25 April 1928, be supplied by the corporative organisation, which is continually gaining in extension and solidity, and which constitutes a system centralised, though as yet not very strongly, in the new General Service of Corporations. In order, therefore, to carry to its conclusion the work of making unemployment relief viable and efficacious, it is necessary to add to the consideration of the remedies under the aspect of relief a supplementary study of the possible measures under the corporative aspect. For this purpose it must be assumed that the employment exchange service will be fundamentally a service of the joint committees and that the latter will organise the vocational contributions with a view to giving the unemployed, in the proper cases and within the regulation limits, the corporative relief which is to be supplemented by the State.”
Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

South Africa.

Industrial Conciliation Act of 1924 (L. S. 1924, S. A. 1) together with the Regulations concerning Private Registry Offices published under Government Notice No. 1541 of 23 March 1926.

Other action affecting the Convention has been taken by the Union Government by ordinary administrative procedure without recourse to formal regulations.

Austria.

Unemployment Insurance Act of 24 March 1920 as subsequently amended (text up to and including the XIXth amendment in L. S. 1927, Aus. 1), and XIXth and XIXth Orders issued in application of the Act.

Ministerial Orders of 26 May 1920 and 12 July 1921 (text as published in the Order of 16 November 1926).

Bulgaria.

Act of 12 April 1925 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1925, Bulg. 2).

Denmark.


Estonia.

Employment Exchanges Act of 1 August 1917.

Finland.

Public Employment Exchanges Act of 27 March 1926 (L. S. 1926, Fr. 5).

Resolution of the Council of Ministers of 22 April 1926 concerning the inspection of public employment offices and the payment of grants to employment offices and agencies (L. S. 1926, Fr. 1).

Order of 2 November 1917 concerning employment exchanges entitled to a State grant (French translation in B. B. 1918, Vol. XVII, p. 39) and subsequent amendments.

France.


Act of 2 February 1925 to amend § 85 of Book I, Part IV of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare with regard to employment exchanges and departmental employment offices (L. S. 1925, Fr. 4).

Public administrative regulations of 9 March 1926.

Act of 16 March 1928 concerning the finding of employment in the theatrical profession.


Decree of 28 March 1922 as amended by Decree of 18 December 1927 concerning grants to public employment exchanges.

Germany.

Act of 16 July 1927 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1927, Ger. 5), as subsequently amended, and Orders in application of the Act, especially the Order of 29 September 1927 concerning help for the unemployed in times of crisis, as completed by later Orders.

Great Britain.


Greece.

Act No. 2270 of 1 July 1920.

Royal Decree of 22 September 1922 concerning the establishment of employment exchanges (L. S. 1922, Gr. 6).

India.

No new legislation was adopted. The Provincial Famine Codes regulate the provision of relief for workers unemployed by reason of famine or scarcity.

Irish Free State.


Italy.

Royal Decree of 29 March 1923 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Royal Decree of 30 December 1923 respecting compulsory insurance against unemployment (L. S. 1923, It. 10).

Royal Decree of 29 March 1928 concerning the national regulation of the demand and supply of labour.

Legislative Decree of 15 November 1928 relating to the constitution of funds for the institution and working of free employment exchanges for the unemployed.

Royal Decree of 6 December 1928 issuing regulations for the application of the Royal Decree of 29 March 1928.

Japan.


Imperial Ordinance No. 292 of 28 June 1921, respecting the administration of the Employment Exchanges Act (L. S. 1921, Jap. 1-4).

Regulations for the enforcement of the Employment Exchanges Act (Ordinance of the Department for Home Affairs, No. 29, promulgated on 27 November 1924).

Imperial Ordinance No. 107 of 31 March 1923, respecting the organisation of the employment exchange boards (L. S. 1925, Jap. 1).

Imperial Ordinance No. 20 of 20 February 1924, relating to the organisation of the employment exchange commissions (L. S. 1924, Jap. 1).

Regulations for the procedure of the employment exchange boards (Orders of the Department for Home Affairs, No. 7, promulgated on 3 March 1923).

Instructions concerning the issue of warrants for the reduction of railway and steamboat fares to persons placed by the employment exchanges (Orders of the Department for Home Affairs, No. 23, issued on 16 September 1923).
Regulations concerning the issue of warrants for the reduction of railway and steamboat fares to persons placed by the employment exchanges (Notification of the Department for Home Affairs, No. 290, issued on 26 September 1923 — L. S. 1923, Jan. 1, partially amended by notification of the Department of Home Affairs No. 321, issued on 6 December 1923.)

Ordinance No. 30 of the Department for Home Affairs of 19 December 1925, concerning the supervision of employment exchanges carried on for gain (L. S. 1925, Jan. 1).

Norway.


Act of 30 June 1921 to amend the Act of 6 August 1915 respecting State and communal subsidies to Norwegian unemployment funds, and the supplementary Act of 20 July 1918 (L. S. 1921, Nor. 1).

Poland.

Decree of 27 January 1919 relating to the organisation of employment exchanges and of aid to emigrants.

Order of 18 December 1923 relating to the organisation and powers of the joint advisory committees attached to employment exchanges, Act of 10 June 1924 respecting employment agencies, and Orders issued under the Act (L. S. 1924, Pol. 5 and 11).

Act of 21 October 1923 respecting employment agencies carried on by way of trade, and amending Acts and Orders (L. S. 1921, Part II, Pol. 1).

Act of 6 July 1923 to extend the legal provisions respecting compensation for industrial accidents, invalidity, old age, death and unemployment to nationals of other States (L. S. 1923, Pol. 3).

Act of 18 July 1924 respecting unemployment insurance, and amending Acts and Orders (L. S. 1924, Pol. 3 and 6).

Various legislative and administrative measures dealing especially with Posenia, Pomerania and Upper Silesia.

Rumania.

Employment Exchanges Act of 22 September 1921 (L. S. 1921, Rom. 2.)

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Workers’ Protection Act of 28 February 1922 (L. S. 1922, S. C. S. 1).

Regulation of 30 July 1923 concerning the application of the Emigration Act of 20 December 1922.

Regulation of 28 November 1925 concerning the engagement of foreign workers.

Regulation of 26 November 1927 concerning the organisation of employment exchanges and of direct assistance to the unemployed.

Order of 12 June 1928 of the Minister for Social Affairs in agreement with the Minister for Commerce and Industry concerning the coexistence of private fee-charging employment exchanges.

Spain.

Act of 18 July 1922 for the ratification of the Convention.

Royal Order of 29 September 1920 creating under the direction and inspection of the Ministry of Labour a general service of employment exchanges and statistics of the labour demand and supply (L. S. 1920, Sp. 3).

Royal Legislative Decree of 26 November 1926 establishing a National Corporative Organism to combat unemployment.

Royal Decree of 14 February 1927 relating to the compilation of unemployment statistics.

Sweden.

Royal Decree of 30 June 1916 (B. B. Vol. XI, 1916, p. 278), concerning State grants for the organisation and development of the public system of exchanges, as amended by Royal Decrees of 16 May 1918 and 8 June 1928.

Royal Decree of 30 June 1916 (B. B. Vol. XI, 1916, p. 277), amended by Royal Decrees of 16 May 1918 and 23 May 1919, respecting subsidies from State funds in order to cover a certain part of the travelling expenses of persons without means seeking work.

Royal Decree of 5 May 1916 concerning employment agents.

Switzerland.


Regulations of 25 June 1923 concerning the use of an uniform procedure in the finding of employment.

Order of the Federal Council of 11 November 1924 respecting public employment exchanges (L. S. 1924, Switz. 3).

Federal Act of 17 October 1924 respecting the payment of subsidies for unemployment insurance (L. S. 1924, Switz. 5).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

Each Member which ratifies this Convention shall communicate to the International Labour Office, at intervals as short as possible and not exceeding three months, all available information, statistical or otherwise, concerning unemployment, including reports on measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment. Whenever practicable, the information shall be made available for such communication not later than three months after the end of the period to which it relates.

Please describe the action taken to give effect to this Article.

South Africa. — The Government supplies the International Labour Office with the Social and Industrial Review, the official monthly journal of the Department of Labour, which contains all available periodical information. Special measures taken to combat unemployment are also reported in this publication.

Austria. — The report states that the information required by this Article is forwarded every three months to the International Labour Office.
Bulgaria. — Provision is made in the Act of 12 April 1925 for the keeping of records of applications by employers and workers. The Employment and Unemployment Insurance Service also prepares monthly statistics of the movement of labour in industrial undertakings, which appear in the Bulletin of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour. During 1928 these statistics were communicated to the International Labour Office.

Denmark. — All information relating to unemployment is forwarded by the Government as soon as available.

Estonia. — The Office regularly receives statistical information in the monthly reports on employment exchanges published in the review, Eesti Statistika Kuukiri.

Finland. — The Ministry of Social Affairs draws up special quarterly reports in pursuance of Article 1 of the Convention which it forwards to the Office in addition to the Social Review which contains monthly statistics of employment exchange activity, an annual summary of the work of the public employment exchanges, and reports of the activity of the unemployment funds subsidised by the State.

France. — Information relating to the situation as regards employment and unemployment is published every week (on Fridays) in the Journal Officiel under the heading Bulletin du Marché du Travail. An offprint is made of this Bulletin, which is sent regularly to the International Labour Office.

Germany. — The Ministry of Labour communicates the required information every three months to the International Labour Office. The Office also regularly receives the Reichsarbeitsblatt (the official journal of the Ministry of Labour of the Reich and of the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Institute).

Great Britain. — The Ministry of Labour Gazette, which is forwarded monthly to the Office, publishes a summary of the work of the employment exchanges, and contains information on the measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment. In addition, statistical statements of unemployment are forwarded each week to the London correspondent of the Office.

Greece. — The report states that this Article will be completely applied by the new Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance.

India. — At times of famine or scarcity the Government regularly communicates statements indicating the number of persons for whom employment had been found under the famine relief schemes.

Irish Free State. — Statistical statements referring to unemployment insurance and the working of the official employment offices are forwarded quarterly to the International Labour Office, together with reports on measures taken to combat unemployment.

Italy. — Monthly unemployment statistics are sent regularly to the International Labour Office. The Office also receives regularly the monthly publications Bollettino del Lavoro e della Previdenza Sociale and Bollettino dei Lavori Pubblici, which contain all available information on the labour market, the development of public works, and the measures specifically adopted to combat unemployment.

Japan. — The Regulations for the enforcement of the Employment Exchange Act require the directors of all employment exchanges to report on their activities. Employers must report to the prefectural governors and the chiefs of the mines inspection offices on the employment and discharge of workers in factories and mines. Information based on these reports is compiled and sent quarterly to the International Labour Office. The Government states that further information respecting employment exchange activities and unemployment will in the future be communicated to the Office, in accordance with the Resolution concerning unemployment adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Eighth Session (1926).

Norway. — The Ministry of Social Affairs forwards all official publications which give information concerning unemployment, and the inspector of public exchanges makes a monthly situation report which is communicated to the Office.

Poland. — Information relating to unemployment is communicated to the Office in accordance with the provisions of the Convention.

Rumania. — The report states that steps have been taken for the regular communication to the Office of all available information, in accordance with the provisions of Article 1 of the Convention.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — Statistical information concerning the public employment exchanges for the year 1928 is communicated in the report.
Spain. — The report for 1928 refers to the previous report in which it was stated that the Spanish Government, in order to obtain exact information regarding the extent of unemployment, issued a Royal Decree on 14 February 1927 instructing the General Labour Directorate to establish on a permanent basis the compilation of unemployment statistics. This Decree provided that the collection of statistics was to begin immediately in the principal industrial provinces and, particularly, that Barcelona was to make quarterly reports beginning on 31 March 1927.

Sweden. — The Government supplies statistical information monthly in the review Sociala Meddelanden, and the proceedings of the Unemployment Commission, in so far as they relate to unemployment, are sent to the Office monthly.

Switzerland. — The Government communicates monthly to the Office the Rapports économiques et Statistique sociale published monthly by the Federal Department of Public Economy. There Reports contain statistical data relating to unemployment and the operations of employment exchanges. The Office also receives, as they appear, the Feuille fédérale and the Recueil officiel des lois de la Confédération suisse, which contain legislative and administrative proposals and decisions of the Confederation. Further, the Federal Labour Office sends to the International Labour Office every three months a special report drawing attention to the articles which have appeared in the Rapports économiques et Statistique sociale and to the new Federal Acts or regulations concerning the development of unemployment insurance and the steps taken to combat unemployment.

**ARTICLE 2.**

Each Member which ratifies this Convention shall establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of a central authority. Committees, which shall include representatives of employers and of workers, shall be appointed to advise on matters concerning the carrying on of these agencies.

Where both public and private free employment agencies exist, steps shall be taken to coordinate the operations of such agencies on a national scale.

The operations of the various national systems shall be coordinated by the International Labour Office in agreement with the countries concerned.

In addition

(a) Please give a general account of the working of the system of free employment agencies, stating how the Committees referred to in paragraph 1 are constituted and appointed and what method is adopted for the choice of the employers' and workers' representatives.

(b) If private free employment agencies exist, please describe the steps which have been taken to coordinate their operations with those of the public agencies on a national scale.

(c) Please state the views of your Government on the means of securing the application of the last paragraph of Article 2, viz. Co-ordination of the operations of the various national systems by the International Labour Office in agreement with the countries concerned.

South Africa. — (a) The Union is divided for labour purposes into eight divisions with headquarters in the largest town in each under an inspector and staff. At the headquarters, in each division, the employment exchange operates primarily for the town and further serves as a clearing house for the division generally. In rural areas subsidiary employment exchanges are established under head postmasters (some 256) who act as an intermediate clearing house for all outlying centres having subordinate post offices and postal agencies under their control. In headquarters (and a few other towns) adults and juveniles are separately dealt with, Juvenile Affairs Boards being set up under an Act administered by the Department of Labour. The Boards co-operate closely with apprenticeship committees; and both are under the same central control as the labour exchanges. The placing of aboriginal natives is dealt with as a free service under special control of native commissioners of the Native Affairs Department, or by licensed recruiting officers, also as a free service. The functions of the committees referred to in paragraph 1 of Article 2 are fulfilled by the National Advisory Council of Labour, of which the Minister of Labour is the chairman and which is representative not only of diverse interests but also of different parts of the country, on whose behalf the members are competent to speak. The selection of the members is made by the Minister, who pays due regard to the requirements as to the adequate representation of important and well-marked interests and who consults responsible organisations where necessary in making his choice. It is the duty of the Council to advise the Minister, inter alia, on questions of unemployment; and the operations of the employment exchanges come under periodical review in that connection. The individual members or groups of members resident in one centre are regarded as acting in an advisory capacity in respect of local unemployment in those centres. Members are from time to time called upon to serve on special committees to consider special unemployment problems; and in that connection important committees have been appointed to deal with urban and rural unemployment, the administration of poor relief, employment on the alluvial diamond diggings and employment by public bodies. Voluntary local committees have also been established in some of the smaller centres in conjunction with the post office employment exchanges. The appointment of these committees has usually followed a public meeting held for
the purpose by an officer of the Department of Labour, and the committees are selected to represent different employers' and workers' interests. The postmaster, who is in control of the local exchange, acts as chairman. The committees hold periodical meetings and consider the results of the operations of the local exchange, as well as any local problems of unemployment. Central control is exercised by the Department of Labour.

(b) Provision for the establishment of private employment agencies is contained in § 20 of the Industrial Conciliation Act, 1924. Under the Act an agency may not be conducted unless the proprietor is in possession of a certificate of registration which may be issued by the Registrar of Trade Unions and Employers' Organisations who, in issuing certificates, takes into consideration the need for the agency and the suitability of the applicant. A maximum scale of fees has been fixed.

(c) As regards the application of the last paragraph of Article 2 the Government reports that this is a question which touches the Union very remotely and is bound up with immigration policy. No policy for the introduction of immigrants to South Africa is in force at the present time, and it is difficult to see what kind of co-ordination would be effective as between the system in force in the Union and systems in force in other countries. The physical fact of distance presents an almost insuperable obstacle apart from any question of policy. Should it be found desirable, however, by other countries to avail themselves of the employment exchange system of the Union, the Government would be prepared to consider any feasible means of rendering any co-ordination effective.

Austria. — (a) The system of free public employment exchanges existing in Austria does not rest upon any special legislative provisions, but has developed in practice through the enforcement of the unemployment insurance scheme, the free public employment exchanges acting as unemployment offices. The chief provisions which regulate the working of these free public employment exchanges (unemployment offices) are § 20 of the Unemployment Insurance Act, the Xth and XIXth Orders issued under this Act and the Ministerial Orders of 26 May 1920 and 12 July 1921. Almost all the public employment exchanges are controlled by joint administrative committees of which employers and workers are members. There are no legal provisions governing the selection of the members of these committees; as a rule they are elected by the district industrial commissions from among candidates proposed by the employers' and workers' organisations.

(b) The existing private employment agencies are of little importance, and there is no collaboration between the private and licensed employment agencies and the public employment exchanges. Efforts are being made to limit as far as possible the activities of private for-charging employment agencies. Some collaboration with private employment agencies which are of public utility has been effected by requiring these private employment agencies to announce their establishment to the competent district industrial commission and to supply statistical reports at regular intervals (Order of 26 May 1920).

(c) The Austrian employment exchanges have already got into touch with the competent authorities of some neighbouring States, as well as with other States with which an exchange of workers is possible. The Austrian Government considers, however, that it would not be desirable to effect a general co-ordination of employment exchanges in all countries so long as an effective exchange of workers is rendered impossible by regulations in those very countries which are of most importance. The Government fears that, for this reason, an international system of finding employment would result in a failure which would for many years discredit international co-operation. It considers that it would first be better if those countries the industrial development of which allows the introduction of foreign workers would give such workers free access.

Bulgaria. — (a) The Act of 12 April 1925 provides in § 1 that free employment exchange work is to be carried out by employment exchanges and by employment and unemployment offices. § 6 provides for the establishment of employment exchanges at Sofia and Philippopolis, and gives the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour the power on the recommendation of the Superior Labour Council, to order the establishment of employment exchanges in localities in which there are more than 3000 persons in permanent employment. The report states that 33 exchanges were operating during 1928. In localities where there are no employment exchanges, employment exchange work is carried on by the communal authorities. The employment exchange service thus created is directed and supervised in each department by the labour inspector, and throughout the country by a special branch of the Labour Department of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour (§ 15); the service began its preliminary work on 1 April 1926, and its regular work on 1 August 1926. In §§ 11 and 13 provision is made for setting up courts of arbitration and labour councils in connection with each local employment office. The courts of arbitration are to be composed.
of a justice of the peace as chairman, together with one representative each of the employers and workers; these courts decide all disputes relating to employment exchange work, etc. The labour councils are to consist of the labour inspector as chairman, a certain number of representatives of public authorities, and three employers' and three workers' representatives nominated by their respective local organisations; the duties of these councils are to investigate the work which can be carried out in case of unemployment, and also other measures for the prevention or reduction of unemployment, the application of labour legislation and the improvement of labour conditions.

(b) As regards private employment offices, it is provided in § 2 that they shall be prohibited and existing offices shall be closed not later than six months after the date of the coming into force of the Act. Employment offices belonging to trade organisations of employers or workers may continue to exist provided that they are carried on free of charge. These offices are supervised by the State and are co-ordinated with the public exchanges.

(c) The Government considers that it would be desirable to enter into relations with other countries.

Denmark. — (a) The Act of 1 July 1927 provides for the establishment of free public employment exchanges in each department and at Copenhagen. Further, if the municipal council so desires, municipal employment exchanges may be approved, provided that they are managed in the same way as the departmental exchanges, by a committee composed of a chairman and two members (one employer and one worker) and two substitutes, appointed by the municipal council after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. In Copenhagen the committee is composed of a chairman and six members (three employers and three workers.) The chairman must be neutral and approved by the Ministry of the Interior.

(b) The report states that private institutions for placing workers, e.g. unemployment funds and trade unions, collaborate to a considerable extent in the public placing of workers; the basis of collaboration is one which has developed in practice.

(c) As regards the possibility of collaborating with the employment exchanges of other countries through the intermediary of the International Labour Office, the report considers that very little can be done at present. The basis of such collaboration is, however, provided by the exchange of information regarding the state of the labour market under Article 1 of the Convention.

Estonia. — (a) A system of free public employment exchanges has been in existence since 1919, in the form of 14 labour exchanges. The committees responsible for the direction of these exchanges consist of representatives of the workers and employers nominated by their respective organisations, under the chairmanship of a person appointed by the commune.

(b) Only a very few private employment agencies exist and these are not concerned with industrial workers. Their activities are entirely limited to receiving offers of and requests for domestic service.

(c) The report adds that "the possibility of the various national systems being co-ordinated by the International Labour Office seems very slight. The countries concerned should be left to settle this question by means of direct agreements."

Finland. — (a) Under § 1 of the Act of 27 March 1926 communes and organisations are authorised to deal with the finding of employment. § 2 of the Act provides that in every town of more than 5,000 inhabitants a communal employment exchange must be set up. Towns of less than 5,000 inhabitants, as well as large villages and rural communes must also set up employment exchanges or appoint an agent to deal with the finding of employment when this is thought necessary. Under § 6 the communal or municipal council must appoint an equal number of employers' and workers' representatives as members of the board of directors of the employment exchange. The representative organisations of employers and workers, if such exist in the district, may previously nominate their candidates for election. The Council must also appoint an independent chairman.

(b) The only private employment agencies in existence are those maintained by certain organisations and by certain special trades. These agencies, after the employment agency inspectorate has reported, are authorised by the State to exercise their functions for three years. This authorisation may be renewed. As the activities of the few offices in existence are restricted to certain defined classes of employment which are not usually served by the public employment exchanges, the public exchanges are unaffected by them.

(c) The remoteness of the country renders the finding of employment internationally of little importance at present. In accordance with the instruction given by the Chamber of Deputies in 1926 the Government ensures that vacancies in the country are in the first place given to Finnish nationals. Foreign workers are, as a rule, granted permission to work only when the vacant place cannot be filled by Finnish labour and when the grant of a permission to work seems to be to the general interest and not merely to the interests of individuals.
France. — (a) The Act of 2 February 1925 to amend § 83 of Book I of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare with regard to employment exchanges and departmental employment offices maintained the existing obligation imposed upon towns of less than 10,000 inhabitants to keep a register containing offers of and application for employment and the obligation for towns of more than 10,000 inhabitants to establish a municipal employment exchange, and added a further obligation upon the Departments to set up departmental employment offices. The municipal employment exchanges are at the free disposal of the public, and the duties of the departmental offices are defined as being "to organise and ensure in every commune of their area the recruiting and placing, free of charge, of workers in agriculture, industry, commerce and the liberal professions, as well as domestic servants and apprentices." The expenses of setting up and administering municipal exchanges and departmental offices must be borne by the towns and departments concerned, and, if a town of more than 10,000 inhabitants fails to set up an exchange, it is provided that "the prefect shall take measures ex officio for its establishment, after a formal order has been given to the municipal council without effect." Municipal exchanges and departmental offices may institute trade sections for certain trades; an agricultural section must be set up in every departmental office. To every municipal exchange and departmental office, and if necessary to trade sections, is attached a managing committee composed of an equal number of wage-earning or salaried employees and employers belonging as far as possible to the trades which make most use of the exchange. Public administrative regulations prescribing the conditions to which in general the various offices, exchanges or trade sections must conform, especially as regards the constitution of joint committees, measures to ensure that the placing work of the offices is carried on bona fide and free of charge, and that there is impartiality in case of labour disputes, co-ordination between the various exchanges and offices, etc., were issued on 9 March 1926. The report further states that departmental offices have been created in the few Departments where they did not already exist. Since the issue of the regulations of 9 March 1926, instructions for the full application of the law have been issued to the prefects of the Departments concerned, and new offices have been created and others are being reorganised. At present the number of employment offices and exchanges is as follows: 7 regional offices, the operations of which extend over several Departments and the duties of which are to coordinate the activities of the various departmental and municipal offices; 90 departmental offices (one in each Department); 108 municipal exchanges.

(b) As regards the co-ordination of the operations of employment agencies of different types, the report states that the Police Prefect, by Order of 10 July 1920, prescribed that fee-charging agencies in the Seine Department must forward to the Police Prefecture at the beginning of each month a report on the operations of the agency during the preceding month, showing the number of applications for employment registered, the number of offers of employment received, and the number of workers placed, together with a statement of the kinds of employments sought, offered and secured." The Minister of Labour has drawn the attention of the prefects to this Order and has requested them to suggest that the mayors of towns in their Departments, in which fee-charging agencies exist, should take similar measures. The report further states that the Act of 10 July 1928 to amend §§ 79, 81, 82, 83, 88 and 102 of Book I of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, concerning the finding of employment for workers, provides in § 9 that in each Department, every fee-charging or free employment agency shall be required to communicate weekly to the departmental public employment office, the figures of the requests for, and offers of, employment and of the vacancies filled.

(c) The report states that the International Labour Office, as a centre of information and research, will find useful information upon the supply of labour in the Bulletin du marché du travail.

Germany. — (a) The public employment services in Germany are the concern of the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Institute. The organisation consists of a Head Office, State employment offices and employment exchanges. The authorities of the Federal Institute are the administrative committees of the employment exchanges and of the State employment offices and the Governing Body and Directors of the Federal Institute. The administrative committees consist of the chairman of the exchanges and an equal number of representatives of employers, workers and public bodies as assessors. The Governing Body and Directors of the Institute consist of the President of the Institute acting as chairman and of an equal number of representatives of employers, workers and public bodies as assessors. The employers' and workers' representatives on the administrative committees of the employment exchanges and of the State employment offices are appointed from nomination lists drawn up by the employers' and workers' organisations. The employers' representatives on the Governing Body of the Institute are elected by the employers'
group of the Provisional Economic Council of the Reich (now permanent Council of the Reich); the workers' representatives are elected by the workers' group of the Provisional Economic Council. The employment agencies, control of the Institute, which also supervises their collaboration with the employment exchanges and the State employment offices.

The German Government states that it is ready to help the Office in arranging the exchange of information between countries concerning requests for, and offers of work (not relating to individuals or specified places). It presumes that such requests for or offers of work would be of some importance and for a considerable period of time.

Great Britain.—(a) Free public employment agencies exist in pursuance of the Labour Exchanges Act of 1909. Divisional and national clearing systems facilitate the work of finding places for the unemployed. In connection with each exchange there is a body known as the Local Employment Committee appointed by the Minister of Labour and consisting in the main of representatives of employers and employed, who advise on matters concerning the carrying on of the exchanges.

(b) Co-ordination between the public employment exchanges and the employment agencies of the trade unions which co-operate in the application of the Unemployment Insurance Acts (1920-1927) is effected by arrangements made under § 17 of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920, whereby weekly returns of unemployed members of the associations are rendered, and the public employment exchanges offer vacancies when trade unions cannot find employment for their members. The divisional and national clearing systems place this co-ordination on a national scale.

(c) The Government reports that the state of unemployment in Great Britain is such that the introduction of labour from other countries on any appreciable scale is not necessary. The permits required when alien labour is introduced into Great Britain, however, are issued by the Ministry of Labour after consultation with the Home Office. On the other hand, in view of the absence of industrial unemployment and of the fact that the provisions of the Provisonal Famine Codes adequately meet the case of agricultural unemployment, the Government decided, after consultation with Provincial Governments, that the establishment of special agencies is at present unnecessary. In Madras, however, there is a Labour and Employment Bureau to secure employment for the members of the depressed classes and South African repatriates.

Irish Free State.—(a) A system of free public employment exchanges exists in pursuance of the Labour Exchanges Act, 1909. Further, under the Unemployment Insurance Acts, practically the whole of the employed population (with the main exceptions of agriculture and private domestic service) is insured against unemployment. Insured persons, when unemployed, must lodge their unemployment claims, there is little emigration of British labour to other countries except to British Dominions and the U.S.A. Close arrangements already exist for regulating inter-Imperial migration. The U.S.A. immigration legislation does not provide for the transfer of labour from other continents through the machinery of Employment Exchanges.

Greece.—(a) The Royal Decree of 22 September 1922 concerning the establishment of employment exchanges provided for two free public employment exchanges, one at Athens and the other at Piraeus. It was further provided that these exchanges should be supervised by a committee composed of a labour inspector as president and one representative each of employers and workers, and should be required to furnish monthly statistical information to the Labour Directorate. In other parts of the country the duty of endeavouring to find work for the unemployed fell to the labour inspectors. The report states that under the new Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance employment exchanges will be administered by committees constituted in accordance with the intentions of the first paragraph of Article 2 of the Convention.

(b) The new Legislative Decree will prohibit private agencies.

(c) The Greek Government considers "that the present conditions in the various countries governing the entry, departure, residence and work of emigrants only permit of a degree of co-ordination limited to the periodical communication by the International Labour Office to the countries concerned of the number of unemployed belonging to classes of workers who could be employed in these countries".

India.—In view of the absence of industrial unemployment and of the fact that the provisions of the Provisional Famine Codes adequately meet the case of agricultural unemployment, the Government decided, after consultation with Provincial Governments, that the establishment of special agencies is at present unnecessary. In Madras, however, there is a Labour and Employment Bureau to secure employment for the members of the depressed classes and South African repatriates.
books (without which employment in an insured trade cannot be obtained) at an employment exchange, before they can be entitled to benefit in respect of their unemployment. Employers notify opportunities of employment to the exchange, the duty of which is to offer suitable employment to unemployed persons registered there. Benefit is paid only if such employment is not available. The system of national employment exchanges is administered by the central government through the Director of Employment and Commerce. Local offices, of which there are about 100, are established in the cities and principal towns of the country. Committees, which include representatives of employers, workers, education authorities and other local bodies or interested persons, have been appointed to advise on certain aspects of the work of exchanges. A system is in operation by which vacancies which cannot be filled locally are circulated nationally from a central clearing house. This system is known as the National Clearing System.

(b) The chief public employment agencies, apart from the employment exchanges set up by the State under the Labour Exchanges Act, are those of the trade unions which work from district and branch offices. These offices keep registers of unemployed members. By means of arrangements made with associations under § 17 of the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1920, co-ordination is effected between the employment exchanges and the trade union branches. If the trade union cannot itself find employment for its members, the employment exchange offers any suitable available vacancies to them. By means of the National Clearing System mentioned above co-ordination is on a national scale.

(c) The report states that the Government will be prepared to consider any definite proposals put before it for the purpose of coordination by the International Labour Office of the various national systems of employment exchanges.

Italy. — (a) Under the new Decrees the placing of unemployed workers free of charge is effected by special offices for each class of workers; these offices have a national, inter-provincial or provincial jurisdiction, and are attached to the trade unions. Each office is managed by an administrative committee composed of equal numbers of representatives directly chosen by the associations of employers and workers concerned; it is the duty of the committee to direct the development of the office, to supervise its working, and to appoint employment agents chosen from amongst the leaders of the workers’ organisations concerned. Within each province the supervision and co-ordination of the work of the various employment offices is entrusted to the Labour and Social Welfare Section of the Provincial Economic Council on which the employers’ and workers’ organisations are represented in equal numbers. Regional and national co-ordination, including internal and external migration questions, is dealt with by the Ministry for Corporations, in agreement with the Ministry for National Economy and other Ministries concerned, after consultation with the central offices of the corporations in cases where corporations have been organised. The use of the employment offices is compulsory for both employers and workers of specified classes of employers and workers. A special committee attached in the Ministry for Corporations administers the funds for the institution and working of the employment offices.

(b) As was stated in last year’s report, the laws relating to public safety now in force permit the carrying on of private employment agencies, although these agencies have no practical importance. Under the Decree of 29 March 1928 powers are given to the Minister for Corporations, in agreement with the Minister for National Economy, to prohibit, as regards certain specified classes of employers and workers and for specified localities or the whole of the Kingdom, the placing of workers by private persons, associations or other bodies of any kind.

(c) The Italian Government is prepared to consider any suggestions which may be made by the International Labour Office with a view to the co-ordination, as far as may be possible, of the operations of its employment exchange system with the systems of other countries.

Japan. — (a) The Act of 8 April 1921 provided for the establishment of free employment exchanges by the authorities of cities, towns and villages or, with the permission of the Director of the Employment Exchange Board, by private persons or bodies. The exchanges maintained by cities, towns and villages are subsidised by the State; they may be set up on the initiative of the local authorities or by direction of the Minister for Home Affairs. The exchanges thus established numbered 226 on 1 December 1928, of which 36 were private. The organisation of employment exchange commissions is provided for in the Ordinance of 20 February 1924. In pursuance of this Ordinance a Central Employment Exchange Commission has been set up, followed by the appointment of local commissions in Tokyo, Osaka, Fukuoka and Nagoya. The functions of these commissions are to advise the administrative authorities on the work of the employment exchanges by means of replies to enquiries or by representations. The chairman of the Central Employment Exchange Commission is the Director-General of the Bureau of Social Affairs, whilst the chairman of the local commissions are nominated by the Cabinet on the recommendation of the Minister for Home Affairs from among the members of the
commissions. The number of members of the central and local commissions may not exceed twenty; they are chosen, as regards the Central Commission by the Cabinet on the recommendation of the Minister for Home Affairs, as regards the local commissions directly by the Minister; they include equal numbers of persons representing the interests of the employers and persons representing the interests of the workers chosen, for the present, from amongst persons nominated by the prefects. In addition, there may be set up to express opinion on matters relating to the management of the local employment exchanges, employment exchange commissions in the cities, towns and villages, the members of which are to be appointed by the heads of the respective cities, towns or villages. The regular composition and the procedure of the local commissions are also to be determined by the chief magistrates of the cities, towns or villages, who are required to report to the director of the employment exchange boards. The members of these commissions include an equal number of representatives of both employers and workers. The method of their appointment is, for the time being, left in the hands of the chief magistrates of the cities, towns or villages.

(b) In order to co-ordinate the operations of the public and private employment exchanges there have been created, subject to the supervision of the Minister for Home Affairs, the central and local exchange boards, which include among their tasks the exchange of information. In order to facilitate co-ordination between the public and private employment exchanges, the heads of cities, towns or villages and the directors of the local employment exchange boards designate one of the exchanges within their respective jurisdiction to co-ordinate the operations of all the exchanges. The total number of employment agencies charging fees or carried on for gain was 8,487 on 30 September 1928.

(c) The Japanese Government is of opinion that there is considerable difficulty in realising the co-ordination of the operations of the various systems by the International Labour Office, in agreement with the countries concerned. However, it is hoped that steps may be taken to give effect thereto as far as possible.

Norway. — (a) The Public Employment Exchanges Act of 12 June 1906 established employment exchanges in communes, each under the control of a committee appointed by the commune and composed of a chairman and an equal number of representatives of employers and workers, who may be nominated by the employers' and workers' organisations. State supervision is carried out by the Ministry of Social Affairs, through the inspector of public employment exchanges. No fees are charged. There are at present 48 employment exchanges. Norway is divided into five employment areas for the transference of labour from one region to another. The local employment exchanges send to the central exchanges send to the central exchanges of the areas weekly reports showing the requests for and offers of employment with which they cannot deal. On the basis of these reports the central exchanges draw up lists for the whole of the area, which are sent to railway stations, etc., to be posted up. The exchanges are also authorised to issue half-fare tickets to the place of work to the destitute unemployed.

(b) The free private employment exchanges in Norway have become of so little importance that it would not be worth while to co-ordinate their activities with those of the public exchanges. The free private exchanges which hold a concession are required, under the Act of 12 June 1906, to send reports to the central statistical office.

(c) The report states that "collaboration with other countries in the finding of employment has always been practised when an opportunity occurred. Now that the migration of labour is regulated and restricted by the legislation of various countries, the free exchange of labour between different countries is no longer very considerable. It would clearly be desirable to co-ordinate the system of finding employment in different countries, both as regards procedure and also as regards statistics. A special drawback is that it is difficult to compare the statistics of employment found and of unemployment in different countries". The report concludes that in this respect the International Labour Office has a task which it has not yet carried out.

Poland. — A system of free public employment exchanges exists in virtue of the laws and orders referred to above under I. This system included, on 1 January 1929, 87 offices in the principal towns, 25 branch offices in places of lesser economic importance and 10 communal exchanges in Upper Silesia. Mixed advisory committees including equal numbers of representatives of employers and workers have been set up in virtue of the Decree of 27 January 1919, relating to the organisation of employment exchanges, and of the Order of 18 December 1923, relating to the organisation and powers of the joint advisory committees attached to employment exchanges. These representatives are appointed by the municipal and district councils, or equivalent bodies, from candidates nominated by the industrial organisations, or, in default of such candidates, directly from the employers and workers, taking into account the economic importance of the occupations.
concerned. The committees advise on all matters relating to the working of the employment exchanges. In Posnania and Pomerania the working of these committees is governed by an Order of 30 September 1924.

(b) In addition to the public employment exchanges, there exist employment agencies carried on by social organisations in accordance with the Act of 10 June 1924, and commercial employment agencies regulated by the Act of 21 October 1921. The employment agencies carried on by social organisations are not to derive any financial profit from their activities, but to cover expenses they may charge employers a fee equal to 5 per cent. of the first months' earnings of the person placed. In 1928 there were 820 such agencies, and the workers placed numbered approximately 28,000. These agencies are supervised by the public exchanges to which they must report monthly. As regards the employment agencies carried on by way of trade, § 4 of the Act of 21 October 1921 provides that a permit to carry on an employment agency shall not be granted "if a sufficient number of employment agencies already exists in the locality in question, and especially if a State or other gratuitous employment exchange is in existence there and carries on its work satisfactorily." These permits may only be granted to persons who were already carrying on agencies when the Act came into operation; they may be granted for one year by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, who specifies the occupations and localities to which the permit applies. The number of fee-charging agencies was 54 in 1928 as against 56 in 1927; they placed approximately 18,000 workers. The Act of 3 March 1926 amending § 5 of the Act of 21 October 1921 extended the period of five years from the promulgation of the Act, within which registry offices for domestic servants were to be abolished, to eight years.

(c) The Polish Government states that it attaches importance to the co-ordination provided for in the third paragraph of this Article of the Convention, and would like the International Labour Office to make proposals, after consulting the Governments concerned, with a view to the exchange of national statistics by emigration and immigration countries and the adoption of uniform methods of placing workers.

Rumania. — (a) In application of the Employment Exchanges Act of 22 September 1921 circuit employment exchanges have been established in the towns of chief commercial and industrial importance. During 1928 there were 37 such exchanges. There are also registration offices in all urban and rural communes which receive applications for employment or for labour which are communicated to the circuit employment exchanges. No fees are charged for finding employment. The sums necessary for the working of the exchanges are provided for in the general budget, upon proposals made by joint committees, regional and central (appointed by the Minister of Labour) and confirmed by the Directorate of the Employment Exchange Service. Joint committees of an equal number of workers and of employers are attached to each exchange and make proposals as regards the work of the exchanges and the budget of the exchange. These committees are under the control of the Directorate of the Employment Exchange Service. The Government intends to increase the number of circuit exchanges as the need arises. When the circuit exchanges are sufficiently numerous the regional exchanges provided for in the Act will be set up; meanwhile, the circuit exchanges are in localities where there are factory inspection offices act as regional exchanges. The activities of the circuit exchanges and the communal registration offices are co-ordinated by the central employment exchange directed by the Directorate of the Employment Exchange Service in the Ministry of Labour.

(b) Fee-charging agencies have been suppressed. Provision is made in §§ 7 and 8 of the Act for licensing and co-ordinating the activities of free private employment agencies, but, although a few trade unions have received licences, no such agencies have been established.

(c) The report does not refer to the question of international co-ordination.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — (a) The Workers' Protection Act of 28 April 1922 provided for the establishment, as well as the organisation, of employment exchanges for the workers. This system of the organisation and working of the employment exchanges was partially reorganised under the Regulation of 26 November 1927 concerning the organisation of employment exchanges and direct assistance to the unemployed. § 1 of the Regulation provides for the creation of public employment exchanges in the area of each Chamber of Labour, with a central public employment exchange in Belgrade. Under the same provision branches of these public employment exchanges will be established in the area of each Chamber of Labour, and in the most important industrial centres in case of necessity, and after authorisation from the Minister for Social Affairs. The old State employment exchanges and the exchanges established after 1 April 1927 or their branches, will be considered as public employment exchanges. In 1928 the number of these employment exchanges was six, with sixteen branches. In accordance with
§ 4, the public employment exchanges are composed of: (a) an Administrative Council; (b) an Executive Committee; (c) the director of the exchange with necessary staff. According to § 5 the Administrative Council is the supreme body. The management of the public employment exchanges consists of seven members and an equal number of substitutes. One member is a State official, two members are representatives of the Chamber of Labour, two representatives of the Regional Council, and two members are representatives of the Regional Workers' Insurance Fund of the area where the employment exchange has its seat. According to § 7, the administrative councils choose from among them as executive organs, the Committee of the Employment Exchange consisting of three persons: the Chairman of the Executive Committee who is Chairman of the Administrative Council, a representative of the Chamber of Labour, and a representative of the Regional Council. According to § 9, the Central Public Employment Exchange in Belgrade is the supreme body for finding employment for workers in the country. It consists of three persons: a representative of the Ministry for Social Affairs, a representative of the Central Secretariat of the Chambers of Labour and a representative of the Federation of Industries, who must be nominated in agreement with the Chambers of Industry, Commerce and Trade of Belgrade.

(b) According to § 3 of the above Regulation, the public employment exchanges perform their functions free of charge. They enjoy in their respective areas the right of priority in the matter of finding employment for workers, and may collaborate with the employment exchanges which may be established by the communes of the various public utility corporations, by assistance and benefit organisations, as well as by workers' organisations, and lend them subsidies if they fulfil the conditions laid down by the Regulation. With regard to the coexistence of private fee-charging employment exchanges, their working has been regulated by an Order of 12 June 1928 of the Ministry for Social Affairs in agreement with the Minister for Commerce and Industry issued in virtue of § 105 of the Workers' Protection Act.

(c) The report does not refer to this question.

Spain. — (a) The Royal Decree of 29 September 1920 provided for the institution of a general employment service and a service of unemployment statistics under the control of the Ministry of Labour. The results of this system had, however, not been very extensive, according to the report for 1925, and the report for 1926 stated that further provisions relating to the finding of employment had been included in the Royal Legislative Decree of 26 November 1926 establishing a National Corporative Organisation. This Decree provided for the creation, for specified groups of trades or occupations, of joint local and interlocal committees, one of the functions of which was defined in § 17 (4) as follows: "To organise labour exchanges in order to find at any time employment for unemployed workers, and for this purpose they shall make an occupational census of the employers and workers in their branch in the locality." The report for 1928 refers to previous reports.

(b) The report does not refer to this question.

(c) The report for 1927 stated that the Spanish Government considered that it was possible to apply the last paragraph of Article 2 of the Convention.

Sweden. — (a) Employment exchanges established by the general councils of the provinces and by some communes have been in existence since 1902 and uniformity in the system has been attained by imposing certain conditions which must be fulfilled before support may be granted from State funds. These conditions are laid down by the Decree of 30 June 1916, amended by the Decree of 16 May 1918, concerning State grants for the organisation and development of the public system of exchanges. At the end of 1928 there were working 36 public employment exchanges controlling 36 employment offices and 104 branch offices, seven of which were engaged in finding employment for certain special trades. Employment agents are also established in some localities. The direct management of the work of the various public employment exchanges devolves on special committees among whose members are an equal number of representatives of employers and workers. These committees are appointed by the provincial or communal authorities which have established the exchanges; the employers' and workers' organisations nominate their candidates previously.

(b) The report states that as the private employment agencies are not subject to State control, no steps have been taken to co-ordinate their activities with those of the public employment exchanges.

(c) As regards the possibility of co-ordinating internationally the various national employment systems, the report states that the question does not at present seem of practical interest, at least for Sweden. So long as there is no radical change in the dearth of employment and in the restrictive immigration legislation in many countries, an increase in the exchange of labour between States cannot be hoped for.
Switzerland. — (a) The Order of 11 November 1924 respecting public employment exchanges requires the Cantons to set up central employment exchanges. When, however, the circumstances justify it, and if the Federal Department of Public Economy agrees, several Cantons may set up a joint central exchange. In accordance with this requirement there is a central employment exchange (cantonal office) in every Canton. Those Cantons, moreover, in which a central employment exchange is insufficient have set up employment exchanges in the communes, or, where it was thought desirable, district exchanges covering several communes. The work of the communal or district exchanges is co-ordinated by the cantonal offices, that of the cantonal offices by the Federal Labour Office which publishes a daily bulletin containing the offers of, and requests for employment received from the Cantons. The Order of 11 November 1924 further requires the formation of committees, composed of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives, to serve as advisory bodies in questions concerning employment exchanges. Within these limits the Cantons and communes are left free to choose the method of selecting the employers' and workers' representatives, the manner of appointing and the exact task of these committees. The requirement that these committees must be set up has up to the present been interpreted to mean that the Cantons need not set them up if special circumstances make them superfluous. If, for example, the communal employment exchanges in a Canton have joint committees, it may not be necessary to require the central office to appoint a committee. On the other hand, when the central office of the Canton has a joint committee it may be useless to require the communal offices to appoint them as well. In practice, out of 34 public employment exchanges in Switzerland, consisting of 20 cantonal offices and 14 communal offices, 24 have at present joint committees. These joint committees do not all perform the same tasks. While some are bodies for the supervision of the employment exchange, others are of a purely advisory nature.

(b) The Order of 11 November 1924 lays down that the Federal Department of Public Economy shall take the necessary steps to co-ordinate the activities of free public and private employment exchanges. Some employers' or workers' organisations collaborate in the monthly statement upon the situation of the Swiss labour market. In addition, the daily bulletin prepared by the Federal Labour Office is communicated, whenever it contains information likely to interest them, to all the employers' or workers' organisations.

(c) Every three months the Federal Labour Office communicates to the International Labour Office a list, by occupa-

tions, of Swiss workers prepared to emigrate to take work abroad. The report adds that “the co-ordination of the various national employment systems would be a very difficult task. It might even be asked whether it was worth undertaking so long as many countries place restrictions on immigration.”

Article 3.

The Members of the International Labour Organisation which ratify this Convention and which have established systems of insurance against unemployment shall, upon terms being agreed between the Members concerned, make arrangements whereby workers belonging to one Member and working in the territory of another shall be admitted to the same rates of benefit of such insurance as those which obtain for the workers belonging to the latter.

If a system of insurance against unemployment is in existence in your country, please describe the arrangements made with other Members under this Article, forwarding the texts of such arrangements, if they have not already been communicated.

Please state whether, in the absence of such arrangements, the legislation in force in your country provides for the equality of treatment of national and foreign workers as regards unemployment insurance.

South Africa. — There is no system of unemployment insurance in the Union of South Africa.

Austria. — The provisions of the Unemployment Insurance Act make no distinction between national and foreign workers as regards unemployment insurance. Nevertheless, where another State gives more favourable treatment to its own workers as regards unemployment benefit than to Austrian workers resident in its territory, it may be stipulated by Order that the nationals of the said State shall similarly be accorded less favourable treatment in respect of unemployment benefit in Austria.

Bulgaria. — An unemployment insurance system is set up by the Act of 12 April 1925, and it is specified in § 31 of this Act that “wage-earning and salaried employees of alien nationality shall be deemed to be liable to unemployment insurance if their country of origin grants the same rights and approximately the same rates of benefit to Bulgarian nationals.” The report states, however, that “up to the present, no agreements have been made by Bulgaria with other States in regard to the insurance of wage-earning and salaried employees against unemployment. On its own initiative, Bulgaria insures against unemployment those Russian and Armenian nationals who carry Nansen passports.”

Denmark. The report states that foreign workers may join approved unemployment funds on the same footing as Danish nationals, and may receive benefits from these funds. An agreement
relating to equality of treatment as regards unemployment insurance was concluded with Switzerland on 9 February 1928.

Estonia. — The report states that Estonia has no system of unemployment insurance.

Finland. — The Order of 2 November 1917 provides that foreign workers who are members of unemployment funds entitled to receive State subsidies shall have the same rights as national workers. The report adds that there is no other unemployment insurance in Finland. There is therefore no occasion to conclude the agreements to which Article 3 refers.

France. — No system of unemployment insurance has yet been set up in France. There exist, however, ad national unemployment fund and State aided trade union and mutual unemployment funds, etc. Agreements have been concluded with Italy, Poland and Belgium, for reciprocity in unemployment benefits. The Labour Treaty between France and Italy, for example, signed at Rome on 30 September, 1919 and ratified by the French Parliament, provides in Article 11 that "subsides to funds for mutual assistance against unemployment and assistance from public unemployment funds and from public institutions for relief work shall be granted in each State to nationals of the other State." Similar provisions are found in the Convention concluded with Poland on 14 October 1920 and in the Labour Treaty concluded with Belgium at Brussels on 24 December 1924.

Germany. — Foreign workers and persons without nationality are treated on the same footing as German nationals as regards unemployment relief granted under insurance. With regard to relief in times of crisis, § 101 (3) of the Act respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance provides for special authorisation which is given only on condition of reciprocity. Relief in times of crisis is in fact granted at present to Polish and Austrian nationals. Agreements on the subject have so far been concluded with Poland, on 14 July 1927, and with Austria, on 29 February 1928.

Great Britain. — No arrangements have been made with other Members, but foreign workers are subject to the compulsory unemployment insurance system, and enjoy the same benefits as nationals. The administrative rule under which unemployment benefit was withheld in certain circumstances from certain classes of aliens has been abolished.

1 L.S., 1920, Int. 2.
2 L.S., 1924, Int. 3.

Greecce. — The report for 1928 does not refer to this Article.

India. — There is no system of unemployment insurance in India.

Irish Free State. — The Unemployment Insurance Acts provide for insurance against unemployment for all workpeople, whatever their nationality, if they are engaged in the employments covered by the Act. No arrangements of the kind referred to in the Article have been entered into by the Government of the Irish Free State.

Italy. — § 25 of the Decree of 19 October 1919 provided that foreign workers should be subject to the compulsory unemployment insurance system and enjoy the same benefits as nationals. This provision is repeated in § 1 of the Royal Decree of 30 December 1923, No. 3158, which provided for the reorganisation of the unemployment insurance system. Further, in application of this Article of the Convention Italy has signed a declaration with Switzerland, which was made formally operative in the Kingdom by the Decree No. 363 of 17 February 1927.

Japan. — There exists no system of unemployment insurance.

Norway. — Before 1921 subventions accorded by the State to unemployment funds were paid only to Norwegian members or foreign members of the funds who had resided in Norway for the two preceding years. Under the Act of 30 June 1921, however, exceptions may be made to the condition of residence where agreements have been made between the Norwegian unemployment funds and foreign unemployment funds concerning the payment of indemnities on a basis of complete reciprocity and when the King concludes an agreement to this effect with a foreign State. Up to the present, however, no such agreement has been concluded, but several unemployment funds have made agreements with employers' or workers' organisations in other countries, and when a foreigner who belongs to one of these organisations arrives in Norway, he is assisted by the Norwegian fund, without regard to the length of his residence in Norway. The Treasury, however, makes no contribution to such subsidies, unless the foreigner in question has been domiciled in Norway for at least two years. The reason why no agreements have so far been signed by the Ministry of Social Affairs is that the conditions of complete reciprocity are not fulfilled.

Poland. — Foreign workers benefit by the same laws and regulations for the protection of the workers as Polish nationals under the Act of 6 July 1923. This Act
lays down the principle of equality of treatment and applies it, as regards social insurance, to the nationals of all countries. Nevertheless, if another State restricts the corresponding rights of Polish nationals, the Council of Ministers may issue regulations restricting the rights in question of nationals of the said State in Poland. The Council of Ministers has not yet made use of these powers. In accordance with the spirit of the Convention, Poland has concluded an agreement with Germany relating to unemployment relief and unemployment insurance which will remain in force for one year, i.e. until 18 July 1928, and, unless three months' notice of denunciation is given, the agreement is renewed for a further year. The agreement does not apply to seasonal agricultural workers. Under the treaty signed at Berlin on 25 May 1928 the terms of the agreement will also apply to unemployment insurance of intellectual workers, which was created in Poland by Decree of the President of the Republic of 26 November 1927. By an exchange of notes with the Swiss Government, Poland has made an arrangement ensuring equality of treatment as regards unemployment insurance to the nationals of the two countries.

Rumania. — No system of unemployment insurance exists in Rumania.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — With regard to the establishment of unemployment insurance, the Act of 14 May 1922 concerning workers' insurance provides in § 2 that a system of insurance in case of unemployment will be instituted subsequently. In the absence of such insurance, the system of assistance to the unemployed is applied in practice. With regard to the equality of treatment for national and foreign workers, the report states that the question is provided for in § 17 of the Regulation of 26 November 1927.

Spain. — The report for 1925 stated that no such arrangements had been made with other States.

Sweden. — There is no system of unemployment insurance.

Switzerland. — The Federal Act of 17 October 1924 respecting the payment of subsidies for unemployment insurance gives a legal sanction to the Federal subsidies to unemployment funds. Foreign workers are assimilated to nationals in all respects. Nevertheless, § 11 of the Act provides that the Federal Council may reduce or diminish subsidies in the case of foreign workers belonging to a State which does not grant equality of treatment to unemployed of Swiss nationality or does not apply equivalent measures against unemployment. The report adds that “the Swiss Government has approached the States which have ratified the Convention and which have established systems of insurance against unemployment, in order to ascertain whether they are willing to grant to Swiss citizens established in their territories absolute equality of treatment as regards insurance against unemployment, or whether they intend to make the treatment to be accorded to Swiss citizens dependent upon certain conditions. Up to the present, an agreement has been concluded with Italy, and arrangements have been made, by an exchange of notes, with Austria, Germany, Poland and Denmark. Switzerland has also made an agreement for the application of the principle of equality of treatment as regards unemployment insurance with Czechoslovakia, a State which has not ratified the Convention.”

III

Article 5 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which has ratified this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where, owing to the local conditions, its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

South Africa. — The report states that the Union of South Africa has no colonies, protectorates or possessions.

Denmark. — The instrument of ratification specified that the Convention should not apply to Greenland.

France. — Owing to local conditions the Convention has not up to now been applied in French overseas possessions. In Algeria, which is covered by the provisions concerning the finding of employment of Book I, Part IV of the Labour Code, a Decree of 16 March 1927 makes the provisions of the Act of 2 February 1925 applicable, with certain modifications. There are two departmental and municipal
employment offices in Algeria; one at Algiers, the other at Oran. There are also two municipal employment offices in the Department of Algiers, at Blida and Orléansville.

**Great Britain.** — This Convention has been applied to none of the British colonies, protectorates and mandated territories. Reasons for non-application in certain cases are as follows:

**Barbados.** — The organisation of industry in this Colony which is mainly devoted to the cultivation of sugar renders the establishment of the agencies unnecessary, and the establishment of a scheme of unemployment insurance impracticable. The labouring population is not sufficiently organised or developed to start one.

**British Honduras.** — In the present undeveloped conditions of the Colony, and regard being had to the mixed population and the nature of their occupations, it was considered undesirable that the Convention should apply to British Honduras. It would be difficult to apply the Convention to the Maya Indians and Caribs. Among the negro population there is little industrial employment except timber cutting in virgin forests. In this industry the men work under task contracts. The tasks are generally defined by the woodcutters themselves, and at a certain time of the year they worked longer hours and preferably at night.

**Ceylon.** — The Governor reported at the time when consulted as regards the application of the Convention that there was no unemployment in the Colony except in the case of individuals who had no wish to be employed. The greatest difficulty which employers in the colony had to meet was that of obtaining a sufficiency of labour.

**Seychelles.** — The Governor reported that it was the practice for employers of labour to obtain their labour through their overseers or even their labourers. The system was also well adapted to the nature of the work, and neither employers nor workmen are, as experience has shown, willing to depart from it. In 1918, when unemployment was rife, an Employment Bureau was formed, but it proved a failure as both employers and employees were averse from any change from the existing system which suited them.

**Straits Settlements.** — The Colonial Government, in reporting that the Convention was inapplicable to the Colony, explained that Europeans and other non-Asiatics came to the Straits Settlements as a rule in order to make temporary procures which would be either inadvisable or impracticable to apply the Convention in such cases.

**Gibraltar.** — Gibraltar possesses no undertakings, industrial or otherwise, to which the Convention could properly relate.

**Cyprus.** — Cyprus is essentially an agricultural country, the land being generally owned and worked by peasant proprietors. There is a proportion of landless peasants, but these are for the most part engaged as free labourers in agricultural pursuits. The rest of the population is almost entirely engaged in commerce. Established industries are negligible at present. The large majority of proprietors of industrial undertakings are illiterate persons who keep no books, and employ in their small concerns mainly members of their own families and relatives. There is, consequently, no organised body of labour in Cyprus, nor is there any Government machinery for dealing with labour, and no statistics as to labour are available. No labour problem can be said to exist, and there is little, if any, unemployment.

**Nigeria.** — The people of Nigeria are a primitive people, and there is no unemployment problem. No machinery could be devised for obtaining the prescribed statistical information, on which a Convention would be of no value. The establishment of a system of free public employment agencies is unnecessary and would be unworkable in the conditions which prevail here. It would also be impossible to frame any system of insurance against unemployment.

**Sierra Leone.** — The Governor pointed out that the Convention was based on conditions existing in a highly organised and industrial community depending on the use of hired labour. In Freetown, Sierra Leone, hired labour, skilled and unskilled, was used to a large extent. As regards skilled labour — that of artisans, clerks, etc. — no employment agency would be of the slightest value to it, the area inside which this skilled labour is required being so small and the employers few that it was easy for any unemployed to find out for themselves when suitable employment was available. Outside Freetown the scope for skilled labour was limited, and it was recruited by Government and the firms from Freetown itself. Unskilled labour in the Colony was drawn very largely from the ranks of the natives of the Protectorate who for various reasons had left their chiefdoms. As a rule, there was more of this labour than could get regular employment. An unemployment agency would have the undesirable effect of attracting still greater numbers to Freetown without being able to get them employment, and this would add to the casual labourers who drifted to vagrancy and crime. No system of insurance against unemployment could be introduced into Sierra Leone.

**Italy.** — The application of the Convention has not yet been extended to the colonies, in consequence of local conditions.

**Japan.** — The Government reports that as the conditions in the colonies are different from those of Japan proper the Convention has not yet been applied to them. However, in conformity with the spirit of the Convention, attention is being drawn to the increase and improvement, as far as local conditions permit, of free public employment agencies, and at the same time an effort is being made to super-
vise employment agencies established for profit.

Spain. — The report for 1925 stated that the legislation in force applies to all territories under Spanish sovereignty.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

South Africa. — 9 April 1924.
Austria. — 20 July 1924.
Bulgaria. — 1 January 1926 (date of coming into force of Act of 12 April 1925).
Denmark. — 2 November 1921.
Estonia. — 20 December 1922.
Finland. — 19 October 1921.
France. — The Decree promulgating the Convention was issued on 20 February 1927.
Germany. — 6 June 1925.
Great Britain. — 14 July 1921.
Greece. — 14 July 1921.
India. — 14 July 1921.
Irish Free State. — 4 September 1925.
Italy. — 27 June 1923.
Japan. — 1 April 1923.
Norway. — 23 November 1921.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Rumania. — 30 September 1921.
Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. — 1 April 1927.
Spain. — 4 July 1923.
Sweden. — 27 September 1921.
Switzerland. — 10 October 1922.

Austria. — The enforcement of the Unemployment Insurance Act devolves, in the first place, on the unemployment offices and, in the second place, on the district industrial commissions which control these offices. There are eleven district industrial commissions. The Federal Ministry of Social Affairs is the principal controlling authority. The observance of the requirements of the Act is ensured by the right of inspection and supervision which the Act confers upon the various supervising authorities.

Bulgaria. — The application of the Act of 12 April 1925 is entrusted to the labour inspectors and employment exchange officials under the control of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour.

Denmark. — The Ministry for Home Affairs, assisted by the Director of Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance, is responsible for the application of existing legislation.

Estonia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act of 1 August 1917 is entrusted to the factory inspectors.

Finland. — The supervision of the observance of the legislation in question is entrusted to the Labour Office of the Ministry of Social Affairs and, in particular, to the inspector of public employment exchanges.

France. — The Ministry of Labour (Labour Directorate) is entrusted with the supervision of the application of the relevant laws and regulations. The local supervision of the employment exchanges is exercised by the representatives of the Minister, the regional offices which are State institutions and which supervise not only the technical working of the exchanges but also their finances in consequence of the grant of subsidies by the State. In addition the officers of the public employment exchanges appointed by the Minister of Labour, in conjunction with the officers of the judicial police, ensure the accuracy of the statistics and the maintenance of the principle that no fees are charged.

Germany. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance and of the Orders issued thereunder is entrusted to the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Institute. This Institute exercises its functions under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour of the Reich. Enforcement is ensured by various means: systematic enforcement is mainly guaranteed by the considerable administrative independence which the employers and workers are allowed and by a special procedure for reaching deci-
sions upon questions concerning the right to insurance. This procedure is kept entirely apart from the administrative bodies.

**Great Britain.** — Compliance with the various Employment Exchange and Unemployment Insurance Acts is enforceable under specific provisions contained in the Acts. As the furnishing of statistics by the employment exchanges is under the control of the Ministry of Labour, no other measures for enforcement are necessary. Associations of employers and employed are not compelled to furnish statistics, but these returns have for many years been rendered voluntarily. The Ministry of Labour, through the Intelligence and Statistical Department, furnishes statistics and other information to the International Labour Office. Through the Unemployment Insurance Department it administers the employment exchanges and the schemes for unemployment benefit.

**Greece.** — The Directorate of Labour and Social Welfare supervises the application of the relevant legislation and regulations. The direct supervision of the public employment exchanges is attributed to the labour inspectors by the new Legislative Decree.

**India.** — The machinery set up for providing employment under the Provincial Famine Codes is supervised by the Government through the revenue staff, supplemented where necessary by special officers and staff appointed for the purpose.

**Irish Free State.** — The Department of Industry and Commerce is responsible for the application of the legislative and administrative regulations bearing on the Convention.

**Italy.** — The supervision of the provincial employment offices is carried out by the Labour and Social Welfare Sections of the Provincial Economic Councils, while that of the national and interregional offices is entrusted to the Ministry for Corporations. This Ministry is also responsible, in conjunction with the Ministry for National Economy, for all the employment offices, in accordance with the new Decrees.

**Japan.** — The enforcement of the relevant laws and regulations, etc., is entrusted to the Minister for Home Affairs, the central and local employment exchanges and the directors of the employment exchange boards.

**Norway.** — The inspector of employment exchanges and unemployment funds supervises the activities of these institutions.

**Poland.** — The supervision of employment exchanges is carried out, in pursuance of the Act of 2 August 1919, by the voivods as intermediary authorities and by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare as the final authority.

**Rumania.** — The supervision of the application of the Act of 30 September 1921 devolves upon the Directorate of the Employment Exchange Service and is carried out by the factory inspectors.

**Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.** — The supervision of the application of the Act and the Regulation concerned is entrusted to the Minister for Social Affairs while the supervision of the application of the Order is entrusted to the prefects as well as to the Ministers for Social Affairs and for Commerce and Industry.

**Spain.** — Previous reports stated that supervision is exercised by the Ministry of Labour, to which the central labour inspection service is attached.

**Sweden.** — The enforcement of the legislation mentioned under I is entrusted to the Royal Department of Labour and Social Welfare and to the committees of the employment exchanges, which work under the direction and supervision of the Department. The supervision exercised by the Royal Department is carried out by inspection of the employment exchanges and their various branches, as well as by detailed reports upon their activities which the exchanges are required to render at regular intervals. Meetings of the heads of the employment exchanges are also arranged from time to time. The provincial governors and the local police authorities are responsible for the enforcement of the Royal Decree of 5 May 1916 concerning employment agents.

**Switzerland.** — The Federal Labour Office is responsible for collecting and communicating to the International Labour Office statistical and other information concerning unemployment. As regards the employment exchanges, the enforcement of the Order of 11 November 1924 is the duty of the Cantons, under the supervision of the Federal Department of Public Economy and, in particular, of the Federal Labour Office.

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**Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country.**

**South Africa.** — The report of the Union Government makes the following observations: “It may be said that the terms of the Convention are finding adequate practical application in the administrative
organisation of the Union affecting the problems of unemployment. It is recognised that, owing to the absence of any system of registration, there is a lack of complete information concerning the actual incidence of unemployment; but, while the absence of data may present a serious aspect on statistical grounds, in practice the existing information, in which the periodical and occasional reports of the Department of Labour’s Inspectorate play an important part, is sufficient to enable the position to be systematically watched and dealt with. Except for the Juvenile Employment Sections, the Employment Exchange Service is admittedly not as effective as it might be in functioning as the local agency for employment purposes. In the absence of an unemployment insurance scheme, this position is almost inevitable. Unemployment insurance is at present the subject of investigation by a Government Commission, and, once a system is established, the measure should play an important part in the distribution of employment. As regards private employment exchanges, owing to the system of strict control under the provisions of the Industrial Conciliation Act, the number of these agencies is not increasing and their influence in finding work for the unemployed is inconsiderable.”

Bulgaria. — The report states that very good progress is being made with the application of the Act of 12 April 1925 under unfavourable social and economic conditions (a large number of refugees and an economic crisis). Almost all wage-earning and salaried employees are insured against unemployment.

India. — The report states that an enquiry was made during the year from local Governments as to whether recent industrial developments in India had not been such as to modify to any extent the situation which had previously led the Government of India to decide in the negative the question of employment agencies. The replies have now been received and are under the consideration of the Government of India.

Japan. — The report states that since 1926 the Government has instructed the six great cities concerned to undertake public works for the relief of unemployment and has made them a Treasury grant. In November 1927 the Minister of Home Affairs instituted an enquiry, addressed to the central and local exchange commissions, into the working of the service. On the basis of the replies received various improvements will be made. Another enquiry into the method of finding employment for miners has recently been begun.

Sweden. — Two Commissions appointed by the Government were engaged in 1928 in enquiring into various unemployment questions. One of these Commissions, which was appointed on 9 April 1926, was instructed to examine the question of unemployment insurance and other methods of dealing with the effects of unemployment and to make proposals upon the subject. It submitted its report on 25 April 1928. The task of the other Commission, appointed on 11 March 1927, is to examine the nature and causes of unemployment, as well as the means of preventing it. The Royal Department of Labour and Social Welfare has laid before the Government a proposal for the revision of the Royal Decree of 5 May 1916 in order to secure more uniform and restrictive application of the provisions relating to private employment agencies.

Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

This Convention first came into force on 13 June 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14. 2. 1922</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>15. 9. 1925</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>31. 10. 1927</td>
<td>28. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>19. 11. 1920</td>
<td>27. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>3. 6. 1926</td>
<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>13. 6. 1921</td>
<td>8. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom</td>
<td>4. 4. 1927</td>
<td>14. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>4. 7. 1923</td>
<td>8. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

The Greek Government states that the Convention was put into effect by Act No. 2274 of 1 July 1920. This Act contained the text of the Convention and prescribed in § 3 that the provisions of the Convention should be incorporated by Royal Decree in the existing laws. The Government further states that the Ministry of National Economy, by its Circular No. 23 of 16 July 1920 to all competent authorities, explained the purpose of Act No. 2274 and invited those authorities to communicate its contents to the workers’
and employers' organisations and to endeavour to explain its provisions to them. (See also the introductory note to the Hours Convention.)

As regards Rumania, the Convention is applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work, which came into force on 13 April 1928. The Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which applies the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the legislation, etc., to the International Labour with this report.

Bulgaria.

Social Insurance Act of 6 March 1924 (L. S. 1924, Bulg. 1).


Germany.

Act of 16 July 1927 respecting the Washington Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

Act of 10 July 1927 respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth (L. S. 1927, Ger. 8 A), amended by Act of 29 October 1927 (L. S. 1927, Ger. 8 B).


Order of 13 February 1924 respecting compulsory social relief.

Greece.


Decree of 24 July 6 August 1912 constituting the Labour Inspection Department (B. B. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 302).

Latvia.

Sickness Insurance Code, 1922 (L. S. 1922, Lat. 2), amended by the Order of 17 May 1926 (L. S. 1926, Lat. 1).

Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work (L. S. 1922, Lat. 1).

Order of 13 September 1923 respecting the hours of work of railway employees (L. S. 1923, Lat. 2).

Order of 4 October 1923 respecting the hours of work of postal, telegraph and telephone employees.

Rumania.

Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work (L. S. 1928, Rum. 1).

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922 (L. S. 1922, S.C.S. 1).

Act of 4 May 1922 respecting women's insurance (L. S. 1922, S.C.S. 2).


Spain.


Act of 13 July 1922 for the ratification of the Convention.

Act of 28 July 1922 opening a credit in the Budget and the establishment of a State system of insurance and benefit in order to give effect to the benefit provisions of the Convention.

Royal Decree of 21 August 1928 amending section 9 of the Act of 13 March 1900 (L. S. 1928, Sp. 4) and Royal Order of 18 June 1925 relating to section 9.

Royal Order of 5 January 1924 extending the provisions of the law and of the Convention to women school-teachers.

Royal Order of 18 June 1925 ordering an inquiry into maternity insurance.

Royal Order of 15 September 1926 extending maternity benefit to women officials of all Government Departments and public bodies.

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "industrial undertaking" includes particularly:

(a) Mines, quarries, and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, repaired, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up or demolished, or in which materials are transformed; including shipbuilding and the generation, transformation, and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind.

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland waterway, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, waterwork, or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for or laying the foundation of any such work or structure.

(d) Transport of passengers or goods by road, rail, sea, or inland waterway, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves, and warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "commercial undertaking" includes any place where articles are sold or where commerce is carried on.
The competent authority in each country shall define the line of division which separates industry and commerce from agriculture.

In addition, please state what decisions, if any, have been taken in regard to the last paragraph of Article 1.

Bulgaria. — The Social Insurance Act of 6 March 1924 covers all wage-earning and salaried employees of a State, public or private establishment, undertaking or estate, who are not liable to deductions from their pay under any clause of the Pensions Act. The term “ wage-earning and salaried employees ” is held to mean “ all persons engaged for work, irrespective of sex, age, nationality or nature of employment or remuneration.” The Act thus makes no distinction between workers employed in industry, commerce and agriculture, insurance being obligatory in all cases except where the worker is covered through other State funds.

Germany. — The report states that the scope of the Insurance Code of the Reich and of § 1 of the Act of 16 July 1927 respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth is in conformity with the Convention. Up to the present no decision has been necessary to define the line of division which separates industry and commerce from agriculture.

Greece. — The Act No. 2274 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. The line of division which separates industry and commerce from agriculture has not yet been defined. The report states, however, that for the application of this Convention the definition of “industrial factories and workshops”, as opposed to “agriculture”, which is given in § 2 of the Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1918, holding that Agriculture, cattle-breeding, forestry and works of a similar nature having the character of the preparation of the producer’s own products are excluded from the application of the Decree.

Latvia. — The Sickness Insurance Code applies to all private communal and State undertakings, institutions and other workplaces, and also to all private individuals employing labour for remuneration; it does not apply to persons employed in agricultural undertakings. The Act of 24 March 1922 applies to all private, municipal, public and State undertakings and establishments; special provisions for railway workers and for postal, telegraph and telephone employees are contained in the Orders of 13 September and 4 October 1923. The report does not refer to the line of division which separates industry and commerce from agriculture.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928 applies (§ 27) to all industrial and commercial undertakings. No distinction is drawn between industry and commerce on the one hand and agriculture on the other, but provision is made in § 4 for the settlement of contested cases by the Ministry of Labour, after consultation with the Superior Labour Council.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, Slovenes. — The Act of 28 February 1922, (§ 1) applies to all undertakings (establishments) carrying on handicrafts, industry, commerce, transport, mining and similar activities within the territory of the Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom in which workers are employed, irrespective of whether they belong to private individuals or public bodies, whether they are carried on permanently or temporarily, whether they are principal undertakings or subsidiary businesses carried on in connection with other undertakings, or whether they are carried on as entirely independent undertakings or form part of undertakings in agriculture and forestry. In case of doubt, the Ministry of Social Affairs shall decide whether an undertaking comes under this Act or not, after hearing the chambers and councils concerned.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1923 provides that § 9 of the Act of 13 March 1900 (amended by the Act of 8 January 1907) respecting the employment of women and children shall be amended to cover all women wage-earners. In virtue of § 9 as amended all women wage-earners are covered by the provisions relating to absence from work and the right to continued employment. As regards maternity benefit, § 8 of the Decree lays down that provisionally, and pending the establishment of a compulsory insurance fund, maternity relief is to be granted to all women wage-earners and salaried employees on the condition, inter alia, that they are affiliated to the compulsory system of workers’ pensions, which applies to workers in industry, commerce and agriculture whose earnings are not more than 4,000 pesetas a year. The Royal Order of 5 January 1924 provides that women school-teachers, pupil teachers, inspectors or officials of any kind under the Ministry of Public Instruction and Fine Arts are to be covered by the general system instituted by the Royal Decree of 21 August 1923. A Royal Order of 15 September 1926 further extended maternity benefit to cover the women officials of all official Departments and public bodies.

ARTICLE 2.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term “ woman ” signifies any female person, irrespective of age or nationality, whether married or unmarried, and the term “ child ” signifies any child whether legitimate or illegitimate.

Bulgaria. — No specific definitions of the terms “ woman ” and “ child ” are
given in the Social Insurance Act which, however, covers persons engaged for work irrespective of sex, age or nationality.

Germany. — The Act respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth applies to female industrial workers who are subject to compulsory sickness insurance. These workers are consequently always covered by the Act, since they are subject to compulsory insurance irrespective of the amount of their wages. The present limit of compulsory insurance for female workers in commerce is an annual salary of 3,600 Reichsmarks. No distinction is made between married and unmarried women and legitimate and illegitimate children, nor as to age or nationality. In cases to which the compulsory sickness insurance scheme does not apply, the same scheme applies (§ 27) to women of all ages, whether married or unmarried, and whether they are remunerated in accordance with a free agreement between private individuals, and who are remunerated in accordance with a free agreement or under the law or special regulations.


Latvia. — The legislation cited in the report does not specifically define the terms “woman” and “child”, but the Sickness Insurance Code applies to all persons, without distinction of sex or age, who work or serve in the undertakings covered by the Code or under private individuals, and who are remunerated in accordance with a free agreement or under the law or special regulations.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928 applies (§ 27) to women of all ages, whether married or unmarried, and whether their children are legitimate or illegitimate.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — Under § 25 of the Workers’ Protection Act a woman means any female person, without distinction of age, status (married or unmarried), or nationality and a child means any child, legitimate or illegitimate.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1928 provides that § 9 of the Act of 13 March 1900 shall be amended to cover “all women wage-earners, irrespective of age, nationality or marital status.”

ARTICLE 8.

In any public or private industrial or commercial undertaking or in any branch thereof, other than an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed, a woman

(a) Shall not be permitted to work during the six weeks following her confinement.
(b) Shall have the right to leave her work if she produces a medical certificate stating that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks.

(c) Shall, while she is absent from her work in pursuance of paragraphs (a) and (b), be paid benefits sufficient for the full and healthy maintenance of herself and her child, provided either out of public funds or by means of a system of insurance, the general amount of which shall be determined by the competent authority in each country, and as an additional benefit shall be entitled to free attendance by a doctor or certified midwife. No mistake of the medical adviser in estimating the date of confinement shall prejudice a woman receiving these benefits from the date of the medical certificate up to the date on which the confinement actually takes place.

(d) Shall in any case, if she is nursing her child, be allowed half an hour twice a day during her working hours for this purpose.

Bulgaria. — The social Insurance Act and the regulations do not contain an exception for undertakings where only members of the same family are employed. With regard to the provisions of paragraphs (a) and (b), § 21 of the Act defines the period of confinement as “a period of not more than twelve weeks, not less than one nor more than six of which precede the confinement, and not less than one nor more than six of which follow it,” and provides that a woman shall not be dismissed during this period. With regard to pecuniary benefits and medical attendance, by § 21 pregnant and lying-in women, provided that they have paid their membership contributions to the social insurance fund for not less than sixteen consecutive weeks before the period of confinement, are entitled to medical and pecuniary assistance to the extent specified in the Act. The benefits amount to from 12 to 30 leva a day for home treatment, or 8 to 22 leva a day for hospital treatment; the medical relief includes the services of a doctor or midwife and the supply of the necessary pharmaceutical products and provision is made for hospital treatment in cases where the medical officer decides that this is necessary. A mistake of the medical practitioner in fixing the date of the confinement does not disqualify the woman from receiving the benefits. Lastly with regard to nursing intervals, the same section provides that “during a period of six months after her confinement, every mother nursing her child shall be granted two half-hour breaks a day at her request, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon, without deduction from her wages.”

Germany. — The provisions of paragraph (a) of the Article are carried out by § 2 (2) of the Act respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth. Effect is given to paragraph (b) by § 2 (1) of the Act. Paragraph (c) is carried out by the maternity benefit provisions in the Insurance Code of the Reich and paragraph (d) by § 3 of the Act respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth.
taking has been classified as dangerous to the family are employed, unless the under­

social insurance medical officer. The right request of the woman, her husband or the

grant leave to pregnant women either at the

or unhealthy. § 28 requires employers to

which only the members of the same

wages. In ease of the death of the mother,

sick fund has the right to decide that a

medical certificate, and the date of con­

receiving benefit from the date upon which

tenance of the child for eight months,

of the mother or her husband, in case of

illness resulting from pregnancy or

confinement, on production of a medical
certificate. Such an extension may not

exceed two months, in addition to the

six weeks. Throughout her absence (§ 81)

the woman is entitled to an indemnity

for the maintenance of herself and her

child and to free medical attendance under

the conditions laid down by the Sickness

Insurance Act. Under § 32, a woman

who is nursing her child is entitled, in

addition to the usual rest hours, to two

rest periods of half an hour every day
during her working hours. These rest

periods may not be made a pretext for

reducing her wages. Under § 33 under­

takeings employing at least 50 women

workers must provide a special room for

the use of nursing mothers.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — (a) The Act of 28 February 1922 lays

down in § 22 that all work in the under­
takings mentioned in § 1 of the Act shall

be prohibited for women during the two

months before and the two months after

confinement; (b) a pregnant woman has

the right to cease all work in the under­

taking where she is employed as soon as

it is shown by a medical certificate that

her confinement is expected within two

months; (c) within the limits of the above

mentioned four months a woman is en­
titled to all benefits accruing to her under

the Workers' Sickness Insurance Act of

14 May 1922. § 45 of this Act provides

that in case of confinement the insured

persons shall have the right to the following

allowances: the requisite assistance from

a midwife and medical attendance, ma­
ternity benefit for two months before and

two months after the confinement at a
daily rate of three-quarters of the basic

wage, child endowment benefit amounting

to fourteen times the basic wage provided

that the child is born alive, nursing benefit

for insured women who nurse their children

themselves, for twenty weeks after the

cessation of the maternity benefit at a
daily rate of half of the basic wage but

not more than 3 dinars. Any insured

woman who is medically certified to be

unable to nurse her child herself shall

Greece. — The Act No. 2274 of 1 July 1920
contains the text of the Convention.

Latvia. — § 12 of the Act of 24 March
1922 provides that women may not be
employed on any work during the four
weeks preceding and the eight weeks
following confinement; a woman may
not be dismissed during these twelve weeks.

Under § 16 every woman who nurses her
child herself must be granted one hour's
rest for every eight hours' work, provided
that she may avail herself of this rest in
the same way during their weeks must
be included in the hours of work and no
deduction from wages may be made on
account of them. Similar provisions are
contained in § 11 of the Order of 13
September 1923 and § 18 of the Order
of 4 October 1923. As regards benefits,
the Sickness Insurance Code, which set
up a system of sick funds in Latvia,
provides for medical assistance during
confinement and specifies that it shall
include attendance, free supply of medi­
cines, dressings and other medical re­
quises. Pecuuiary benefits are provided
for in § 51 and 51 (2) of the Code, as
amended by the Order of 17 May 1926. In
case of confinement every female member
of a sick fund is entitled to benefits amount­
ing to a sum equal to full wages, or at
least to the average wage of an unskilled
female worker as fixed by the Ministry
for Social Welfare, for a period of four
weeks before and eight weeks after con­
finement. Women in childbirth are
entitled to benefit only during the period
when they actually abstain from paid
work. In order to establish her claim to
benefit, the insured woman must present
a certificate delivered by the medical
officer of the fund, or, with the consent of
the fund, by a midwife, stating that the
confinement will take place within four
weeks. No mistake of the doctor or
midwife in estimating the date of con­
finement may preclude a woman from
receiving benefit from the date upon which
she leaves her work as authorised by the
medical certificate, and the date of con­
finement. The general meeting of the
sick fund has the right to decide that a
female member who has become a mother
shall receive extra benefit, for the main­
tenance of the child for eight months,
amounting to about one-quarter of her
wages. In case of the death of the mother,
both the maternity benefit and the extra
benefit are paid to the guardians of the child.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928
does not apply (§ 3) to undertakings in
which only the members of the same
family are employed, unless the under­
taking has been classified as dangerous
or unhealthy. § 28 requires employers to
grant leave to pregnant women either at
the request of the woman, her husband or the
social insurance medical officer. The right
to leave work is granted on production
of a certificate from the social insurance
medical officer or the medical officer of
the Government, department or commune,
containing a declaration that the con­
finement will probably take place within
six weeks. The medical officer decides,
within the limits of this period, how long
an absence from work is necessary, taking
into account the state of the woman's
health and the nature of her employment.
In the same way the employer may be
requested to decrease the amount of work
of a pregnant woman or to change its
nature, for two weeks. Under § 28, that the employment of women for six
weeks after childbirth is prohibited. This
period may be extended at the request
of the woman or her husband, in case of
illness resulting from pregnancy or
confinement, on production of a medical
certificate. Such an extension may not
exceed two months, in addition to the
six weeks. Throughout her absence (§ 81)
the woman is entitled to an indemnity
for the maintenance of herself and her
child and to free medical attendance under
the conditions laid down by the Sickness
Insurance Act. Under § 32, a woman
who is nursing her child is entitled, in
addition to the usual rest hours, to two
rest periods of half an hour every day
during her working hours. These rest
periods may not be made a pretext for
reducing her wages. Under § 33 under­
takeings employing at least 50 women
workers must provide a special room for
the use of nursing mothers.
receive food for the child not exceeding in value the amount of the nursing benefit due to her instead of the said nursing benefit. Any person who works for a living during a period when she is entitled to benefit will not be entitled to the maternity benefit in respect of the days in which she works for a living; (d) § 24 of the Act of 28 February 1922 lays down that occupiers of undertakings should afford mothers facilities for nursing their children at the proper times. For this purpose every occupier of an undertaking must grant a special break for nursing to mothers who nurse their children themselves, in addition to the ordinary breaks, as follows: (1) if the child is at the mother's dwelling, not more than 30 minutes every four or five hours of work; (2) if the child is in the crèche of the undertaking where the mother works, 15 minutes every four or five hours of work. The ordinary breaks and wages of the mothers concerned may not be reduced on account of this break.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1923 amends § 9 of the Act of 13 March 1900 by providing that “a woman shall not be employed during the six weeks following her confinement” and that “a woman in the eighth month of pregnancy shall be entitled to leave her work on production of a medical certificate stating that her confinement will probably take place within six weeks.” With regard to benefits, § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1923 provides that women in childbirth entitled to benefits shall be given during their absence from work the free attendance of a doctor or midwife and a daily benefit sufficient for the healthy maintenance of the mother and child. By the provisional benefit system set up, the State grants a subvention or bonus of 50 pesetas for each confinement in order to meet the costs of medical assistance and for the maintenance of mother and child. All women wage-earning and salaried employees are on confinement entitled to the above allowance provided that they are covered by the compulsory pensions system, that they do not abandon the newly-born child and that they refrain from all work for a fortnight. The provisions for nursing mothers are contained in § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1923 amending § 9 E (2) of the Act of 13 March 1900. Nursing mothers are “entitled to one hour’s rest in the day during working hours for the purpose of nursing their children, to be taken in two breaks of half an hour each.” These breaks may be taken “whenever the mothers think fit, with no other formality than notification to the manager on beginning work of the times which they have chosen. No deduction of any kind shall be made from wages in respect of the hour’s break for nursing.” In the case of the persons covered by the Orders of 5 January 1924 and 15 September 1926, it is provided that when any one of the persons mentioned shall have reached the eighth month of pregnancy, she shall have the right to absent herself from her employment with full salary until confinement and during forty days after confinement.

**ARTICLE 4.**

Where a woman is absent from her work in accordance with paragraphs (a) or (b) of Article 3 of this Convention, or remains absent from her work for a longer period as a result of illness medically certified to arise out of pregnancy or confinement and rendering her unfit for work, it shall not be lawful, until her absence shall have exceeded a maximum period to be fixed by the competent authority in each country, for her employer to give her notice of dismissal during such absence, nor to give her notice of dismissal at such a time that the notice would expire during such absence.

**Bulgaria.** — The Social Insurance Act provides by § 21 that “a woman shall not be dismissed during pregnancy or confinement on account of her pregnancy”; nevertheless, if she is sick for more than six weeks in consequence of her confinement, she may be dismissed and treated as a sick person at the expense of the Fund in accordance with the general provisions.

**Germany.** — The protection of women against dismissal is secured by § 4 of the Act respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth. This protection covers the period six weeks before and six weeks after confinement. It may be extended for a maximum of six further weeks if the worker is unable to resume her work owing to illness arising out of her pregnancy or confinement.

**Greece.** — The Act No. 2274 contains the text of the Convention.

**Latvia.** — The Act of 24 March 1922 provides in § 12 that women may not be dismissed during the four weeks preceding and the eight weeks following confinement. The other legislative measures cited in the report do not appear to contain specific provisions in this matter. As regards prolonged absence from work, the Sickenss Insurance Code, as amended by the Order of 17 May 1926, provides that an insured woman who is unfit for work on the expiry of the eight weeks after her confinement as a result of illness medically certified to arise out of pregnancy or confinement, shall receive sickness benefit from the first day following the date on which the eight weeks expired equal to not less than two-thirds and not more than the total amount of her wages. This benefit is to be paid until the day of recovery, but not for more than 26 weeks, and in case of recurring sickness not for more than 30 weeks in the course of a year. For the calculation of the 26 or 30 weeks, the period during which the
insured woman may have received maternity benefit may not be included.

Rumania. — § 30 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that an employer may not dismiss a woman who is absent in accordance with the provisions of the Act, nor may he give her notice of dismissal at such a time that the notice would expire during her absence.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922 lays down in § 23 that a lying-in woman who is ill for more than two months shall not be dismissed by her employer until she has completely recovered, unless the illness lasts for more than one year reckoned from: the day of her confinement.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1923 amends § 9 (C) of the Act of 13 March 1900 to provide that during the six weeks before and the six weeks after childbirth the employer is required to keep the woman worker's employment open for her. By the amended § 9 (D), where a woman leaves or remains absent from her work for periods exceeding the two periods of six weeks "on the ground of an illness which is medically certified to be due to pregnancy or confinement and which renders her unfit for work," the obligation to keep the employment open continues to be binding on the employer for a period not exceeding twenty weeks.

Article 6 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Spain. — In its first annual report the Government stated that Spanish legislation on the subject of the Convention is applicable to all colonies and protectorates.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Bulgaria. — 14 February 1922.

Germany. — 31 October 1927.

Greece. — 13 June 1921.

Latvia. — 3 June 1926.

Rumania. — 13 April 1928, the date of coming into force of the Act of 9 April 1928.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — 1 April 1927.

Spain. — 22 August 1923.

Please state upon which date the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Bulgaria. — The application of the Social Insurance Act is entrusted to the factory inspectors under the control of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour. The Ministry is assisted by the Superior Labour and Social Insurance Council consisting of sixteen representatives of the State, eight of employers, eight of wage-earning employees, two of the medical profession and eight persons "well known on account of their work in connection with social legislation." Applications for medical attendance and pecuniary benefit are dealt with by the factory inspection authorities. All hospitals and sanatoria in Bulgaria are bound to admit the sick insured persons duly assigned to them and preference must be given to maternity cases. All doctors and chemists are likewise bound to give or to procure the services required of them.

Germany. — Under an amending Act of 29 October 1927 the supervision of the application of the Act of 16 July 1927 respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth is entrusted to the factory inspectorate.

Greece. — The application of the relevant laws and regulations is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the inspector of mines.

Latvia. — The application of the legislation mentioned in the report is entrusted to the Labour Department of the Ministry of Social Welfare and to the Ministry of Communications.

Rumania. — § 49 of the Act of 9 April 1928 makes the inspectorate appointed under the Act concerning the organisation
of the factory inspectorate of 13 April 1927 responsible for reporting infringements of the Act.

**Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.** — The enforcement of the Workers’ Protection Act is entrusted to the regional labour inspectors.

**Spain.** — As regards the application of the legislative measures relating to benefits, paragraphs (C), (D) and (E) of § 9 of the Act of 13 March 1900 as amended by § 1 of the Royal Decree of 21 August 1923 lay down that the administration and distribution of the initial maternity fund created for providing these benefits shall devolve upon the National Welfare Institute. The Institute exercises these functions on the basis of the co-operation of regional and provincial funds. For purposes of the distribution of benefits, these bodies utilise, in their turn, the maternity friendly societies of each locality, or in their absence, the mutual assistance societies or Montepios of which the recipients of benefits are members, and which, in the judgment of their regional and provincial funds, offer sufficient guarantees. The Institute, and the funds working with it, endeavour to promote the constitution of maternity friendly societies. The benefits must be applied for within three months from the date of confinement, the application being addressed in writing to the regional or provincial fund concerned, or, in absence thereof, to the National Welfare Institute, and accompanied by the documents required by the law. The fact that the administration and distribution of maternity benefit falls to the National Welfare Institute means that the supervision of application devolves upon the inspectorate of the compulsory old age pension system, the duties of which are, in accordance with § 1 of its provisional regulations of 24 July 1921, to see that employers fulfil their obligation to insure all their workers and employees who are covered by the system in accordance with the regulations. As regards the other provisions relating to the employment of women before and after childbirth, their enforcement falls to the authorities and the general body of labour inspectors.

**Germany.** — The report states that in some parts of the Reich the factory inspectorate is assisted in its work by the social welfare officials and the insurance funds. The Ministry of Labour issued an Order on 15 November 1917 and the Government of Wurttemberg has circulated a Memorandum on the subject. The sickness insurance statistics for 1926 show that maternity benefit was paid to compulsorily insured members as follows: (a) district funds, to 106,535 members; (b) works funds, to 24,738 members; and (c) hand workers’ funds, to 1,633 members.

**Latvia.** — The report states that the provisions of the Convention apply to about 68,000 persons.

**Spain.** — The report states that the Spanish system works without difficulty. The Government, wishing to pass from the system of State subsidies at present in force to the system of compulsory insurance, requested the National Provident Institute to prepare a preliminary draft. This draft has been discussed and approved, with some amendments, by the National Assembly since the beginning of 1929.

**Convention concerning employment of women during the night.**

This Convention first came into force on 13 June 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>1.11 1921</td>
<td>5. 2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12. 6.1924</td>
<td>19. 1.1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>12. 7.1924</td>
<td>26. 12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14. 2.1922</td>
<td>18. 2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>24. 8.1921</td>
<td>14. 1.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>14. 5.1925</td>
<td>26. 1.1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>14. 7.1921</td>
<td>12. 1.1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>19.11.1920</td>
<td>27. 3.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>14. 7.1921</td>
<td>7. 2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>4. 9.1925</td>
<td>15.12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>10. 4.1923</td>
<td>19. 2.1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>4. 9.1922</td>
<td>21.12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
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<td>8. 2.1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slovene</td>
<td>1. 4.1927</td>
<td>14. 3.1929</td>
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<td>Kingdom</td>
<td>1. 4.1927</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>9.10.1922</td>
<td>12. 1.1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the factory inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.
The **Austrian** Government states that the promulgation in the *Bundesgesetzblatt* of 19 July 1924 of the ratification of the Convention gave force of law in Austria to the actual provisions of the Convention. The subject is also dealt with in Austria by the Act of 14 May 1919 relating to the prohibition of night work for women and young persons in industrial undertakings and by the Mining Act of 28 July 1919. The application of the Convention is therefore effected by these two Acts, which were passed before ratification, within the limits of the Convention and in accordance with the provisions of Article 350 of the Treaty of St. Germain.

The **Greek** Government states that the Convention is applied by Act No. 2275 of 1 July 1920, by the Act of 1913 concerning the work of women and minors, by the Decree of 14/27 August 1918, and by various ministerial circulars. As explained in previous reports the Act of 1920 contained the text of the Convention and prescribed in § 3 that the provisions of the Convention should be incorporated by Royal Decree in the existing laws. The Ministry of National Economy, by its Circular No. 23 of 16 July 1920 to all competent authorities, explained the purpose of Act No. 2275 and invited these authorities to communicate its contents to the workers' and employers' organisations and to endeavour to explain its provisions to them. The report for 1928 further states that a new Circular No. 71,729 requires the competent authorities to apply the Convention strictly.

As regards **Rumania**, the Convention is applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work, which came into force on 13 April 1928. The Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

**South Africa.**


**Indirectly**: Industrial Conciliation Act No. 11 of 1924 (L.S. 1924, S.A. 1).

**India.**

Indian Factories Act, 1911, as subsequently amended (L.S. 1926, Ind. 2).

**Irish Free State.**

Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.

Italy.


Legislative Decree of 15 March 1928 amending the Act of 10 November 1907 (L.S. 1923, II. 4).

Royal Decree of 29 March 1928 bringing the provisions of the Convention into force in Italy.

Netherlands.

Labour Act, 1919, as subsequently amended (L.S. 1922, Neth. 1).

Mines Regulations of 1906 as amended by Royal Decrees of 9 February 1917 and 7 October 1922 (L.S. 1922, Neth. 4)."
are also specifically excluded from the operation of the Industrial Conciliation Act and the Wage Act. Subject to this, no restriction is imposed on the class of occupation which may be regulated under the latter Acts.

**Austria.** — The Act of 14 May 1919 relating to the prohibition of night work for women and young persons in industrial undertakings applies to all undertakings covered by the Industrial Code and undertakings owned by corporations, especially those owned by the State, a province or a municipality, to which the Industrial Code would apply if they were carried on by way of trade; to all undertakings and establishments to which the Industrial Code does not apply, in which merchantable articles are produced or materials treated by way of trade, excluding agriculture and forestry and mining undertakings dealing with reserved minerals and works established by virtue of a mining concession. The Mining Act of 28 July 1919 applies to mining undertakings dealing with reserved minerals including works erected under mining concessions. However, by the publication of the text of the Convention in the Bundesgesetzblatt of 19 July 1924 the actual terms of the Convention have been given force of law in Austria. The report also states that no provision in accordance with paragraph 2 of Article 1 was necessary in Austria, because the words “industry, commerce and agriculture”, are exactly defined by the national legislation. However, the term “industrial undertakings” used in the Act of 14 May 1919 does not correspond to the same term as used in the Convention. The industrial undertakings to which the Act applies also include commerce, so that the scope of the Austrian Act is wider than that of the Convention.

**Belgium.** — § 1 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children of 28 February 1919, as amended by § 81 of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 14 June 1921, defines the field of application as: (1) undertakings covered by the Eight-Hour Day Act; (2) establishments classified as dangerous, unhealthy and noxious; (3) transport by water. The undertakings covered by the Eight-Hour Day Act are given in § 1 of this Act as follows: (1) mines, surface mines, quarries and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth; (2) industries in which goods are manufactured, raw materials or manufactured articles transformed, ornamented, finished, cleaned, or adapted for sale; (3) repair, cleaning, restoration of materials, effects or other used goods, as well as demotion of materials; (4) building and auxiliary industries, including maintenance, repair and demolition; (5) public works; (6) private works executed by civil engineers (génie civil), other than those proper to the building industry; (7) gas and water-works; (8) generation, transformation and transhipment of electricity and motive power; (9) construction, transformation and demolition of ships and boats, their maintenance or repair by workers other than the crews; (10) transport by land; (11) loading, unloading and handling of goods at ports, quays, warehouses and stations; (12) dairies and cheese-factories; (13) offices of commercial undertakings. The provisions of the Act apply to both public and private undertakings, even when they serve the purposes of trade instruction or are of a philanthropic nature. The Act does not apply to agriculture. It applies to commercial undertakings when and to the same extent as the Eight-Hour Day Act, in accordance with § 1 of the Act of 14 June 1921, is extended by Royal Order to cover these undertakings.

**Bulgaria.** — The Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers, § 18 of which prohibits the night work of women, applies to all industrial undertakings, workshops, commercial undertakings, construction and transport undertakings.” § 1 (1)). Agricultural undertakings are excluded, but industrial and commercial undertakings carried on in connection therewith, e.g., workshops, transport undertakings, etc., are subject to the night work prohibition.

**Czecho-Slovakia.** — The Eight-Hour Day Act of 19 December 1918, § 9 of which prohibits the night work of women, applies generally to industries, to commerce and, save for a few exceptions, to agri-
culture. The report states that it has not been necessary in Czechoslovakia to define the line separating industry from commerce and agriculture.

**Estonia.** — § 1 (a) to (e) of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act of 20 May 1924 reproduces the terms of Article 1 (a) to (e) of the Convention, with the addition that among the works for the extraction of minerals from the earth are specifically included peat digging undertakings. The report for 1926 stated that no decision had been taken with regard to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture. Existing provisions are considered sufficiently definite, but should doubts arise in specific cases they would be settled by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

**France.** — The industrial undertakings to which the provisions of the Convention are applicable are enumerated in § 1 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare as follows: works, factories, mines (underground and open workings), quarries, yards, workshops, and their dependencies, of any kind whatsoever, public or private, lay or religious, even when these establishments are of an educational or charitable character.

**Great Britain.** — § 4 of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reads: "The expression 'industrial undertaking' has with respect to the employment of children, young persons and women the meanings respectively assigned thereto in the Conventions set out in Parts I, II and III of the Schedule to this Act." No decisions regarding the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture have been given by the competent authority which in Great Britain would be the Courts of Law.

**Greece.** — The Act No. 2275 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912 applies the night work prohibition to women employed in (a) factories and industrial concerns and workshops, (b) quarries, mines and underground works of any kind, (c) building work and other similar open-air work, (e) commercial concerns and selling places of any kind. The line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture has not been fixed. The report states, however, that for the application of this Convention the definition of "industrial factories and workshops", as opposed to "agriculture", which is given in § 2 of the Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, holds good. Agriculture, cattle-breeding, forestry and works of a similar nature having the character of the preparation of the producer's own products are excluded from the application of the Decree.

**India.** — In accordance with Article 5 of the Convention which provides that the application of Article 3 may be suspended by the Government of India in respect to any undertaking except factories as defined by the national law, the sphere of application is limited to factories as defined in the Indian Factories Act.

**Irish Free State.** — This Article is applied by Section 1 and Part III of the Schedule attached to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, which reproduces its terms. § 4 of the Act reads: "The expression 'industrial undertaking' has with respect to the employment of children, young persons and women the meanings respectively assigned thereto in the Conventions set out in Parts I, II and III of the Schedule to this Act." No decisions have been taken as to the line of demarcation separating industry from commerce and agriculture.

**Italy.** — § 1 of the Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923, amending the Act of 10 November 1907 relating to the employment of women and children, defines factories and workshops as any places where manual work of an industrial nature is performed with or without the aid of machines not driven by the worker using them, irrespective of the number of workers employed and without distinction of age or sex. The report adds that "this provision is couched in such general terms that it evidently includes all the industrial undertakings enumerated in Article 1 of the Convention. During the period to which the report refers, no decision has been taken defining the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture. However, the line of division between these branches of activity is determined by unequivocal criteria already laid down in jurisprudence and administrative practice which has developed since the introduction of the amended system provided for in the above-mentioned Decree."

**Netherlands.** — The employment of women in mines and the mining industry is entirely prohibited by the Mining Regulations of 1906 as amended in 1917 and 1922. In other industries the night work of women is prohibited by the Labour Act of 1919 as subsequently amended. The line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture "is determined by §§ 1-5 of the Labour Act of 1919". § 2 defines factories and workshops both positively and negatively, and § 3 differentiates shops from industrial undertakings.

**Rumania.** — The Act of 9 April 1928 applies (§ 2 (1)) to all industrial and commercial undertakings. It has not therefore been necessary to define the
distinction between industry and commerce. Provision is made, however, in § 4 of the Act for the settlement of contested cases by the Ministry of Labour, after consultation with the Superior Labour Council.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Act of 28 February 1922 applies to all undertakings (establishments) carrying on handicrafts, industry, commerce, transport, mining and similar activities in which workers are employed, irrespective of whether they belong to private individuals or public bodies, whether they are carried on permanently or temporarily, whether they are principal undertakings or subsidiary businesses carried on in connection with other undertakings or whether they are carried on as entirely independent undertakings or form parts of undertakings in agriculture or forestry. The report adds that as the scope of application of the Act is wider than that of the Convention, it has not been necessary to take any decision in respect of the last paragraph of this Article of the Convention.

Switzerland. — The provisions of the Federal Factory Act of 18 June 1914-27 June 1919 which relate to the employment of women, young persons and children were completed by the Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry. The latter Act applies to all public and private industrial undertakings to which the Factory Act does not apply. By § 3 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1923, the term "industrial undertaking" is defined as in Article 1 of the Convention. As regards the line of demarcation which separates industry from commerce and agriculture, the agricultural operations which are excluded from the application of the Federal Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry are defined by § 4 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1923. In the case of commerce, the Act and Order exclude it from their field of application without further definition. Should doubt arise regarding the agricultural or commercial character of a particular undertaking, the decision lies with the Industries and Arts and Crafts Division of the Department of Public Economy, subject to appeal to the Federal Council.

ARTICLE 2.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "night" signifies a period of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning. In those countries where no Government regulation as yet applies to the employment of women in industrial undertakings during the night, the term "night" may provisionally, and for a maximum period of three years, be declared by the Government to signify a period of only ten hours, including the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning. In addition, please state whether, in the circumstances provided for in the second paragraph of this Article, the term "night" has been provisionally declared to signify a period of only ten hours.

South Africa. — § 15 of the Factories Act prohibits the employment of women between the hours of six o'clock in the evening and seven o'clock in the morning, a total period of thirteen hours, which, however, may exceptionally be limited by the Minister to the period between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. The term "night" signifies, therefore, a period of either thirteen or eight hours. Under the Industrial Conciliation Act and the Wage Act a wide latitude is allowed in the fixing of hours of work in accordance with the circumstances of an industry, but the maximum hours permissible under the Factories Act as indicated above may not be exceeded. No declaration under paragraph 2 of the Article was necessary.

Austria. — The Acts of 14 May 1919 and 28 July 1919 define the term "night" as a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. In industrial undertakings in which two or more shifts of not more than eight hours are worked, the night's rest for women over sixteen years of age may begin at 10 p.m. In mines the beginning of the night's rest may also be fixed at 10 p.m. but only in the case of women over eighteen years of age.

Belgium. — The night rest period is defined in § 8 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children, as amended by § 31 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, as consisting of not less than eleven consecutive hours, including the period from 10 p.m. to 5 a.m.

Bulgaria. — § 18 (2) of the Act of 1917 stipulates that "night work shall be held to be work performed between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m." Under Order No. 2634, the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour may authorise in particular cases, and for undertakings where work is continuous, the shift system and where the majority of the workers are women, the employment of women between 5 and 6 a.m. and between 8 and 9 p.m., always provided that the maximum daily limit of working hours is not exceeded. As the working day may not exceed eight hours, the rest period consists of 10 hours. No declaration under paragraph 2 of the Article was necessary.

Czechoslovakia. — § 8 (1) of the Eight-Hour Day Act defines the term "night" as the period between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. and "this period is included in the rest
period of sixteen hours which (according to § 1 of the Act) follows the eight hours of work."

**Estonia.** — According to § 18 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act, the term "night" signifies a period of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m., in undertakings working with a single shift, or the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. in undertakings working with two or more shifts. No use was made of the exemption allowed under paragraph 2 of the Article.

**France.** — § 22 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, provides that "work performed between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. shall be deemed to be night work," and § 23 specifies that "the nightly rest period of children of both sexes and of women shall not be less than eleven consecutive hours."

**Great Britain.** — The Employment of Women, Young Persons, and Children Act, 1920, reproduces in Part III of the Schedule the provisions of the Convention. The application of paragraph 2 of the Article did not arise.

**Greece.** — The Act No. 2275 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. § 8 of the Act of 1912 concerning the work of women and minors prescribes a night rest period of not less than eleven consecutive hours, including the period between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m.

**India.** — According to §§ 24 (a) and 51 (2) of the Factories Act, the normal night period during which employment of women is forbidden is the period between 7 p.m. and 5.30 a.m. but Local Governments are empowered to substitute such one of the following sets of hours as may be deemed suitable: 6.30 p.m. and 5 a.m., 7.30 p.m. and 6 a.m., 8 p.m. and 6.30 a.m., 8.30 p.m. and 7 a.m. Under § 28 of the Act no women may be employed for more than eleven hours per day.

**Irish Free State.** — The Employment of Women, Young Persons, and Children Act, 1920, reproduces in Part III of the Schedule the provisions of the Convention. The term "night" has not been provisionally declared to signify a period of only ten hours.

**Italy.** — § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amended § 5 of the Act of 10 November 1907 to define the term "night" as "a period of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m." No declaration has been made under paragraph 2.

**Netherlands.** — The Labour Act 1919, as amended by the Act of 20 May 1922, prohibits in § 24 (2) the employment of any worker between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m. and stipulates in § 30 (2) that if deviations are authorised under other provisions of the Act "it shall be borne in mind that the work of a young person or a woman in a factory or workplace on two consecutive days must be divided by a night's rest of not less than eleven consecutive hours and that such person must not work in a factory or workplace between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m."

**Rumania.** — § 15 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that the period of rest at night must not be less than eleven consecutive hours and include the interval between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. No use has been made of the exemption allowed by paragraph 2 of the Article.

**Switzerland.** — § 66 of the Federal Factory Act of 18 June 1914-27 June 1919 and § 3 of the Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry define "night" as a period of not less than eleven consecutive hours including the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. No advantage was taken of the exception provided for in the second paragraph of this Article of the Convention.

**South Africa.** — See under **ARTICLE 2.** No reference is made to the exception for family undertakings.

**Austria.** — § 1 (1) of the Act of 14 May 1919 provides that "in undertakings to which the Industrial Code applies (industrial undertakings), women workers, irrespective of age,... shall not be employed at night, i.e., during the hours between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m." As regards mines, § 5 (1) of the Act of 28 July 1919 prescribes that "women, irrespective of age,... shall not be employed in connection with mining at night, i.e., between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m." No reference is made to the exception for undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed.
Belgium. — § 7 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children, as amended by § 81 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, prohibits the employment of women, without distinction of age, during the night. The Act does not apply to "undertakings in which only the members of the family are employed under the supervision of the father, mother or guardian, provided that such work is not classed as dangerous, unhealthy and noxious, and that no steam boilers or mechanical power are used."

Bulgaria. — § 18 (2) of the Act respecting the health and safety of workers provides that "no ... women of any age shall be employed on night work." No reference is made to the exception for undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed under the Act of 1917 that "home work on which only members of the family are employed shall not be subject to inspection unless it is classed as dangerous or unhealthy work."

Czechoslovakia. — The Eight-Hour Day Act of 19 December 1918 prescribes in § 9 (1) that "women shall not be employed on night work." No reference is made to the exception relating to undertakings employing only members of the same family, but the case of persons employed in the employer's household is provided for in § 12 which stipulates, with certain exceptions, that "persons employed in the household of the employer, and living there, and engaged for more than one month, or engaged on personal services... shall be allowed a 12 hours' period of rest in 24, eight of which shall be uninterrupted night's rest, and at least half an hour shall be allowed at midday." The report states that the remaining hours of the 12 hours' period of rest are evening hours and form, therefore, with the eight night hours, an uninterrupted period of rest.

Estonia. — § 17 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act prohibits the night work of women in any of the public or private undertakings enumerated in § 1 (a), (b) and (c) of the Act. No mention is made in the Act of the exception relating to undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed.

France. — § 21 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, provides that "children under the age of eighteen years, whether workers or apprentices, and women, shall not be employed on night work of any kind in the establishments specified in § 1." Under § 1 undertakings in which only the members of the family are employed under the authority of the father, or of the mother, or of the guardian, are excepted.


Greece. — The Act No 2275 of 1 July 1920 includes the text of the Convention. § 6 of Act No. 4029 of 1912 provides that women may not be employed in the undertakings and kinds of work specified in the Act between the hours of 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. The exception relating to family undertakings is not referred to in this Act.

India. — The Factories Act prescribes in § 24 (a) that "no woman shall be employed in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening." The application of the Convention is limited, in accordance with Article 5, to factories as defined in the Factories Act.

Irish Free State. — Part III of the Schedule attached to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the terms of the Convention. § 3 (2) provides that no work in the Act shall apply to an industrial undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed.

Italy. — § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amended § 5 of the Act of 10 November 1907 to read: "Women, irrespective of their age, shall not be employed at night in factories or workplaces or in annexes thereof." In § 1 it is specified that factories and workshops in which only members of the same family are employed are to be excepted.

Netherlands. — The Labour Act as amended prohibits in § 24 (2), the work of all workers in factories and workshops between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m., and in § 30 (2) safeguards the night's rest in the case of women who may be employed by way of exception after 5 a.m. and up to 10 p.m. Work done by the head or the manager of an undertaking or his wife is not covered by the Act (§ 1-1).

Rumania. — § 15 of the Act of 9 April 1928 prohibits the night work of women, irrespective of age. The Act does not apply to undertakings in which only the members of the same family are employed unless these undertakings have been classified as dangerous or unhealthy.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Act of 28 February 1922 provides in § 17 that women, irrespective of their age, shall not be employed at night in the undertakings covered by the Act. Under § 1 of the Act, undertakings in which only members of one and the same family are employed are exceptions hereto.
Switzerland. — The Federal Factory Act (§ 65) and the Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry (§ 3) prohibit the night work of women. By § 1 of the Act of 31 March 1922, undertakings where only members of one and the same family are employed are not covered. § 3 of the Administrative Order under the Factory Act lays down that the members of the family of the head of the undertaking, so long as no other persons are employed, shall not be considered as "workers".

ARTICLE 4.

Article 3 shall not apply:

(a) In cases of force majeure, when in any undertaking there occurs an interruption of work which it was impossible to foresee, and which is not of a recurring character.

(b) In cases where the work has to do with raw materials or materials in course of treatment which are subject to rapid deterioration, when such night work is necessary to preserve the said materials from certain loss.

As regards paragraph (a) please state whether your legislation, etc., imposes any conditions subject to which employers are allowed to take advantage of this exception.

As regards paragraph (b) please give particulars of the processes carried on in your country (stating whether only in certain areas and at certain periods) to which this exception is applicable, as well as the conditions, if any, subject to which your legislation, etc., allows employers to take advantage of it.

South Africa. — The report states that the exceptions referred to in this Article are not included in the provisions of the Factories Act which makes no provision for any exceptions. The exception referred to under Article 2 above, i.e. the reduction of the night period to eight hours, is, however, only used in circumstances analogous to those provided for in paragraph (b) of this Article; it is granted in the case of industries handling raw materials and the employees are guarded by the imposition of the provision which does not permit of the extension of the daily hours prescribed by the Act.

Austria. — As regards paragraph (a), § 3 of the Act of 14 May 1919 provides that women over eighteen years of age may, subject to notification to the inspectors, be employed on night work for not more than eight days if this is necessary in order to remedy a state of disorganisation in an undertaking which could not have been foreseen and does not recur periodically. An undertaking may avail itself of this exception for not more than twenty-four days during the year. § 4 of the Act further provides that if important considerations of national economy or the interests of the workers require it the Department of Social Administration may, after hearing the various employers' and workers' organisations, grant exemptions from the provisions of the Act, specifying wherever necessary the conditions which are to be observed in the employment of women on night work. The Act of 28 July 1919 provides in § 14 that the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Public Works may in the public interest authorise exemptions from the provisions of the Act after hearing the mine-owners and with the consent of the miners' trade unions. The report states that since the Convention came into force exceptions have been allowed only within the limits of Article 4 of the Convention. The exception allowed by paragraph (b) is provided for in § 3 of the Act of 14 May 1919 which prescribes that women over eighteen years of age may, after notification to the inspectors, be employed during the night for eight days at the most if this is necessary in order to prevent an otherwise unavoidable loss of material.

Belgium. — (a) § 14 of the Act of 1919, as amended by § 31 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, provides that, in cases of force majeure, "the Governors (of Provinces) may, on the report of the competent labour inspector, for all industries and trades and for a specified period, grant the authorisation to employ boys and girls over the age of sixteen years and women after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m.

"This authorisation may not, however, be granted for more than sixty days in any one year and the night rest period may not be reduced to less than ten hours.

(b) Under § 12 of the Act of 1919, as amended by § 31 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, the King may decree exceptions, as regards girls and women over eighteen years of age, in industries concerned with raw materials or materials in course of treatment which are subject to rapid deterioration and the loss of which would otherwise seem to be unavoidable. The report adds that up to the present the King has not exercised this power.

Bulgaria. — § 18 of the Health and Safety of Workers Act provides that "night work may be permitted in undertakings and processes where this is necessitated by force majeure or unforeseen circumstances." No special provision is made for exceptions in the case of work which has to do with perishable materials.

Czechoslovakia. — (a) The Eight-Hour Day Act contains no provisions relating to cases of force majeure. It may be noted that under § 9 (3) of the Act the Minister for Social Welfare may, in specified groups of undertakings, permit women over eighteen years of age to work during the night if it is necessary for the uninterrupted progress of the undertakings or out of special consideration for public interests, and if the work of the women consists of operations demanding comparatively little
exertion. No such permission has, however, been granted by the Order of 11 January 1919 in the case of undertakings covered by the Convention. As regards perishable materials, § 9 (2) of the Act states that the Minister for Social Welfare shall designate the groups of undertakings and industries in which the night work of women over eighteen years may be allowed as an exception for a short period in the preparation of raw materials and substances liable to rapid deterioration. The Order of 11 January 1919 grants this permission, as an exception, and temporarily, during the season, in the manufacture of jam and fruit pulp, and the drying of vegetables and fruit.

Estonia. — § 19 (a) of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the provisions of § 17 shall not apply in cases of accident or force majeure which are not of a periodical character, and which interfere with the normal working of the undertaking. § 19 (b) of the Act reproduces the terms of Article 4 (b) of the Convention. No special conditions are laid down for the use of the exceptions provided for in this section.

France. — (a) It is provided in § 25 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, that the head of an undertaking in any industry may employ women at night in case of an interruption of work due to an accidental cause or to force majeure which is not of a periodically recurring character, and which interfere with the conditions laid down by public administrative regulations, and within the limit of the number of days lost, provided that the inspector is notified in advance. This right may not be exercised on more than fifteen nights in the year without the permission of the inspector. (b) According to § 24, "in certain industries to be specified by public administrative regulations, in which the raw materials handled or the materials being worked up are liable to very rapid deterioration, temporary exceptions... shall be permitted in respect of adult women where this is necessary in order to save the materials from certain loss, under the conditions laid down in the above-mentioned public administrative regulations, provided merely that notice is given in advance." As regards the exception for cases of force majeure, provided for in paragraph (a), Act No. 4029 of 1912 lays down in § 7 of the Coal Mines Acts, since those Acts do not apply at all to mines under the Coal Mines Acts, since those Acts prohibit the night employment of women absolutely.

Greece. — The Act No 2275 of 1 July 1920 includes the text of the Convention. As regards the exception for cases of force majeure, provided for in paragraph (a), Act No. 4029 of 1912 lays down in § 7 that "in the case of unforeseen and not regularly recurring interruptions of work in consequence of accidents, exceptions from the usual stipulations on... night work... may be permitted during a period of eight days by the competent police authority and during four weeks by the competent prefect, in so far as persons above the age of 16 are concerned." The Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913 and Circular No. 31 of 17 September 1913 lay down the formalities subject to which employers may take advantage of this exception. The exception referred to in paragraph (b) of Article 4 is provided for in § 9 of Act No. 4029 of 1912 which provides that by Royal Decree issued upon proposal of the Minister of National Economy, after having obtained the opinion of the Superior Labour Council, exceptions may be granted as regards women over 18 years of age for certain branches of manufacture in which night work is necessary in order to avoid deterioration of raw materials or products. In application of this provision, a Royal Decree of 25 September/8 October 1913 was issued providing that each year, from 15/28 August to 31 January/13 February, women over 18 years of age may be employed after regulations dealing with the industries concerned.
9 p.m. and before 5 a.m. in factories and workshops for packing fish. Before taking advantage of this exception the employer must give notice to the competent police authorities, stating the day on which the work will begin.

India. — § 56 of the Factories Act states that "in case of any public emergency, the Local Government may, by an order in writing, exempt any factory from this Act to such an extent and during such period as it thinks fit". The report states, however, that no exemptions are permissible under the circumstances provided for in paragraph (a). As regards paragraph (b), no general provisions exist permitting exceptions from the prohibition of the employment of women during the night in the case of work on perishable materials. By an Act of 25 March 1926 (No. XXVI of 1926) amending the Factories Act, however, powers have been given to local Governments, subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council, to exempt on such conditions, if any, as they may impose, "any fish-curing or fish-canning factory, from the provisions of clause (a) of Section 24 where the employment of women outside the limits provided by that clause is necessary to prevent any damage to or deterioration of any raw material" (§ 32 A of the amended Factories Act.) Only one factory has so far been exempted on this account.

Irish Free State. — Part III of the Schedule attached to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the terms of the Convention. Employers are, however, unable to take advantage of this exception, owing to the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, relating to the employment of women during the night. § 3 (1) of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, expressly provides for the enforcement of the earlier Act of 1901, when its provisions are more restrictive than those of the Convention.

Italy. — As regards paragraph (a), § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amended § 5 of the Act of 10 November 1907 to provide that the prohibition of night work for women should not apply in cases of force majeure, when in any undertaking there occurs an interruption of work which could not be foreseen and which is not of a periodically recurring character. The report adds that no other condition is imposed on employers before they may make use of this exception; the employer is responsible, under the penal provisions, for any offence he may commit in taking advantage of the possibility of this exception. With regard to paragraph (b), the same section provides that the prohibition of night work for women may be suspended at seasons and in cases where women are employed in work on raw materials or materials in course of treatment which are liable to rapid deterioration, when night work is necessary to preserve the said materials from certain loss. The rules for the authorising of such exceptions are to be laid down in the regulations for the administration of the Act. The report adds that the regulations require the considered opinion of the Provincial Public Health Council before such exceptions can be authorised. Up to the present, exceptions have been granted for work in connection with fresh fish, rapidly drying elastic capsules, work in connection with tomatoes, the silk cocoon industry, and, as regards one undertaking situated in Sicily, the manufacture of chocolate during the summer months.

Netherlands. — The amended Labour Act 1919 as promulgated by the Decree of 21 July 1922 permits no exceptions to the prohibition of night work except as provided in § 25 (1)-(b) which prescribes that women of twenty-one years of age and upwards may be permitted to skewer herrings during the period from 1 October to 15 March till midnight at latest, and during the period from 15 March to 1 June till 2 a.m. at latest.

Rumania. — § 16 of the Act of 9 April 1928 allows exceptions in cases of force majeure, when an interruption of work occurs which it was impossible to foresee and which is not of a recurring character and in cases where the work has to do with raw materials or materials in course of treatment which are subject to rapid deterioration, when night work is necessary to preserve these materials from certain loss.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 18 of the Act of 28 February 1922 authorises deviations from the prohibition of night work in the following cases: (a) in case of force majeure when absolutely necessary to save the undertaking from a danger which could not be foreseen or from serious damage; (b) in connection with the handling of raw materials which deteriorate quickly, if absolutely necessary to prevent the inevitable loss of these, on not more than 30 occasions in a year; (c) in case of absolute necessity in the urgent interests of the State. In the cases mentioned under (a) and (b) the occupier of the undertaking must notify the competent labour inspection office not more than 24 hours after the occurrence of the event in question; the Ministry of Social Affairs has the sole right to specify the cases coming under (c). The report adds that with regard to the deviation provided for under (c) no authorisation by the
Minister of Social Affairs has so far been given, and that in the opinion of the Government this deviation is not of sufficient importance for it to be considered a departure from the provisions of the Convention.

Switzerland. — The report states that the Factory Act does not in any circumstance allow the prohibition of the night work of women to be suspended. Under § 66 (2), however, the Federal Council has the right to extend the reduction of the night rest to 10 hours for women over 16 years for a period longer than 60 days in factories where work is carried out on raw materials or on material in preparation which is liable to very rapid changes, when this is necessary to preserve the material from certain loss. The permission is granted by the cantonal Government subject to the approval of the Division of Industries and Arts and Crafts of the Federal Department of Public Economy (Administrative Order, § 131). No such permission was granted in 1928. The Act of 31 March 1928 (§ 4 (1)) provides that the prohibition of night work may be suspended for women over 18 years of age in the event of an interruption of the work of the undertaking due to force majeure which could not be foreseen and does not recur periodically. Under the same Act (§ 4 (2)) the prohibition of night work may be suspended for women over 18 years of age in cases of the working up of raw materials or the manipulation of substances which are liable to very rapid deterioration, when necessary to prevent the otherwise inevitable loss of the said raw materials or substances. As regards the competent authority for the suspension of the prohibition, § 6 of the Administrative Order provides: "The prohibition of night work may be suspended in the cases mentioned in § 4 of the Act, subject to an order of the competent authority. The following shall be the competent authorities: (a) for suspension for not more than 10 nights, the district authority, or in default thereof the local authority; (b) for suspension for more than 10 nights, the cantonal Government. If, owing to an emergency, an order of the competent authority cannot be procured in due time, the said authority shall be notified not later than the following day. The enforcement of the Federal Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry is within the competence of the Cantons, which, every two years, send reports to the Federal authorities. According to the information received up to the present, most of the Cantons have not made use of this exception, and those which have, only to a very small extent.

Art. 5 (India and Siam only). — In India and Siam, the application of Article 3 of this Convention may be suspended by the Government in respect to any industrial undertaking, except factories as defined by the national law. Notice of every such suspension shall be filed with the International Labour Office.

India. — The Government of India has notified the Office that in the application of this Convention to India the term "industrial undertaking" includes only factories as defined in the Factories Act 1.

Art. 6. — In industrial undertakings which are influenced by the seasons and in all cases where exceptional circumstances demand it, the night period may be reduced to ten hours on sixty days of the year.

In addition, please give particulars of the processes carried on in your country (stating whether only in certain areas and at certain periods) to which the exception provided for in this Article is applicable, as well as the conditions, if any, subject to which your legislation, etc., allows employers to take advantage of it.

South Africa. — See under Articles 2 and 4.

Austria. — The report states that the exceptions allowed by this Article of the Convention may only be utilised by permission of the authorities under § 4 of the Act of 14 May 1919 and § 14 of the Act of 28 July 1919. These two Acts do not lay down the conditions which employers are to observe when they are allowed exemptions, but it is left to the discretion of the authorities to insert, when necessary in the exemptions which they grant, conditions varying according to the special circumstances of each case (see also under Article 4).

Belgium. — The amended § 13 of the Act of 1919 provides that the night rest period of girls and women over eighteen years of age may be reduced to 10 hours on sixty days in the year. The right to grant this exemption, which up to the present has not been used, belongs to the King. The exception allowed by § 14 of the Act also applies "in specially grave cases and when public interest so requires" (see under Article 4).

Bulgaria. — No equivalent provisions.

Czechoslovakia. — There are no equivalent provisions in Czechoslovak legislation.

Estonia. — § 20 of the Act of 20 May 1924 provides that the night period may be reduced to 10 hours in industries affected by the seasons and also when special conditions require it. The report adds that the exception allowed by this section has not been used up to the present.

France. — French legislation contains no equivalent provision.

1 See under Hours Convention, Article 10, for definition of "factory".
Great Britain. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons, and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the text of Article 6. As regards the manufacturing industries, the exception applies to the extent permitted by §§ 49 and 50 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901. Under § 49 women may be employed during a period of 14 hours on 30 days in any 12 months in specified classes of factories and workshops which are liable to a sudden press of work. It provides that women must not be employed during a 14-hour period on more than three days in any one week, and that two hours out of the 14 must be allowed for meals. Under § 50, women may be employed during a period of 14 hours on 50 days in any 12 months in making preserves from fruit, preserving or curing fish or making condensed milk. The conditions are the same as in § 49. The exception does not apply to mines under the Coal Mines Acts, since those Acts prohibit the night employment of women absolutely.

Greece. — The Act No. 2275 of 1 July 1920 includes the text of the Convention. § 8 of Act No. 4029 of 1912 provides that in undertakings or classes of work in which an increased demand for labour occurs regularly at certain periods of the year (seasonal trades), or in the case of extraordinary pressure of work, a shortening of the uninterrupted night rest to 10 hours may be permitted, and the commencement of the night rest fixed at 10 p.m. for a period of eight days within one and the same year, by the competent police authorities, and for a period of four weeks by the prefect. The conditions under which this exception may be granted are laid down in Circular No. 31 of 17 September 1913.

India. — No equivalent provisions.

Irish Free State. — No action has been taken to reduce the “night” period as defined in Article 2 of the Convention.

Italy. — The Legislative Decree of 15 March 1928 embodied this Article in § 5 of the Act of 10 November 1907. The rules for the authorisation of the exception are to be laid down in regulations, and the report states that the regulations require a considered opinion of the Provincial Public Health Council. Such an authorisation has, however, not hitherto been granted.

Netherlands. — No equivalent provisions.

Rumania. — Under § 17 of the Act of 9 April 1928 the factory inspectors, for their respective districts, or the Minister of Labour on the recommendation of the Superior Labour Council, for several districts, may grant exceptions to industrial undertakings which are influenced by the seasons and in all cases where exceptional circumstances demand it; in these cases the night period may be reduced to ten hours on 60 days in the year. In urgent cases, when the employer has not been able to ask permission, he may employ women at night for a maximum of seven days.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovanes. — The report states that no advantage has been taken of this provision.

Switzerland. — The Factory Act provides (§ 66) that permission to lengthen the normal working day may, upon 60 days in the year, involve the reduction of the night rest to 10 hours. Permission is given for a maximum of ten days by the district authority; or, if the canton is not divided into districts, by the local authority. The cantonal authority grants permission for more than ten days (§ 49). Cases in which permission is granted are not notified to the Division of Industries and Arts and Crafts. The Act relating to the employment of young persons and women reproduces, in § 5, Article 6 of the Convention and the Administrative Order provides that the permission must be granted by the cantonal Government. The report adds that the observations made under Article 4 concerning the reports of the Cantons and the information received from them also apply here (see above, under Article 4).

ARTICLE 7.

In countries where the climate renders work by day particularly trying to the health, the night period may be shorter than prescribed in the above articles, provided that compensatory rest is accorded during the day.

If a shorter night period is permitted under this Article, please state for what industries, areas and seasons, and what arrangements, if any, have been made to secure compensatory rest during the day.

South Africa. — The report makes no reference to this Article.

Austria. — The question of application does not arise.

Belgium. — The report does not refer to this Article.

Bulgaria. — The question of application does not arise.

Czechoslovakia. — No application.

Estonia. — No application.

France. — The report states that this Article has no application to metropolitan France.

Great Britain. — The Article is not applicable.
Greece.—The report states that advantage has not been taken of this provision of the Convention.

India.—The Article has not been applied.

Irish Free State.—No application.

Italy.—Under § 5 of the Act of 10 November 1907, as amended by § 2 of the Legislative Decree, the Minister of National Economy may, subject to the approval of the Provincial Public Health Council, make variations in the period of night work by reducing the said period to ten hours in localities where climatic conditions require it, provided compensatory rest is accorded during the day. No such variation has, however, been granted during the period under review.

Netherlands.—No use has been made of this Article, nor does the Government propose to apply it.

Romania.—The report does not refer to this Article, but § 15 of the Act of 9 April 1928 empowers the Ministry of Labour, after consultation with the Superior Labour Council, to alter the night rest period if the climate or the special nature of the work so requires.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.—The report states that no use has been made of the provisions of this Article of the Convention.

Switzerland.—The report states that although the situation does not usually arise in Switzerland, § 6 of the Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry provides that “the Federal Council may authorise further exceptions which are required in the public interest or provided for by international conventions.” No steps have so far been taken in this respect.

III.

Article 9 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 42 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

South Africa.—The Union has no colonies, protectorates or possessions.

Belgium.—The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the territories under mandate, since the local conditions do not at present make application possible.

France.—The Government states that owing to local conditions the Convention is not applied in French overseas possessions.

Great Britain.—This Convention is applied without modification, to Ceylon. In the Gold Coast and Trinidad, local legislation exists to prevent the employment of women on night work. While the Convention has not been applied to Palestine, the Local Government has recently enacted legislation relating to the employment of women in industrial undertakings which contains provisions similar to those of the Convention. The question of applying it to Hong Kong is under consideration. In the case of the remaining colonies, protectorates, and other dependencies, it was considered that this Convention was inapplicable owing to local conditions. Reasons for non-application in certain cases are as follows:

Zanzibar.—In Zanzibar, the number of women employed in any industrial undertakings, as defined in the Convention, is negligible, and the possibility of any abuse arising from the employment of women during the night in such undertakings is too remote to be worthy of consideration.

Sierra Leone.—There are no industrial undertakings in Sierra Leone of the kinds specified in (a) and (c) of Article 1. So far as there are industrial undertakings of the kind specified in (b) any work undertaken by women is home work, in conjunction with other members of the family.

Barbados.—An appreciable number of women are employed in connection with the manufacture of sugar, chiefly in carrying sugar cane from carts to mechanical carriers and mills. During the “crop season” work goes on at the factories continuously by day and night. The employment of women in this occupation has been customary for over two centuries, and its prohibition would be greatly resented by the labouring population and would cause appreciable dislocation of the local labour market. The excess of females over males according to the recent census is about 50% and the closing of any avenue of employment open to women would be a serious matter. As regards the physical effect of such employment it should be recollected that in a tropical climate labour during the night hours is less exhausting than during the day. The system has no observable effect on the moral standards of the population who are thoroughly accustomed to it.
British Honduras. — Native women in the Colony are not employed in established industries, and there is no night employment of women except as domestic servants.

Italy. — The Government states that the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies, the local conditions in each colony making such application impossible.

Netherlands. — The Government had already reported that this Convention was considered applicable with modifications in the Dutch East Indies. Its application is ensured by an Order of the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies (dated 17 December 1925) concerning child labour and the employment of women during the night, and by a Decision of the Governor-General (dated 28 December 1925) issued in execution of § 3 of the Order in question and laying down rules for the granting of authorisations for the employment of women during the night.

§ 3 of the Order prohibits the employment of women between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. in (a) factories (defined as enclosed premises or premises considered enclosed in which mechanical installation is used for or on behalf of an undertaking); (b) workshops (defined as enclosed premises in which at least 10 persons are habitually employed for or on behalf of an undertaking); (c) construction, maintenance, repair or demolition of earth-works, excavation, hydraulic work, building work and roads; (d) railway and tramway undertakings; (e) loading, unloading and transport of goods at docks, wharves, harbours, stations, halts, piers and warehouses, excluding transport by hand.

§§ 4, 5 and 6 of the Order contain provisions making the proprietors or managers or their representatives responsible for the observance of the provisions of the Order.

The Decision taken by the Governor-General in execution of § 3 of the Order permits the employment of women between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. in (a) sugar works during the period of crushing; (b) fibre factories; (c) casava meal works; (d) oil works (ordinary oil and palm oil) and (e) in the salt works at Krampon and Kalianget (Madura). §§ 2 and 3 of the Decision specify the conditions of such employment. § 4 provides that the Chief of the Labour Office may authorise for fixed periods, and subject to conditions laid down by himself, the employment of a certain number of women between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. in (a) tea factories; (b) coffee factories; (c) tobacco factories; (d) rice decorticaton works; (e) kapok works; (f) pyrotechnical works; (g) batik works. By § 5 the Chief of the Labour Office may grant to works, factories and undertakings other than those mentioned, permission to employ women during the night in special cases and shall fix the conditions of such employment.

These provisions came into force on 1 March 1926.

The Netherlands Government has further reported that in Surinam and Curacao labour legislation is almost entirely lacking and in the present circumstances is considered inadvisable. The practice of employing women during the night is reported never to have existed in these provinces. These territories therefore would fall under the category of colonies to which the Convention is considered inapplicable even with modifications in accordance with local conditions.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of this Convention came into effect.

South Africa. — 1 November 1921.

Austria. — 20 July 1924.

Belgium. — 12 July 1924.

Bulgaria. — 22 February 1922.

Czechoslovakia. — 18 March 1922.

Estonia. — 6 June 1924.

France. — 14 May 1925.

Great Britain. — 14 July 1921.

Greece. — 13 June 1921.

India. — 14 July 1921.

Irish Free State. — 4 September 1925.

Italy. — 27 June 1923.

Netherlands. — 4 September 1922.

Rumania. — 13 April 1928, date of coming into force of the Act of 9 April 1928.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovanes. — 1 April 1927.

Switzerland. — 10 October 1922.

V.

Please state to what authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

South Africa. — The supervision of all the Acts with the exception of the Mines and Works Act is vested in the Department of Labour and is carried out by a staff of inspectors. Under the Factories Act, inspectors of factories in terms of § 5 of the Act, have been appointed in the Union of South Africa. These inspectors are placed under a Chief Inspector of Factories. It is their duty to see that the provisions of the Act are properly carried out. The enforcement of agreements under the Industrial Conciliation
Act rests, in the first instance, with the Secretaries of Industrial Councils whose function it is to report breaches of the agreement to the inspection staff of the Department who then take action under the penal clauses. The enforcement of determinations made under the Wages Act is carried out by the inspection staff of the Department of Labour. Both men and women are included in the staff of inspectors of the Department of Labour.

Austria. — The infliction of penalties for offences under the Acts in question is entrusted to the general administrative authorities of the State and, as regards mines, to the State mining authorities. The supervision of the enforcement of the law is carried out by the factory inspectors and the mining authorities, who make inspections with this object.

Belgium. — The factory inspectors and the mining engineers ensure the enforcement of the Acts and regulations in question, in the undertakings which they respectively supervise.

Bulgaria. — The application of the Health and Safety of Workers' Act is entrusted to the factory inspectors under the control of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour, assisted by the Superior Labour and Social Insurance Council. A factory inspection service (16 for the whole country) is attached to each of the prefectures and the staff is appointed in accordance with the number of workers in each area. The report states that infractions of the law as regards the prohibition of the night work of women in industry are negligible.

Czechoslovakia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the legislative provisions in question is entrusted to the competent administrative and supervisory authorities, and to the factory inspectorate.

Estonia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act of 20 May 1924 is entrusted to the factory inspectors.

France. — The supervision of the application of the relevant legislation and regulations falls to the industrial inspection service, which is under the authority of the Minister of Labour, Health, Assistance and Social Welfare. The duties of this service, which includes men and women inspectors, are defined by Chapter II, Part III, Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare. As regards State undertakings where the entry of persons not belonging to the service concerned is not deemed expedient in the interest of the national defence, the supervision of the application of the above-mentioned legislation is entrusted to persons appointed for the purpose by the Ministers of War and of the Marine. These undertakings are enumerated in the Decrees of 10 April 1925 and 28 June 1904. In regard to mines (underground and open workings) and quarries, the duties of the industrial inspectors are performed by the engineers and controllers of mines who are placed for this purpose under the authority of the Minister of Labour. In the same way, in undertakings under the technical supervision of the Minister of Public Works, the duties of the industrial inspectors are entrusted to the officials responsible for this supervision, who for this purpose are placed under the authority of the Minister of Labour, except as regards national railway undertakings and local railways. Finally, the Superior Labour Commission, set up by § 112 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, is entrusted with the duty of securing the strict and uniform application of the provisions relating to the employment of women and children; similar duties fall to the departmental labour commissions set up by § 115 of Book II of the Code. As regards the enforcement of the regulations, the factory inspectors know, through the general restrictions placed upon employers of women, those undertakings to which the prohibition of the night work of women applies and can thus effectively ensure the prohibition. As regards the use of exceptions by the heads of undertakings, the Inspectorate is informed in accordance with §§ 4 and 5 of the Decree of 5 May 1928.

Great Britain. — As regards factories and workshops and the constructional work referred to in Article 1 (c) of the Convention, the provisions are administered by the Home Office (Factory Department), and so far as concerns mines and quarries by the Board of Trade ( Mines Department).

Greece. — The application of the relevant laws and regulations is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the inspector of mines.

India. — See the analysis of the report on the Hours Convention.

Irish Free State. — The application of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act is entrusted to the Department of Industry and Commerce, and Inspectors of Factories and Workshops and of Mines and Quarries attached to the Industries Branch of the Department are responsible for the supervision and enforcement of the provisions of the Convention.

Italy. — The application of the relevant legislation and regulations is entrusted to the Ministry of National Economy, the necessary supervision being exercised by the factory inspectors, the mining engineers and the officers of the judicial police.

Netherlands. — Under the Labour Act of 1919 (§§ 68-84) the supervision and
application of the Act is entrusted to a factory inspectorate under the control of the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry. The Mining Regulations of 1906 (§§ 255 to 272), and the Act of 27 April 1904 provide for the administration and application of the provisions concerning the mining industry. The mining inspection service and the labour inspectors are responsible for their supervision. The co-operation of the public safety force and the police may be requested especially in connection with the provisions on hours of work.

**Rumania.** — § 49 of the Act of 9 April 1928 makes the inspectorate appointed under the Act concerning the organisation of the factory inspectorate of 13 April 1927 responsible for reporting infringements of the Act.

**Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.** — The enforcement of the Workers’ Protection Act of 28 February 1922 is entrusted to the regional labour inspectors. Supervision is ensured by the provisions of § 21 of the Act.

**Switzerland.** — The enforcement of the Federal Factory Act and of the Federal Act concerning the employment of young persons and women in industry, and of the Administrative Orders made under them, is within the competence of the Cantons. The Federal Government ultimately supervises their enforcement through the Federal Department of Public Economy and, in particular, through the Division of Industries and Arts and Crafts. Every two years the cantons report to the Division of Industries and Arts and Crafts upon the application of the two Acts and Administrative Orders. It has also set up a federal factory inspectorate which supervises the enforcement of the Factory Act in all the undertaking subject to it (factories in the strict sense of the term and similar establishments). This factory inspectorate is subdivided into four districts which each include a “federal factory inspector” and two assistants. It should be noted that the title “federal factory inspector” is too restricted and that the duties of this inspector cover not only factories in the strict sense of the term, but also all the other establishments which are also subject to the Federal Factory Act. The federal factory inspectors also submit reports every two years, so that their reports are rendered in the year in which the reports of the cantons are not.

**Great Britain.** — The report states that the number and nature of contraventions reported under the Factories Act are set out in tables attached to the Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories which is furnished to the International Labour Office each year. The Eleventh Annual Census of Factories and Productive Industries, excluding mining and quarrying, for the year 1923-26, gives the number of establishments as 6,829 employing 161,862 persons of all races. The number of premises registered under the Factories Act at 31 December 1927 was 4,905.

**Austria.** — The report states that the number of offences against the prohibition of the night work of women detected in 1927 in industrial undertakings— not including mines, are given in the “Report of the factory inspectors upon their activity in the year 1927”, p. LIX.

**Belgium.** — A statement of the breaches of the law which have been reported is published monthly in the *Revue du Travail*. Statistical information upon the number of persons protected by legislation cannot be given.

**Czecho-Slovakia.** — The report states that full information upon the manner in which the Convention is applied in Czecho-Slovakia will be contained in the Report upon the work of the factory inspectorate in 1928.

**France.** — As regards the temporary exceptions to the prohibition of the night work of women allowed in some industries and in certain cases, the factory inspectorate has prepared two statistical tables from which it appears that exceptions in accordance with Article 4 (a) of the Convention were granted in 1927 to one undertaking for a period of 126 days and for a total number of 52 women employed. In the case of Article 4 (b) of the Convention, exceptions were granted in 1927 to 68 undertakings, with a total of 29,798 nights to which the exception applied. As regards breaches of the law respecting the prohibition of night work, the report states that in 1927 there were 11 prosecutions and 116 offences; no offences concerning rest at night were reported.

**Great Britain.** — The report states that the provisions of the Convention have been embodied in the well-established industrial
law of the country and are enforced in the case of the great majority of the undertakings affected by the highly organised factory and mines inspectorates as a part of their ordinary duties. A high standard of enforcement is thereby secured and the reports of the inspectors show that, except in isolated instances, the terms of the Convention are fully and carefully observed. For information concerning the organisation of the factory inspectorate reference is made to pp. 23-32 of "Factory Inspection, Historical Development and Present Organisation in Certain Countries" published by the International Labour Office in 1923. The mines inspectorate is organised on similar lines. By a letter of 12 April 1929, the British Government asked that the following statement should be added to this part of the report: "Representations have been made to H.M. Government that the absence of any provision in this Convention similar to that contained in Article 2(4) of the 48 Hours Convention, excluding from the scope of the Convention persons holding positions of supervision or management, must have the effect of debarring women altogether from entering upon certain employments in which continuous working is necessary. In particular, complaint has been made that women trained as professional engineers are precluded from holding controlling posts in electrical power undertakings, by reason of the fact that they are prohibited from working at night. It may be added that the night employment in question is equally prohibited by the Factory and Workshop Acts now in force in this country, but it has been proposed in the amending and consolidating Factories Bill which has been under consideration to except from the general provisions governing the hours of employment of women, persons holding responsible positions of management and not usually employed in manual labour".

India. — Statistics of Factories and a Note on the working of the Factories Act are supplied regularly to the International Labour Office.

Irish Free State. — The position in Saorstát Eireann in relation to this Convention is that the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, do not permit of any exception under which women of any age may be employed at night in factories or workshops. Even if it were desirable it would not, therefore, be possible to adopt all the exceptions permitted in the articles of this Convention, the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, being more restrictive in its provisions relating to the prohibition of employment of women at night than the Convention. The question of employment of women at night in mines or quarries does not arise in Saorstát Eireann. It is forbidden by the terms of the Convention, and, so far as can be ascertained, no women have at any time been employed at night in either mines or quarries in this country.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report estimates that about 70,000 workers are covered by the relevant legislation.

Switzerland. — The remarks upon the enforcement of the Convention are derived from two sources: the reports of the cantonal authorities, and, as regards especially the Factory Act, the reports of the federal factory inspectors. These reports show that for the year 1927 (the statistics for 1928 are not yet prepared) the number of workers subject to the federal factory inspection was 366,898,140,161 of whom were women. It should further be noted that the biannual reports of the federal factory inspectors and of the cantonal Governments are prepared in great detail, that they contain very full information upon the enforcement of the Act and that they are widely circulated.

Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

This Convention first came into force on 13 June 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>12. 7. 1924</td>
<td>26.12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14. 2. 1922</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>15. 9. 1925</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>24. 8. 1921</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>4. 1. 1923</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>14. 7. 1921</td>
<td>12. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>19. 11. 1920</td>
<td>27. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>4. 9. 1925</td>
<td>20.11. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>7. 8. 1926</td>
<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>3. 6. 1926</td>
<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>21. 6. 1924</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>13. 6. 1921</td>
<td>8. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slovene</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Kingdom</td>
<td>1. 4. 1927</td>
<td>14. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>9. 10. 1922</td>
<td>12. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.
The report of the Greek Government states that the Convention is applied by Act No. 2271 of 1 July 1920. This Act contained the text of the Convention and prescribed in § 3 that the provisions of the Convention should be incorporated by Royal Decree in the existing laws. The Ministry of National Economy, by its Circular No. 28 of 16 July 1920 to all competent authorities, explained the purpose of Act No. 2271 and invited these authorities to communicate its contents to the workers' and employers' organisations and to endeavour to explain its provisions to them. The report further states that a new Circular No. 71,729 requires the strict application of the Convention by the competent authorities.

As regards Rumania, the provisions of the Convention are applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. In accordance with § 52 of the above Act, Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.
Royal Order of 28 February 1919 concerning the employment of women and children (L.S. 1919, Bel. 2) as amended by the Eight-Hour Day Act of 14 June 1921 (L.S., 1921, Bel. 1).

Bulgaria.
Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (B.B. Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 28).
Social Insurance Act of 6 March 1924 (L.S. 1924, Bulg. 1).

Czechoslovakia.
Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the eight-hour working day (L.S. 1919, Cz. 1-3).
Act of 17 July 1919 respecting child labour (L.S. 1920, Cz. 2).

Denmark.
Act of 18 April 1925 respecting the employment of children and young persons (L.S. 1925, Den. 1).

Estonia.
Act of 20 May 1924 relating to the employment of children, young persons and women in industrial undertakings (L.S., 1924, Est. 1).

Great Britain.
Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.
Coal Mines Act.

Greece.
Decree of 24 July/6 August 1912 constituting the Labour Inspection Department (B.B. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 302).

Irish Free State.
Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.

Japan.
Act of 29 March 1923 concerning the minimum age for industrial employment (L.S. 1923, Jap. 2).
Order of the Department of Home Affairs No. 14 of 7 June 1926 issuing Regulations for the application of the Act of 29 March 1923.

Latvia.
Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work (L.S. 1922, Lat. 1).

Poland.
Constitution of the Republic of Poland of 17 March 1921 (L.S. 1921, Pol. 3).
Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons (L.S. 1924, Pol. 2).
Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 14 December 1924 respecting registers and lists of young persons (L.S. 1924, Pol. 9).
Order of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927 relating to industrial law (L.S. 1927, Pol. 4).
Order of the President of the Republic of 14 July 1927 relating to factory inspection (L.S. 1927, Pol. 8).
Order of the President of the Republic of 22 March 1928 relating to courts of law for labour cases.

Rumania.
Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. (L. S. 1928, Rum. 1.)

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.
Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922. (L. S. 1922, S.C.S. 1.)

Switzerland.
Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry (L.S. 1922, Switz. 2).
Administrative Order of 3 October 1919/7 September 1923 under the Factory Act (L.S. 1919, Switz. 4. and 1923, Switz. 3).
Administrative Order of 15 June 1923 respecting the application of the Federal Factory Act
relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry (L.S. 1923, Switz. 1).

Order of 5 July 1923 relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings (L.S. 1923, Switz. 1).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

**ARTICLE 1.**

For the purpose of this Convention, the term “industrial undertaking” includes particularly:

(a) Mines, quarries, and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up or demolished, or in which materials are transformed; including shipbuilding; and the generation, transformation, and transmission of electricity and motive power of any kind.

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance-repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland waterway, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, water work, or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for or laying the foundations of any such work or structure.

(d) Transport of passengers or goods by road or rail or inland waterway, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, warehouses and stations, but excluding transport by hand.

The competent authority in each country shall define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

In addition please state what decisions, if any, have been taken in regard to the last paragraph of Article 1.

**Belgium.** — § 1 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children of 28 February 1919, as amended by § 81 of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 14 June 1921, defines the field of application as:

(1) undertakings covered by the Eight-Hour Day Act; (2) establishments classified as dangerous, unhealthy and noxious; (3) transport by water. The undertakings covered by the Eight-Hour Day Act are given in § 1 of this Act as follows:

(a) mines, surface mines, quarries and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth; (b) industries in which goods are manufactured, raw materials or manufactured articles transformed, ornamented, finished, cleaned, or adapted for sale; (3) repair, cleaning, restoration of materials, effects or other used goods, as well as demolition of materials; (4) building and auxiliary industries, including maintenance-repair and demolition; (5) public works; (6) private works executed by civil engineers (génie civil), other than those proper to the building industry; (7) gas and waterworks; (8) generation, transformation and transmission of electricity and motive power; (9) construction, transformation and demolition of ships and boats, their maintenance or repair by workers other than the crews; (10) transport by land; (11) loading, unloading and handling of goods at ports, quays, warehouses and stations; (12) dairies and cheese-factories; (13) offices of commercial undertakings. The provisions of the Act apply to both public and private undertakings, even when they serve the purposes of trade instruction or are of a philanthropic nature. The Act does not apply to agriculture. It applies to commercial establishments when and to the same extent as the Eight-Hour Day Act, in accordance with § 1, is extended by Royal Order to cover these undertakings.

**Bulgaria.** — The Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers, § 13 of which regulates the age of admission to employment, applies to “all industrial undertakings, workshops, commercial undertakings, building undertakings and transport undertakings” (§ 1 (1)). The Government states that in practice only children employed in agriculture, and particularly in work in the fields, are excluded, and these nevertheless are covered by the Elementary Education Act, which makes school attendance compulsory up to fourteen years of age.

**Czechoslovakia.** — The Eight-Hour Day Act of 19 December 1918, § 10 of which deals with the age of admission to employment, applies generally to industries, to commerce, and, save for a few exceptions, to agriculture. The Act of 17 July 1919 regulates the employment of children under fourteen years of age in so far as such employment is not prohibited by other Acts. The report states that it has not been necessary to define the line of division separating industry from commerce and agriculture.

**Denmark.** — As regards the minimum age for admission to employment the Act of 18 April 1925 covers undertakings carried on for gain exclusive of those in agriculture and forestry (including horticulture), seafaring and fishing (§ 1). By § 13 the Act also provides that in the case of undertakings carried on for purposes of gain which are exempt from the provisions of the Act regulations may be made for each commune on the recommendation of the communal authority in the form of bye-laws approved by the Minister of Health and Social Welfare, after report from the Labour Council, to “prohibit or restrict the employment of children who have not attained the age of fourteen years and are not legally exempt from school attendance... provided that the said regulations shall be kept within the limits” laid down in the Act. The provisions of the Act do not apply to
persons merely engaged in going on errands unless provision is made to the contrary in the communal bye-laws under § 13 (§ 12). The Government reported in 1926 that no special decisions had been taken with regard to the line of division between the undertakings covered and those excluded, since the existing provisions are considered sufficiently definite. In case of doubt, the Minister of Health and Social Welfare would decide whether an undertaking is covered. The Act § 3 of the Act states that before taking his decision he shall consult the Minister of Industry, Commerce and Navigation and the organisations in the trade concerned in appropriate cases.

Estonia. — § 1 (a) to (d) of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act of 20 May 1924 reproduces the terms of Article 1 (a) to (d) of the Convention, with the addition that among the works for the extraction of minerals from the earth are specifically included peat digging undertakings. Further, the clause of the Convention excluding transport by hand is not included in the Estonian Act. The report for 1926 added that no decisions had been taken with regard to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture. Existing provisions are considered sufficiently definite, but should doubts arise in specific cases they would be settled by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

Great Britain. — § 4 of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reads: “The expression ‘industrial undertaking’ has with respect to the employment of children, young persons and women the meaning respectively assigned thereto in the Conventions set out in Parts I, II and III of the Schedule to this Act.” No decisions regarding the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture have been taken.

Greece. — The Act No. 2271 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912, which is still in force, applies to factories and industrial concerns and workshops; quarries, mines and underground works of any kind; building work and other similar open-air work; undertakings for the conveyance of passengers and goods on land or on water. The line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture has not been fixed. The report states, however, that for the application of this Convention the definition of “industrial factories and workshops”, as opposed to “agriculture”, which is given in § 2 of the Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, holds good. Agriculture, cattle-breeding, forestry and works of a similar nature having the character of the preparation of the producer’s own products are excluded from the application of the Decree. On the other hand, the minimum age provisions of Act No. 4029 apply to commercial concerns and selling places of any kind.

Irish Free State. — This Article is applied by Part I of the Schedule of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act 1920, which reproduces its terms. § 4 of the Act reads: “The expression, industrial undertaking”, has with respect to the employment of children, young persons and women the meanings respectively assigned thereto in the Conventions set out in Parts I, II and III of the Schedule to this Act”. No decisions regarding the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture have been taken.

Japan. — § 1 of the Act of 29 March 1923 defines the term “industry” to include the following undertakings: (1) Mining work, alluvial mining work, quarrying work, or any other work for the extraction of minerals from the earth; (2) Undertakings in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, repaired, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up or demolished, or in which materials are transformed (including shipbuilding and the generation or transformation and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind); (3) Constructional and building work, or any other work in the erection, maintenance, repair, alteration or demolition of buildings, as well as the preparation for any such work or structure, or laying the foundations thereof; (4) The transportation of passengers or goods by road, railway, tramway, or inland waterway, excluding such transportation as is mainly done by man-power; (5) The handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves or warehouses. The report adds that, as the application of this Act is confined to undertakings as defined, it is applied to such undertakings as aim in principle at profit, or those in which the method of commercial accountancy is employed in accordance with economic principles, and which have a certain degree of systematic and regular existence, being carried on continuously at least for a certain period. The Act does not contain any provision defining the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

Latvia. — The Act of 24 March 1922 applies to all private, municipal, public and State undertakings and establishments. The report does not refer to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.
Poland. — By § 1 the Act relating to the employment of women and young persons of 2 July 1924 applies to "the employment of women and young persons in industrial, mining and metallurgical undertakings, in commerce, in offices, in communication services and transport, and likewise in other undertakings carried on by way of trade even if not for a profit, irrespective of whether the said undertakings are owned by the State, a private person or a local authority." The legislation in force thus applies to commercial establishments as well as to industrial undertakings and transport. The line of division separating industry from agriculture is laid down in the Order of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927 relating to industrial law. By § 1 of this Order "industry" is defined as any remunerated employment or any undertaking which is carried on independently and by way of trade, whether it has as its object the production or treatment of goods, the carrying on of commerce or the rendering of services. § 2 provides that, "inter alia," agriculture, horticulture and forestry are not to be deemed to be industries and are not subject to the provisions of the Order. Where difficulties of determination arise the following criterion is to be employed: Undertakings carried on in connection with agriculture, e.g. distilleries, saw-mills, etc. are to be considered to be industrial undertakings, with the exception of small undertakings the products of which serve exclusively the needs of a given agricultural undertaking and which form integral parts of that undertaking.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928 applies (§ 2 (1)) to all industrial and commercial undertakings. It has not therefore been necessary to define the line of demarcation between industry and commerce. Provision is made, however, in § 4 of the Act for the settlement of contested cases by the Ministry of Labour, after consultation with the Superior Labour Council.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Act of 28 February 1922 applies to all undertakings (establishments) carrying on handicrafts, industry, commerce, transport, mining and similar activities within the territory of the Serbo-Croat-Slovene Kingdom in which workers are employed, irrespective of whether they belong to private individuals or public bodies, whether they are carried on permanently or temporarily, whether they are principal undertakings or subsidiary businesses carried on in connection with other undertakings, or whether they are carried on as entirely independent undertakings or form parts of undertakings in agriculture or forestry.

Switzerland. — The provisions of the Federal Factory Act which deal with the employment of women, young persons and children have been completed by the Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry. This Act applies to all public and private industrial undertakings to which the Factory Act does not apply and to transport, other than carriage by hand and the traffic organisations carried on by the Federation or under a concession from it. The Federal Council may issue an order declaring the principles of the Act applicable to the traffic organisations carried on by the Federation or under a concession from it and this was done by the Order of 5 July 1923. By § 3 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1923, issued under this Act, the term "industrial undertaking" is defined as in Article 1 (a), (b) and (c), whilst the Order of 5 July 1923 relating to the employment of young persons in transport and navigation undertakings to the Swiss Federal railways, railways and navigation undertakings carried on under a concession from the Federation, sleeping and restaurant car undertakings. The term "railways" includes motor car undertakings, railless traction undertakings, lift and overhead cables railways worked under a concession. With regard to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture, the agricultural operations which are excluded from the application of the Federal Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry are defined by § 4 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1923. In the case of commerce, the Act and Order exclude it from their field of application without further definition. Should doubt arise regarding the agricultural or commercial character of a particular undertaking, the decision lies with the Industries and Arts and Crafts Division of the Department of Public Economy, subject to appeal to the Federal Council.

ARTICLE 2.

Children under the age of fourteen years shall not be employed or work in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof, other than an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed.

Belgium. — § 8 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children, as amended by § 31 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, provides that "children under the age of fourteen years shall not be employed. This provision shall apply also to work performed at home on account of an employer." Work carried on in undertakings in which only members of the family are employed under the supervision of the father, mother, or guardian is exempted, provided that such work is
not classed as dangerous, unhealthy, or noxious, or that no steam boilers or mechanical power are used.

**Bulgaria.** — By § 2 of the Act of 22 November 1921, § 13 of the Health and Safety of Workers' Act of 1917 has been amended to prohibit the employment of children under the age of fourteen years in any undertaking or establishment covered by § 1 of the Act.

**Czechoslovakia.** — The prohibition of the employment of children before the completion of their compulsory school attendance and before they have attained fourteen years of age is contained in § 10 of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 19 December 1918. The Act of 17 July 1919, which regulates the conditions in which children may be employed, "without prejudice to more far-reaching limitations in other Acts," defines "child labour" as the employment of children in any work whatever for which remuneration is paid or which is carried on regularly even if it is not specially remunerated. The employment of a person's own children (i.e. the children who live in the household of the person who employs them and are related to him by blood or marriage within the third degree or who are his adopted children or wards) in light work of a short duration in the household, even when carried on regularly, is not held to be child labour.

**Denmark.** — § 1 of the Act of 18 April 1925 prohibits the employment of children until they have attained the age of fourteen years. The Act does not apply to undertakings where only the immediate relatives of the child are employed, unless he is an apprentice.

**Estonia.** — § 2 of the Act of 20 May 1924 provides that children under 14 years may not be employed or work in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof. The presence of children under 14 years is also forbidden in any of the workplaces mentioned in § 1. The exception concerning undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed has no place in Estonian legislation.

**Great Britain.** — § 1 (1) of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, prohibits the employment of any child under the age of fourteen years in any industrial undertaking. § 3 (2) lays down that nothing in the Act shall apply to an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed.

**Greece.** — The Act No. 2271 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912 prohibits the employment of children under 12 years of age, and of children from 12 to 14 years who have not completed their elementary school attendance, in the undertakings covered by the Act. This prohibition does not apply to the employment of children over the age of 10 years, by their own parents or guardians, on work in which only members of the family, under the direction of the father, mother or guardian, are engaged, always provided that the work cannot be designated as dangerous or injurious, or that it is not effected by motor power. The employment of such children must in no case hinder regular attendance at the elementary school nor extend for a period exceeding three hours per day. For underground work in mines, quarries, and underground workings generally the minimum age is 15 years.

**Irish Free State.** — § 1 (1) of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, prohibits the employment of any child under the age of fourteen years in any industrial undertaking. § 8 (2) lays down that nothing in the Act shall apply to an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed.

**Japan.** — According to § 2 of the Act of 29 March 1923, persons under 14 years of age may not be employed in industry subject to the exception in favour of Japan provided for in paragraph (a) of Article 5 of the Convention. Undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed are exempted.

**Latvia.** — § 9 of the Act of 24 March 1922 provides that "children shall not be employed during the hours for compulsory attendance at school. Exceptions may be authorised in branches of industry where labour conditions are such that the employment of children is absolutely necessary." The report states that under these provisions it is forbidden to employ children under 14 years of age. No reference is made to the exception in favour of family undertakings.

**Poland.** — § 103 of the Constitution of 17 March 1921 fixes the minimum age for admission of children to employment: for wages at fifteen years and this provision is reproduced in § 5 of the Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons. The exception relating to undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed is not expressly provided for.

**Rumania.** — § 5 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that only children of either sex who have reached the age of 14 years may be admitted to industrial or commercial employment. In order to obtain employment they must be in possession of a medical certificate stating that they are in good health and fit for the work.
§ 3 exempts from these provisions undertakings in which only the members of the same family are employed, unless these undertakings have been classified as dangerous or unhealthy. Exceptions to the provisions of § 5 are provided for in § 8 in the case of children over 12 years of age who were bound by a contract of employment when the Act came into force, on condition that such employment is not dangerous to life or health, and in the case of children over 12 years of age who, within a maximum period of five years from the coming into force of the Act, have obtained exemptions for light occupations. These exemptions may be granted by the factory inspectors after obtaining medical advice; preference is to be given to children in State homes in the matter of granting exemptions.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 20 of the Act of 28 February 1922 lays down that children under fourteen years of age shall not be employed in the undertakings covered by the Act.

Switzerland. — § 70 of the Federal Factory Act prohibits the employment in factories of children under fourteen years of age, or children above this age who are still subject to compulsory school attendance. § 2 of the Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry provides that "children who have not attained the age of 14 years shall not be employed by way of trade in the undertakings covered by this Act or in undertakings subsidiary thereto." As regards transport undertakings, the prohibition to employ children under fourteen years of age by way of trade is contained in § 2 of the Order of 10 July 1922. The Act of 31 March 1922 and the Factory Act do not apply to undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed.

ARTICLE 3.

The provisions of Article 2 shall not apply to work done by children in technical schools, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

Belgium. — § 8 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children, as amended by § 31 of the Eight-Hour Day Act, lays down that the prohibition of the employment of children under the age of fourteen years "shall not apply to technical schools, provided always that the organisation shall have been approved by and that it be under the supervision of the competent public authority."

Bulgaria. — The Act of 22 November 1921 and the Health and Safety of Workers’ Act of 1917 do not allow such an exception.

Czechoslovakia. — § 2 of the Act of 17 July 1919 provides that the employment of children exclusively for purposes of instruction or education is not held to be child labour.

Denmark. — § 12 of the Act of 18 April 1925 excludes from the Act work done by children and young persons in technical or trade schools or apprentice workshops, provided that the said work is approved and supervised by a public authority and is not carried on for purposes of gain.

Estonia. — § 3 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the prohibition contained in § 2 shall not apply to the work of children in trade schools. § 28 of the Act of 10 December 1925 respecting industrial schools provides that the age for admission to the lowest class of an industrial school must not be less than 13 years. Children are employed in these schools in strict conformity with the Act of 20 May 1924.

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, specifically permits the exceptions allowed by the Convention by referring to Part I of the Schedule of the Act which reproduces the terms of Article 3 of the Convention.

Greece. — The Act No. 2271 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912 provides that, in orphanages and philanthropic institutions in which industrial instruction is given in addition to elementary instruction, children under 14 years of age must not be employed for more than three hours each day with industrial instruction or craftsmen’s work.

Irish Free State. — This Article is applied by Part I of the Schedule of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, which reproduces its terms.

Japan. — The provisions of § 2 of the Act of 29 March 1923, which prohibit the employment in industry of persons under 14 years of age, do not apply to the employment of children in industrial schools (technical schools) with the approval of the administrative authorities.

Latvia. — No reference is made to this exception in the Act of 24 March 1922.

Poland. — The Act of 2 July 1924 makes no express provision for this exception but the report states that the employment of children in technical schools under the supervision of the competent education authorities (Ministry of Public Worship and Education, Technical Education Department) is considered to be education.
Rumania. — § 7 of the Act of 9 April 1928 exempts from the minimum age provisions children who work in technical schools which are approved and supervised by the competent Government authorities.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 20 (2) of the Act of 28 February 1922 provides that trade schools which are approved by the competent authorities and are under their supervision shall not be deemed to be undertakings for the purposes of the Act.

Switzerland. — Federal legislation does not reproduce the provisions of Article 3 of the Convention. The report states that, under the cantonal Acts, compulsory school attendance generally continues up to 14 years at least and the technical schools are under the supervision of the public authorities, who share in the expense of the instruction given.

**Article 4.**

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every employer in an industrial undertaking shall be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of sixteen years employed by him, and of the dates of their births.

In addition, please give details of the method of registration in use and forward a specimen copy of the register, if any, prescribed in virtue of this Article.

Belgium. — § 16 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children prescribes that “children under the age of 16 years and girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21 shall be provided with a work book, which shall be supplied to them free of charge by the local authorities of their place of domicile, or, should this not be known, of their place of residence; the surnames and Christian names of the workers, the date and place of their birth and their place of domicile shall be entered in the workbook, and also the surname, Christian names and place of domicile of either the father, mother or guardian. These work books shall be in accordance with a model drawn up by Royal Order.” Further, “heads of undertakings, employers and managers shall keep a register of the entries prescribed in paragraph 1 of this Section.”

Bulgaria. — § 17 of the Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers provided that workers under eighteen years of age should be provided with work books giving the name, date of birth, age and places of education of the worker. § 5 of the Social Insurance Act of 1924 has provided that an insurance book “drawn up in accordance with the regulations, showing the rights and duties of the insured person” should be substituted for the work book.

Czechoslovakia. — The provisions which give effect to this Article are contained in § 96 of the Industrial Code and § 181 (2) and (3) of the Industrial Act for the territories of Slovakia and Subcarpathian Russia, which lay down that industrial employers who employ young persons as wage-earners must keep registers showing the name, age and address of these workers, their parents’ or guardians’ address and the date of their entering and leaving employment. Employers, when required, must produce these registers before the admission of the authorities of first instance.

In addition, in undertakings employing more than 30 wage-earners, the works councils may ask, once a year, for a list of all the persons employed in the undertaking, together with their dates of birth.

Denmark. — § 8 of the Act of 18 April 1925 provides that in every workplace covered by the Act a register must be kept of the persons under eighteen years of age employed therein, stating the name, address and age according to the appended birth certificate of each such person. In the case, however, of young persons of under eighteen years of age employed in bakeries, pastrycooks’ and confectioners’ establishments and bread factories, the employer shall make out a work book for each of them with the exception of his own children. The Minister of Health and Social Welfare is to lay down detailed rules for the compilation of the register and work books and the rules covering the register shall afford facilities for any undertaking which so desires to use work books instead of the register.

Estonia. — § 21 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the head of every industrial undertaking shall keep a register of all persons under eighteen years of age employed by him. The register shall show the date of birth. The report states that the compulsory keeping of registers of children employed in industrial schools was already required in 1884 under the regulations concerning the employment and school education of children. A model register was appended to these regulations. The registers have to show the name of the child, its age, the parents’ address, the date of admission to employment in the undertaking, the nature of the employment and the hours of work. The child’s age has to be proved by the production of documents. A special column of the register is reserved for the remarks of the factory inspectors.

Great Britain. — § 1 (4) of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, provides that where young persons, who are defined as persons who have ceased to be children and who are still under the age of eighteen years, are employed in any industrial undertaking, a
registers and lists must be held at the workplace; provided that this rule shall not apply in cases where young persons, who are defined as persons who have ceased to be children and who are still under the age of eighteen years, are employed in any industrial undertaking, a register of the young persons so employed and of the dates of their birth and of the dates on which they enter and leave the undertaking concerned. These registers and lists must be held at the disposal of the competent authorities.

Irish Free State. — Part I of the Schedule of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the text of Article 4. § 1 (4) of the Act provides that where young persons, who are defined as persons who have ceased to be children and who are still under the age of eighteen years, are employed in any industrial undertaking, a register of the young persons so employed and of the dates of their birth and of the dates on which they enter and leave the service of their employer must be kept and be at all times open to inspection.

Japan. — § 3 of the Act of 29 March 1923 provides that "in cases where children under 16 years of age are employed in industry, the employer shall compile a register containing their names, addresses, dates of birth, and details of school career, and keep it at the workplace; provided that this rule shall not apply in cases where such registers are provided according to the Regulations under the Factory Act, or according to the Mining Act."

Latvia. — No reference is made in the Act of 24 March 1922 to the keeping of a register as provided for in this Article of the Convention.

Poland. — § 11 of the Act of 2 July 1924 lays down that every employer who employs young persons (i.e. persons between the ages of fifteen and eighteen years) must keep a register of the said young persons in accordance with a model prescribed by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, which must be submitted to the labour inspection officials on request. Further, a list of the said young persons must be posted in a conspicuous place in the undertaking, showing their hours of beginning and ending work, breaks and the nature of their employment. An Order of 14 December 1924 prescribes models for this register.

Rumania. — Existing legislation requires artisans, skilled and unskilled factory workers and apprentices to be in possession of an identity card issued by the guilds or trade corporations. Industrial workers who come under the Workers' Insurance Acts must also be in possession (in the Old Kingdom and Bessarabia) of an insurance card issued by the Insurance Administration or (in Transylvania) are entered in the records kept by the insurance funds or the employers. These documents contain information sufficient to decide the date of birth. The Regulations respecting unhealthy industries, which apply to the whole country require the head of every undertaking classified as unhealthy to keep a nominal list of the children employed as workers or apprentices. Administrative action will be taken to require the head of every industrial undertaking to keep a register of all persons employed under 16 years of age, with the date of their birth. The report states that the form of this register will be settled when the Regulations for the application of the Act of 9 April 1928, have been promulgated and published”. See introductory note.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 21 of the Act of 28 February 1922 provides that every occupier of any undertaking covered by the Act shall keep a register of all persons employed under 16 years of age, with the date of their birth. The report states that the form of this register will be settled when the Regulations for the application of the Act of 9 April 1928, have been promulgated and published”.

Switzerland. — § 10 of the Factory Act requires occupiers of factories to keep a list of the whole staff. The Factory Act further provides in § 73 that any owner employing young persons under the age of 18 must demand from them a birth certificate which he must keep ready at the works at the disposal of the inspectors. § 7 of the Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry provides that in every undertaking covered by the Act a register must be kept of the young persons under 18 years of age employed therein, showing their dates of birth. The Federal Council may also order the submission of an age certificate or other measures for purposes of supervision.

Article 5 (Japan only).

In connection with the application of this Convention to Japan, the following modifications of Article 2 may be made:

(a) Children over twelve years of age may be admitted into employment if they have finished the course in the elementary school;

(b) As regards children between the ages of twelve and fourteen already employed, transitional regulations may be made.

The provisions in the present Japanese law admitting children under the age of twelve years to certain light and easy employments shall be repealed.

Japan. — As regards the exception allowed under (a), § 2 of the Act of 29
March 1928 provides that the prohibition to employ children under 14 years of age "shall not apply to persons over 12 years of age who have finished the course at an elementary school". The exception allowed under (b) is provided for in the second paragraph of the supplementary provisions of the Act which stated that, in cases where persons over 12 years of age at the time of the coming into operation of the Act continued in employment the prohibition was not to apply to them. The last paragraph of this Article was carried out by the Factory Act Amendment Act of 29 March 1928 (L. S. 1928, Jap. 1), which repealed § 2 of the Factory Act.

III.

Article 8 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect to each of its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been indicated, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The Government states that "the provisions of this Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo and to the territories under mandate, since the local conditions do not at present allow it."

Denmark. — The Government states that the ratification does not include Greenland.

Great Britain. — This Convention has been applied to Ceylon and, with modifications, to Hong-Kong. The question of its application to the Straits Settlements, with modifications, is under consideration. While the Convention has not been applied to Palestine, the local Government has enacted legislation relating to the employment of children in industrial undertakings. In the case of the remaining colonies, protectorates, etc., it has not been considered necessary or desirable to apply the provisions of this Convention, the majority of which are obviously unsuitable to conditions in tropical or sub-tropical territories where agriculture is the main (and in some cases the only) industry of the people. Specific reasons for non-applications in certain cases are as follows:

Nigeria. — The objections to the employment of children under the age of 14 in industrial undertakings which exist in a civilised country do not apply to Nigeria, especially in view of the fact that most of the children belong to primitive tribes and do not attend school; many of them do not know their age. The Governor considered that the application of the Convention to Nigeria, even if it were modified as in the case of India by reducing the minimum age from 14 to 12 and by limiting the prescribed industrial undertakings to those named in Article 6, would confer any benefit upon the people. A few children might be employed in road repair and other outdoor work of the kind, but otherwise the provisions of the Convention were in advance of existing conditions in Nigeria, and it would be impossible to enforce them.

Zanzibar. — No children under the age of 14 are employed, or would conceivably be employed, in industrial undertakings.

Sierra Leone. — Industrial undertakings of the kind specified in the Convention are non-existent. There is no system of compulsory education, and in the Protectorate no registration of births, and while both in the Colony and Protectorate children under the age of 14 work either in petty trading or in agriculture, they work as assistants to their parents.

British Honduras. — Children are not employed in industrial work.

St. Lucia. — There are no industrial undertakings in the Colony, within the meaning of the Convention, in which young children are employed. Under the law of St. Lucia entitled the Child Labour Protection Ordinance No. 44 of 1916 Revision, every person is subject to a penalty who causes a child under the age of twelve years to carry a load or perform any manual labour whatsoever which such child is unfit to carry or perform or the carrying of which is likely to injure such child. This law sufficiently safeguards young children from injurious employment. Twelve years of age is a reasonable limit having regard to the early maturity of children in the West Indies.

Seychelles. — No children are engaged in Seychelles in industrial employment of a nature likely to injure child life, towards the preparation of copra and work on the land, it is possible that children under twelve years of age are employed; but the work is in all cases light and healthy. Education is not compulsory; scarcely fifty per cent. of the children in the remoter country districts and very few of the children in the outlying islands go to school. Those who are left to run wild, if engaged in easy open-air tasks, are in a sense receiving useful training, and would not benefit in present circumstances by any legislation framed to prevent them working in this way. The Governor advised that the Convention should not apply to the Colony until some form of compulsory education was introduced.

Japan. — The Government reports that the Convention is not applied to the colonies because their conditions are markedly different from those of the home land.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.
Belgium. — 12 July 1924.

Bulgaria. — 22 February 1922.

Czechoslovakia. — 18 March 1922.

Denmark. — 19 May 1923.

Estonia. — 6 June 1924.

Great Britain. — 14 July 1921.

Greece. — 13 June 1921.

Irish Free State. — 4 September 1925.

Japan. — 7 August 1926.

Latvia. — 3 June 1926.

Poland. — 21 June 1924.

Romania. — 13 April 1928, date of coming into force of the Act of 9 April 1928.

Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. — 1 April 1927.

Switzerland. — 10 October 1922.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The factory inspectors and the mining engineers ensure the enforcement of the Acts and regulations in question in the undertakings for the supervision of which they are respectively responsible.

Bulgaria. — See analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Czechoslovakia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the eight-hour working day is entrusted to the factory inspectorate and to the competent administrative and supervisory authorities. The enforcement of the provisions of the Act of 17 July 1919 respecting child labour is entrusted to the administrative authorities of first instance. The communal authorities, as well as the factory inspectors, are required to help, within their respective spheres, the supervisory bodies for the protection of children in the execution of their task. This principle also applies to schoolmasters and doctors, to the ecclesiastical authorities and to bodies for the administration of public or private social welfare for the protection of children, as well as to the officials of associations and societies within whose competence child welfare falls.

Denmark. — The Act of 18 April 1925 lays down in § 10 that supervision shall be exercised by the Labour and Factory Inspectorate in respect of the undertakings liable to inspection by the Inspectorate and by the police authorities as regards other undertakings. The Minister of Health and Social Welfare, after consultation with the other Ministers concerned, may decide that State undertakings shall be exempt from supervision under the Act provided that the competent authority undertakes to supervise the execution of its provisions.

Estonia. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Great Britain. — The provisions are administered as regards factories and other classes of undertakings under the Factory and Workshop Acts, by the Home Office (Factory Department) as part of those Acts; as regards mines and quarries by the Board of Trade (Mines Department) as part of the Acts relating to the regulation of mines and quarries. As regards constructional works and transport, the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act makes provision for enforcement of the prohibition by the local education authorities as part of the Employment and Children Act, 1909 (now embodied as far as England and Wales are concerned, in the Consolidating Education Act of 1921, and, as regards Northern Ireland, in the Consolidating Education (Northern Ireland) Act, 1923).

Greece. — The application of the relevant laws and regulations is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the inspector of mines.

Irish Free State. — The application of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act is entrusted to the Department of Industry and Commerce and the Inspectors of Factories and Workshops and of Mines and Quarries attached to that Department are responsible for the enforcement of the provisions of the legislation in question.

Japan. — The application of the Act of 29 March 1923 is entrusted to the Bureau of Social Affairs as the central authority and to the local authorities, such as the mine inspection bureaux (in case of mining undertakings) and to the local government offices in case of industrial undertakings. To these authorities are attached mining inspectors and factory inspectors, who are charged with the duty of supervising the enforcement of the Act. §§ 4 to 11 of the Act contain detailed provisions, relating to official inspection, registration, etc., for the strict application of the Convention. Regulations have also been issued for the enforcement of the Act, which include special provisions for the application of the special exceptions.

Latvia. — The application of the legislation mentioned in the report is entrusted to the Labour Department of the Ministry of Social Welfare.
Poland. — Pursuant to the Order of the President of the Republic of 14 July 1927 relating to factory inspection the supervision of the application of the Convention is entrusted to the factory inspection service and the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. The execution of the penal provisions of the Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons falls to the Minister of Justice. § 6 of the Act of 2 July 1924 lays down that a young person may be employed provided that he produces a certificate showing that he has attained the age of fifteen years, a permit from the person exercising the authority of a parent or guardian over him, a certificate of the completion of his compulsory school attendance, and a certificate from a medical practitioner designated by the labour inspectorate to the effect that the employment in question is not beyond his strength. The coming into force of the Act was regulated by an Order of the Council of Ministers dated 17 November 1924. The district courts and the justices of the peace have jurisdiction in cases relating to this Convention. Under § 7 of the Order of 22 March 1928 infringements of the law relating to the employment of young persons are dealt with by the labour courts.

Rumania. — § 49 of the Act of 9 April 1928 makes the inspectorate appointed under the Act concerning the organisation of the factory inspectorate of 18 April 1927 responsible for reporting infringements of the Act.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The supervision of the application of the Act of 28 February 1922 is entrusted to the regional labour inspectorates.

Switzerland. — See the summary of the report upon the Convention concerning employment of women during the night. The enforcement of the Order relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings is entrusted to the supervision of the Federal Department of Posts and Railways.

Belgium. — A statement of offences reported is published monthly in the Revue du Travail. The statistics do not allow any details to be given upon the number of persons protected by legislation.

Bulgaria. — The report states that no contraventions of any importance were reported in 1928.

Czecho-Slovakia. — The Ministry of Social Welfare states in the report that the available information upon the manner in which the prohibition of the employment of children under 14 in industry is enforced will be contained in the report of the factory inspectorate for the year 1928.

Great Britain. — See the general observations on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night. In 1926 there were only two instances and in 1927 only one instance in which proceedings were instituted by the Factory Department in respect of employment of children under 14.

Irish Free State. — The report states that the Department of Industry and Commerce is not aware of any case of a contravention of the requirements of the Convention in 1928.

Japan. — The report gives the following general information: In the Bureau of Social Affairs there are 1 chief inspector, 16 full service factory inspectors and 6 additional inspectors, 3 full service mining inspectors and 8 additional inspectors; in local government offices there are 191 full service factory inspectors and 131 additional inspectors; in the mine inspection bureaux there are 28 full service mining inspectors and two additional inspectors. As regards contraventions, there were 25 convictions during 1927. 4,026,229 workers are employed in the undertakings to which the Minimum Age for Industrial Employment Act applies.

Poland. — The Government states in its report that, according to the registers, there were employed in the undertakings subject to factory inspection on 1 January 1928, 57,140 young persons, of whom 38,845 were boys and 18,295 girls. The larger number of young persons are employed in the metal industry (boys), clothing and textiles (girls), printing, wood and coal industries, and chemicals. As regard the age limits laid down in the Convention, and the provisions relating to the keeping of registers, only a very small number of contraventions were reported by the inspectors. The total number of contraventions of legal provisions regarding the employment of young persons and women reported by the factory inspectors in the first six
months of 1928, without specifying the nature of the contravention, was 1,535, of which 688 led to legal proceedings.

Switzerland. — See the summary of the report upon the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.

This Convention first came into force on 13 June 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12. 6. 1924</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>12. 7. 1924</td>
<td>26. 12. 1928</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>14. 2. 1922</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>15. 9. 1925</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>4. 1. 1923</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>25. 8. 1925</td>
<td>15. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>14. 7. 1921</td>
<td>12. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>19. 11. 1920</td>
<td>27. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>14. 7. 1921</td>
<td>7. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>4. 9. 1925</td>
<td>4. 12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>10. 4. 1923</td>
<td>19. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>3. 6. 1926</td>
<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>17. 3. 1924</td>
<td>21. 12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>21. 6. 1924</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>13. 6. 1921</td>
<td>8. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slovene</td>
<td>1. 4. 1927</td>
<td>14. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingdom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>9. 10. 1922</td>
<td>12. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Austrian Government states that by the promulgation of the ratification of the Convention in the Bundesgesetz­blatt of 19 July 1924 the actual terms of the Convention received force of law in Austria. The subject is also dealt with in Austria by the Act of 14 May 1919 relating to the prohibition of night work for women and young persons in industrial undertakings and by the Mining Act of 28 July 1919. The application of the Convention is therefore effected by these two Acts, which were passed before the ratification of the Convention, within the limits of the Convention and in accordance with Article 350 of the Treaty of St. Germain.

The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

The French Government states in its report that the legislation which gives effect to the Convention in France "requires two public administrative regulations one of which was issued on 5 May 1928 and the other is in course of preparation, the object of these two administrative regulations being to prescribe the conditions in which the exceptions provided for by the Convention may be applied. The Decree of 5 May 1928 superseded the Decree of 30 June 1913 laying down the allowances and exceptions provided for by the former provisions of the Labour Code especially those dealing with the work of children in industry, which were repealed by the Act of 24 January 1925. As regards the Decree in course of preparation, it is meant to replace the Decree of 3 May 1893 concerning the employment of children in mines, § 3 of which relates to night work; the International Labour Office will be kept informed of the progress of this preparatory work."

The Greek Government states that the Convention was put into effect by Act No. 2272 of 1 July 1920. This Act contained the text of the Convention and prescribed in § 3 that the provisions of the Convention should be incorporated by Royal Decree in the existing laws. The Ministry of National Economy, by its Circular No. 23 of 16 July 1920 to all competent authorities, explained the purpose of Act No. 2272 and invited these authorities to communicate its contents to the workers' and employers' organisations and to endeavour to explain its provisions to them. The Report adds that by a Circular No. 71729 of 29 December 1928 the competent authorities were requested to ensure the strict application of the Convention.

As regards Rumania, the provisions of the Convention are applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. In accordance with §52 of this Act, Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.
Austria.
Act of 14 May 1919 relating to the prohibition of night work for women and young persons in industrial undertakings (L. S. 1919, Aus. 7).
Order of the Minister of Social Affairs of 15 June 1928 concerning the employment of young persons during the night in glass works (L. S. 1928, Aus. 5).

Belgium.
Act of 28 February 1919 concerning the employment of women and children (L. S. 1919, Bel. 2).
Act of 14 June 1921 to provide for an eight hour day and a 48-hour week (L. S., 1921, Bel. 1).
Royal Order of 22 January 1924 in pursuance of § 10 of the Act concerning the employment of women and children, authorising heads of enamelling and paper works to employ boys over 16 years of age after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m. on work which, by reason of the nature of the process, cannot be interrupted (L. S. 1924, Bel. 7).
Royal Order of 2 December 1924 authorising the employment of young persons between 16 and 18 years of age after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m. on work which, by reason of the nature of the process, cannot be interrupted, in the iron and steel industries, in zinc, lead and silver smelting works, in zinc rolling mills and in works in which iron or steel tubes are manufactured (L. S. 1924, Bel. 7).
Royal Order of 18 February 1926 in pursuance of § 10 of the Act concerning the employment of women and children authorising heads of glass and plate-glass works to employ boys over 16 years of age after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m. on work which, by reason of the process, cannot be interrupted (L. S. 1926, Bel. 6).

Bulgaria.
Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (B. B. Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 28).

Denmark.
Act of 18 April 1925 respecting the employment of children and young persons (L. S. 1925, Den. 1).

Estonia.
Act of 20 May 1924 relating to the employment of children, young persons and women in industrial undertakings (L. S. 1924, Est. 1).

France.
Code of Labour and Social Welfare, Book II.
Act of 24 January 1925 to amend §§ 20 (a) to 28 and 96 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare (L. S. 1925, Fr. 1).
Decree of 5 May 1928 defining the allowances and exceptions contemplated in §§ 17, 24, 25 and 26 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare (L. S. 1928, Fr. 10).
Decree of 3 May 1898 concerning the employment of young persons in mines.
Act of 23 April 1919 respecting the eight-hour day (L. S. 1919, Fr. 3).

Great Britain.
Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.
Coal Mines Act.
Night Employment of Young Persons (Rever­batory or Regenerative Furnaces) Order, 1924 (L. S. 1924, G.B. 1).

Greece.

India.
Indian Factories Act of 1911, as subsequently amended (L. S. 1926, Ind. 2).

Irish Free State.
Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.

Italy.
Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amending the Act of 10 November 1907 (L. S. 1923, It. 4).
Royal Decree of 29 March 1923 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Latvia.
Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work (L. S. 1922, Lat. 1).

Netherlands.
Labour Act, 1919, as subsequently amended (L. S. 1922, Neth. 2 and 1924, Neth. 5).
General Service Regulations for Railways, No. 815 of 26 June 1913 and General Service Regulations for Light Railways, No. 290 of 3 June 1915, as amended by Royal Decree No. 591 of 4 November 1922 (L. S. 1922, Neth. 5).
Tramway Regulations, No. 85 of 24 February 1920, as amended by Royal Decree No. 592 of 4 November 1922 (L. S. 1922, Neth. 5).

Poland.
Act of 18 December 1919 relating to hours of work in industry and commerce (L. S. 1920, Pol. 1).
Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons (L. S. 1924, Pol. 2).
Order of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927 relating to industrial law (L. S. 1927, Pol. 4).
Order of the President of the Republic of 14 July 1927 relating to factory inspection (L. S. 1927, Pol. 8).

Rumania.
Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work (L. S. 1928, Rum. 1).

Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.
Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922 (L. S. 1922, S.C.S. 1).
Switzerland.


Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry (L. S. 1922, Switz. 2).

Administrative Order of 4 October 1919/7 September 1923 under the Federal Act relating to work in factories (L. S. 1919, Switz. 4, and 1923, Switz. 5).

Administrative Order of 15 June 1923 respecting the application of the Federal Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry (L. S. 1923, Switz. 1).

Administrative Order of 5 July 1923 relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings (L. S. 1923, Switz. 1).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "industrial undertakings" includes particularly:

(a) Mines, quarries, and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, repaired, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up, or demolished, or in which materials are transformed; including shipbuilding, and the generation, transformation, and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind.

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland waterway, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, water work, or other work of construction as well as the proprieion for or laying of the foundations of any such work or structure.

(d) Transport of passengers or goods by road or rail, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves, and warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

The competent authority in each country shall define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

In addition, please state what decisions, if any, have been taken in regard to the last paragraph of Article 1.

Austria. — The Act of 14 May 1919 relating to the prohibition of night work for women and young persons in industrial undertakings applies to all undertakings covered by the Industrial Code and undertakings owned by corporations, exclusively those owned by the State, a province or a municipality, to which the Industrial Code would apply if they were carried on by way of trade; to all undertakings and establishments to which the Industrial Code does not apply, in which merchantable articles are produced or materials treated by way of trade, excluding agriculture and forestry and mining undertakings dealing with reserved minerals and works established by virtue of a mining concession. The Mining Act of 28 July 1919 applies to mining undertakings dealing with reserved minerals including works erected under mining concessions. However, by the publication of the text of the Convention in the Bundesgesetzblatt of 19 July 1924 the actual provisions of the Convention have received force of law in Austria. The Austrian Government's report further adds that a regulation in conformity with paragraph 2 of Article 1 of the Convention has not been required in Austria, since the terms "industry, commerce and agriculture" are exactly defined in the national legislation. However, the term "industrial undertakings" used in the Act of 14 May 1919 does not correspond to the same term as used in the Convention. The industrial undertakings to which the Act applies also include commerce, so that the scope of the Austrian Act is wider than that of the Convention.

Belgium — § 1 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children of 28 February 1919, as amended by § 81 of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 14 June 1921, defines the field of application as:

(1) undertakings covered by the Eight-Hour Day Act; (2) establishments classified as dangerous, unhealthy and noxious; (3) transport by water. The undertakings covered by the Eight-Hour Day Act are given in § 1 of this Act as follows:

(1) mines, surface mines, quarries and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth; (2) industries in which goods are manufactured, raw materials or manufactured articles transformed, ornamented, finished, cleaned, or adapted for sale; (3) repair, cleaning, restoration of materials, effects or other used goods, as well as demolition of materials; (4) building and auxiliary industries, including maintenance, repair and demolition; (5) private works executed by civil engineers (génie civil), other than those proper to the building industry; (7) gas mining, (c) literary work, the right of authors to publish their own works and the fine arts, (d) jobbing work, (e) domestic work, (f, g, h, i, k, l) the liberal professions, teaching, financial establishments, public educational or reformatory establishments, (l) railways and steamship navigation, (m) maritime navigation subject to the Maritime Acts and sea fishing, (n) undertakings connected with public ferries on rivers, lakes, canals, lumbering, etc. (o) public amusements, etc., (p) undertakings connected with the production and sale of periodical publications, (q) hawk-
and water-works; (8) generation, transformation and transmission of electricity and motive power; (9) construction, transformation and demolition of ships and boats, their maintenance or repair by workers other than the crews; (10) transport by land; (11) loading, unloading and handling of goods at ports, quays, warehouses and stations; (12) dairies and cheese-factories; (13) offices of commercial undertakings. The provisions of the Act apply to both public and private undertakings, even when they serve the purposes of trade instruction or are of a philanthropic nature. The Act does not apply to agriculture. It applies to commercial establishments when and to the same extent as the Eight-Hour Day Act, in accordance with § 1, is extended by Royal Order to cover these undertakings.

Bulgaria. — The Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers, § 18 of which prohibits the night work of young persons, applies to "all industrial undertakings, workshops, commercial undertakings, building undertakings and transport undertakings" (§ 1 (1)). Agricultural undertakings are excluded, but industrial and commercial undertakings carried on in connection therewith, e.g., workshops, transport undertakings, etc., are subject to the night work prohibition.

Denmark. — The Act of 18 April 1925 covers in connection with the subject of the Convention undertakings in handicrafts and industry and in the transport industry (§ 2). The Government reported in 1926 that no special decisions had been taken with regard to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture since the existing provisions are considered sufficiently definite. In case of doubt, the Minister of Health and Social Welfare would decide whether an undertaking is covered by the Act, § 3 of which states that before taking his decision he shall consult the Minister of Industry, Commerce and Navigation and the organisations in the trade concerned in appropriate cases.

Estonia. — § 1 (a) to (d) of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act of 20 May 1924 reproduces the terms of Article 1 (a) to (d) of the Convention, with the addition that among the works for the extraction of minerals from the earth are specifically included peat digging undertakings, and among the transport undertakings is included transport by sea or inland waterway. Further, the clause of the Convention excluding transport by hand is not contained in the Estonian Act. The report for 1926 stated that no decisions had been taken with regard to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture. Existing provisions are considered sufficiently definite, but should

doubts arise in specific cases they would be settled by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

France. — The industrial undertakings to which the provisions of the Convention are applicable are enumerated in § 1 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare as follows: works, factories, mines (underground and open workings), quarries, yards, workshops, and their dependencies, of any kind whatsoever, public or private, lay or religious, even when these establishments are of an educational or charitable character. To these undertakings, the second paragraph of § 21, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, adds the transportation of passengers or goods by road or rail, and loading and unloading undertakings. The report further states that it should be noted that the Code of Labour and Social Welfare provides, in § 29 of Book II, that apart from the above undertakings, no night work may be worked by apprentices under 16 years of age who are employed with a manufacturer, the head of a workshop, or a workman. Exceptions to this rule may, however, be allowed by a Decree issued by the prefect in consultation with the mayor.

Great Britain. — § 4 of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reads: "The expression 'industrial undertaking' has with respect to the employment of children, young persons and women the meanings respectively assigned thereto in the Conventions set out in Parts I, II and III of the Schedule to this Act." No decisions regarding the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture have been given by the competent authority which in Great Britain would be the Courts of Law.

Greece. — The Act No. 2272 of 1 July 1920 includes the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912 applies the night work prohibition to young persons under 18 years of age employed in (a) factories and industrial concerns and workshops, (b) quarries, mines and underground works of any kind, (c) building work and other similar open-air work, etc., commercial concerns and selling places of any kind. The line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture has not yet been fixed. The report states, however, that for the application of this Convention the definition of "industrial factories and workshops", as opposed to "agriculture", which is given in § 2 of the Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, holds good. Agriculture, cattle-breeding, forestry and works of a similar nature having the character of the preparation of the producer's own products are excluded from the application of the Decree.
India. — In accordance with Article 6 of the Convention the sphere of application is limited to factories as defined in the Indian Factories Act of 1911, as subsequently amended.

Irish Free State. — This Article is applied by Part II of the Schedule to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, which reproduces its terms. § 4 of the Act reads: "The expression 'industrial undertaking' has with respect to the employment of children, young persons and women the meanings respectively assigned thereto in the Conventions set out in Parts I, II and III of the Schedule to this Act." No decisions have been taken regarding the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

Italy. — The Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923, amending the Act of 10 November 1907 relating to the employment of women and children defines factory or workplace as any place where manual work of an industrial nature is performed with or without the aid of machines not driven by the worker using them, irrespective of the number of workers employed and without distinction of sex or age (§ 1). The report adds that "this provision is couched in such general terms that it evidently includes all the industrial undertakings enumerated in Article 1 of the Convention. During the period to which the report refers, no decision has been taken defining the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture. However, the line of division between these branches of activity is determined by unequivocal criteria already laid down in jurisprudence and administrative practice which has developed since the introduction of the amended system provided for in the above-mentioned Decree."

Latvia. — The Act of 24 March 1922 applies to all private, municipal, public and State undertakings and establishments. The report does not refer to the line of division separating industry from commerce and agriculture.

Netherlands. — The night work of young persons is prohibited in industrial undertakings, with the exception of mines but including undertakings for the construction, repair or demolition of buildings of all kinds, railways, canals, inland waterways and roads, by §§ 24 (2) and 90 (2) of the Labour Act, 1910 as subsequently amended. The line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture is determined by §§ 1-5 of the Labour Act. § 2 of the Act defines factories and workplaces both positively and negatively. § 3 distinguishes shops from industrial undertakings. In mines night work is prohibited by the Mining Regulations of 1906 as amended in 1922. For the application to railways and tramways, the General Service Regulations for railways of 26 June 1913 and for light railways of 3 June 1915 were amended in 1922, as were the Tramway Regulations of 24 February 1920.

Poland. — By § 1 the Act relating to the employment of women and young persons of 2 July 1924 applies to "the employment of women and young persons in industrial, mining and metallurgical undertakings, in commerce, in offices, in communication services and transport, and likewise in other undertakings carried on by way of trade even if not for a profit, irrespective of whether the said undertakings are owned by the State, a private person or a local authority." The legislation in force thus applies to commercial establishments as well as to industrial undertakings and transport. The line of division separating industry from agriculture is laid down in the Order of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927 relating to industrial law. By § 1 of this Order "industry" is defined as any remunerated employment or any undertaking which is carried on independently and by way of trade, whether it has as its object the production or treatment of goods, the carrying on of commerce or the rendering of services and § 2 provides that, inter alia, agriculture, horticulture and forestry are not to be deemed to be industries and are not subject to the provisions of the Order. Where difficulties of determination arise the following criterion is to be employed: Undertakings carried on in connection with agriculture, e.g. distilleries, saw-mills, etc. are to be considered to be industrial undertakings, with the exception of small undertakings the products of which serve exclusively the needs of a given agricultural undertaking and which form integral parts of that undertaking.

Rumania. — According to § 2 of the Act of 9 April 1928 that Act applies both to industrial and commercial undertakings and their branches. The report adds that as the Act applies both to industrial and commercial undertakings it is not considered necessary to draw the line of demarcation referred to in the last paragraph of Article 1 of the Convention. § 4 of the Act, however, provides that contested cases will be settled by the Minister of Labour after consultation with the Superior Labour Council.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Act of 28 February 1922, under § 1, applies to all undertakings (estABLishments) carrying on handicrafts, industry, commerce, transport, mining and similar activities within the territory of the Serb-Croat-Slovene-Kingdom in which workers are employed, irrespective
of whether they belong to private individuals or public bodies, whether they are carried on permanently or temporarily, whether they are principal undertakings or subsidiary businesses carried on in connection with other undertakings, or whether they are carried on as entirely independent undertakings or form parts of undertakings in agriculture or forestry.

**Switzerland.** — The provisions of the Federal Factory Act which deal with the employment of women, young persons and children were completed by the Federal Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry. This Act applies to all public and private undertakings which do not come under the Factory Act and to transport undertakings other than carriage by hand and the traffic organisations carried on by the Federation or under a concession from it. An Order may, however, be issued by the Federal Council to declare the principles of the Act applicable to the traffic organisations carried on by the Federation or under a concession from it and this was done by the Order of 5 July 1928. § 8 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1928, issued under this Act, defines the term "industrial undertaking" as in Article 1 (a), (b) and (c), whilst the Order of 5 July 1928 relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings applies to the Swiss Federal railways, railways and navigation undertakings carried on under a concession from the Federation, sleeping and restaurant car undertakings. The term "railways" includes motor car undertakings, railless traction undertakings, lifts and overhead cable railways worked under a concession from it and this was done by the Order of 5 July 1928, § 8 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1928, issued under this Act, defines the term "industrial undertaking" as in Article 1 (a), (b) and (c), whilst the Order of 5 July 1928 relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings applies to the Swiss Federal railways, railways and navigation undertakings carried on under a concession from the Federation, sleeping and restaurant car undertakings. The term "railways" includes motor car undertakings, railless traction undertakings, lifts and overhead cable railways worked under a concession from it. With regard to the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture, the agricultural operations which are excluded from the application of the Federal Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry are defined by § 4 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1928. In the case of commerce, the Act and Order exclude it from their field of application without further definition. Should doubt arise regarding the agricultural or commercial character of a particular undertaking, the decision lies with the Industries and Arts and Crafts Division of the Department of Public Economy, subject to appeal to the Federal Council.

**ARTICLE 2.**

Young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed during the night in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof, other than an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed, except as hereinafter provided for.

Young persons over the age of sixteen may be employed during the night in the following industrial undertakings on work which by reason of the nature of the process, is required to be carried on continuously day and night:

(a) Manufacture of iron and steel; processes in which reverberatory or regenerative furnaces are used, and galvanizing of sheet metal or wire (except the pickling process).

(b) Glass works.

(c) Manufacture of paper.

(d) Manufacture of raw sugar.

(e) Gold mining reduction work.

In addition, please give particulars of the processes carried on in your country to which the exception provided for in the second paragraph of this Article is applicable, as well as the conditions, if any, subject to which your legislation, etc., allows employers to take advantage of it.

**Austria.** — § 1 (1) of the Act of 14 May 1919 relating to the prohibition of night work for women and young persons in industrial undertakings and the Mining Act of 28 July 1919 prohibit the employment during the night (i.e. between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m.) of young persons who have not completed eighteen years of age. The exception relating to undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed has no parallel in these two Acts. As regards the exceptions for continuous processes enumerated in Article 2 of the Convention, the report states that in accordance with § 4 of the Act of 14 May 1919 permission must be asked from the Federal Ministry of Social Affairs when an employer wishes to make use of them. The report adds that the permission was granted in 1927 to raw sugar refineries during the preparation of the raw sugar and the work of refining, and also to paper-works. In the latter the employment of young persons as extra hands was subordinated to the following conditions: (1) they had to be examined by an official doctor, who has to be satisfied that they were fit for the work on which they were employed and that night work was not harmful to their physical development; (2) they could be employed only at paper machines at which they were under the permanent supervision of adult persons. Moreover, the employment during the night of male young persons who have completed the age of sixteen years is permitted in continuous processes relating to smelting and the charging of furnaces in iron and steel works. This permission is, however, granted only on condition that the young persons may be employed only as assistants to workers engaged in charging the furnaces (in this case their functions must be confined to the opening and shutting of the doors of the furnaces when the furnaces are working) or in the lubricating of machinery. Only young workers in respect of whom a certificate from a medical officer has been given stating that they are fit to undertake the work required of them and that such work during the night is not injurious to their physical development may be employed in the works specified above. Finally, the Order of 15 June 1928 permits in glass works the
employment during the night of young male persons of more than sixteen years of age as auxiliary workers. According to the provisions of this Order the young persons may be employed only in virtue of a certificate issued by the medical officer stating that they are physically fit for work during the night. They may be employed during the night in glass-works of all kinds in connection with tank furnaces, and in mirror-glass-works also in connection with pot-furnaces. In the hollow-glass-works using pot-furnaces they may be employed only from 4 a.m. The Order also provides for periodical examination (once in three months), by a medical officer, of young persons employed during the night in glass works.

Belgium. — § 7 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children as amended by § 31 of the Eight Hour Day Act prohibits the employment during the night of male young persons under the age of eighteen years. § 1 of the Act exempts undertakings "in which only members of the family are employed under the supervision of the father, mother or guardian, provided that such work is not classed as dangerous, unhealthy and noxious and that no steam boilers or mechanical power are used." With regard to continuous processes § 10 of the Act enables the Crown to authorise the employment of boys over the age of sixteen years, either unconditionally or subject to certain conditions, in the undertakings enumerated in Article 2 of the Convention. § 15 provides that before exercising such powers the Crown shall consult: (1) the proper Departments of the Industrial and Labour Councils; (2) the Superior Public Health Council; (3) the Superior Labour Council. Royal Decrees making such authorisations have been issued in respect of necessarily continuous work in the following industries: (1) paper works; (2) enamelling processes (iron and steel works); (3) ordinary glass-blowing factories, mirror glass works and special glass factories assimilated thereto, bottle glass factories working with successive shifts; (4) iron and steel industries, zinc, lead and silver smelting works, zinc-rolling mills and works in which iron or steel tubes are manufactured. In the case of the first three groups the permission is subject to the condition that the young persons be employed at night during only one week out of three or one week out of two if the work is organised in successive shifts. In the case of the fourth group the permission is subject to the following conditions: (a) in the blast furnace departments of iron and steel works young persons between 16 and 18 years of age may not be employed except as sample carriers, enginemen's assistants or electricians' assistants, and as labourers in services connected with the charging of the blast furnaces, and not in any case within the immediate vicinity of the furnaces; (b) in works in which iron or steel tubes are manufactured the young persons in question may not be employed except on furnace charging and drawing processes and tube-cutting. Further, the work must be interrupted by one or more breaks amounting in all to not less than an hour; (c) in zinc smelting works, the young persons in question may not be employed except as boy-helpers and may not in any case be employed in connection with the handling of the residues from the retorts (cleaning of retorts, transportation of residues, residue washers). Further, the work shall be interrupted by one or more breaks amounting in all to not less than an hour; (d) in zinc and silver smelting works the young persons in question may not be employed except as chemists' assistants, errand boys, labourers' boys or enginemen's boys in services in connection with with the charging of the roasting plant and the lead reduction and melting furnaces (Pilz and water-jacket furnaces) and only outside the workshops where the said plant or furnaces are installed. Further, the work must be interrupted by one or more breaks amounting in all to not less than an hour.

Bulgaria. — Young persons under the age of eighteen years may not be employed on night work (§ 18 (2) of the Act respecting the health and safety of workers). Exemptions are provided for agricultural undertakings in which only the members of the same family are employed, but not for continuous processes.

Denmark. — The Act of 18 April 1925 provides by § 2 that in undertakings in handicrafts and industry, and in the transport industry, young persons under eighteen years of age may not be employed between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. If it appears desirable in any trade in view of its special circumstances that undertakings be allowed to employ young persons after 6 p.m. an exemption from the provisions laid down may be granted by way of exception by the Minister of Health and Social Welfare after consultation with the Labour Council and the trade organisations concerned, provided that the young persons in question are guaranteed a total rest period of 12 hours in the day, and that the employment of such persons after 8 p.m. is not permitted. In the case of dairies, the Act provides that young persons over 18 years of age may not be employed between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. and that they are to be granted a total rest period of not less than 11 hours in the day. As regards continuous processes, § 2 of the Act of 18 April 1925 provides that the Minister of Health and Social Welfare, on receipt of application to that effect, and after hearing the Labour Council, may authorise male young persons, who have attained the age of sixteen years, to take part between 6 p.m.
and 6 a.m. in work which owing to its nature must be carried on continuously in the following undertakings: iron and steel works, glass works, paper mills, and raw sugar factories, provided that such employment is considered necessary for the trade training of the persons in question.

**Estonia.** — § 16 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed during the night in any public or private undertaking. No mention is made in the Act of the exception relating to undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed. § 16 (2) of the Act permits in the case of young persons over seventeen years of age the exception permitted by the Convention in the following undertakings: manufacture of iron and steel, processes in which reverberatory or regenerative furnaces are used and galvanising of sheet metal and wire (except the pickling process), glass works and manufacture of paper.

**France.** — § 21 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, provides that children under the age of eighteen years, whether workers or apprentices and women, shall not be employed on night work of any kind in the establishments specified in § 1 and that children under the age of eighteen years shall not be employed on night work of any kind in undertakings for the transportation of passengers or goods by road or rail, or in loading and unloading undertakings.

Under § 1 undertakings in which only the members of the family are employed under the authority of the father, or of the mother, or of the guardian, are excepted. In § 26, as amended, it is provided that in establishments with continuous processes, boys over sixteen years of age may be employed at night on necessary work. The kinds of work permitted and the hours within which such work may be performed shall be specified by public administrative regulations. These regulations were issued by the Decree of 5 May 1928 which provides in § 2 that in the continuous process works in which male young persons of more than sixteen years of age are employed at night the work permitted for this class of workers is as follows: paper-works, assisting machine-minders, cutting, sorting, arranging, and finishing paper, raw-sugar factories, washing, weighing and sorting beetroot, working the juice and water taps, minding the filters, assisting at diffusion batteries, sewing filter cloth, washing of apparatus and of work-shops; iron and steel works, assisting at accessory work in connection with refining, rolling, hammering and wire-drawing, preparation of moulds for cast-iron goods on first smelting; glass-works, handing tools, first gathering of glass, assisting at blowing and moulding, carrying articles to and from the furnaces for re-heating. § 6 provides that in iron and steel works and in glass works by way of derogation from the provisions of § 2 boys under fourteen years of age may be employed during the night on works specified in § 2 until 1 October 1928; boys of fourteen to fifteen years of age may be employed up to 1 October 1929; boys of fifteen to sixteen years up to 1 October 1930. The report adds that the provisions of § 6 are transitory measures of application with a view to preventing the discharge of children already in employment.

**Great Britain.** — The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, provides in § 1 (3) that no young person is to be employed at night in any industrial undertaking " except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted " by the Convention. As regards the exception permitted by the Convention in the case of continuous processes in which reverberatory or regenerative furnaces are used, this is covered by the Night Employment of Young Persons (Reverberatory or Regenerative Furnaces) Order 1924. The effect of this Order is to limit the permission to employ young persons over sixteen years of age in processes in which reverberatory or regenerative furnaces are used to parts of factories in which these furnaces are used in connection with (a) smelting of ores, (b) metal rolling, (c) forges or (d) manufacture of metal tubes or rods and which are "necessarily kept in operation day and night in order to avoid waste of material and fuel", "subject inter alia to the condition that the exception is only to apply to young persons employed in such processes as are defined in the certificate delivered to the employer by the inspector of the district and to the condition that every young person so employed must undergo at least once in six months a medical examination by the district certifying surgeon. The report adds that in all cases where the exception permitted by this Article applies, except in the case of glass works, the conditions laid down in § 54 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, must be observed. The main requirements are that the length of the shift must not exceed twelve hours, and that, where a young person is employed on a twelve-hour shift, he must not be employed during the preceding or succeeding twelve hours and, where he is employed on an eight-hour shift, he must not be employed during the preceding or succeeding sixteen hours. The system usually adopted is that of three shifts of eight hours each. § 55 contains special provisions for glass works.
for family undertakings or for under­
persons is used to signify persons in their
arisen in connection with the application
The report states that no questions have
of this Article.

The Convention. Nevertheless, the report
prohibits the employment of young
in the continuous processes are
in § 24 are authorised it shall be borne in
young persons under 18 years of age in
workplace between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.
In the case of mines, § 227 of the Mining
Regulations, 1906, as amended by the
Royal Decree of 7 October 1922, pro-
hibits the employment of persons under
sixteen years of age in works above ground
between the hours of 6 p.m. and 6 a.m.
Employment underground is prohibited
for all boys under sixteen years of age
and women in virtue of § 233 (see also
under ARTICLE 8). In the case of railways
and tramways, the General Service Regu-
lations of 26 June 1913 and the General
Service Regulations for light railways of
3 June 1915 as well as the Regulations
relating to tramways of 24 February 1920,
which have been modified by the Royal
Decrees of 4 November 1922, provide
that young persons of less than eighteen
years of age must not be employed be-
tween 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

Poland. — The general provisions of
the Act of 18 December 1919, are com-
pleted, as regards the night work of young
persons by § 8 of the Act of 2 July 1924
which provides for the night-rest of young
persons (i.e. persons between fifteen and
eighteen years of age). The exception
relating to undertakings where only mem-
ers of the same family are employed is
not mentioned in this Act. § 8 also
provides that the prohibition of night
work is not to apply to male young
persons over sixteen years of age employed
on work which, by reason of the nature
of the process, is required to be carried
on continuously day and night in the
undertakings enumerated in Article 2, (a) to (d), of the Convention. The report
adds that instructions have been given to
the factory inspectors to decide which
processes should be considered as neces-
sarily continuous. As this determination
proceeds, the inspectors are instructed
which classes of processes in the industries
enumerated in Article 2 are to be consid-
ered to be necessarily continuous.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928
prohibits the employment during the
night of boys under 16 years in industrial
and commercial undertakings of every
kind or in their branches. This prohibi-
tion does not apply to undertakings in
which only members of one and the same
family are employed under the authority
of the father or the mother, provided
that such undertakings are not classified
as dangerous or unhealthy (§ 8). Under
§ 11 the Act provides that the prohibition
of night work does not apply to boys of
sixteen years who are employed in the
following undertakings on works which

mind that the work of a young person
(by which term is meant, in accordance
with § 8, workers under eighteen years of
age) on two consecutive days must be
divided by a night’s rest of not less than
eleven consecutive hours and that such
person must not work in a factory or
workplace before half-past five o’clock in
the morning or after seven o’clock in
the evening. No exemptions are permis-
sible from the provisions of § 23 (b). (See
also under ARTICLES 3 and 6.)
by reason of their nature must be carried on day and night without interruption: (a) manufacture of iron and steel, processes in which blast furnaces or regenerative furnaces are used, galvanizing of sheet-metal and wire (except the pickling process); (b) glass-works; (c) paper and cellulose works; (d) sugar works where raw sugar is refined; (e) undertakings where gold-ore is reduced. § 12 provides that in order to be able to take advantage of this exemption the employers are required to apply for authorisation to the labour inspector of the area.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 17 of the Act of 28 February 1922 prohibits the employment during the night of male young persons of 18 years of age. The report adds that the national legislation does not permit the exceptions to the prohibition of night work provided for by this Article of the Convention.

Switzerland. — § 71 of the Factory Act, as amended by § 16 of the Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry, § 3 of the last-named Act and § 3 of the Order relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings prohibit the employment during the night of young persons under 18 years of age. Under § 8 of the Order the members of the family of the head of the undertaking who are employed in the undertaking without any assistance whatever from third persons are not regarded as "workers". The Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry does not apply to undertakings where only members of one and the same family are employed (§ 1).

With regard to continuous processes the amended § 71 of the Factory Act and § 6 of the Order relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry lay down that, in the case of boys over 16 years of age, the Federal Council may authorise exceptions respecting night work which are required in the public interest or provided for by international conventions. Under § 164 of the Order under the Factory Act the manufacturer must address his request to the Industrial Division of the Federal Department of National Economy, which gives its decision after consultation with the cantonal Government. The only permission at present granted under these provisions concerns a glass-works in which five young persons of 16 to 18 years are allowed to work at night as assistant blower.

ARTICLE 3.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "night" signifies a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning.

In coal and lignite mines work may be carried on in the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning, if an interval of ordinarily fifteen hours, and in no case of less than thirteen hours, separates two periods of work.

Where night work in the baking industry is prohibited for all workers, the interval between nine o'clock in the evening and four o'clock in the morning may be substituted in the baking industry for the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning.

In those tropical countries in which work is suspended during the middle of the day, the night period may be shorter than eleven hours if compensatory rest is accorded during the day.

In addition please state:

(a) whether in coal and lignite mines work is permitted in the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning and, if so, under what conditions;

(b) where night work in the baking industry is prohibited for all workers, whether it is permitted to adopt the alternative night interval provided for in the third paragraph of Article 3;

(c) if a shorter night period than eleven hours is permitted under the last paragraph of Article 3, please state for what industries, seasons and areas, and what arrangements have been made to secure compensatory rest during the day.

Austria. — The Acts of 14 May 1919 and 28 July 1919 define the term "night" as a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. In industrial undertakings in which two or more shifts of not more than eight hours are worked, the night's rest for women and for young persons who have completed sixteen years of age may begin at 10 p.m. In mines in which at least two shifts are worked, the night's rest may also begin at 10 p.m. but only in the case of male young persons of sixteen years of age or over. The report states that use can be made of the exception allowed by the Convention for coal and lignite mines, as regards the night work of young persons, only by permission of the Federal Ministry of Commerce and Communications. No such permission was granted relating to the year 1926 nor in preceding years. No use has, moreover, been made of the permission to fix the period of night rest of young persons employed in the baking industry between 9 p.m. and 4 a.m.

Belgium. — The night rest period is defined in § 8 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children as amended by § 31 of the Eight Hour Day Act as consisting of not less than eleven hours including the period between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. § 9 stipulates that male young persons over the age of sixteen years may be employed in coal mines after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m. provided that the working periods of the shifts to which they belong shall be separated by intervals of at least fifteen hours. The report states that under § 8 of the Act of 14 June 1921 use has been made of the exception allowed by paragraph 3, Article 3 of the Convention, according to which, in the baking industry, the interval between 9 p.m. and 4 a.m. may be substituted for the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.
**Bulgaria.** — § 18 (2) of the Act respecting the health and safety of workers defines night work to be work performed between 8 o’clock in the evening and 6 o’clock in the morning. As the working day may not exceed eight hours, the rest period consists of 16 hours. Differentiation for the mining industry is not permitted by this Act. The provisions regarding the baking industry and tropical countries have no application.

**Denmark.** — The Act of 18 April 1925 defines “night” as the period between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m., though in certain cases (see under Article 2) the Minister of Health, and Social Welfare may substitute for this period the shorter period of the hours between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. Differentiation for the mining industry is not permitted by the Act. As regards bakeries, provision is made by § 2 (2) that “in workplaces belonging to bakeries and confectioners’ and pastry cooks’ establishments, apprentices shall not be employed after 6 p.m., and other young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed before 4 a.m.” Young persons shall be granted a total rest period of not less than twelve hours in the day. The provision regarding tropical countries has no application.

**Estonia.** — § 18 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the term “night” shall signify a period of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. in undertakings working with a single shift, or the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. in undertakings working with two shifts or more (see also under Article 4). The report states that there are no coal or lignite mines in Estonia and that night work in bakeries is prohibited, not by national legislation, but by administrative regulations issued by the municipalities. These regulations contain no provision similar to the permission allowed by paragraph 3, Article 3, of the Convention.

**France.** — § 22 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, provides that “work performed between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. shall be deemed to be night work,” and § 29 specifies that “the nightly rest period of children of both sexes and of women shall not be less than eleven consecutive hours.” As regards the exception provided for in the second paragraph of Article 3, § 27 of the Code, as amended, lays down that “by way of exception to §§ 21 and 22, boys may be employed from 4 a.m. onwards and until 10 p.m. in underground work in mines, pits and quarries if their work is distributed between two shifts of workers. There shall be a break of not less than half-an-hour during every shift.” § 28 provides that “in certain mines specified by public administrative regulations, in which, owing to natural conditions, an exception to the provisions laid down in §§ 21 and 22 is necessary, the said regulations may authorise the employment of boys from 4 a.m. and until midnight.” The permission is at present regulated by § 8 of the Decree of 3 May 1898, since the new public administrative regulations are still in preparation. As regards the exception allowed by paragraph 3 of this Article of the Convention concerning night work in bakeries, the report states that it does not concern French regulations for the application of the principle of the prohibition of the night employment of children. In fact French law (§ 20 of Book II of the Labour and Social Insurance Code) prohibits the employment of any worker in the making of bread or pastry between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. This prohibition covers all undertakings where bread or pastry is made as well as the whole staff employed therein whatever be their age or sex. As regards the provisions of the last paragraph of this Article of the Convention, concerning tropical countries, the report states that they are not applicable to metropolitan France.

**Great Britain.** — Night is defined as in the Convention as a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between 10 o’clock in the evening and 5 o’clock in the morning by the inclusion of this Article of the Convention in the Schedule to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920. In mines, young persons under sixteen years of age may not be employed above ground at night but boys over the age of fourteen years may be employed underground at night as well as by day subject to the observance of the provisions of Article 3, paragraph 2. The provisions regarding the baking industry and tropical countries have no application.

**Greece.** — The Act No. 2272 of 1 July 1920 includes the text of the Convention. § 6 of Act No. 4029 of 1912 prohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years of age between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. and provides that the uninterrupted night rest is to be at least 11 hours. The report states that no advantage has been taken of the exceptions allowed by the second, third and fourth paragraphs of this Article.

**India.** — The Factories Act provides generally that night work shall be the work performed in the period between 7 o’clock in the evening and 5.30 o’clock in the morning, local Governments being permitted to substitute for these hours such one of the following sets as they may deem suitable: 6.30 p.m. to 5 a.m., 7.30 p.m. to 6 a.m., 8 p.m. to 6.30 a.m. and
8.30 p.m. to 7 a.m. Advantage has not been taken of the provision regarding tropical countries. The other points raised by Article 3 do not arise. (See Article 6.)

Irish Free State. — Night is defined as in the Convention as a period of at least eleven consecutive hours including the interval between 10 o'clock in the evening and 5 o'clock in the morning by the inclusion of this Article of the Convention in the Schedule to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920. The special provision for the mining industry is included in the Schedule. The provisions regarding the baking industry and tropical countries have no application.

Italy. — The Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amending the Act of 10 November 1907 relating to the employment of women and children defines night by § 2 as a period “of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.” The report states that no exception has been made for lignite mines, and that, in so far as Italian legislation prohibits night work for lignite mines, and that, in so far as Italian legislation prohibits night work in bakeries, it has not been considered necessary to take advantage of the exception provided for in the third paragraph of this Article.

Latvia. — The note to § 13 of the Act of 24 March 1922 provides that work between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. is to be deemed to be night work. The Act contains no reference to the exceptions permitted by the Article.

Netherlands. — § 24 (2) of the Labour Act lays down that a worker shall not work in a factory or workplace between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m., while § 30 (2) stipulates that if deviations from the provisions of § 24 are authorised it shall be borne in mind that the work of young persons of less than eighteen years of age in factories or workplaces on two consecutive days must be divided by a night's rest of not less than eleven consecutive hours and that such person must not work in a factory or workplace between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. In the case of transport, the regulations forbid the employment of young persons of less than eighteen years of age between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. It would appear that the length of the period of unbroken rest is regulated by the general provisions relating to the rest periods of railway and tramway employees which are contained in § 91 of the General Regulations for railways and in § 75 of the Tramways Regulations. By these sections the workers are entitled to an uninterrupted rest period of not less than twelve hours on the other occasions, though the Minister may conditionally or unconditionally limit the uninterrupted rest period to ten hours in the case of sections of the staff designated by him. The object of the provision for ten-hour rests twice in two consecutive weeks is to make it possible to change over from a late shift to an early shift, or to an intermediate shift, in such a way as to enable the rest days of all the staff to be lengthened. Under this system it is no longer necessary that a rest day should always be preceded by a late shift or followed by an early shift. With regard to mines, the Mining Regulations as amended by the Decree of 7 October 1922 provide by §§ 228 (a) and 233 (a) that young persons over sixteen and under eighteen years of age may be employed between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. if they are granted the rest periods laid down in the Convention. In the case of the baking industry, § 85 (2) of the Labour Act prohibits work in bakeries between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. except in the special circumstances detailed in the Act. The provision regarding tropical countries has no application.

Poland. — § 8 of the Act of 2 July 1924 defines the night period as a period of eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. in undertakings working a single shift, and between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. in undertakings on the two-shift system. It also provides that in coal mines work may be carried on by male young persons over sixteen years of age in the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. if an interval ordinarily of fifteen hours, and in no case of less than thirteen hours, separates two shift periods. Differentiation for the baking industry is not permitted by the Act. The provision regarding tropical countries has no application.

Rumania. — According to § 9 of the Act of 9 April 1928 the night rest must cover a period of at least eleven hours. For young persons of less than 16 years of age this period will thus include the interval from 6 p.m. to 6 a.m. and for young persons of more than 16 years the interval will be from 6 p.m. to 5 a.m. According to § 10 young persons of more than 16 years may be employed in coal and lignite mines on surface works after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m. provided they are given a rest period of at least 18 hours without interruption. As regards bakeries, the Act does not contain similar provisions. § 9 provides that the Minister of Labour in consultation with the Superior Labour Council may modify the limits of the night rest period when such modification is required by special climatic conditions or the nature of the work.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovences. — According to § 10 of the Act
of 28 February 1922 the term "night" means a period of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. No provision is made in the Act for the exception relating to mines. With regard to bakeries in which night work is prohibited, § 19 of the Act provides that the night period will be regarded as terminating at 4 a.m. The provision relating to tropical conditions has no application.

Switzerland. — § 72 of the Factory Act, as amended by § 16 of the Act of 31 March 1922 relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry § 3 of the last-named Act and § 3 of the Order of 5 July 1923 relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings define "night" as a period of not less than 11 consecutive hours including the interval between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. The provisions of paragraph 2 of this Article of the Convention concerning coal and lignite mines have no application in Switzerland. The application to work in bakeries of the Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry met with certain difficulties at the outset. These were due to the fact that in Switzerland work generally begins in bakeries before 5 a.m., and that, as regards young persons, the situation in practice was not therefore in accordance with the provisions of the Convention. A number of infringements of the Federal Act were noted at the time and this led to the intervention on of the authorities and the infliction of a number of fines. Since no Federal Act prohibits the night work of the whole of the staff in bakeries, no use has been made, within the Federal sphere, of the exception allowed by paragraph 8 of Article 3. In the cantonal sphere, however use has been made of it, with the consent of the Federal authority, by the Canton of Basle-Town, the legislation of which fulfils the conditions laid down in paragraph 3.

ARTICLE 4.

The provisions of Articles 2 and 3 shall not apply to the night work of young persons between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years in case of emergencies which could not have been controlled or foreseen, which are not of a periodical character, and which interfere with the normal working of the industrial undertaking.

Please state whether your legislation, etc., imposes any conditions subject to which employers are allowed to take advantage of this exception.

Austria. — § 3 of the Act of 14 May 1919 provides that male young persons who have completed sixteen years of age may, subject to notice being given to the inspectorate, be employed on night work for not more than eight days, if this is necessary (a) in order to remedy a state of disorganisation in an undertaking which could not have been foreseen and does not recur periodically; (b) in order to prevent an otherwise unavoidable loss of material. No undertaking may avail itself of this exception for more than twenty-four days during the year. These young persons may be employed for a period exceeding the above limits only by permission granted in accordance with § 4 of the Act. In mines young auxiliary workers may be employed at night only if permission is granted by the Federal Ministry of Commerce and Communications, in accordance with § 14 of the Act of 28 July 1919.

Belgium. — § 14 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children as amended by § 81 of the Eight Hour Day Act provides that in cases of force majeure, when a stoppage has occurred which it was impossible to foresee and which is not of a recurring character, "the Governors (of Provinces) may, on the report of the competent labour inspector, for all industries and trades and for a specified period, authorise the employment of boys and girls over the age of sixteen years and women after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m." This authorisation may not however be granted for more than sixty days in any one year and the night rest period may not be reduced to less than ten hours.

Bulgaria. — § 18 of the Act respecting the Health and Safety of Workers provides that "night work may be permitted in undertakings and processes where this is necessitated by force majeure or unforeseen circumstances... Such permission may not be granted in the case of young persons of either sex who have not completed their sixteenth year."

Denmark. — The Act of 18 April 1925 provides that the provisions relating to the night work of young persons may be set aside in respect of young persons between sixteen and eighteen years of age in cases where natural events, accidents, or other similar occurrences which could not be foreseen or prevented, and are not of a periodical character, have disturbed the regular working of the undertaking. This exemption is subject to the authorisation of the labour and factory inspection directorate for undertakings within the competence of this directorate or of the police authority in other cases, though when the performance of certain work cannot be delayed owing to its nature, or when it is necessary to repair dislocation or damage without delay, a notification in writing of the departure from the provisions which is necessitated thereby is considered sufficient.

Estonia. — § 19 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the prohibition of night work shall not apply as regards young persons between the ages of sixteen and
eighteen years in cases of accident or force majeure which are not of a periodical character and which interfere with the normal working of the undertaking. The report adds that there are no administrative regulations concerning the conditions for the use of exceptions by employers. § 20 of the Act of 20 May 1924 further provides that "in undertakings which are influenced by the seasons and in all cases where exceptional circumstances demand it the night period may be reduced to ten hours a day on sixty days of the year."

France. — § 24 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 24 January 1925, lays down that, "provided that notice is given in advance, exceptions may be allowed to the provisions of §§ 21 and 22 in respect of boys between sixteen and eighteen years of age, for the purpose of preventing impending accidents or for purposes of repair after an accident has occurred." § 25 further provides that, "in addition, in case of an interruption of work due to an accidental cause or to force majeure which is not of a periodically recurring character, the head of an undertaking in any industry may employ children not under the age of sixteen years and adult women, in deviation from the provisions of §§ 21 and 22, under the conditions laid down by public administrative regulations, within the limit of the number of days lost, provided that the inspector is notified in advance. Nevertheless, a head of an undertaking shall not avail himself of this right on more than fifteen nights in the year without the permission of the inspector."

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the terms of Article 4 of the Convention in Part II of the Schedule and under § 1 (a) prohibits the night work of young persons "except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted by the Convention". Nevertheless, young persons are allowed to be employed at night only under the conditions set out in §§ 54, 55 and 56 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.

Italy. — § 2 of the Royal Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amended § 5 of the Act of 10 November 1907 to provide that the prohibition of night work shall not apply to the night work of young persons over sixteen years of age in cases of emergency which could not have been controlled or foreseen, which are not of a recurring nature and which interfere with the normal work of the industrial undertaking.


Netherlands. — No exception to the prohibition relating to night work is provided as regards factories and workshops. § 94 of the Regulations of 26 June 1913 relating to railways and of the Regulations of 3 June 1915 relating to light railways enables the Minister to authorise exemptions from the prohibition of night work in the case of young persons of more than sixteen years of age in respect of the staff of relatively unimportant stations, halts and posts and also in respect of the persons not uninterruptedly employed during their period on duty. § 95 (a) permits the granting of exemptions from the prohibition of the night work of young persons in the case of young persons over sixteen years of age when such exemptions are necessary for the proper performance of duties or the safety of traffic, provided that this cannot be avoided by the taking of other measures. In the case of tramways § 77 of the Regulations of 24 February 1920 stipulates that the Minister may grant exceptions conditionally or unconditionally from the prohibition of the night work of young persons of more than sixteen years of age. § 79 permits the same exemptions as are permitted by § 95 (a) of the Regulations relating to railways.

Poland. — § 8 of the Act of 2 July 1924 provides that the prohibition of night work is not to apply to young male persons over sixteen years of age "in cases of emergency which could not have been foreseen or prevented, which are not of a periodical character, and which
interfere with the normal working of the undertaking."

Romania. — The Act of 9 April 1928 (§ 13) provides that the labour inspectorate for their respective areas, or the Minister of Labour in consultation with the Superior Labour Council for several areas, may authorise employment during the night of young persons of 16 to 18 years when the normal working of the undertaking is threatened or when it is interrupted by force majeure which could not have been foreseen or prevented and which is not of a recurring character. It is provided in § 14 that in the cases of emergency contemplated by § 13 when it has not been possible to obtain the necessary authorisation the employers on their own responsibility may employ on night work boys of more than 16 years but for a maximum period of 7 days; after the expiration of this period the continuation of the employment of such persons will be treated as an infraction. The employers are required to inform the labour inspection services within three days every time they take advantage of the above provision.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 18 of the Act of 28 February 1922 authorises exceptions to the prohibition of night work for young persons of 16 to 18 years in case of force majeure when such employment is absolutely necessary to save the undertaking from an unforeseen danger or to prevent serious loss. The report adds that the Act provides for one further exception for the handling of perishable raw materials which are subject to certain loss, on not more than 30 occasions a year.

Switzerland. — § 71 of the Federal Factory Act, as amended by the Federal Act of 31 March 1922, provides that the Federal Council may authorise for male young persons exceptions to the prohibition of night work required by international conventions. Under § 52 night work may be temporarily authorised only in cases of proved necessity for not more than six nights, by the district authority, or failing that, by the local authority, and for more than six nights by the cantonal Government. § 4 of the Federal Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry provides that the prohibition may be suspended for young persons between 16 and 18 years of age in the event of an interruption of the work of the undertaking due to force majeure which could not be foreseen and does not recur periodically. The Federal Order in application of this Act further provides that this suspension is subject to the permission, in cases of suspension for not more than 10 nights, of the cantonal Government. If permission cannot be secured in due time the competent authority must be informed not later than the following day. Finally, § 4 of the Order relating to the employment of young persons in transport undertakings provides that the prohibition of night work may be suspended for persons of not less than 16 and not more than 18 years of age in the event of an interruption of work due to force majeure which could not be foreseen and does not recur periodically. The inspection authorities must be notified of such conditions by the undertaking as soon as possible.

Article 6 (India only).

In the application of this Convention to India, the term "industrial undertaking" shall include only "factories" as defined in the Indian Factory Act, and Article 2 shall not apply to male young persons over fourteen years of age.

India. — The Government has notified the Office that in the application of this Convention to India the term "industrial undertaking" includes only factories as defined in the Factories Act. § 2 (1) of the Act defines child as "a person who is under the age of fifteen years".

Article 7.

The prohibition of night work may be suspended by the Government, for young persons between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years, when in case of serious emergency the public interest demands it.

In addition, please state whether the prohibition of night work has been suspended by the Government in pursuance of this Article during the year to which this report relates, and, if so, for what industries, periods and areas.

Austria. — § 4 of the Act of 14 May 1919 lays down that if important considerations of national economy or the interests of the workers require it the Department of Social Administration may, after hearing the various employers' and workers' organisations, grant exemptions from the provisions of the Act specifying wherever necessary the conditions which are to be observed in the employment of women and young persons on night work. In virtue of Article 7 of the Convention such exemptions can only be given in the case of the industrial undertakings named in Article 1 of the Convention and can only apply to the work of young persons from sixteen to eighteen years of age. § 14 of the Act of 28 July 1919 further provides that the Secretary of State for Commerce, Industry and Labour may in the public interest permit exceptions to certain provisions of the Act, after consultation with the employers.

1 See under Hours Convention, Article 10, for definition of "factory".
and with the consent of the miners' trade union.

Belgium. — § 14 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children as amended by § 31 of the Eight Hour Day Act provides that in specially grave cases and when the public interest so requires “the Governors (of Provinces) may, on the report of the competent labour inspector, for all industries and trades and for a specified period, authorise the employment of boys and girls over the age of sixteen years and women after 10 p.m. and before 5 a.m.” This authorisation may not however be granted for more than sixty days in any one year and the night period may not be reduced to less than ten hours. The Government reports that no suspension under Article 7 has yet been granted.

Bulgaria. — The Government reports that it has not been necessary to make use of Article 7.

Denmark. — The Government reports that there are no rules for suspension other than those indicated under Article 4.

Estonia. — The report states that Estonian legislation contains no corresponding provision.

France. — The Government reports that the application of the Convention has not been suspended in virtue of Article 7.

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the terms of Article 7 of the Convention in Part II of the Schedule and under § 1 (3) prohibits the night work of young persons “except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted” by the Convention. As regards the manufacturing and mining industries, however, the Article does not apply, as there is no corresponding provision in the Factory and Workshop or Coal Mines Acts.

Greece. — The report states that no advantage has been taken of the exception provided for in this Article.

India. — The report states that this provision is not applicable to India.

Irish Free State. — The Act of 1920 reproduces the terms of Article 7 in Part II of the Schedule, and under § 1 (3) prohibits the night work of young persons “except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted by the Convention”. It is reported that there has been no suspension by the Government of the prohibition of night work.

Italy. — § 2 of the Royal Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amended § 5 (a) of the Act of 10 November 1907 to provide that “the prohibition of night work of young persons over sixteen years of age may be suspended by decree of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in cases of serious emergency when the public interest demands it.” The Government reports that no suspension has as yet been effected under Article 7.

Latvia. — No reference is made to this Article in the report.

Netherlands. — The Government reports that it has not yet been necessary to make use of Article 7.

Poland. — § 21 of the Act of 2 July 1924 lays down that the provisions of the Act are not to operate in restriction of the powers of the Council of Ministers specified in § 6 (d) of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 18 December 1919. § 6 (d) reads as follows: “In case of national necessity, the hours of work may be extended by an order based on the decision of the Council of Ministers and, in appropriate cases, on advice tendered by trade associations of workers and employers; such extension may take place on any day of the week, including Sunday, in certain establishments or classes of establishment, but in no case for a period exceeding three months.” The Government reports that no use has yet been made of Article 7.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928 provides in § 13 that the labour inspectors for their respective areas or the Minister of Labour in consultation with the Superior Labour Council for several areas may authorise the employment during the night of young persons of 16 to 18 years in all cases where exceptional circumstances or the public interest require it. The report states that in 1928 no use was made of this provision.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 18 of the Act of 28 February 1922 authorises exceptions to the prohibition of the night work of young persons of 16 to 18 years in case of absolute necessity in the urgent interests of the State.

Switzerland. — § 71 of the Factory Act as amended by § 16 of the Act of 31 March 1922 provides that, as regards night work, the Federal Council may authorise for male young persons over 16 exceptions which are required in the public interest. Under § 6 of the Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry the Federal Council may authorise further exceptions which are required in the public interest. The Order relating to the employment of young per-
sons in transport undertakings provides in § 42 that the Federal Council may authorise further exemptions in the public interest. The Swiss Government states that the prohibition of night work has not been suspended, under Article 7 of the Convention, during the year covered by the report.

III.

Article 9 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions. Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The Government states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo and to the territories under mandate, since the local conditions do not allow it at present.

Denmark. — The Government reports that the ratification does not include Greenland.

France. — The French Government states that owing to local conditions the Convention cannot be applied in French overseas possessions.

Great Britain. — This Convention has been applied to Ceylon with certain modifications. The question of applying it similarly to Hong Kong is at present under consideration. The Convention has not been applied in Palestine, but the local Government enacted legislation in 1927 relating to the employment of women and children in industrial undertakings which contains a number of provisions similar to those of the present Convention. Apart from the above, the Convention has not been applied to any other British colony or protectorate on the general ground of unsuitability owing to local conditions in regard to employment. In the majority of colonies, protectorates, etc., there are no industrial conditions comparable to those for which the Convention was designed, and, as a rule, no night work of young people. The following are the comments which are made in certain cases from Colonial Governments as regards the application of this Convention:

Barbados. — Enquiry among manufacturers of sugar showed that very few boys under 16 were employed by night or day in connection with the factories. It was very doubtful whether any material benefit would result from the adoption of the Convention.

Seychelles. — There are no industrial undertakings in which young persons are employed during the night, except perhaps the drying of copra by means of furnaces and the distillation of essential oils. By reason of the nature of these two industries, the work must sometimes be carried on continually day and night. Article 2 of the Convention allows the night employment of young persons over the age of 16 in similar industrial undertakings. In these circumstances, the question of the application of the Convention to Seychelles did not appear to arise.

Nigeria. — Young persons are not employed in Nigeria in the very few works which might be classed as "industrial" undertakings under the Convention, which is far in advance of the conditions existing in the Colony and Protectorate.

Zanzibar. — It is possible that a few persons under the age of 18 on occasions when vessels are loaded or unloaded by night may be employed in transport or handling of goods, but such employment, if it exists, is inconsiderable. It is, in any case, purely voluntary and can in no sense be regarded as a hardship.

Italy. — The Government states that the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies, as the local conditions in each colony render such application impossible.

Netherlands. — The Government had already reported that this Convention was considered applicable with modifications in the Dutch East Indies. § 1 of an Order of the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies dated 17 December 1925 concerning child labour and the employment of women during the night lays down that children under twelve of age may not be employed between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. By § 2 should a child of between eight and twelve years of age be found on enclosed premises in which work is being carried on, he shall be considered, unless proof to the contrary be provided, as being employed at the time. The measures for the supervision of the application of the Order are summarised in the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night. The Order came into force on 1 March 1926. By letter of 25 January 1929 the Minister for the Colonies informed the Office that in regulating the employment of young persons it would be considered how far it would be possible to extend these provisions relating to the prohibition of night work of young persons. The Netherlands Government has further reported that neither in Surinam nor in Curacao...
is night work carried out by young persons in industry at the present time. It is, however, by no means inconceivable that, with the progressive development of industry in these provinces, conditions will arise in which the performance of night work by such persons will be economically unavoidable. In these circumstances no such decision as is contemplated in the second paragraph of Article 9 of the Convention can at present be adopted in regard to Surinam and Curaçao.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provision of this Convention came into effect.

Austria. — 20 July 1924.
Belgium. — 12 July 1924.
Bulgaria. — 22 February 1922.
Denmark. — 19 May 1923.
Estonia. — 6 June 1924.
France. — 25 August 1925.

Great Britain. — 14 July 1921 generally; 1 July 1922 as regards blast furnaces, iron mills, paper mills and glass works.

Greece. — 13 June 1921.

India. — 14 July 1921.

Irish Free State. — 4 September 1925.

Italy. — 27 June 1923.

Latvia. — 3 June 1926.

Netherlands. — 17 March 1924.

Poland. — 21 June 1924.

Rumania. — 18 April 1928, date of coming into force of the Act of 9 April 1928.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — 1 April 1927.

Switzerland. — 10 October 1922.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Austria. — See the analysis of the report upon the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Belgium. — The factory inspectors and the mining engineers are responsible for the supervision of the application of the Acts and regulations in question in the undertakings which they respectively supervise.

Bulgaria. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Denmark. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

Estonia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act of 20 May 1924 is entrusted to the factory inspectors.

France. — See the analysis of the report upon the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Great Britain. — The provisions are administered as regards factories and other classes of undertakings under the Factory and Workshop Acts by the Home Office (Factory Department) as part of those Acts; as regards mines and quarries, by the Board of Trade (Mines Department), as part of the Acts relating to the regulation of mines and quarries; and as regards constructional work and transport, by the local Education Authorities as part of the Employment of Children Act, 1903, now embodied as regards England and Wales in the Consolidating Education Act, 1921; and as regards Northern Ireland in the Consolidating Education (Northern Ireland) Act, 1923.

Greece. — The application of the relevant laws and regulations is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the inspector of mines.

India. — See the analysis of the report on the Hours Convention.

Irish Free State. — Inspectors of Factories and Workshops and of Mines and Quarries attached to the Industries Branch of the Department of Industry and Commerce are responsible for the application of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920.

Italy. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Latvia. — The application of the Act of 24 March 1922 is entrusted to the Labour Department of the Ministry of Social Welfare.

Netherlands. — Supervision of application of the legislation in force is entrusted to the factory inspectorate working under the general direction of the Ministry of Labour and Industry in undertakings
covered by the Labour Act of 1919 and to the inspectors of mines in the case of the undertakings covered by the Acts and Regulations relating to mines. The supervision of the laws and regulations relating to railways, light railways and tramways is effected by the general railway inspecting authorities subject to the control of the Ministry of Waterways and Communications.

Poland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

Rumania. — The contraventions of the Act of 9 April 1928 will be taken cognizance of by the inspection and control services provided for by the Act of 13 April 1927 concerning the organisation of the labour inspection service; these will be judged in the first instance by the justices of the peace, with right of appeal to the courts within a period of 15 clear days and without the right to object (§ 49).

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The application of the Act of 28 February 1922 is entrusted to the regional labour inspectorates.

Switzerland. — See the analysis of the reports on the Conventions concerning employment of women during the night and fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

* * *

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the factory inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Austria. — See the analysis of the report upon the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Belgium. — A statement of breaches of the law reported is published monthly in the Revue du Travail. Statistics prepared on 31 October 1926 by the Department of Labour showed that 136,706 young persons from 14 to 21 years were employed in industries employing at least 10 workers.

Bulgaria. — The report states that in 1928 no contraventions worthy of note were reported.

Estonia. — See the summary of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

France. — The Government reports that in 1927 the following derogations from the prohibition of the nightwork of children were taken advantage of in continued process works in respect of boys of 16–18 years: 202 metal works, 2,077 boys; 165 glass works, 978 boys; 360 paper works, 731 boys; 135 sugar works, 117 boys. No exemption was granted to mining concerns in 1927. In the case of unemployment resulting from an accidental interruption or of force majeure which is not of a periodical character, exemptions were granted to one undertaking for a period of 126 days and in respect of 20 children employed under the exemption. With regard to infractions reported concerning the provisions relating to the prohibition of night work of children, the labour inspection service undertook for the year 1927, 8 prosecutions relating to 38 contraventions; no cases of infraction relating to the night rest were reported. Finally, the report gives in comparative tabular form for the years 1925, 1926 and 1927 the number of young persons employed during the night in continuous process operations in virtue of the allowances granted by the Decree of 30 June 1913 anterior to the application of the Decree of 5 May 1928 issued in application of the Act of 24 January 1925. From this table it is seen that in 1927 the beetroot distilleries employed during the night 18 boys of 16 to 18 years of age; iron and cast-iron works, 3 boys of 13 to 16 years and 7 boys of 16–18 years; undertakings for the extraction of oils, 19 boys of 13–16 years and 33 boys of 16 to 18 years; paper works, 290 boys of 13 to 16 and 731 boys of 16 to 18 years; manufacture and refining of sugar, 2 boys of 13 to 16 years, 117 boys of 16–18 years; metal works, 886 boys of 13 to 16 and 2,077 boys of 16–18 years; glass works, 970 boys of 13 to 16 years and 978 boys of 16 to 18 years. The report concludes "it may be noted that in 1927 the number of boys of 13 to 16 years employed in all industries is 2,170; the number of boys of 16 to 18 years employed in the first three industries which are not covered by the Convention is 58. Since the total number of adults employed in the same two groups of industries in 1927 was 110,581 in the former case and 6,100 in the latter, it is seen that the number of boys employed represents in the former case 2 per cent. and in the latter case less than 1 per cent. (0.95) of the total number of adults employed".

Great Britain. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

India. — The report states that information of a general character is contained in the Statistics of Factories and in the Note published by the Government on the working of the Indian Factories.
Act. These documents are regularly communicated to the International Labour Office.

Irish Free State. — As the legislation obtaining in An Saorstat prior to the ratification of the Convention was more stringent in regard to the prohibition of the employment of young persons at night, the application of the Convention has not caused any alteration. The legislation implementing the ratification of the Convention is in addition to and not in derogation of any previous laws. Two contraventions of the provisions of the Convention were reported in 1928.

Poland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The annual report of the labour inspectors for the year 1927 shows that the number of children of 14 to 18 years employed in the undertakings inspected by the labour inspectors during that year amounted to 19,132, of whom 12,077 were boys and 7,075 girls. The number of infractions of the provisions concerning night work is 83 of which 66 occurred in the food industries.

Switzerland. — The reports of the federal factory inspectors give for the year 1927 (the statistics for 1928 being not yet available) the following figures: the number of workers subject to federal factory inspection was 366,898, distributed as follows: 14 to 18 years of age: men 20,105, women 22,040, total 42,145; over 18 years of age: men 206,631, women 118,121, total 324,752. It may be noted that the half yearly reports of the federal factory inspectors and the cantonal governments are drawn up in a very detailed manner, that they contain very full information on the application of the law and that these reports are widely circulated.
Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

This Convention first came into force on 27 September 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
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<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>4. 2.1925</td>
<td>26.12.1928</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>16. 3.1923</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
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<td>Great Britain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
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<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>4. 9.1925</td>
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<td>Japan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Serb.-Croat.-Slovene Kingdom</td>
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<td>Spain</td>
<td>20. 6.1924</td>
<td>8. 3.1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>27. 9.1921</td>
<td>19. 1.1929</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The report of the Greek Government states that the Convention was given effect to by a Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention. This Decree contains the text of the Convention and prescribes in § 3 that detailed provisions for its application should be made by Decree issued on the motion of the Minister of Marine.

Until such time as a maritime code is adopted in Rumania, provisions covering this Convention have been included in the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. Under § 52 of this Act, Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.
Act of 5 June 1928 concerning seamen’s articles of agreement (L. S. 1928, Belg. 5 A).

Bulgaria.

Canada.
Canada Shipping Act, Chapter 186; Revised Statutes, 1927.

Denmark.
Seamen’s Act of 1 May 1923 (L.S. 1923, Den. 2). Act of 26 February 1872 relating to the engagement and discharge of crews.

Estonia.
Seamen’s Act of 22 March 1928 (L. S. 1928, Est. 1 B).
Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

**ARTICLE 1.**

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "vessel" includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned; it excludes ships of war.

**Belgium.** — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not expressly define the term "vessel" but it appears to apply to every vessel flying the Belgian flag engaged in maritime navigation for pecuniary gain.

**Bulgaria.** — The Health and Safety of Workers Act of 1917 and the Regulations of the Bulgarian Navigation Company, under which the Convention is applied, use the terms "steamers" and "vessels" without specific definition.

**Canada.** — The Canada Shipping Act, as amended, defines "ship" in any Section relating to the employment of children and young persons as "any ship or boat registered in Canada which goes to sea or is about to go to sea; it does not include any ship employed exclusively within the limits of the inland waters of Canada, as defined by the Act."

**Denmark.** — The term "vessel" is not specifically defined in the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923, but the report states that it is understood in practice as in the Convention.

**Estonia.** — The Act of 22 March 1928 does not contain a definition of the term "vessel". According to § 73 of the Act the
following are excluded from the field of its application: (1) vessels belonging to the State employed for defence or administrative purposes, (2) vessels whose gross tonnage is less than 60.

Finland. — § 86 of the Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1924, as amended by the Act of 26 May 1925, provides that the Act shall not apply to vessels belonging to the State which are used for purposes of defence.

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women and Children Act, 1920, reproduces in Part IV of the Schedule the text of Article 1 of the Convention. In addition, by § 4 of the Act “the expression 'ship' means any sea-going ship or boat of any description which is registered in the United Kingdom as a British ship and includes any British fishing boat entered in the fishing boat register.”

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention contains the text of the Convention.

Irish Free State. — Part IV of the Schedule to the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act 1920, which reproduces the text of this Article, and § 4 of the Act.

Japan. — The Act of 29 March 1923 concerning the minimum age and health certificate for seamen applies to “seamen on vessels making coasting or longer voyages, except in the cases specified by Imperial Order” (§ 1). The Imperial Order of 19 November 1923 exempts from the minimum age provisions of the Act of 29 March 1923 “seamen on vessels engaged in fishing, whose total tonnage is less than 30 tons, or whose capacity is below 300 koku.” These vessels are not considered to be “engaged in maritime navigation” within the meaning of Article 1 of the Convention.

Latvia. — The term “vessel” is not specifically defined in the Decree of 30 October 1928, but according to § 73 its provisions are not applicable to (1) ships of war, (2) vessels employed in the service of the State [with certain exceptions], (3) pleasure boats, and (4) vessels on which only the members of the owner’s family are employed.

Netherlands. — § 1 of the Decree of 19 December 1924 applies to vessels engaged in maritime navigation (exclusive of sea fishing-vessels).

Norway. — The Act of 16 February 1923 concerning seamen which fixes the age of admission of children to maritime work does not contain a specific definition of the term “vessel”.

Poland. — The German Seamen’s Code, which has remained in force in Poland, applies to all merchant vessels which have the right to fly the flag of the State. The Act of 28 May 1920 relating to Polish merchant vessels applies to all merchant vessels, i.e. vessels engaged in maritime navigation for purposes of commerce. For the application of the laws in force the term “vessel” includes all vessels engaged in maritime navigation except ships of war.

Rumania. — According to § 23 of the Act of 9 April 1928, all boats, vessels or ships, whether publicly or privately owned, engaged upon maritime navigation, with the exception of ships of war, are deemed to be “vessels”.

Spain. — The sections of the Labour Code, in which the provisions of the Regulations of 26 March 1925 under which the Convention is applied have been included, apply to “merchant vessels.” This term includes all vessels, whatever may be their employment, except ships of war.

Sweden. — § 10 of the Seamen’s Act of 15 June 1922, which deals with the employment of children on board ship, is of general application.

Article 2.

Children under the age of fourteen years shall not be employed or work on vessels, other than vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed.

Belgium. — § 19 of the Act of 5 June 1928 provides that “a person shall not be signed on or enter into a contract of engagement for maritime work unless he has attained the age of 14 years in the case of the deck crew and 18 years in the case of the engine room crew. No woman may enter into a contract of engagement for maritime work unless she has reached the age of 21 years.”

Bulgaria. — § 15 (2) of the Act respecting the health and safety of workers prohibits, in general terms, the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age on steamers. These provisions have been completed by the Regulations respecting the
crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company; these regulations are uniform for all Bulgaria, and in § 3 (a) it is laid down that members of the crew must have attained the age of twenty-one years. This amendment has become compulsory as a result of the modified technical conditions under which the Company is obliged to work since the war.

Canada. — § 163 of the Canada Shipping Act, as amended, provides that “no child shall be employed in any ship except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted under the Convention, set out in Part I of Schedule B of this Act.”

Denmark. — § 10 of the Seamen’s Act of 1 May 1923 provides that “children under fourteen years of age shall not be employed on board ship.”

Estonia. — § 10 of the Act of 22 March 1928 lays down that the employment of persons under the age of 14 years on board ship is prohibited. According to § 73 this prohibition does not apply to vessels in which only members of the same family are employed.

Finland. — § 10 of the Seamen’s Act prohibits the employment of children under 14 years of age on board ship. The Act does not cover vessels on which only persons belonging to the owner’s family are employed.

Great Britain. — § 1 (2) of the Act of 1920 provides that “no child shall be employed in any ship except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted under the Convention set out in Part IV of the Schedule to this Act.”

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention contains the text of the Convention.

Irish Free State. — § 1 (2) of the Act of 1920 provides that “no child shall be employed in any ship except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted under the Convention set out in Part IV of the Schedule to this Act.” § 3 (2) lays down that nothing in the Act shall apply to a ship in which only members of the same family are employed.

Japan. — § 2 of the Act of 29 March 1923 lays down that “persons under fourteen years of age shall not be employed as seamen.” This prohibition does not apply to vessels on which only members of the same family are employed.

Latvia. — According to § 10 of the Decree of 30 October 1928 children under 14 years of age may not be employed for work on vessels other than those on which only members of the same family are employed.

Netherlands. — § 1 of the Decree of 19 December 1924 prohibits the employment of children under the age of fourteen years on board vessels as defined other than vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed.

Norway. — According to § 10 of the Act of 16 February 1923 children under the age of 15 years may not be engaged for work on board ship. The Act does not provide for the exception relating to vessels in which only members of the same family are employed.

Poland. — The minimum age of 14 years laid down in the Seamen’s Code has been raised by the Constitution of Poland and the Act of 2 July 1924 to 15 years. § 5 of the latter Act provides that “children under 15 years of age shall not be employed for remuneration.” The exception for vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed is not provided for.

Rumania. — § 24 of the Act of 9 April 1928 lays down that children under the age of 14 years shall not be employed for work on vessels other than those on which only members of the same family are employed.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that this Article is applied by § 20 of the Workers’ Protection Act of 28 February 1922, which provides that children under fourteen years of age may not be employed in the undertakings mentioned in § 1 of the Act. Transport is included in these undertakings. Undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed are exempted from the application of the Act.

Spain. — § 37 of the Labour Code of 23 August 1926 provides that children under fourteen years of age may not be inscribed on the muster roll.

Sweden. — § 10 of the Seamen’s Act of 15 June 1922 provides that “children under fourteen years of age shall not be employed on board ship.” The exception relating to vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed does not exist in Swedish legislation.

ARTICLE 3.

The provisions of Article 2 shall not apply to work done by children on school-ships or training-ships, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not expressly refer to this exception. In previous reports it was stated that the Royal Order of 28 February 1919, the pro-
visions of which are observed in the mercantile marine and fishing industry, lays down in § 3 that the prohibition of the employment of children under the age of fourteen years shall not apply to technical schools provided that the organisation is approved and supervised by the competent public authority.

Bulgaria. — This exception is not provided for in the Act of 1917 or the Regulations of the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Canada. — § 163 of the Canada Shipping Act, as amended, prohibits the employment of children in any ship except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted under the Convention.

Denmark. — No reference is made to this exception in the Act of 1 May 1923.

Estónia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 does not provide for this exception.

Finland. — § 10, third paragraph, of the Act of 8 March 1924 provides that the prohibition of the employment of boys under fourteen years of age on board ship shall not apply to training or practice vessels on which the work is approved and supervised by a public authority.

Great Britain. — § 1 (2) of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, prohibits the employment of children in any ship except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted under the Convention.

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention contains the text of the Convention.

Irish Free State. — § 1 (2) of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, prohibits the employment of children in any ship except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted under the Convention.

Japan. — In the Act of 29 March 1923 the provisions regulating the age of admission to employment at sea do not apply to the "employment of children on training vessels with the approval of the administrative authorities."

Latvia. — The provisions of the Decree of 30 October 1928 are not applicable to the work of children on school ships, provided that such work is approved and supervised by the appropriate authority (§ 10 (3)).

Netherlands. — The Labour Act of 1919 does not apply to work in technical and trade schools when carried on by the staff and pupils of those schools or to work in state educational institutions or in reformatory and similar schools when carried on by staff and inmates (§ 88).

Norway. — Norwegian legislation contains no provision for this exception.

Poland. — The work of children on school-ships under the supervision of the public authorities is deemed to be education.

Rumania. — § 24 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that the prohibition of the employment of children under 14 years of age does not apply to the work of children on school ships provided that such work is approved and supervised by the public authority.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — According to the report, this Article of the Convention is applied by § 20 of the Act of 28 February 1922 which provides that the prohibition relating to the employment of children under fourteen years of age does not apply to trade schools, which are not deemed to be undertakings under the Act, if they are approved by the competent authorities and are under their supervision.

Spain. — No reference is made to this exception in the Labour Code.

Sweden. — This exception does not exist in Swedish legislation.

ARTICLE 4.

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every shipmaster shall be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of sixteen years employed on board his vessel, or a list of them in the articles of agreement, and of the dates of their births.

In addition, please give details of the method of registration in use and forward a specimen copy of the register, if any, prescribed in virtue of this Article.

Belgium. — The report states that the list of the crew which every Belgian vessel must carry gives the ages of all the seamen on board.

Bulgaria. — The report states that the masters of steamers are obliged to keep a detailed register in which are entered the name, surname, age, nationality, etc., of each seaman.

Canada. — Besides reproducing this Article of the Convention, the Canada Shipping Act, as amended, provides in § 163 (10) that: "There shall be included in every agreement with the crew of a sea-
going ship registered in Canada, entered into under this Act, a list of young persons under the age of 18 years who are members of the crew, together with particulars of the dates of their birth, and, in the case of a ship in which there is no such agreement, the master of the ship shall, if young persons under the age of 18 years are employed thereon, keep a register of those persons, with particulars of the dates of their birth and of the dates on which they become or cease to be members of the crew, and the register so kept shall at all times be open to inspection.

Denmark. — § 11 of the Seamen’s Act provides that the captain must keep a muster roll which must be verified, under § 13 of the Act of 26 February 1872, by the registration officer before the crew is embarked. It is further provided in § 11 of the Seamen’s Act that every seaman must be in possession of a seaman’s certificate or registration certificate, and these documents are delivered by the competent public authority on production of the birth certificate of the seaman. The report states that there is thus a double supervision of the observance of the provisions of the Act relating to the age for admission.

Estonia. — According to § 11 of the Act of 22 March 1928 each seaman receives, on engagement, from the captain a book the form of which is prescribed by the Minister of Communications. This book must mention, inter alia, the year and the date of birth of the seaman.

Finland. — Under § 10 of the Act of 8 March 1924 the age of every minor under 18 years engaged on board ship must be established by means of a certificate from a priest or from some other public authority. § 11 of the Act provides that when a seaman is engaged he shall be furnished by the captain with a wages book drawn up in accordance with the form prescribed by the Shipping Board and containing the seaman’s full name, the year and day of birth, etc.

Great Britain. — Besides reproducing this Article of the Convention, the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, provides in § 1 (5) that “there shall be included in every agreement with the crew entered into under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, a list of the young persons under the age of sixteen years who are members of the crew, together with particulars of the dates of their birth, and, in the case of a ship in which there is no such agreement, the master of the ship shall, if young persons under the age of sixteen years are employed therein, keep a register of those persons with particulars of the dates of their birth and of the dates on which they become or cease to be members of the crew, and the register so kept shall at all times be open to inspection.”

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention contains the text of the Convention.

Irish Free State. — Besides reproducing this Article of the Convention, the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920, provides in § 1 (5) that “there shall be included in every agreement with the crew entered into under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, a list of the young persons under the age of sixteen years who are members of the crew, together with particulars of the dates of their birth, and, in the case of a ship in which there is no such agreement, the master of the ship shall, if young persons under the age of sixteen years are employed therein, keep a register of those persons with particulars of the dates of their birth and of the dates on which they become or cease to be members of the crew, and the register so kept shall at all times be open to inspection.” The regular agreement or engagement form contains a separate space for the registration of young persons, their names, ages and birthplaces. A separate form is also used.

Japan. — § 4 of the Act of 29 March 1923 stipulates that “in cases when persons under eighteen years of age are employed as seamen, the captain shall draw up a register containing their names, addresses and dates of birth, and keep it in the vessel, provided that in respect of persons over sixteen years of age the drawing up of such register may be dispensed with by Imperial Order.” The form of the register is laid down in § 6 of the Regulations issued on 19 November 1923 for the enforcement of the Act of 29 March 1923.

Latvia. — According to § 11 of the Decree of 30 October 1928 the captain must on the engagement of a seaman deliver to him a wage book, indicating inter alia the name of the seaman and the date of his birth.

Netherlands. — § 2 of the Decree of 19 December 1924 provides that an employment register shall be kept on board every vessel as defined on which one or more young persons (i.e. persons under eighteen years of age) are employed. The surname, forename and date of birth of every such person shall be entered therein. The Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry is to prescribe the form for this employment register.

Norway. — The Act of 29 June 1888 with the supplementary Acts of 18 May
1892 and 16 June 1927 make provision in §§ 3, 6, 7, 11, 12, 15, 16 for meeting the requirements of this Article of the Convention. These provisions specify the lists of crews which must be compulsorily kept, and fix the method of supervision by the authorities. The legislation stipulated by Article 4 is carried out as follows: (1) On board vessels bound for foreign ports in which registration of the crew is compulsory, a list of the crew is drawn up by the seamen's registration services and carries the signature of the captain. All persons engaged in the service of the vessel are inscribed in this list with an indication of the date of their birth (§ 3 of the Act of 29 June 1888). (2) On board vessels bound for foreign ports for which registration of the crews is not prescribed, a list is drawn up by the captain and certified by the seamen’s registration services—in this list must be inscribed all persons who work on board the vessel with an indication of their age (§ 11 of the Act of 29 June 1888). (3) On board vessels navigating between Norwegian ports the captain draws up a list in which are inscribed all persons below the age of 18 years working on board, with an indication of their date of birth, and in certain cases a list as provided for under (2) (§ 12 of the Act of 1888 and the Supplementary Act of 16 June 1927).

Poland. — § 11 of the Employment of Women and Young Persons Act provides that every employer who employs young persons (i.e. persons between fifteen and eighteen years of age) “shall keep a register of the said young persons in accordance with a model prescribed by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare,” which register is open to the examination of the factory inspection authorities. “Further, in establishments where young persons are employed, a list of the said young persons shall be affixed in a conspicuous place, showing their hours of beginning and ending work, their breaks, and the nature of their employment.” A Decree of 14 December 1924 supplementing the Act of 2 July 1924, prescribes the form in which the registers of young persons required by § 11 of the Act are to be kept.

Rumania. — The report states that every person engaged on board ship (seaman, trimmer, stoker) must possess a separate book (§ 8 of the Act of 1907 for the organisation of the mercantile marine and § 8 of the Regulations of 1928) and that all articles of agreement must be made in writing and entered in the register of the ship, the keeping of which is obligatory for the captain. By means of the particulars contained in these documents, the date of birth of all persons employed on board can be easily verified.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — According to the report, the keeping of a list of the crew mentioning all persons employed on board with an indication of the date of their birth is provided for in the legislation in force in the Kingdom.

Spain. — § 35 (2) of the Labour Code provides that the articles of agreement shall mention the date of birth of every person under eighteen years of age.

Sweden. — The Royal Decree of 30 June 1922 contains provisions respecting the keeping of registers of minors employed on board ship. The Royal Decree of 22 December 1922 further provides, as regards the list of the crew and the register of signing on, that not only the year, but also the day, of birth of the seaman must be given.

III.

Article 5 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The Government states in its report that the provisions of this Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the territories under mandate, since local conditions do not allow it at present. The Act of 5 June 1928 nevertheless extends the application of those of its provisions which correspond to the terms of the Convention to young persons who are natives of the Congo and of the territories under Belgian mandate employed on board Belgian vessels.

Denmark. — The report states that the ratification does not include Greenland.

Great Britain. — This Convention has been applied to Ceylon and the Gold Coast Colony. It has not been considered suitable for application to the remaining colonies, protectorates, etc. Reasons for non-application in certain cases were as follows:
Cyprus. — Children are seldom, if ever, employed at sea on Cypriot owned vessels, except where the ship's crew consists of members of the family to which the children belong.

Nigeria. — The only cases in which children are employed on ships in Nigerian waters are those in which Kroo boys accompany their fathers as servants. These boys are better placed in this way than if they were left ashore.

Sierra Leone. — Children under the age of fourteen years are not employed at sea. Boys under this age go out with their fathers when the fathers are fishermen, but the Convention does not apply to them.

Fiji. — No children in the Colony are engaged in employment at sea.

Kenya. — Children are not employed to any extent in the native vessels which ply on the coast.

Japan. — The report states that the markedly different conditions obtaining in the colonies render it impossible to apply the Convention to them and for this reason the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies.

Netherlands. — An Ordinance applying the Convention with modifications in the Netherlands East Indies was issued on 27 February 1926 (Staatsblad 1926, No. 87) and came into force on 1 May 1926 1. § 2 of this Ordinance provides that children under twelve years of age may not be employed on board any ship (defined as a ship or boat of 500 or more cubic metres gross registered in the Netherlands East Indies, or a sea-going ship or boat belonging to a public authority other than a warship) unless such employment is under the control of the father or a relative to the third degree inclusive. The names and dates of birth of all children under sixteen years of age must by § 4 be entered on the muster roll or in a register. The modifications are due to the special family relations which exist among the crews of most of the native sea-going vessels. The age limit has been reduced to twelve years in view of the special conditions of native labour in the Indies. As regards Surinam and Curacao, it is reported that children are not employed on ships of those provinces.

Spain. — The report for 1925 stated that the Regulations approved by Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, now incorporated in the Labour Code, applied without modification to all territories under Spanish sovereignty.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

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Finland. — The Order of 23 December 1924 respecting the signing on and off of the crews of vessels provides that when the crew of a Finnish vessel is signed on in Finland it shall be seen that the legal provisions in force respecting the employment of young persons on board ship are not contravened. The superintendents of the seamen's offices act as inspectors. When a crew is signed on outside Finland the same precautions are required to be taken by the Finnish Consul or, if there is no Finnish Consul in the port, by the Finnish Consul first encountered during the voyage or by the competent authority at the place where the vessel is lying. In addition, the Order of the Shipping Board of 29 October 1925 entrusts to the shipping inspectors the general supervision of the enforcement of the law relating to employment on board ship.

Great Britain. — The application of the law is supervised by officers of the Board of Trade.

Greece. — The supervision of the application of the Convention is within the jurisdiction of the Seamen's and Port Authorities' Section of the Mercantile Marine Department.

Irish Free State. — The application of the maritime provisions of the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act is entrusted to the Transport and Marine Branch of the Department of Industry and Commerce. In the case of foreign-going ships, the Superintendents of Mercantile Marine Offices before whom crews are signed on ensure that the provisions of the Act are observed. In the case of other vessels, supervision is maintained by regular examination of the statutory agreements and forms. The administration of the Act of 1920, in so far as it refers to the employment of young persons at sea, is dealt with in the first instance by the Superintendents of the Mercantile Marine Offices maintained by the Department of Industry and Commerce at the seventeen chief ports in the Saorstat. These officers are in touch with the movements of vessels and are aware of the composition of their crews.

Japan. — The application of the Act of 29 March 1923 and of the Ordinance and Regulations for its enforcement is entrusted to the Department of Communications, to its local offices (the regional bureaux of communications) and to the sea-coast cities, towns and villages specially designated by the Minister of Communications.

Latvia. — The enforcement of the Decree of 30 October 1928 is entrusted to the Department for the Protection of Labour.

Netherlands. — The Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry is responsible for the administration of the Decree of 19 December 1924. The method of administration is that laid down in the Labour Code of 1 November 1919.

Norway. — The supervision of the application of the provisions in question is entrusted to the officials of the registration services. Abroad, the Norwegian consuls are entrusted with the duty of supervision.

Poland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

Rumania. — Contraventions of the Act of 9 April 1928 are taken cognisance of by the services of inspection and supervision provided for by the Act of 13 April 1927 concerning the organisation of the labour inspection service. Moreover, in accordance with §§ 6 and 16 of the Regulations of 1907 for the application of the Act for the organisation of the mercantile marine, the crew is subject to supervision by the harbour masters and the general navigation and harbour inspectorate.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The supervision of the application of the Workers' Protection Act and the Orders mentioned in the report is entrusted to the Directorate of Maritime Affairs.

Spain. — The supervision of the application of the legislation in force devolves upon the maritime authorities, i.e. the local navigation authorities and the port authorities. § 36 of the Labour Code provides that port authorities or consuls shall not issue any ship's articles unless all the members of the crew have been engaged in accordance with the law.

Sweden. — The supervision of the enforcement of the law is entrusted to the maritime inspectors and to the commissioners of the seamen's employment offices and, abroad, to the Swedish consuls.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the contraventions reported etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.
Canada. — The report states that such administrative supervision and inspection of articles of agreement, accounts, etc., as are required by law are being carried out by some 50 shipping masters at Canadian ports.

Irish Free State. — The report states that the number of cases in which young persons are engaged on Saorstat ships is very small. No contraventions of the Act were reported during 1927.

Japan. — The report states that, although the statistics for the inspection services are not available, the offices of the competent authorities charged with inspection and supervision number 23, while cities, towns or villages handling the business of coastal offices number 142. No cases of contravention are reported.

Norway. — The report states that no statistical data exist with regard to the number of persons protected by this legislation. On the other hand, no cases of infraction or attempted infraction of this legislation have been reported to the authorities.

Spain. — The report states that the application of the relevant legal provisions has not given rise to any offences worthy of note.

Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship.

This Convention came into force on 16 March 1923. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
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<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>4. 2. 1925</td>
<td>26.12. 1928</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>16. 3. 1923</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>31. 3. 1926</td>
<td>3. 1. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
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<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>12. 3. 1926</td>
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<td>Greece</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Italy</td>
<td>8. 9. 1924</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>20. 6. 1924</td>
<td>8. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
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The Belgian Government report for 1928 states that the provisions of this Convention have now been embodied in the national legislation by the passing of the Act of 5 June 1928 concerning seamen’s articles of agreement which came into force on 4 August 1928.

The report of the Italian Government states : "As was pointed out in the preceding report, Italian legislation contains various provisions relating to the principles laid down in the Convention in question, i.e.: (a) the benefit in case of shipwreck provided for in § 39 of the Legislative Decree of 26 October 1919; (b) the ordinary daily benefit which is paid to the unemployed in general, in accordance with the Royal Decree of 30 December 1923 (No. 3158); (c) the right of the seaman to repatriation and the payment of wages and board from the time of the wreck of the ship to the day of arrival in the port of embarkation, laid down in the last paragraph of Article 1 of the articles of agreement now in force. Moreover, the Royal Decree No. 2544 of 27 December 1925 made the Convention itself of legal force throughout the Kingdom, with the result that the essential provisions of the Convention form an integral part of Italian law.

The Government of Poland stated in its report for 1927 that it had prepared a Bill providing for the payment by the shipowners, independently of the unemployment funds, of unemployment indemnities in case of loss or foundering of the ship, which would be submitted to the Diet at its next session. The report for 1928 states that the Bill, which is in exact conformity with the provisions of the Convention, will be submitted to the Diet in the near future. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Industry and Commerce has instructed the Mercantile Marine Offices to apply the provisions of the Convention, should the case arise.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.
Act of 5 June 1928 concerning seamen’s articles of agreement (L. S. 1928, Belg. 5 A).

Bulgaria.
Act of 12 April 1925 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1925, Bulg. 2).

Canada.
Canada Shipping Act, Chapter 186; Revised Statutes, 1927.

Estonia.
Seamen’s Act of 22 March 1928 (L. S. 1928, Est. 1 B).
Great Britain.
Merchant Shipping Acts, 1894 to 1923.

Greece.
Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention.
Act No. 4044 repealing paragraph (1) and (2) of § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925.
Royal Decree of 24 July 1920 codifying the laws relating to the payment of wages of workers, employees and domestic servants.

Italy.
Legislative Decree of 26 October 1919 respecting the institution of an invalidity fund for the mercantile marine.
Royal Decree of 30 December 1923 respecting compulsory insurance against unemployment (L. S. 1923, R. 10).
Legislative Decree of 27 December 1925 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Poland.
Act of 18 July 1924 respecting unemployment insurance (L. S. 1924, Pol. 3) and Orders issued under the Act.
Decree of the President of the Republic of 24 November 1927 respecting the insurance of intellectual workers.

Spain.

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term “seamen” includes all persons employed on any vessel engaged in maritime navigation.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term “vessel” includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned; it excludes ships of war.

Belgium. — § 1 of the Act of 5 June 1928 defines the term “seaman” as “any person employed for service in a vessel and inscribed in the list of the crew”. The Act does not expressly define the term “vessel” but it appears to apply to every vessel flying the Belgian flag engaged in maritime navigation for pecuniary gain.

Bulgaria. — The terms “seamen” and “vessel” are used without special definition in the Act respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance of 12 April 1925.

Canada. — “Seaman” is defined, for purposes of unemployment indemnity, by § 182 (4) of the Canada Shipping Act, as amended, as “every person employed or engaged in any capacity on board any ship”. The provisions of the amending Act relating to unemployment indemnity refer to any ship registered in any of the provinces.

Estonia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 does not contain a definition of the term “vessel”. According to § 73 of the Act the following are excluded from the field of its application: (1) vessels belonging to the State employed for defence or administrative purposes; (2) vessels whose gross tonnage is less than 60.

Great Britain. — According to § 1 (3) of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, the expression “seaman” includes every person employed or engaged in any capacity on board any ship, but, in the case of a ship which is a fishing boat, does not include any person who is entitled to be remunerated only by a share in the profits or the gross earnings of the working of the boat. § 5 of the Act defines the expression “ship” to mean any sea-going ship or boat of any description which is registered in the United Kingdom as a British ship, and includes any British fishing boat entered in the fishing boat register, but does not include any tug, dredger, sludge vessel, barge, or other craft whose ordinary course of navigation does not extend beyond the limits of the jurisdiction of the harbour authority of the port at which such vessel is regularly employed, if and so long as such vessel is engaged in her ordinary occupation.

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1929 relating to the ratification of the Convention provided in § 2 that the obligation to pay the indemnity prescribed in the Convention should be binding on all owners of steam vessels, but, as regards sailing vessels, only upon such owners as receive insurance compensation of any kind in respect of the loss or foundering of the vessel. The restriction in the case of sailing vessels has been removed by the new Act No. 4044.

Italy. — The report states that the terms “seamen” and “vessel” have in Italian law the same meaning as in this Article, in virtue of the fact that the Convention has been given legal effect in Italy and of the general application of the legal provisions concerned.

Poland. — The Unemployment Insurance Act of 18 July 1924, under which the Convention is at present applied, covers all workers in undertakings in which more than five workers are employed. The Decree of 24 November 1927 provides for the insurance of captains, deck officers and engineer officers.
Spain. — § 28 of the Labour Code, in which the provisions of the Regulations respecting the engagement of crews for merchant vessels approved by the Royal Decree of 26 March 1925 have been included, defines the "members of the crew" as "seamen, stokers, artisans, doctor's assistants (practicantes), sick room attend­ants, stewards and persons who perform manual duties of any kind on the vessel."
The term "vessel" includes all vessels, whatever may be their employment, except ships of war.

ARTICLE 2.

In every case of loss or foundering of any vessel, the owner or person with whom the seaman has contracted for service on board the vessel shall pay to each seaman employed thereon an indemnity against unemployment resulting from such loss or foundering.

"This indemnity shall be paid for the days during which the seaman remains in fact unemployed at the same rate as the wages payable under the contract, but the total indemnity payable under this Convention to any one seaman may be limited to two months' wages.

In addition, please state whether the indemnity payable under this Article has been limited to two months' wages.

Belgium. — § 53 of the Act of 5 June 1928 prescribes that "in case of loss or foundering of any vessel, the seaman shall be paid his wages up till the day of such loss or foundering and shall have the right, as from that day and for the period during which he in fact remains unemployed, to an indemnity calculated, irrespective of the method of remuneration stipulated in the contract, at the average rate of wages of the seamen belonging to a corresponding category remunerated per mensem. This indemnity cannot in any case exceed two months' wages".

Bulgaria. — The Act respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance of 12 April 1925 provides in § 30 (b) that among the persons liable to insurance against involuntary unemployment shall be "seamen (against both ordinary unemployment and unemployment due to loss of the vessel). In the latter case the insurance benefit, amounting to twice the monthly wage of the seaman as from the date of the loss of the vessel, shall be paid directly to him by the shipowner."

Canada. — § 182 (2) of the Canada Shipping Act, as amended, provides that where, through the wreck or loss of the ship, a seaman's service is terminated before the date contemplated in the agreement, he shall be entitled to his wages for each day of unemployment during a period of two months.

Estonia. — § 41 (2) of the Act of 22 March 1928 provides that on the con­clusion of the salvage operations or on the issue of the certificate of wreck, the ship­owner must continue to pay in cash to the seaman who had served on the wrecked vessel, as unemployment indemnity, the wages payable under the articles of agree­ment, for every day during the period in which the seaman is in fact unemployed, subject to a maximum of two months.

Great Britain. — § 1 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, provides that "where by reason of the wreck or loss of a ship on which a seaman is employed his service terminates before the date contemplated in the agreement, he shall . . . . . be entitled, in respect of each day in which he is in fact unemployed during a period of two months from the date of the termination of the service, to receive wages at the rate at which he was entitled at that date".

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention provides in § 2 (3) that the indemnity shall not exceed two months' wages, and in § 2 (4) that, in the case of seamen not paid by the month, the pay for the purpose of calculating the indemnity shall be the amount certified as usual at the time of the engagement by the port or consular authority of the place where the seaman was engaged. The indemnity must be paid by the owner of the vessel.

Italy. — The following are the provisions of the legislation cited in the report: § 39 of the Legislative Decree of 26 October 1919 provides that the members of the crews of merchant ships, including ships of foreign nationality, may be insured against the loss of their kit from shipwreck or other disaster overtaking the ship while under navigation. Persons so insured must, on embarkation, pay the insurance premium due; in addition, the subordinate staff of the crew of Italian nationality is entitled to relief, the total amount of which is fixed by regulation. In no case can the total amount of the insurance, together with the relief, be superior to the actual value of the kit. § 48 provides that the provisions of the Decree are to apply to persons of foreign nationality serving on an Italian vessel only when provision is also made in the legisla­tion of the foreign State to which these persons belong granting equivalent benefits to Italians employed on their ships, or when agreements for reciprocity have been made by duly signed conventions. The model articles of agreement in § 1 state that in case of shipwreck the seaman is entitled to repatriation and to wages and up-keep to the day of his arrival in the port in which he signed on. Further, the provi­sions of the Royal Decree of 30 December 1923 apply also to seamen. This Decree makes insurance against involuntary un­employment compulsory for all persons of both sexes, irrespective of their nationality.
between fifteen and sixty-five years of age, who are employed on account of another. The report states that, in so far as these provisions are insufficient to guarantee the payment of the indemnity provided for in this Article of the Convention, such payment is ensured by the fact that the Convention itself has been given legal force. No special measures have been taken to limit the total indemnity payable to any seaman to two months' wages.

Poland. — At present, if seamen were to be thrown out of employment in consequence of shipwreck, they would receive the ordinary unemployment benefits provided by the Unemployment Insurance Act of 18 July 1924.

Spain. — § 51 of the Labour Code provides that "if the vessel is lost by shipwreck, all members of the crew shall be entitled by way of compensation to draw their wages or salary for a period not exceeding two months if they are out of employment for this reason."

**ARTICLE 3.**

Seamen shall have the same remedies for recovering such indemnities as they have for recovering arrears of wages earned during the service.

In addition, please state what are the remedies available to seamen in your country for the purposes of Article 3.

Belgium. — The report states that the same procedure in arbitration and legal proceedings will be open to seamen in recovering this indemnity as in recovering wages.

Bulgaria. — The report states that if the master, despite the administrative penalty inflicted on him, refuses to pay the indemnity due to the seaman, the seaman may appeal to the Arbitration Board, which requires the payment of the amount due; proceedings before it are free of charge and its decisions without appeal.

Canada. — Under § 186 of the Canada Shipping Act, as amended, a seaman may sue for wages due to him in a summary manner.

Estonia. — As, under § 41 of the Act of 22 March 1928, the indemnity takes the form of the continued payment of wages, the seaman has the same remedies for recovering the indemnity as for recovering wages. Under § 43 a seaman who is not satisfied with the settlement of accounts made by the captain at the time of his discharge may demand its verification by the recruitment office. The decision of the latter will have executory force until the matter in dispute has been decided by an Estonian tribunal.

Great Britain. — In § 1 (1) of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, the unemployment indemnity is described as "wages". By § 7, the Act is to be construed as one with the Merchant Shipping Acts, 1894 to 1923, and it follows that a seaman has the same remedy for recovering the indemnity as he has for recovering wages earned for service on board ship. Under § 164 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, a seaman who has wages due to him (not exceeding £50) may "sue for the same before a Court of Summary Jurisdiction in or near the place at which his service terminated or at which he has been discharged, or at which any person on whom the claim is made is or resides, and the Order made by the Court in the matter shall be final." It is understood from reports received that as a general rule the indemnity is paid without recourse to a Court of Law.

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925, relating to the ratification of the Convention, contains the text of the Convention itself. The procedure available to seamen for recovering indemnities payable under the Convention is laid down in §§ 2, 3 and 4 of the Royal Decree of 24 July 1920.

Italy. — The report states that the indemnity payable under the Convention is deemed to be part of the wages of the seaman, and that as such it is covered by the provisions regarding wages (§ 545 of the Commercial Code). Proceedings for the recovery of the indemnity can be brought before the special jurisdiction of the port authorities, with the facilities provided for in §§ 14, 15 and 16 of the Mercantile Marine Code. By the Act of 31 December 1928 the jurisdiction of the port authorities has been raised up to 5000 lire.

Poland. — See introductory statement.

Spain. — § 51 of the Labour Code provides that the unemployment indemnity in case of shipwreck shall have the same preference as wages and salaries under § 43 of the Code, and that the shipowner shall not be entitled to claim reimbursement of sums advanced. § 43 stipulates that the wages and salaries due to the members of the ship's company shall be a preferential charge on the vessel together with its engines, apparel and freight. When the crew is engaged on a profit-sharing basis, the wages and salaries shall be a charge on the freight only.

III.

**Article 4 of the Convention is as follows:**

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to
apply it to its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or

(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The Government states that the provisions of this Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the mandated territories, since local conditions do not allow it at present. However, the Act of 5 June 1928 extends the provisions of the Convention to cover natives of the Belgian Congo and the mandated territories who are employed upon Belgian vessels (Chapter IX, Part III, §§ 106 and 107).

Great Britain.—§ 6 of the Merchant Shipping (International Labour Conventions) Act, 1925, provides that the Act, subject to any necessary adaptations or modifications, may be applied to ships registered in any British possession, other than the Dominions, but including protectorates and British mandated territories. In pursuance of this section, the Act has been applied by Order in Council to the following maritime colonies: Bermuda, Cyprus, Fiji, Jamaica, Trinidad; and to the following, with slight modifications: Mauritius, Seychelles, Straits Settlements. The Government of Malta has decided to adopt the Convention and proposes to introduce at an early date legislation to give effect to it in so far as it may be rendered applicable to local conditions. Reasons for non-application in the case of particular Dependencies were as follows:

Tanganyika. — Native vessels are the only vessels registered in the territory. In the circumstances, no useful purpose would be served by applying the 1925 Act.

Nigeria. — The application of the Act to Nigeria would be ill advised. An unemployment indemnity would be a complete innovation and, for many reasons, an unfortunate one.

Gold Coast. — Under § 80 of the Imperial Merchant Shipping Act of 1894, the Governor has power to appoint a port of registry for ships in the Colony, but no such port has ever been appointed. All the inter-Colonial trade of the Colony is carried by ocean-going steamers registered in Great Britain or elsewhere, and there is no necessity for the appointment of a port of registry on the Gold Coast. In these circumstances, it was thought unnecessary to apply the provisions of the 1925 Act to the Colony.

Somaliland. — The only vessels registered in the Protectorate are native sailing dhows of small tonnage engaged mainly in local coasting trade. The general rule is for all members of the crew to have a share in the profits of the voyage rather than for them to be on a pay roll.

Gibraltar. — Having regard to the small number of vessels registered at the port and the fact that the application of the law relating to an unemployment indemnity for seamen in certain cases would be undesirable in Gibraltar, where no Workmen’s Compensation Act exists, it was not thought advisable that the provisions of the 1925 Act should be made applicable to ships registered in Gibraltar.

Windward Islands. — As there are no ships other than small sailing craft registered in these Islands, the application of the provisions of the Imperial Act was not necessary.

Italy. — The Government states that the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies, as local conditions in each colony render application impossible.

Spain. — The Government reported in 1925 that the Regulations respecting the engagement of crews for merchant vessels, approved by the Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, now incorporated in the Labour Code, applied generally and without modifications throughout all the territories under Spanish sovereignty.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 8 November 1925.
Bulgaria. — 1 January 1926.
Canada. — 31 March 1926.
Estonia. — 1 May 1928.
Great Britain. — 16 December 1925.
Italy. — 8 September 1924.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Spain. — 14 April 1925.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The enforcement of the provisions of this Convention is supervised by the maritime Commissioners of the ports in Belgium and Belgian colonies, and by the Belgian consuls abroad.
Bulgaria. — The application of the Act of 12 April 1925 is supervised by the labour inspectors.

Canada. — The Marine Branch of the Department of Marine and Fisheries is entrusted with the administration of the legislation giving effect to this Convention.

Estonia. — The supervision of the application of the relevant legislation is entrusted to the authorities of the Seamen’s Institute.

Great Britain. — The rights of seamen under the Convention are enforced by means of summary judicial procedure as described under Article 3. In addition, in the case of a dispute as to the amount of the indemnity, if the matter is referred to the Superintendent of a Mercantile Marine Office by both parties in writing, it becomes his duty to settle it under § 137 (2) of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, and his decision has the force of law. In the case of a fishing vessel, either party to the dispute may refer it to the Superintendent for decision under § 387 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, and the Superintendent is then bound to decide it and his decision has the force of law.

Greece. — The enforcement of the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention is vested in the labour inspectors, the civil courts and the criminal court which, under § 2 (3) of the Royal Decree of 24 July 1920 codifying the laws relating to the payment of the wages of workers, employees and domestic servants, may punish infringements of the provisions of the Legislative Decree.

Italy. — The supervision of the application of the legislative provisions in question falls to the Ministry for Communications which carries out this supervision through the bodies subordinate to it.

Poland. — The application of the Unemployment Insurance Act is supervised by the local unemployment fund committees attached to the public employment exchanges, the central general committee under the control of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, the Directorate of the Unemployment Insurance Fund and the Minister himself. The Seamen’s Code is administered by the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.

Spain. — The maritime authorities, i.e., the local directors of shipping and the port authority, are entrusted with the enforcement of the provisions of the Labour Code respecting the engagement of crews for merchant vessels.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Spain. — The report states that the application of the relevant legal provisions has not given rise to any offences worthy of note.

Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen.

This Convention first came into force on 23 November 1921. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
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<th>Reports received</th>
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<tr>
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<td>11. 3. 1929</td>
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<td>Belgium</td>
<td>4. 2. 1925</td>
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<td>Estonia</td>
<td>3. 3. 1923</td>
<td>26. 12. 1928</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>7. 10. 1922</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>6. 6. 1925</td>
<td>29. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
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<td>11. 3. 1929</td>
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<td>Japan</td>
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<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>27. 9. 1921</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
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</table>

The Belgian Government report for 1928 states that the provisions of this Convention have now been embodied in the national legislation by the passing of the Act of 5 June 1928 concerning seamen’s articles of agreement which came into force on 4 August 1928.

The report of the Government of Latvia states that an Order respecting seamen’s employment exchanges was issued on 3 October 1927. As the creation of the seamen’s employment exchange system is so recent, the Government is not in a position to give information on several of the points mentioned in the form of report.
In reply to an enquiry from the International Labour Office, the Government of Norway informed the Office by letter of 3 April 1928 that the Minister of Social Affairs was then engaged upon the preparation of a Bill providing for the abolition of private employment exchanges. The question of the time limit to be granted to these different categories of these exchanges had not, however, been settled. As soon as the Bill had in due course been approved by the Government and submitted to the Storting, a copy would be sent to the Office.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Australia.

Belgium.
Act of 5 June 1928 concerning seamen’s articles of agreement (S. L. 1928, Belg. 5 A).
Royal Order of 20 January 1926 respecting the institution of a Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen (L. S. 1926, Bel. 11).
Royal Order of 20 March 1914 respecting maritime police.

Bulgaria.
Act of 12 April 1925 respecting employment and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1925, Bulg. 2).

Estonia.
Seamen’s Institute Act of 31 January 1928 (L. S. 1928, Est. 1 A).
Seamen’s Act of 22 March 1928 (L. S. 1928, Est. 1 B).

Finland.
Act of 27 March 1926 respecting the finding of employment (L. S. 1926, Fin. 1).
Resolution of the Council of Ministers of 22 April 1926 respecting the inspection of employment offices and the payment of grants to employment exchanges and agents (L. S. 1926, Fin. 1).
Seamen’s Act of 5 March 1924 (L. S. 1924, Fin. 1).
Act of 26 April 1924 respecting seamen’s hours of work (L. S. 1924, Fin. 3).
Order of 28 December 1924 respecting the signing on and off of the crews of vessels (L. S. 1924, Fin. 4).

Germany.
Act of 16 July 1927 respecting the finding of employment and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1927, Ger. 5).
Order of 8 November 1924 respecting seamen’s employment exchanges (L. S. 1924, Ger. 8) as amended by Order of 20 September 1927.

Greece.
Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 for the ratification of the Convention.
Decree of 30 October 1926, issued under the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925.
Decree of 1 June 1927, replacing the Decree of 30 October 1926.
Decree of 22 June 1927, issued under § 29 of the Decree of 1 June 1927.
Legislative Decree of 17 October 1923 respecting seamen’s work and unions (L. S. 1923, Gr. 5 A).
Penal and Disciplinary Code (L. S. 1923, Gr. 5 B).
Royal Decree of 28 February 1924 codifying the Acts, Legislative Decrees and Royal Decrees relating to the administration of the mercantile marine.

Italy.
Royal Legislative Decree of 24 May 1925 to prohibit the charging of fees for the placing of seamen (L. S. 1925, It. 2).
Royal Decree of 27 December 1925 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.
Regulations of 27 March 1926 relating to model articles of agreement and rules of service for steamships.
Commercial Code (§ 522).

Japan.
Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1899.
Regulation for the Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1899.
Imperial Order No. 486, concerning the granting of a subsidy in accordance with § 3 of the Seamen’s Employment Exchange Act, issued in November 1922.
Regulations for the enforcement of the Seamen’s Employment Exchange Act (Imperial Order of the Department of Communications, No. 65), issued on 18 November 1922.
Instructions for administrating the Seamen’s Employment Exchange Act (Notification No. 128), dated November 1922.
Government Organisation of the Seamen’s Employment Exchange Commissions (Imperial Ordinance No. 574), issued on 27 August 1923.

Latvia.
Order of 3 October 1927 respecting seamen’s employment exchanges (L. S. 1927, Lat. 2).

Norway.
Act of 29 June 1888 respecting the registration and supervision of the engagement of seamen, with the supplementary Acts of 28 May 1892 and 16 June 1927.
Seamen’s Act of 16 February 1923 (L. S. 1923, Nor. 1).
Act of 12 June 1896 respecting employment offices and exchanges.

Poland.
See the Convention concerning unemployment.

Sweden.
Royal Decree of 30 June 1916 respecting grants from State funds towards the encouragement and organisation of public employment bureaux in the Kingdom (B. B. Vol. XI, 1916, p. 278) as amended by the Royal Decree of 16 May 1918.
Royal Decree of 30 June 1916 respecting subsidies from State funds in order to cover a certain part of the travelling expenses of

Seamen’s Act of 15 June 1922 (L. S. 1922 Swe. 1).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

**ARTICLE 1.**

For the purpose of this Convention, the term “seamen” includes all persons, except officers, employed as members of the crew on vessels engaged in maritime navigation.

**Australia.** — Division 4 of Part II of the Commonwealth Navigation Act 1912-1926 relates to the finding of employment for seamen. By § 28 the Division applies to all ships, British and foreign. By § 28 A, for the purposes of the Division, the terms “seaman” and ‘apprentice’ include any person who is seeking employment as a seaman or apprentice (as the case may be) or who is engaged or supplied, or who is offered for engagement or supply, as a seaman or apprentice on board ship.”

**Belgium.** — According to § 1 (2) of the Act of 5 June 1928, by the term “seaman” is meant “any person engaged for service in a vessel and inscribed in the list of the crew”. § 4 of the Royal Order of 20 January 1928 respecting the institution of a Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen lays down that by “seamen” are meant only persons belonging to subordinate ratings, excluding deck and engine room officers.

**Bulgaria.** — The Act of 12 April 1925 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance uses the expression “seamen” without special definition.

**Estonia.** — The Act of 31 January 1928 relates to seamen in general, that is, to all persons employed as members of the crew as well as the officers.

**Finland.** — The Act of 27 March 1926 uses the term “seaman” without giving it a special definition. The Resolution of 22 April 1926 states, in § 10, that the term “seaman”, for the purposes of the payment of the grant to employment exchanges, has the meaning given to it in § 1 of the Act of 26 April 1924 respecting seamen’s hours of work, viz., the Act means by “seaman” any person employed on board a Finnish vessel for wages or as an apprentice. The provisions of the Act do not apply in certain circumstances to the officers or to the staff of the catering department.

**Germany.** — § 1 of the Order of 8 November 1924 respecting seamen’s employment exchanges, issued in application of §§ 47 and 59 of the Act of 22 July 1922 (§ 53 of the Act of 16 July 1927) and amended by the Order of 20 September 1927, provides that “for the purposes of this Order ‘seamen’ shall mean all persons employed on board a vessel engaged in maritime navigation, with the exception of the ship’s officers.”

**Greece.** — The Decree of 30 October 1926, issued in application of the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925, defined the term “seaman” in § 9 to mean “every person engaged in the performance of services on a vessel during a voyage as his principal occupation, excluding masters, first engineers and aliens.”

**Italy.** — The Royal Legislative Decree No. 1031 of 24 May 1925 uses the term “seamen” without specific definition, but § 1 provides that the employment offices are open to seamen who are not embarked as officers or who are not employed on board in a confidential capacity. The report states that the term “seamen”, as used in Italian law, undoubtedly includes all persons employed as members of the crew within the meaning of this Article.

**Japan.** — The Seamen’s Employment Exchange Act (§ 1) applies to “the work of employment exchanges for seamen embarking on vessels making coasting or longer voyages”, and may be extended by Imperial Ordinance to the work of employment exchanges for other seamen. The term “seamen” does not exclude officers.

**Latvia.** — The note to § 1 of the Order of 3 October 1927 defines “seamen” as including all persons, except the master, employed as members of the crew on vessels engaged in maritime navigation.

**Norway.** — The Act of 1896 (§ 1) respecting employment offices and exchanges uses the term “seamen” without defining it exactly. The term is held to cover all persons employed on board ship, irrespective of rank, with the exception of the captain. The Act of 1906 relating to employment bureaux does not use the term “seamen”. It lays down that “free employment bureaux for work-people in all branches of industry” shall be opened.

**Poland.** — The German Seamen’s Code of 2 June 1902, which is in force in Poland, uses the term “seamen” to indicate all persons, other than the ship’s officers, engaged on behalf of the shipowner for service on the ship during its voyage.
**Sweden.** — The Decree of 30 June 1916, amended by the Decree of 16 May 1918, concerning subsidies from State funds for the organisation and development of public employment offices, is of general application.

**Article 2.**

The business of finding employment for seamen shall not be carried on by any person, company, or other agency, as a commercial enterprise for pecuniary gain ; nor shall any fees be charged directly or indirectly by any person, company or other agency, for finding employment for seamen on any ship.

The law of each country shall provide punishment for any violation of the provisions of this Article.

**Australia.** — § 32 of the Commonwealth Navigation Act provides that "no person shall demand or receive, directly or indirectly, from any person seeking employment as a seaman or apprentice, or from any person on his behalf, any remuneration whatever for providing or promising to provide him with employment," on pain of a fine of twenty-five pounds. § 29 prohibits, on pain of a fine of fifty pounds or three months' imprisonment, any person other than a superintendent, a seamen's inspector, or the owner, master, mate, or engineer of a ship from engaging or supplying, or being employed to engage or supply, a seaman or apprentice to be entered on board the ship. § 33 states that "nothing in this Division shall refer to any premium on apprenticeship charged by any shipowner."

**Belgium.** — The Government reports that the placing of seamen on Belgian ships as a commercial enterprise does not exist in Belgium. § 12 of the Act of 5 June 1928 lays down that no fee whatever may be charged by way of remuneration directly or indirectly for any operation connected with the recruitment of seamen. § 43 of the second Act of 5 June 1928 revising the Disciplinary and Penal Code for the mercantile marine and for sea fishery provides for the punishment of those who find employment for seamen for purposes of gain. This punishment consists of imprisonment for 8 days to 6 months and a fine of 50 to 500 francs or of either of these alone.

**Bulgaria.** — The Act of 12 April 1925 provided in § 2 that the establishment of private employment agencies and offices was to be prohibited and that existing agencies and offices were to be closed within six months from the coming into force of the Act, i.e. before 30 June 1926. In cases of contravention a fine not exceeding 5000 levas may be imposed, or not exceeding 10,000 levas for the second offence.

**Estonia.** — The Government reports that the placing of seamen for gain does not exist.

**Finland.** — The Act of 27 March 1926, which regulates the organisation and activities of employment exchanges in Finland, provides in § 1 that communes and local bodies may be authorised to deal with the finding of employment, but that such permission may not be granted to private individuals, companies, or persons in partnership. The finding of employment must be free of charge. When, however, an organisation acts as an employment exchange exclusively for the benefit of its members, in accordance with a permission granted for that purpose, it may charge certain fees, as approved by the competent authority. § 4 further provides that, notwithstanding the provisions of § 1, the director of a seamen's employment exchange may claim payment for finding employment for a seaman in accordance with special regulations. The penalties for which the Act (§§ 16 and 17) and the Order (§ 7) provide consist of fines which may amount to the equivalent of 50 days' imprisonment and the withdrawal of the permission to act as an employment agent.

**Germany.** — The Act of 16 July 1927 provides in § 55 that "the carrying on of employment agencies for gain shall be prohibited from 1 January 1931 onwards." The expression "carrying on of employment agency work for gain" includes the issue for gain of lists of vacancies and reprints of and extracts from periodical publications which must be deemed equivalent to such lists, but it does not include periodical publications such as newspapers, magazines, trade gazettes, etc.; the expression also includes "the supplying of employees whose labour the person supplying them places at the disposal of another person by way of trade for purposes of temporary employment, without himself undertaking the equipment of the persons so placed with the requisite tools or the social insurance charges of the employer on their account." §§ 253 and following of the Act provide that any person who unlawfully carries on trade operations as an employment agent or works for a person acting as an employment agent for gain is liable to a fine or to imprisonment.

**Greece.** — Infringements of the provisions of Article 2 of the Convention are punishable, in virtue of § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention, in accordance with § 7 of the Legislative Decree of 17 October 1923 respecting seamen's work and unions. § 7 prohibits the carrying on or establishment of private employment agencies, and also the carrying on of employment exchange work by private persons for fees. Contraventions are punishable by imprisonment not exceeding
one year. Masters or other officers who engage a seaman who has been recruited by any person company or agency for pecuniary gain are guilty of a serious offence against discipline within the meaning of § 84 of the Penal and Disciplinary Code and are liable to the maximum penalty therein provided for.

Italy. — The Royal Legislative Decree of 24 May 1925 provides in § 1 that the placing of seamen may not be carried on for pecuniary gain. § 4 provides further that “any person who, for purposes of gain, or to procure for himself or for another any direct or indirect recompense whatsoever, carries on the business of finding employment for seamen, or who in any way whatever habitually concerns himself, even indirectly, for the same purposes, with procuring or facilitating the finding of employment for seamen, shall be punished by imprisonment not exceeding one year or by a fine not exceeding 1000 lire.” § 5 prescribes that the same penalties, reduced by one-third, shall be imposed on persons who are convicted of having occasionally contributed to the illegal finding of employment for seamen as defined in § 4. In virtue of § 6 the penalties must be doubled when the offence is committed in a locality in which a seamen’s employment exchange exists, or when, without regard to the locality in which the act destined to lead to the placing is committed, the placing is to take effect in a port in which an employment exchange is working. § 7 provides that when any person who commits or who is accessory to the commission of the offence referred to in §§ 4, 5 and 6 has so acted, taking advantage of his position as a public official or of his rank in the mercantile marine office of the office he holds under § 76 and following of the administrative regulations in application of the Mercantile Marine Code, he shall be punished, in addition to the imprisonment and the fine, by being suspended from his office or rank for a period not exceeding two years in the case of an offence under § 4; in the case of an offence under § 5 the judge may threaten such suspension.

Japan. — § 4 of the Act of 11 April 1922 prohibits persons engaged in the work of employment exchanges for seamen from receiving "fees or any material benefit or reward, under any pretext whatever." § 8 provides that “any person who contravenes the provisions either of this Act or of any Order issued thereunder, in a way which falls within the scope of either of the following clauses, shall be liable to hard labour not exceeding six months or to a fine not exceeding 500 yen: .... (b) Any person who has carried on an employment exchange for seamen and has received or caused others to receive either fees or other material benefit as a reward for the same.”

Latvia. — The Order of 3 October 1927 provides in § 5 that private persons, organisations or institutions are forbidden to carry on the finding of employment for purposes of gain.

Norway. — No legislative provision has been made for the prohibition of fee-charging employment agencies. The Government has, however, informed the Office that a Bill providing for the abolition of fee-charging agencies is at present being prepared by the Ministry for Social Affairs.

Poland. — § 5 of the Act of 21 October 1921 respecting employment agencies carried on by way of trade prohibits the granting of licences, without which such an occupation cannot be followed, to any person not already in possession of a permit on the date of commencement of the Act. The Government adds that, as there are no fee-charging seamen’s exchanges in Poland, the situation is in accordance with the terms of the Convention.

Sweden. — The business of finding employment for profit has been suppressed as regards maritime navigation.

ARTICLE 3.

Notwithstanding the provisions of Article 2, any person, company or agency, which has been carrying on the work of finding employment for seamen as a commercial enterprise for pecuniary gain, may be permitted to continue temporarily under Government licence, provided that such work is carried on under Government inspection and supervision, so as to safeguard the rights of all concerned.

Each Member which ratifies this Convention agrees to take all practicable measures to abolish the practice of finding employment for seamen as a commercial enterprise for pecuniary gain as soon as possible.

In addition, where persons, companies, or agencies have been authorized to continue temporarily the work of finding employment for seamen as a commercial enterprise for pecuniary gain, please state, if such statistics are available, the number of licences issued, and give as full information as possible regarding the operation of such agencies, and regarding the extent and methods of Government inspection and supervision.

Please also state what steps, if any, have been taken by the Government to abolish the practice of finding employment for seamen as a commercial enterprise for pecuniary gain.

Australia. — The Government reports that the provisions of the Navigation Act prohibiting the engagement of any persons in the work of finding employment for seamen as a commercial enterprise have been strictly enforced. No permits were issued for temporary continuance of such work.
Belgium. — The Government reports that the work of finding employment for seamen is not carried on as a commercial enterprise in Belgium.

Bulgaria. — The Act of 12 April 1925 prohibited the finding of employment as a commercial enterprise.

Estonia. — The Government reports that there are no agencies for finding employment for seamen which are carried on for purposes of gain.

Finland. — The Government states in its report that private employment agencies operating for profit are entirely prohibited by the Act. (See also above under Art. 2).

Germany. — § 55 of the Act of 16 July 1927 provides that the carrying on of employment agencies for again shall be prohibited from 1 January 1931 onwards. On this date the permits issued for the carrying on of employment agency work for gain shall expire. Suitable compensation, the amount of which shall be fixed by a special Act, shall be granted to employment agents who are carrying on their trade under an official permit at this date and have been carrying it on since 2 June 1910. No new permit may be issued and no existing permit may be extended or transferred. The Federal Minister of Labour may authorise exceptions to these provisions until 31 December 1930, or prohibit fee-charging agencies in particular occupations before 31 December 1930. The report states that in 1928 the number of professional seamen's employment agents was ten. The supervision of professional seamen's employment agents is entrusted to the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Board, in accordance with § 55 (3) of the Act respecting the finding of employment and unemployment insurance and to the supreme authorities in the States under the Act of 2 June 1910 relating to employment agents. The Board carries out its supervision through the State Employment Offices and employment exchanges, and the supreme State authorities through the police.

Greece. — The prohibition of fee-charging agencies is absolute under the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925.

Italy. — No such permission has been granted, as contemplated in this Article.

Japan. — Under a supplementary provision of the Act of 11 April 1922, persons who were carrying on employment agencies on a fee-charging basis or for pecuniary gain were allowed to continue such work temporarily under conditions prescribed by Order No. 65 of the Department of Communications dated 18 November 1922. The permits issued under this Order by the Department and Regional Bureaux of Communications are valid for less than one year, though they may be prolonged. The amount of the fees which may be charged must be approved by the Director of the Bureau of Communications, and persons seeking work may only be charged half the fee. Persons engaged in the work of employment exchanges carried on on a fee-charging basis numbered 26 at the end of December 1928. The policy of the Government is to extend gradually free employment exchanges with a view to abolishing fee-charging agencies within as short a time as possible.

Latvia. — The report states that there are no fee-charging agencies in Latvia.

Norway. — The Act of 12 June 1896 permits the operation of private fee-charging agencies but only under municipal authorisation which (according to the Act of 12 June 1906) may not be given without the consent of the Minister for Social Affairs. The Royal Decree of 20 June 1896 (§ 7) also provides for the control of these agencies by the police authorities, who have power to inspect the premises and all such registers, testimonials and other documents as must be kept by them. The report further states that at the present time in Norway private employment agencies are understood to be operating as follows: Frederikstad, 1 agency; Toensberg, 3 agencies; Sandefjord, 3 agencies; Lillesand, 1 agency; Bergen, 1 agency. Of these agencies, only those at Frederikstad, Toensberg and Sandefjord are of any importance. Apart from these agencies, there are a few other existing licences, but no use has been made of them for a long period and, in all probability, no use will be made of them in future. Since the ratification of the Convention, no further licences have been granted. On the contrary, one licence has been withdrawn (Kristiansund) and others have lapsed owing to the death of the holders (Halden, Sarpborg, Brevik and Narvik). The report adds that under § 12 of the Act of 1906 private employment agencies are required in the same way as the public employment exchanges to communicate a report upon their activities to the central statistical office. (See also under Article 2).

Poland. — The Act of 21 October 1921 provides for the licensing and control of agencies carried on by way of trade. Permits may be refused or cancelled by reason of the conduct of the agent or of the existence of other, especially State, free employment exchanges in the locality in question; on the other hand, no new permits may be granted. Since at the date of coming into force of the Act there were no fee-charging agencies for seamen, it follows that advantage is not taken of the provisions of Article 3.

Sweden. — The business of finding employment for seamen as a commercial enterprise is not permitted.
Each Member which ratifies this Convention agrees that there shall be organised and maintained an efficient and adequate system of public employment offices for finding employment for seamen without charge. Such system may be organised and maintained, either:

(1) by representative associations of shipowners and seamen jointly under the control of a central authority, or,

(2) in the absence of such joint action, by the State itself.

The work of all such employment offices shall be administered by persons having practical maritime experience.

Where such employment offices of different types exist, steps shall be taken to co-ordinate them on a national basis.

In addition, please describe the system of free employment offices and state what measures have been taken, if this question arises, to secure the co-ordination of the work of the various employment offices on a national basis, contemplated by the last paragraph of Article 4.

**Australia.** — Facilities in the way of registration of persons desiring to be entered as seamen or apprentices on board ship are provided by the State at each of the principal ports. No charge is made to the seamen for these services. § 30 of the Navigation Act provides that a seamen’s inspector may be appointed for any port. This inspector is instructed to keep a register of persons desiring to be entered as seamen or apprentices on board ships at the port and to supply seamen and apprentices to be entered on board ship at the port. In 1925 administrative action was taken for the purpose of providing special facilities for seamen to attend at the Government Mercantile Marine Offices for selection by masters of ships requiring crews, and buildings, known as seamen’s shelters, were erected in the immediate vicinity of the Mercantile Marine Offices at each principal port. The officials entrusted with the supervision of the employment of seamen are the Chief Overseer of Seamen, attached to the central administration, and an Inspector of Seamen attached to the Mercantile Marine Office at the three principal ports. These officers are all persons having practical maritime experience. The question of the co-ordination of employment offices of different types does not arise.

**Belgium.** — The Government reports that the free employment exchange opened at Antwerp by the Belgian Shipowners’ Union has worked since 1912 in an entirely satisfactory manner. Besides this, there exist employment exchanges at Antwerp for foreign seamen under the supervision of their respective consuls. All these exchanges (foreign as well as Belgian) are under the control of the Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen set up by the Royal Order of 20 January 1926 (see under Article 5 below), the activities of which extend to all the ports in the country. In other ports the recruiting of seamen takes place directly in the offices of the maritime commissioners.

**Bulgaria.** — The Act of 12 April 1925 provides for the establishment of a general system of free public employment exchanges. Employment exchanges belonging to industrial associations of employers or workers may continue to exist, provided that they are carried on free of charge and under supervision (§ 2). In § 10 it is provided that “in towns in which seamen are recruited, one of the manager’s assistants shall be a seaman who has completed at least the curriculum of a secondary school.” There are no other types of employment agencies.

**Estonia.** — Under § 2 (7) of the Act of 31 January 1928, the Seamen’s Institute, an autonomous institution for seamen under the supervision of the Government, is entrusted with the duty of maintaining a free employment exchange for seamen. The operations of this exchange are conducted by the doyen of the Institute (§ 24 (12), who is chosen from among persons possessing practical maritime experience (§ 25).

**Finland.** — § 2 of the Act of 27 March 1926 prescribes that in towns, the census figures of which exceed 5,000 inhabitants, a communal employment exchange shall be set up and that, in cases where circumstances make it necessary, towns with a smaller population and hamlets and rural communes may be obliged to establish an employment exchange or appoint a commissioner of employment. These exchanges find employment for seamen as well as for other workers. § 4 provides that any town of importance from the point of view of navigation shall be obliged, if the Minister of Social Affairs so decides, after consultation with the municipal authorities, to set up a special section for the finding of employment for seamen in the town’s official employment exchange. These sections will be managed by persons with practical maritime experience. At present such offices are in existence at Helsinki and Turku. In other towns where there are seamen’s institutions, the officials of these institutions will be required to undertake similar work. Every vacancy filled gives the right to a grant from the State. Co-ordination between the various exchanges is already secured through the same authorities, the whole of the work of finding employment being under the supervision of the Labour Bureau of the Ministry of Social Affairs and in particular under that of the Inspector of Public Employment Exchanges.

**Germany.** — The Act of 22 July 1922 having laid down in § 47 that “the institution of seamen’s employment exchanges shall be regulated in accordance with the Convention concluded at Genoa on 15 June 1920,” the Order respecting seamen’s employment exchanges was issued on 8 November 1924. In accordance with § 53 of the Act of 16 July 1927, which replaced the Act of 22 July 1922 the Order has been
continued. § 1 of this Order provides that "seamen's employment exchanges shall be established and maintained by the industrial associations of shipowners and seamen for the placing of seamen's labour otherwise than for gain. The Seamen's Executive Council (Seemännische Verwaltungsrat) shall decide in what places such employment exchanges shall be established. If the placing of labour does not devolve upon the seamen's employment exchange, in pursuance of the regulations issued by the Council, or if in default of agreement between the industrial organisations such exchanges are not established, or if seamen's exchanges cease to undertake employment exchange work, the placing of labour shall be effected by the public employment exchanges. This provision shall also apply if the Seamen's Executive Council is not formed or is dissolved." According to § 3 the chairman of the joint executive committee, which must be formed for every seamen's employment exchange, must be a person with experience in labour questions affecting seamen.

Greece. — The report states that § 20 of the Decree of 1 June 1927 and the Decree of 22 June 1927 have instituted an uniform type of employment offices. Under the Decree of 1 June 1927 there has been set up a Seamen's Institute the object of which is to assist unemployed seamen.

Italy. — § 1 of the Legislative Decree of 24 May 1925 provides that in the ports of Savona, Genoa, Spezia, Leghorn, Portoferroio, Civitavecchia, Naples, Torre Annunziata, Taranto, Brindisi, Molfetta, Bari, Ancona, Venice, Trieste, Pola, Fiume, Cagliari, Messina, Catania, Trapani and Palermo, the finding of employment without charge for seamen, who are not to be embarked as officers or who are not to be employed on board in a confidential capacity, shall be confined to official employment offices administered by the port authority. Where, however, associations of shipowners and seamen make joint application to that effect, the Minister of Communications may, at his discretion, decide that the finding of employment without charge can be carried on by offices created and maintained by the associations themselves. The Minister of Communications may also prescribe, in virtue of § 2, the creation or suppression of employment offices. He is further empowered to issue general or special regulations, in accordance with the needs of each locality, for the organisation of the work of finding employment and for the working of the offices. § 3 provides that the employment offices shall receive a fee from the shipowners in respect of each seaman placed in employment by their agency, the amount of the fee to be fixed by the Minister of Communications. The sums so received are to be used in aid of the maintenance of the offices.

Japan. — The Seamen's Employment Exchange Act empowers the Government to carry on employment exchanges for seamen when it deems this to be necessary and to entrust employment exchange work to corporate bodies or other organisations engaged in public welfare work, and to grant subsidies. On 25 December 1926 the Association of Co-operation for Maritime Affairs was established by concerted action of three bodies—namely, the Japanese Shipowners' Association, the Japanese Seamen's Union and the Seamen's Association. This Association, having received the sanction of the Minister of Communications, has been carrying on the work of free employment exchanges for seamen since 1 April 1927 in the following cities: Tokyo, Yokohama, Osaka, Kobe, Moji, Shimonsokai, Tobata, Nagasaki, Otaru and Hakodate. Branches of the employment exchange agencies are situated in Wakamatsu, Osaka-Kawaguchi and Kobe-Hyogo. In addition, there are four employment exchange agencies maintained respectively by the Japan Seamen's Welfare Society (Yokkaichi), the Japanese Seamen's Union (Nagoya and Miike) and the Nagasaki Sailors' Union (Nagasaki). The necessary measures to secure the co-ordination of the work of the various employment agencies are to be taken by the Department of Communications and by the local Bureaux of Communications, in accordance with the laws and regulations relating to seamen's employment exchanges. In point of fact, however, such co-ordination is for the present being secured satisfactorily by mutual aid of these agencies among themselves.

Latvia. — § 1 of the Order of 3 October 1927 provides that seamen's employment exchanges are to be set up in Riga and, as may become necessary, in other Latvian towns. The operations of these exchanges are to be carried on free of charge (§ 2). The director of the exchange is to be the maritime labour inspector or, in ports where there is no inspector, the factory inspector or an official of the port authority (§ 4 and note).

Norway. — Public employment exchanges were established under the Act of 12 June 1906. In the more important communes these exchanges have a special section devoted exclusively to employment for seamen and supervised by persons possessing maritime experience. Thus, special services for finding employment for seamen have been set up in Oslo, Drammen, Bergen, Trondheim and Narvik. The 35 other exchanges on the coast have no such services for seamen, the finding of employment for whom is carried out in conjunction with the finding of employment for other classes of workers. In some exchanges the manager or one of his assistants has had practical experience of maritime questions. The municipal council concerned appoints the officials of the exchanges and decides whether
special services should be set up, especially for finding employment for seamen. The central authority has no influence in this respect. The question of the co-ordination of employment exchanges of different types does not arise.

Poland. — There are no special employment exchanges for seamen, who can use the general public employment exchanges. The Government states, however, that in most cases the seamen do not use the exchanges but arrange with the shipowners direct. The co-ordination under the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of all employment offices is secured by the provisions of the Act of 21 October 1921.

Sweden. — The finding of employment for seamen is organised as a special branch of the public exchanges established under the Decree of 30 June 1916. In the four principal ports, however, (Stockholm, Göteborg, Malmö, Helsingborg) special seamen’s employment offices have been established. Each of these offices is managed by a retired master, generally assisted by a retired marine engineer. In nineteen ports, employment facilities are provided by special commissioners, who are former captains of vessels or other persons who have served in merchant ships. Lastly, in five other ports the ordinary public exchanges devote their attention directly to seamen.

The following figures have been supplied by the Government in illustration of the work performed for the finding of employment for seamen during the period January—December 1928: applications for work 57,577; vacancies notified 22,971; vacancies filled 22,555. The question of the co-ordination of employment offices of different types does not arise.

**ARTICLE 5.**

Committees consisting of an equal number of representatives of shipowners and seamen shall be constituted to advise on matters concerning the carrying on of these offices; the Government in each country may make provision for further defining the powers of these committees, particularly with reference to the committees’ selection of their chairmen from outside their own membership, to the degree of State supervision, and to the assistance which such committees shall have from persons interested in the welfare of seamen.

In addition, please indicate the measures taken regarding the methods of consulting the Committees, and state whether provision has been made for further defining the powers of such Committees particularly with reference to:

(i) the selection of their chairmen from outside their own membership;
(ii) the degree of State supervision;
(iii) assistance from persons interested in the welfare of seamen.

Australia. — The Government states: “No provision has been made by the Commonwealth Government for the appointment of committees of the character mentioned, in view of the fact that the supervision of the employment of seamen is wholly under Government control.”

Belgium. — By the Royal Order of 20 January 1926 a Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen was established, with offices at Antwerp but with jurisdiction extending to all the ports of the Kingdom. This Committee is entrusted with the permanent supervision of the operations of employment offices for seamen, as well as with the duty of giving advice on all questions relating to the working of such offices. It is composed of three shipowners or former shipowners, or their authorised representatives, and three seamen or former seamen, from lists containing at least five names submitted by the shipowners and seamen respectively; in the case of the shipowners, the lists must be signed by ten shipowners or companies, in the case of the seamen by four hundred working seamen. The members of the Committee hold office for four years. Membership is honorary. A substitute member is appointed for each member. The chairman of the Committee is a State official appointed by the Minister of Railways, Marine, Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones and Aviation, who also appoints a substitute chairman from among the officials of the Ministry.

Bulgaria. — It is provided that advisory committees are to be set up in connection with the services dealing with the finding of employment for seamen. The report for 1928 adds that “so far these committees have not been appointed, because there is only one navigation undertaking in Bulgaria, the Bulgarian Commercial Navigation Company, which employs a small number of persons (379). It was therefore considered useless and premature to appoint a permanent committee. Moreover, the management of the Company and the seamen are in permanent touch with the employment exchanges at Varna and Bourgas.”

Estonia. — The managing committee of the Seamen’s Institute, which is entrusted inter alia with the supervision of the activities of the seamen’s employment exchange (§ 9 (7) of the Act), is composed of representatives of shipowners (two members), masters (one member), mates (one member), engineers (one member), and seamen (two members).

Finland. — § 6 (2) of the Employment Exchanges Act of 27 March 1926 provides that when a special section for finding employment for seamen has been set up in the communal employment exchange, joint advisory committees shall be appointed of equal numbers of shipowners’ and seamen’s representatives under the chairmanship of the chairman of the general board of directors of the public exchange. These committees are appointed by the general board of directors of the employment exchange.
Germany. — § 5 of the Order of 8 November 1924 provided that a Seamen's Executive Council (Seemännische Verwaltungsrat) with headquarters in Hamburg should be set up by the industrial organisations of shipowners and seamen for all seamen's employment exchanges not carried on for gain. This Council is composed of an independent chairman and representatives of shipowners and seamen in equal numbers as assessors. The representatives of shipowners and seamen are appointed by the organisations concerned; the chairman, who must be a person with experience in labour questions affecting seamen, is elected by the assessors, or, in default of the election, is appointed by the Head Office of the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Board. By § 3 of the Order, an executive committee composed of an independent chairman and equal numbers of representatives of shipowners and seamen, appointed by the organisations concerned, as assessors, must be formed for every seamen's employment exchange. The chairman is elected by the assessors, or, in default of the election, is appointed by the Seamen's Executive Council. It is the duty of the Seamen's Executive Council to issue rules, subject to the approval of the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Board, for the constitution, management and operation of the seamen's employment exchanges, the activities of which are supervised by the executive committees. The managers of the exchanges are appointed by the executive committees on the proposal of the shipowners' organisations; failing agreement between the executive committees and the shipowners' organisations, these appointments have to be made by the Seamen's Executive Council. The subordination of the Committees to State control is ensured by the supervision carried out by the Head Office of the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Board. The report adds that no steps have been taken with regard to assistance from persons interested in the welfare of seamen.

Greece. — The report states that this Article is applied by §§ 3 and 4 of the Decree of 1 June 1927.

Italy. — The Legislative Decree of 24 May 1925 provides in § 1 that each seamen's employment exchange shall be under the direction of a Committee composed of an equal number of representatives of shipowners and seamen under the chairmanship of the port commandant.

Japan. — The Imperial Ordinance No. 374 of 27 August 1923 respecting the organisation of the Seamen's Employment Exchange Commission prescribed in § 6 of the Seamen's Employment Exchanges Act provides for a Commission which is composed of members appointed by the Cabinet from among shipowners and persons capable of representing the interests of seamen. This Commission is under the presidency of the Vice-Minister of Communications and its duty is to tender advice and make proposals to the Minister, at his request, concerning the management of the work of seamen's employment exchanges.

Latvia. — §§ 7 to 13 provide for the institution of a committee in connection with each seamen's employment exchange, the members of which are to consist of equal numbers of representatives of the seamen's and shipowners' organisations. The number of members is to be fixed by the Ministry for Social Welfare. The director of the exchange is the chairman of the committee; he has not the right to vote. All questions relating to the finding of employment for seamen are within the competence of the committee. The report states that the committee has not yet been appointed on account of opposition from the shipowners.

Norway. — Under § 2 of the Act of 12 June 1906, the exchanges are under the supervision of Committees appointed by the local authorities and composed of a neutral chairman and vice-chairman, and equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives. There are no special supervisory committees for seamen's affairs attached to the employment exchanges, but the ordinary committees of the general employment exchanges include in some cases a representative of seamen and a representative of the shipowners. No steps have been taken for the special assistance of persons concerned with seamen's welfare.

Poland. — In virtue of the Decree of 27 January 1919 relating to the organisation of employment exchanges and of the Order of 18 December 1923 relating to the organisation and powers of the joint advisory committees (in Posnania and Pomerania, the Order of 20 September 1924), advisory committees composed of equal numbers of representatives of employers and workers have been set up in connection with the State offices.

Sweden. — Representatives of shipowners and seamen have been appointed in twenty ports to take part in the examination of the more important questions concerning the work of finding employment for seamen.

Article 6.

In connection with the employment of seamen freedom of choice of ship shall be assured to seamen and freedom of choice of crew shall be assured to shipowners.

Australia. — The Government reports that all awards of the Commonwealth Arbitration Court governing wages and conditions of employment in ships trading in Australian waters contemplate freedom of choice of ships to seamen and freedom of choice of crews to shipowners.
Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 regulating seamen’s articles of agreement takes account of the provisions of the Convention. Moreover, § 3 of the Royal Decree of 20 January 1926 provides that the Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen is to investigate complaints regarding the working of employment offices, inter alia, in respect to interference with the right of the seaman to choose his ship and of the shipowner to choose his crew.

Bulgaria. — No special provisions relating to this question are contained in the Act of 12 April 1925, but employment exchange work is defined in § 1 as “the putting of employees and employers into touch with one another in connection with a demand for labour or an application for work.”

Estonia. — The report states that although the Act of 31 January 1928 does not contain any special provision relating to this question, the right of the seaman to choose his ship is in practice safeguarded.

Finland. — The report states that there is no compulsion in this respect.

Germany. — No special provisions covering this Article are contained in the legislation referred to in the report.

Greece. — The report does not refer to this matter but it was provided in § 8 (3) of the Decree of 30 October 1926 that seamen should have free choice of ship, and shipowners or masters free choice of crew, subject to certain conditions.

Italy. — The Legislative Decree of 24 May 1925 contains no special provision relating to this Article of the Convention, but it may be noted that the Regulations for seamen’s employment exchanges, approved in 1920 by the Royal Maritime Commission, lay down in § 7 that a shipowner is entitled to refuse to sign on any registered seaman for motives which appear reasonable and which must be declared valid by the committee, or, in cases of urgency, by the manager. In the latter case, appeal may be made to the chairman of the committee. The seaman possesses the same right to refuse service on any ship.

Japan. — The Government states that the operation of the Employment Exchanges Act presupposes the fact of freedom of choice on the part of seamen as well as of shipowners.

Latvia. — Freedom of choice of ship and crew is provided for in § 3 of the Order of 3 October 1927.

Norway. — The report states that under Norwegian legislation in general and under the regulations for employment exchanges the seaman is free to choose his ship and the shipowner to choose his crew.

Poland. — An Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 26 January 1925 relating to the regulations for employment exchanges provides that employers have the right of choice amongst candidates for vacancies, and that workers are not obliged to accept the employment offered provided that they notify the exchange of their reasons for refusal.

Sweden. — The Government considers that the provisions of Article 6 are carried out by the exchange system, since according to it the principal object to be attained in finding employment is to ensure that the employer shall obtain the best type of labour possible and that the worker shall be provided with work for which he is best suited. Moreover, the seaman retains the right, as regards the employment exchange, to accept or refuse the employment offered to him. The report states, however, that this right of the seaman and shipowner is to a certain extent restricted by the so-called “number” system which the workers’ organisations use in some of the large ports. The object of the system is to fill the vacancies in the order of the applications made by unemployed seamen to the competent trade union organisation.

**ARTICLE 7.**

The necessary guarantees for protecting all parties concerned shall be included in the contract of engagement or articles of agreement, and proper facilities shall be assured to seamen for examining such contract or articles before and after signing.

In addition please describe the facilities assured for examining such contract or article before and after signing.

Australia. — The Commonwealth Navigation Act provides for the making of an agreement with the crew which must contain all necessary particulars, and which must be read over and explained to each seaman, or other measures must be taken to ascertain that he understands it, before it is signed by the seaman in the presence of a responsible official.

Belgium. — The report states that at the time of engagement, as well as when the list of the crew is signed, seamen have every opportunity of discussing, accepting or refusing the conditions of engagement. The contracts are in writing; the conditions are posted up in several languages in the premises of the recruiting office of the Shipowners’ Union at Antwerp. Moreover, according to the Royal Decree of 20 March 1914 respecting maritime police, the Maritime Commissioner must supervise the signing on of the crew. The agreement must be read out in French or Flemish and the conditions of the agreement must be posted in both languages on the ship in a place readily accessible to all. The matter is also
dealt with in the Act of 5 June 1928 concerning the regulations of seamen's articles of agreement.

Bulgaria. — All navigation is organised by the Bulgarian Commercial Company, the Regulations of which provide that every seaman must have a work book containing, amongst other things, the conditions of service, and extracts from the relevant laws, regulations and international conventions.

Estonia. — These guarantees are secured by §§ 65 and following of the Act of 31 January 1928 and § 11 of the Act of 22 March 1928 in virtue of which each seaman must receive from the captain a copy of his articles of agreement. In the case of a collective agreement, the captain must see to it that a copy of the agreement is available on board ship and placed at the disposal of the crew.

Finland. — Chapter 2 of the Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 contains all the provisions concerning articles of agreement. In addition, the Order of 23 December 1924 respecting the signing on and off of the crews of vessels provides that the signing on and off of crews must be carried out by the superintendent of the seamen's office in places where there is a seamen's office or by a special registration officer in other places.

Germany. — The Seamen's Code contains no provision requiring that the service agreement should be drawn up in writing, but it requires that the seaman, at the moment of engaging, should receive a certificate signed by the master or by the representative of the shipowner, giving the name of the ship, a description of the seaman's rating, a description of the voyage or the duration of the agreement, the amount of the wages, and the time and place of signing on. The Seamen's Code also lays down that the service engagement must be officially communicated to the seaman. This communication is made in a seamen's office (Seemannsamt) in the presence of the seaman and the master or the shipowner's authorised representative. Seamen are given every opportunity of examining the contract at the time of engagement or of taking up their duties.

Greece. — The report states that this Article is applied by § 5 of the Decree of 1 June 1927.

Italy. — § 522 of the Commercial Code provides that articles of agreement must be drawn up in writing in the presence of the port commandant. Model articles of agreement and rules of service for steamships were adopted and published in the Circular of 27 March 1920. The articles of agreement contain, inter alia, provisions relating to the validity, the duration and the cessation of the contract of service, wages, the number and composition of the crew, conditions and hours of work, insurance against war risks, insurance of kit, sickness and accident insurance, food, etc. Before the seamen sign on, these articles of agreement must be read to them.

Japan. — The Seamen's Act (§ 27) provides that when the maritime authorities proceed to make a public recognition of the seamen's register, the matters contained therein shall be read to each of the parties concerned before being signed or sealed. §§ 25 to 29 of the Regulations for the Seamen's Act contain detailed provisions for the enforcement of the Act.

Latvia. — The report does not refer to this Article. (See introductory note.)

Norway. — The Seamen's Act of 16 February 1923 provides in § 11 that a wages contract must be drawn up by the captain for each seaman. It must contain all necessary particulars, including the duration of the agreement, wages, overtime pay, etc. The seaman is entitled to examine the articles of agreement before and after they are signed. The Act provides that this examination must be made with the assistance of the maritime registration service, and abroad, with that of the Norwegian consuls.

Poland. — The German Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902 remains in force in Poland. § 14 of that Code provides that the ship's articles must contain, inter alia, the stipulations of the agreement, especially the rate of pay for overtime and any other special provisions.

Sweden. — § 11 of the Seamen's Act of 15 June 1922 provides that when a seaman has been engaged he must be furnished by the captain with a wages book containing various particulars, including the duration of the agreement, wages, overtime pay and all other conditions of engagement. The provisions in force concerning the engagement of seamen provide, moreover, among other matters, that the conditions of engagement mentioned in the list of the crew must be read to the seaman and that the seaman must then sign the list of the crew.

ARTICLE 8.

Each Member which ratifies this Convention will take steps to see that the facilities for employment of seamen provided for in this Convention shall, if necessary by means of public offices, be available for the seamen of all countries which ratify this Convention and where the industrial conditions are generally the same.

In addition, please describe the steps taken to provide facilities for finding employment for seamen of other countries, and state the countries, the seamen of which benefit by these facilities.

Australia. — The facilities for the obtaining of employment by seamen are available to seamen of all nationalities and in respect
of employment in all ships, British or foreign, in Commonwealth ports.

Belgium. — Seamen of all countries benefit by all the privileges granted to national seamen.

Bulgaria. — The service for the finding of employment for foreign seamen has not been organised. It will be set up as soon as required.

Estonia. — The Act of 31 January 1928 does not exclude the finding of employment for seamen by the employment exchange service of the Seamen's Institute.

Finland. — The report states that the employment exchanges are open to all seamen, irrespective of their nationality.

Germany. — The seamen's employment exchanges are open to seamen of all nations.

Greece. — The report states that the Decree of 22 June 1927 does not preclude the placing of foreign seamen by the seamen's employment exchange.

Italy. — The report states that, given the fact that the provisions relating to the finding of employment for seamen have the character of regulations of public order, the facilities and penalties therein provided for apply not only to Italian seamen but also to those of other countries generally.

Japan. — No discrimination is made between Japanese and foreign seamen.

Latvia. — § 6 of the Order of 3 October 1927 provides that the exchanges are to be open to the seamen of all countries which have ratified this Convention.

Norway. — Foreign seamen have the same opportunity of using the exchanges as Norwegian subjects.

Poland. — The employment exchanges are open to Polish and foreign workers without distinction in accordance with the Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 26 January 1925 relating to the regulations for State employment exchanges.

Sweden. — Free employment facilities are open to foreign seamen without exception.

**ARTICLE 9.**

Each country shall decide for itself whether provisions similar to those in this Convention shall be put in force for deck-officers and engineer-officers.

Australia. — The relevant provisions of the Navigation Act apply to deck and engineer officers and to lower deck ratings alike. Facilities for obtaining employment are also available to officers.

Belgium. — The report states that deck-officers and engineer-officers are recruited in the same conditions and under the same guarantees as ordinary seamen. The activities of the Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen do not, however, cover the engagement of officers. On the other hand, the Act of 5 June 1928 concerning the regulation of seamen's articles of agreement extends the prohibition of recruitment for pecuniary gain to such officers.

Bulgaria. — The service for the finding of employment for deck and engineer officers has not yet been organised.

Estonia. — The report states that deck officers and engineer officers may take advantage of the employment exchange in connection with the Seamen's Institute. The provisions of the Act of 22 March 1928 in regard to seamen's articles of agreement apply to officers also.

Finland. — The report states that the employment exchanges are also open, if necessary, to deck and engineer-officers. The maritime employment exchanges at Helsinki and Turku are already engaged in finding employment for such officers.

Germany. — No provisions corresponding to those referred to in this Article have been put into force in respect of deck-officers and engineer-officers. The finding of employment for officers is carried out mainly by the employment offices of their own organisations.

Greece. — The report states that no provisions similar to those in the Convention exist as regards deck-officers and engineer-officers.

Italy. — According to § 1 of the Legislative Decree of 24 May 1925, the finding of employment for officers is not entrusted to the employment exchanges set up under the Decree. The report adds that, under an Act of 16 December 1928, an employment office for officers (Ufficio movimento ufficiali) has been established in connection with those port authorities who have or will have an employment exchange. The signing on of officers must be carried out by means of this office.

Japan. — Deck and engineer officers are covered by the same system for finding employment as lower ratings.
Latvia. — The definition of “seamen” given in § 1 of the Order of 3 October 1927 only excludes masters.

Norway. — The system of public employment exchanges applies to deck and engineer officers.

Poland. — Deck and engineer officers are entitled to use the employment exchanges.

Sweden. — Deck and engineer officers may use the employment exchanges.

**ARTICLE 10.**

Each Member which ratifies this Convention shall communicate to the International Labour Office all available information, statistical or otherwise, concerning unemployment among seamen and concerning the work of its seamen’s employment agencies.

The International Labour Office shall take steps to secure the co-ordination of the various national agencies for finding employment for seamen, in agreement with the Governments or organisations concerned in each country.

Please state the action taken to give effect to this Article, and give the views of your Government on the means of securing the co-ordination by the International Labour Office of the various national agencies for finding employment for seamen, in agreement with the Governments or organisations concerned in each country, in application of the second paragraph.

Australia. — The report states that the number of seamen engaged in Australian ports during the twelve months ended 30 June 1928 was 15,943. Of these, about 60 per cent were engaged at the port of Sydney. The average number of seamen unemployed at the principal ports during the year were approximately as follows: Sydney, 900; Melbourne, 400; Newcastle, 270; Port Adelaide, 160; Brisbane, 190; Hobart, 20; Fremantle, 12. The report adds that this amount of unemployment is above the normal and is attributable to some extent to (a) the introduction into the Australian trade of additional motor ships; (b) the conversion of some of the coal burning steamers into oil burning vessels, and (c) industrial trouble (waterside workers’ strike).

Belgium. — The report does not allude to the question of communicating information to the Office. It states, however, that, as regards Belgium, the conditions of engagement in the other ports would not make it possible to set up offices corresponding to the office opened at Antwerp by the Shipowners’ Union.

Bulgaria. — The report states that, although the employment exchanges have been in existence for three years, no unemployment among seamen has been reported. No statistics have therefore been furnished.

Estonia. — The report states that no unemployment worthy of note among seamen has come to the notice of the authorities, and that, for this reason, there are no statistics to furnish.

Finland. — The information in question is published in the Social Review, which is sent monthly to the International Labour Office. The report states, on the subject of paragraph 2 of this Article of the Convention, that there is no need to alter the organisation of the seamen’s employment exchanges, which in some respects differs from that of other countries, but that the possibility might well be considered of collaboration between the seamen’s employment exchanges in Finland and those in other States.

Germany. — On the instructions of the Ministry of Labour of the Reich, the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Board communicates to the International Labour Office every three months the information required by the first paragraph of this Article. As regards the second paragraph, the Government declares itself ready to help the International Labour Office to promote the exchange among the different countries of information relating to the demand for and supply of labour provided that such information does not relate to specified persons or places of work. The report adds that the Government in making this statement assumes that this demand and supply has a certain importance and extends over a certain period and is not merely temporary.

Greece. — The organisation of the work of placing seamen set up by the Decree of 22 June 1927 makes it possible to communicate statistical and other information. Statistics for 1928 will be sent in due course. As regards the coordination of the various national systems for finding employment for seamen, the report states that the Government would prefer, before replying, to know the opinion and the proposals of the International Labour Office.

Italy. — Statistics for the year 1928 will be communicated to the International Labour Office. As regards the application of the second paragraph of this Article, the report states that the Italian Government is prepared to consider any suggestions that may be made by the International Labour Office.

Japan. — The Government supplies general and statistical information on the work of the seamen’s exchanges in its annual reports.

Latvia. — See introductory note.

Norway. — The Office receives the reports of the Inspector of Public Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Funds (annual and monthly).

Poland. — Information is supplied under the Convention concerning unemployment.
Sweden. — The Government gives monthly statistical information in the review Sodala Meddelanden. The proceedings of the Unemployment Committee, so far as they concern the question of unemployment, are also sent monthly to the Office. On the possibility of co-ordinating internationally the various national employment agencies, the report states that, for Sweden at least, the question seems at present to be of no practical interest. So long as the shortage of employment and legislative restriction of immigration which exist in many countries are not radically altered, no more general exchange of labour between countries can be hoped for.

III.

Article 11 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

(a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable; or
(b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Each Member shall notify to the International Labour Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Australia. — The Government states that the provisions of the Navigation Act relative to the supply and engagement of seamen have not been applied to the Territory of Papua and the Mandated Territory of New Guinea, where local shipping is manned largely with native aboriginal seamen. The application of such provisions to these Territories is impracticable.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the mandated territories, since the local conditions do not allow it at present.

Italy. — The Government states that the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies, as the local conditions in each colony render such application impossible.

Japan. — The Convention is regarded as unsuitable for application to the colonies, since the conditions in the colonies are so markedly different from those of the homeland.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Australia. — 3 August 1925.
Belgium. — 8 April 1925.
Bulgaria. — 1 January 1926.
Estonia. — 3 March 1923.
Finland. — 7 October 1922.
Germany. — 6 June 1925.
Greece. — 30 October 1926.
Italy. — 8 September 1924.
Japan. — 1 December 1922 (generally);
28 August 1923 (Article 5).
Latvia. — 3 October 1927.
Norway. — 23 November 1921.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Sweden. — 23 November 1921.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Australia. — The Navigation Act is administered by the Marine Branch of the Department of Trade and Customs. The officials entrusted with the supervision of the employment of seamen are the Chief Overseer of Seamen and the Inspectors of Seamen. The Chief Overseer of Seamen is attached to the central administration and there is an Inspector of Seamen at each of the three principal ports. During the year no cases have come under notice where unauthorised persons have supplied seamen to ships. Where an offence of this kind is discovered proceedings are taken in the Courts and penalties inflicted.

Belgium. — The Minister of the Marine supervises the application of the Acts and Decrees mentioned above through the agency of the maritime administrative services and, in particular, of the maritime commissioners and, abroad, of the consuls.

Bulgaria. — See the analysis of the report upon the Convention concerning unemployment.
Estonia. — Supervision of the enforcement of the relevant legislation is entrusted to the Seamen's Institute.

Finland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning unemployment.

Germany. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act respecting the finding of employment and unemployment insurance and of the two Orders respecting seamen's employment exchanges is entrusted to the Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Board. This Board carries out its supervision under the control of the Reich Ministry of Labour.

Greece. — Under § 13 (4) of the Royal Decree of 28 February 1924, the supervision of the application of the law relating to maritime labour is carried out by the Seamen's and Port Authorities Section of the Directorate of the Mercantile Marine. The immediate supervision of the application of the provisions relating to the Convention is entrusted to the Advisory Committee of the seamen's employment service set up by §§ 3 and 4 of the Decree of 22 June 1927 and by the Director of Maritime Labour (§ 2 of the same Decree).

Italy. — The supervision of the application of the measures mentioned is entrusted to the maritime authorities under the direction of the General Directorate of the Mercantile Marine at the Ministry of Communications.

Japan. — The principal authorities for the application of the relevant laws and regulations are the Department of Communications, and its local offices, the Bureaux of Communications.

Latvia. — The Ministry for Social Welfare supervises the application of the Order of 3 October 1927.

Norway. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning unemployment.

Poland. — See analysis of the report on the Convention concerning unemployment.

Sweden. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning unemployment.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, with special reference to the working, the management and the results of the employment offices as regards seamen.

Australia. — The Government states that the principles of the Convention are embodied in the statutory maritime laws of the Commonwealth, which are strictly applied and enforced. Seamen employed in Australian ships are therefore secured against exploitation or abuse, particularly as regards wages, hours of work, holidays, food and accommodation.

Japan. — The report states that the number of employment exchange agencies is 43, including 17 free agencies and 26 agencies charging fees. The record of the seamen's employment exchange service for the period from November 1927 to October 1928 is as follows:—Vacancies notified: free agencies, 29,490; fee-charging agencies, 1,430; Applications for work: free agencies, 39,841; fee-charging agencies, 1,377; Applications satisfied: free agencies, 28,194; fee-charging agencies, 1,276. No contraventions were reported.
THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 1921).

Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture.

This Convention first came into force on 31 August 1923. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12. 6. 1924</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>6. 3. 1925</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>31. 8. 1923</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>8. 9. 1922</td>
<td>26. 12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>2. 2. 1927</td>
<td>10. 1. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Irish Free State</td>
<td>26. 5. 1925</td>
<td>16. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>8. 9. 1924</td>
<td>19. 2. 1929</td>
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<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>19. 12. 1923</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>21. 6. 1924</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>27. 11. 1923</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The Government of Austria states that the subject-matter of this Convention is dealt with in the Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the employment of children. The actual terms of the Convention have, moreover, the force of law in Austria through the publication of its text in the Bundesgesetzblatt of 19 July 1924.

Austria.

Act of 15 May 1869 respecting elementary education, text of the Act of 2 May 1883.
Ministerial Order of 8 June 1883 respecting the facilities to be granted as regards school attendance.
Order of 29 September 1909 respecting school attendance.
Act of 10 December 1918 respecting the employment of children (B. B. Vol. XII, 1918, p. 19), amended by the Act of 10 July 1928 (L. S. 1928, Aus. 6).
Order of 10 August 1919 of the Federal Ministry of Public Education.
Administrative Instruction of 21 January 1920 respecting the supervision of child labour (L. S. 1920, Aus. 17).

Bulgaria.

Act of 1924 respecting public education.

Czechoslovakia.

Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the eight-hour working day (L. S. 1919, Cz. 1, 2 and 3).
Act of 17 July 1919 respecting child labour (L. S. 1920, Cz. 2).
Act of 13 July 1922 amending and supplementing the Acts respecting elementary and upper-elementary schools.

Estonia.

Act of 1 November 1921 to regulate the hours of work and wages of agricultural workers (L. S. 1921, Part II, Est. 1).

Hungary.

Act No. XIIV of 30 July 1907 regulating the legal relations between masters and agricultural servants (B. V. Vol. II, 1907, p. 273).
Act No. XXX of 25 July 1921 guaranteeing compulsory education.
Order No. 130,700 of 1922, of the Minister for Public Instruction concerning the application of Act No. XXX of 1921.
Act No. II of 15 April 1927 for the ratification of the Convention.
Circular Order No. 30,200 of 1928, No. VI/1 of the Minister of Agriculture respecting agricultural labour.

Irish Free State.

School Attendance Act, 1926.

Italy.

Consolidated text of the laws relating to elementary, post-elementary, and continued education of 22 January 1925.
Royal Decree of 27 December 1925 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.
Article 1.

Children under the age of fourteen years may not be employed or work in any public or private agricultural undertaking, or in any branch thereof, save outside the hours fixed for school attendance. If they are employed outside the hours of school attendance, the employment shall not be such as to prejudice their attendance at school.

Austria. — The employment of children is regulated by the Child Labour Act of 19 December 1918 amended by the Act of 10 July 1928, § 4 of which lays down as a general limitation that "children i.e., under § 1, children under fourteen years of age and children who have attained the age of fourteen in the course of the school year, until the end of the school year shall only be employed or otherwise occupied in so far as their health is not injured thereby nor their physical and mental development or their morals endangered, and the carrying out of their compulsory school attendance is not prevented." In addition to this general limitation, the Act stipulates in § 7 that no child under the age of twelve years may be employed, with the exception that children who have reached ten years of age may be employed on light work in agriculture and domestic service; and § 5 prohibits the employment of children under fourteen years of age in certain industries and occupations specified in the Schedule to the Act, amongst which may be mentioned as relating to agriculture: "Tending power machines and all machines, shafting and lifts driven by motor-power; ... employment in connection with straw and fodder cutting machines; ... wood feeding and chopping; ... threshing; reaping." The Act further provides in § 9 that children may not be employed in agriculture or domestic work during the two hours immediately preceding school and must be allowed one hour's rest after school. On school holidays, the hours of work of children may not exceed four hours in agricultural work and six hours in domestic work. These restrictions do not apply to "work of a temporary nature which cannot be postponed and which must be undertaken in the public interest or in emergencies (in agriculture especially to save the crops)" (§ 10). § 13 provides for the compulsory notification of the employment of children not belonging to the family. The report also refers to the governing principles (deklaratorische Anordnungen) of the agricultural codes issued by the provinces on the subject of the employment of children. The legislature meant these Codes to constitute obligatory prescriptions and they may not therefore be suspended or restricted by agreement.

Bulgaria. — § 29 of the Act of 1924 concerning public instruction stipulates that "Instruction in primary schools shall be compulsory and free for all Bulgarian subjects (Article 78 of the Constitution.) Instruction shall be compulsory for all children of normal health and without mental disabilities between the ages of seven and fourteen years. Children who receive equivalent instruction in private schools or at home are exempted from the obligation to attend the primary schools." The Government reports that "the application of the provisions of the Convention has not necessitated any amendment of the Act concerning public instruction. It has accordingly not been necessary to pass a special Act covering the children of agricultural workers who in working in agriculture merely assist their parents under whose control they remain all the time."
employed in agricultural work only outside to compulsory school attendance may be which also provides that children subject to § 32 of Act No. XLV of 1907, the em­
interfere with their studies.

Moreover, under the Order No. 30,200 of 1921 regulating the hours of work and wages of agricultural workers provides by § 3 : " Children under twelve years of age shall not be employed in agriculture. Young persons under 16 years of age shall be employed only in auxiliary work, such as minding cattle on small peasants' holdings, weeding beets, raking hay, and other light work. Note. — Children liable to com­

Hunanary. — The legislative provisions regulating agricultural labour are drafted in such a way as not to interfere with compulsory education. § 1 of Act No. XXX of 1921 provides that every child which has completed its sixth year is liable for nine years to compulsory school attendance. Six of these nine years are devoted to primary education and three to comple­

Japan. — § 32 of the Elementary School Ordinance of 1 September 1900 provides for the compulsory education of children between the ages of six and fourteen years, and by § 35 employers of such children between these ages as have not completed their elementary school education are for­
banned to prevent the children from attend­
ing school.

Poland. — Article 108 of the Constitu­
tion of 17 March 1921 prohibits the em­
loyment for wages of children below the age of fifteen years and of children subject to compulsory school attendance, and Article 118 makes primary education comp­
sulsory for all Polish citizens. The Decree of 7 February 1919 concerning compulsory school attendance provides that persons responsible for the school attendance of children are liable to be fined or imprisoned in the case of the absence of children from school. Similar provisions are contained in the legislation in force in those parts of Poland which formerly formed part of Austria and Prussia.

Sweden. — Children may not be em­
ployed in agriculture save outside the hours fixed for school attendance by the Order of 26 September 1921 relating to primary education.

Irish Free State. — § 4 (1) of the School Attendance Act, 1926, provides that: " The parent of every child to whom this Act applies shall, unless there is a reasonable excuse for not so doing, cause the child to attend a national or other suitable school on every day on which such school is open for secular instruction and for such time on every such day as shall be prescribed or

sanctioned by the Minister in respect of such day." § 2 of the Act defines the expression "child to whom this Act applies" as " a child who has attained the age of six years and has not attained the age of fourteen years."

Italy. — § 1 of the Royal Decree of 31 December 1923 on compulsory education (now incorporated in the consolidated text of 22 June 1925, No. 432) provides for the compulsory education of children from six to fourteen years of age. The prohibition of the employment of children under fourteen years of age during the hours fixed for school attendance is contained im­
plicitly in §§ 15 and 16 of the same Decree. These sections render liable to fines any persons responsible for the absence of children from school and employers em­
ploying in their undertakings children who are not fulfilling their scholastic obligations.

Estonia. — The Act of 1 November 1921 regulating the hours of work and wages of agricultural workers provides by § 3 : " Children under twelve years of age shall not be employed in agriculture. Young persons under 16 years of age shall be employed only in auxiliary work, such as minding cattle on small peasants' holdings, weeding beets, raking hay, and other light work. Note. — Children liable to com­

primary education. § 1 of Act No. XXX of 1921 provides that every child which has completed its sixth year is liable for nine years to compulsory school attendance. Six of these nine years are devoted to primary education and three to comple­
mpany the compulsory education employed in his service every facility and every right to attend school punctually and regularly. Moreover, under the Order No. 30,200 of 1928 the Minister of Agriculture specially draws the attention of employers to the provisions of § 2 (1) of Act No. II of 1927, which also provides that children subject to compulsory school attendance may be employed in agricultural work only outside school hours and that such work should not interfere with their studies.

ARTICLE 2.

For purpose of practical vocational instruction the periods and the hours of school attendance may be so arranged as to permit the employment of children on light agricultural work and in particular on light work connected with the har­
vest, provided that such employment shall not reduce the total annual period of school attendance to less than eight months.

Please state whether any arrangements have been made under the provisions of this Article, and, if so, describe the nature and working of such arrangements.
Austria. — § 21 of the Act of 15 May 1869 respecting elementary education provides that school attendance shall be compulsory from the age of six until the end of the fourteenth year. This provision was modified by the Act of 10 July 1928 which provides that school attendance must begin at the sixth year completed and last for eight school years, and that a child attaining the age of 14 years in the course of the school year may leave school only at the end of that school year. The object of this modification is to ensure school attendance for eight complete school years in every case. This provision will, however, come into force in the different provinces only when these provinces have enacted corresponding legislation applicable to these provinces. Such legislation has so far been enacted by the provinces of Vienna and Vorarlberg. In Burgenland also similar regulations have been issued. § 21 of the Act of 15 May 1869, moreover, provides for exemptions in respect of school attendance by the reduction of class hours which may be allowed to children who have attended school for six years, especially when the children in question live in the country. These exemptions are intended to give the children opportunities of instruction in agricultural work. These provisions are rigorously applied. The provisions of § 16 of the Order of 29 September 1905 respecting school attendance and of § 5 of the Ministerial Order of 8 June 1883 allow the employment of children on light agricultural work and in particular on light work in connection with the harvest. § 7 of the Act of 19 December 1918 allows the employment of children over ten years of age on light work in agriculture. Moreover, the provisions of §§ 54 and 55 of the Order of 29 September 1905 relating to the fixing of holidays make it possible to adapt, in rural areas, the principal vacation of two months to suit local conditions and the nature of the occupations of the population. On the other hand, the observance of school hours and compulsory school attendance is strictly supervised. Breaches committed by the parents are punished by fines and, where necessary, by detention in accordance with the penalties provided for by law in the provinces.

Bulgaria. — § 42 of the Act of 1924 concerning public instruction prescribes that in pro-gymnasia (i.e. the upper classes in the elementary schools, attendance at which is compulsory and free for children up to the age of fourteen years and lasts three years) the school year begins on 15 September and finishes in towns on 12 July and in villages on 15 June.

Czechoslovakia. — Such exceptional arrangements of school hours are not permitted. The Act of 13 July 1922 amending and completing the legislation concerning primary and superior primary schools expressly prohibits the granting of any exception to the prescribed periods of school attendance.

Estonia. — § 23 of the Act of 7 May 1920 respecting public elementary schools lays down that the effective period of instruction in rural and urban schools must not be less than 35 weeks in the year. The beginning and end of the school year are to be fixed by the Ministry of Public Education. In accordance with this section, the Ministry has decreed that the instruction in rural elementary schools shall end on 31 May and begin again on 1 October each year.

Hungary. — According to § 3 of Act No. XXX of 1921, the period of instruction is fixed at ten months per school year. This period may be reduced in schools in which the majority of the scholars are children of agricultural parents. Such reduction may be made on the proposal of the education authority, by the Minister for Public Instruction, but may not exceed a maximum of two months per school year.

Irish Free State. — According to § 4 (3) and (4) of the School Attendance Act 1926, the following shall be a reasonable excuse until the year 1936 for failure to comply with the general obligation for school attendance on not more than ten days during the period beginning on 17 March and ending on 15 May and on not more than ten days during the period beginning on 1 August and ending on 15 October next following in any year in respect of a child who has attained the age of twelve years, viz., "that the child has been prevented from attending school by reason of his having been engaged in light agricultural work for his parent on his parent's land."

Italy. — To facilitate school attendance, § 18 of the Royal Decree of 31 December 1923 provides that in the case of schools situated in agricultural districts, the director of education may draw up a timetable corresponding with the special needs of the various zones of his district. The school attendance period may not in any case be less than ten months in the year. No special measures have been adopted with the object of permitting the employment of children on light agricultural work.

Japan. — The report states that although no special arrangements have been made, holidays not exceeding 90 days as prescribed in § 27 of the Elementary Schools Ordinance are permitted in certain agricultural districts in time of harvest. After the ratification of the Convention the responsible officials were instructed to enforce this provision more strictly in the future.
Poland. — §§23 and 24 of the Decree of 7 February 1919 relating to compulsory education, which applies in those parts of the territory of the Polish Republic which were formerly Russian, authorise schools to arrange the periods of attendance so as to permit children to be employed on urgent agricultural work for a period not exceeding 14 days in spring and in autumn, and to arrange the school hours in such manner that the employment of children does not prejudice their studies. Analogous provisions exist in the laws in force in the former Austrian and Prussian Poland.

Sweden. — School attendance consists as a rule of at least eight months in the year. The Order of 26 September 1921 contains no provisions regarding leave to be given to children to allow them to take part in agricultural work or in harvesting. It does, however, occur that leave is given for this purpose by the school boards.

Austria. — The report states that in Austria children who have not completed their fourteenth year are not, as a rule, admitted to the technical schools of agriculture and forestry. The syllabus of theoretical and practical instruction in these institutions is examined and approved by the education authorities and the carrying of it out is under continuous supervision. § 2 (2) of the Act of 19 December 1918 provides, moreover, that the work of children for an instructional or educational object shall not be considered as employment.

Bulgaria. — No reference is made to the exception for technical schools.

Czechoslovakia. — § 2 of the Child Labour Act provides that "the employment of children exclusively for purposes of instruction or education shall not be held to be child labour."

Estonia. — The Act of 1 November 1921 contains no equivalent provisions.

Hungary. — The relevant legislation does not contain equivalent provisions.

Irish Free State. — Work in all technical schools and classes is supervised by the State Department of Education.

Italy. — No provision has been made for this exception in Italian legislation.

Japan. — Work in agricultural schools is supervised by public authorities in virtue of the regulations dealing with the establishment and abolition of technical schools and for agricultural schools issued under the Imperial Ordinance concerning technical schools.

Poland. — Work in technical schools supervised by public authority is regarded as school attendance.

Sweden. — The report states that the exception contemplated by this Article does not apply, unless the technical education in question is held to cover the work of children in the gardens which must as a rule be attached to the schools.

III.

Article 8 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Italy. — The Government states that the Convention has not yet been extended to the colonies, as the local conditions in each colony make application impossible.

Japan. — The report states that the Elementary Schools Ordinance is not applied to the colonies, where the standard of culture is so markedly different from that in Japan that it is not possible to enforce the compulsory educational system. Accordingly the Convention is not yet applied in the colonies.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Austria. — 20 July 1924.

Bulgaria. — 6 March 1925.
Czechoslovakia. — 14 May 1924.
Estonia. — 31 August 1923.
Hungary. — 2 February 1927.
Irish Free State. — 1 October 1926 in certain towns and urban districts; 1 January 1927 in all other areas.
Italy. — 8 September 1924.
Japan. — 19 December 1923.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Sweden. — 27 November 1923.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Austria. — The application of the provisions relating to child labour is secured by the fact that, in accordance with § 17 of the Child Labour Act of 19 December 1918, special inspectors have been appointed to supervise the conditions of the employment of children and, for their assistance, the co-operation of associations for the protection of children and young persons has been obtained. In accordance with the administrative instruction of 23 January 1920 relating to child labour, these inspection bodies are in particular entrusted with the supervision of child labour in agriculture. The inspection is effected with the assistance of the school authorities, who keep a register of employment for the children under their charge. Any striking features noted in the pupils, such as too-frequent absences, fatigue, appearance of ill-health, are entered in the register which the school head-master must forward to the competent inspection authority by, at the latest, 1 December in each year. The special inspection officials are also empowered to visit all workplaces and families where children are employed. Fines and imprisonment not exceeding three months may be imposed by the political authorities for contraventions of the law relating to child labour. For certain offences the right to employ children may be withdrawn. In addition, the agricultural labour codes issued by the provinces also provide for penalties to which persons are liable who contravene the obligatory provisions regarding the conditions of employment of children. These penalties are inflicted by the administrative authorities under the administrative penal procedure.

Bulgaria. — The Act concerning public instruction is supervised by the communal and school authorities and by the inspectorate of schools. § 13 of the Act respecting the health and safety of workers authorises the labour inspectors to supervise agricultural undertakings employing paid labour.

Czechoslovakia. — In accordance with § 13 of the Child Labour Act, the political authorities of first instance are responsible for the supervision of the observance of the provisions of the Act. In addition, special inspection authorities are appointed to supervise child labour, their principal duty being to inspect undertakings in which children are employed. The political authorities of second instance (provincial) may also set up special supervisory committees for communes or districts, to supervise the employment of children and with power to offer advice and to submit proposals. It is further prescribed that the competent authorities shall be assisted by all other bodies, institutions or officials concerned with the care of the young, such as the District Child Welfare Committees that exist in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia.

Estonia. — The factory inspectors and the social welfare divisions of the district authorities supervise the application of the provisions of the Act of 1 November 1921.

Hungary. — The application of the provisions relating to the employment of children is ensured by §§ 8 to 10 of Act No. XXX of 1921 which provide that the parents or employers will be deemed to have committed a breach and will be liable to be fined if the children are not registered at the school or if the children placed under their tutelage absent themselves from school without justification. § 65 of the Order No. 130,700 of 1922 respecting the application of Act No. XXX of 1921 completes the provisions of this Act and, inter alia, holds those guilty of a breach who directly or indirectly obstruct the school attendance of a child liable to compulsory education or its participation in Divine Service on Sundays and Feast Days. The report also states that the Minister of Agriculture by a special Circular Order every year requests the chiefs of departments and the municipalities to supervise in their respective jurisdictions the observance by the employers of the provisions of § 2 (1) of Act No. II of 1927. In cases of infraction, they must immediately proceed against guilty employers and without delay submit their report on the infractions noted by them and on the measures they have taken.

Irish Free State. — The legislation in question being an Act for enforcing compulsory attendance at school of all children between the ages of 6 and 14 is primarily a matter for the education authorities and the enforcing authority is the School Attendance Committee in certain specified County Boroughs and Urban Districts and the Civic Guard in all other areas.
Italy. — Enforcement is entrusted to the Ministry of Public Instruction which acts through the officials dependent on it (inspectors of education).

Japan. — The Government reports that questions relating to public instruction are entrusted primarily to the mayors of cities or to the chief magistrates of towns or villages in their capacity as State authorities; and secondarily to the governors of the prefectures. Supervision is carried out primarily by the local governors and secondarily by the Minister of Education.

Poland. — The authorities entrusted with the enforcement of the Polish laws and regulations are (1) the school inspection authorities; (2) the factory inspectorate; (3) the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare; (4) the Ministry of Public Instruction.

Sweden.— In every school district, which covers as a rule an ecclesiastical parish, there is a school board, or, in some towns, a board of managers, which are immediately responsible for the proper administration of education. These authorities are under the elementary school inspectors, who, each in his district, supervise education. Sweden is divided into 52 districts. The Royal Department of Education is the central authority for all matters connected with the subject. The Ministry of Public Education and Public Worship is the ultimate authority.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, and if such statistics are available, information concerning the number of children employed subject to the conditions provided for in the Convention, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings and in particular under V.

Austria. — The Federal Constitution having come into force completely on 1 October 1928, it has become necessary to issue a special Federal Act concerning the principles for regulating the employment of children in agriculture and silviculture. This Act is an Act laying down principles in the sense of § 12 of the Austrian Federal Constitution. This Act of principles must be applied by the different provinces by means of laws issued by the provinces themselves. The Act must be enforced by the provinces. The Bill drafted by the Federal Government, the provisions of which are practically the same as the old Act concerning the employment of children and particularly take into account all the provisions of the International Convention, has not yet been adopted by Parliament. The Federal Bill (laying down principles) concerning the employment of agricultural and silvicultural workers, which was referred to in last year's report and which is at present submitted to Parliament as a Government bill, has not undergone any amendments. It refers to the Federal legislative provisions relating to the employment of children and states that these provisions have the force of law. Precise statistical information relating to the employment of children on agricultural work cannot be furnished. Reference may, however, be made, as indicated in last year's report, to the statistical information published as Appendix No. 14 in the official journal Volksbildung of 1928 published by the Federal Minister for Public Instruction which contains on page 34 information regarding the total number of children liable to compulsory sickness attendance; the last column indicates the number of exemptions from school attendance granted by the different provinces as well as the number of penalties for cases of absence. These particulars have importance with reference to the present Convention by reason of the fact that the exemptions from school attendance are granted particularly from the standpoint of the employment of children on agricultural work and from the fact that absences are due, if not exclusively, at least in great measure, to the employment of children on work of this kind.

Japan. — The report states that, with reference to children attending schools, the principles of the Convention are fully applied by the provisions of the Ordinance of 1909. Statistics of the number of children of school age employed subject to the conditions provided for in the Convention are not available. However, the number of contraventions is reported to be so insignificant that supervision is almost unnecessary. Efforts are made for encouraging children of school-going age to attend school by distributing for this purpose every year a sum of half a million yen among the prefectures.

Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers.

This Convention first came into force on 11 May 1923. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:
The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc. which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Austria.

Act of 21 December 1867 respecting the general rights of the citizens of the State.
Act of 15 November 1867 respecting the right of association.
Act of 15 November 1867 respecting the right of assembly.
Act of 7 April 1870 respecting freedom of combination.
Various Acts passed by the federated provinces.

Belgium.

Belgian Constitution.
Act of 24 May 1921 to guarantee freedom of association (L. S. 1921, Bel. 2-3).

Bulgaria.

Bulgarian Constitution.

Czechoslovakia.

Constitutional Act of 29 February 1920.

Estonia.

Constitution of 15 June 1920.

Finland.

Act of 20 August 1906 respecting the right of speech, meeting and association.
Constitution of Finland of 17 July 1919.
Act of 20 February 1907 respecting public meetings.
Act of 4 January 1910 respecting the right of association, amended by the Act of 17 February 1923.
Order of 1 June 1923 respecting the coming into force of the Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers.

Germany.

Constitution of 11 August 1919.

Great Britain.

See under Article 1.

India.

Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926 (L. S. 1926, Ind. 1) and previous legislation.

Irish Free State.

Trade Union Acts, 1871-1917.

Italy.

Royal Decree of 20 March 1924 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Latvia.

Constitution of the Republic of Poland of 17 March 1921 (L. S. 1921, Pol. 3).
Various laws and decrees relating to the former Russian, Austrian and Prussian parts of Poland.

Sweden.

See under Article 1.

II.

Please indicate in detail for the following Article of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which the Article is applied.

Article 1.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention undertakes to secure to all those engaged in agriculture the same rights of association and combination as to industrial workers, and to repeal any statutory or other provisions restricting such rights in the case of those engaged in agriculture.

Austria. — The Federal Constitution secures for all persons employed in agri-
culture the same rights of association and combination as are enjoyed in Austria by industrial workers. By § 12 of the Act of 21 December 1867, which forms a fundamental constitutional act of the Austrian Republic, all Austrian citizens possess the right of assembly and association. The exercise of this right is regulated by the Act of 15 November 1867 relating to the right of association and by the Act of 15 November 1867 relating to the right of assembly. With regard to the right of combination, there is also to be noted the Act of 7 April 1870 establishing freedom of combination, which applies equally to all workers. Moreover, the Codes relating to agricultural labour of nearly all the federated provinces include the governing principles with regard to the constitutional provisions referred to above and state expressly that the rights of association and combination are inviolable. In certain cases these codes add that the exercise of civil rights may not form a ground for dismissal. These provisions form a compulsory and unalterable legislative requirement which cannot be annulled or restricted by any agreement whatever.

Belgium. — The Constitution and the Act of 24 May 1921 guarantee to all Belgians the right of association whatever may be their occupation.

Bulgaria. — There is no special law concerning the rights of association and combination either of agricultural or of other workers. All Bulgarian subjects, no matter what their occupation or social standing, are in enjoyment of these rights. Article 83 of the Constitution provides that "Bulgarian subjects are entitled without special permission to join combinations when the objects and methods of the combinations are in no way to the detriment of social progress, religion or morality." This Article remains unrestricted by any legislative measure respecting the rights of combination of occupational organisations the objects of which are the improvement of the material situation of their members. A Defence of the Realm Act exists but it is directed against organisations and persons endeavouring to subvert the Constitution by force (communists, anarchists, terrorists). In view of the categorical character of Article 83 of the Constitution, no special legislation guaranteeing the right of association to agricultural workers is considered necessary. The report adds that up to the present agricultural wage-earners are not organised as they are few in number and very scattered. Bulgaria is essentially an agricultural country of small estates.

Czechoslovakia. — §§ 113 and 114 of the Constitutional Act of 29 February 1920 ensure to persons employed in agriculture the same rights of association and combination as to industrial workers.

Estonia. — The Constitution of 15 June 1920 guarantees by Article 18 the rights of association and combination. Agricultural workers thus enjoy in Estonia the same rights of association and combination as industrial workers.

Finland. — The laws in force grant unreservedly to agricultural workers the same rights of association and assembly as are enjoyed by other workers and citizens.

Germany. — Article 159 of the German Constitution of 11 August 1919 guarantees every individual and occupation the right to combine for the purpose of safeguarding and improving their working and general economic conditions. All agreements or measures tending to restrict or hinder the enjoyment of this right are contrary to the law.

Great Britain. — No legislation was necessary to give effect to the Convention, existing legislation already permitting for all those engaged in agriculture the same rights of association and combination as are enjoyed by industrial workers.

India. — The Government reports that existing legislation permits for all those engaged in agriculture the same rights of association and combination as are enjoyed by industrial workers in the country. No legislation has been adopted in order to give effect to the Convention; the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, is in conformity with the Convention.

Irish Free State. — All those engaged in agriculture in Saorstát Éireann have the same rights of association and combination as industrial workers. These conditions obtained prior to the ratification of the Convention. In the Acts dealing with trade associations there did not exist any discrimination against agricultural workers and, when the Convention was ratified, it was not necessary to repeal any statutory or other provisions in order to give effect to its provisions.

Italy. — In the exercise of the rights of association and combination no distinction is made in Italian legislation between industrial and agricultural workers. No measure has thus been necessary to repeal any provisions restricting these rights in the case of persons employed in agriculture.

Latvia. — The rights of association and combination of persons employed in agriculture, like the rights of association of all other Latvian citizens, are secured by the Act relating to associations, federations and political organisations. There are no special laws for any particular classes of citizens.
Netherlands. — The Act of 22 April 1855, which regulates the rights of association and combination, applies to all persons irrespective of their occupations and contains no provision restricting these rights as regards agricultural workers. The right of association is granted without previous permission, on condition that the association is not contrary to public order. Associations contrary to public order are held to be organisations which have for their object: (a) Disobedience or defiance of the law or of legislative regulations; (b) Immoral purposes; (c) Interference with the exercise of the rights of others.

Poland. — Article 108 of the Constitution of the Polish Republic of 17 March 1921 guarantees rights of association and combination to all citizens.

Sweden. — No legal restrictions exist preventing the enjoyment by agricultural workers of the immemorial right secured to all Swedish citizens to combine for any legitimate purpose whatsoever.

III.

Article 6 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo or to the mandated territories, since local conditions do not allow of the application of the Convention to any of the remaining British Dependencies. Reasons for non-application in certain cases were as follows:

Nyasaland. — The natives of Nyasaland have no conception of the theory and practice of trade-unionism, and the fact that they can obtain employment on a variety of agricultural works whenever they wish and can as readily abandon one occupation and obtain another when they desire, places them in a position in which they have no need to devise measures for the protection of their industry. To introduce them to the novel idea of combining to secure or improve the conditions of their labour is thus wholly unnecessary, and would, if it had any effect at all, be likely gravely to mislead them and perhaps instigate them to embark on action to the Crown disadvantage. In present circumstances, the Convention clearly could not bring them any benefit.

British Honduras. — The Governor, when consulted as to the application of this Convention, considered it undesirable having regard to the present undeveloped condition of the Colony, its mixed population and the nature of the occupations of the inhabitants.

Bermuda. — The Convention was considered unsuitable because the conditions to which it applied, viz. a large resident peasantry population, do not exist in Bermuda, where the tendency is for the population to become less agricultural and more artisan or to engage in pursuits directly connected with the continual expansion of the tourist trade.

Italy. — The Government states that the application of the Convention has not yet been extended to the colonies, in consequence of the local conditions in each of these territories.

Netherlands. — By letter dated 25 January 1929 the Minister for the Colonies informed the Office that local conditions do not allow of the application of the Convention to Curacao, but that this objection does not apply to the exercise, in the territory of Curacao, of the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers. With regard to the Dutch East Indies, a note by the Governor-General states that, in view of § 165 of the Act of 1919 concerning the administration of the Dutch East Indies, special measures are not necessary to ensure the rights of association and combination to agricultural workers.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Austria. — 20 July 1924.
Belgium. — 19 July 1926.
Bulgaria. — 1 April 1925.
Czecho-Slovakia. — 14 May 1924.
Estonia. — 11 May 1923.
Finland. — 19 June 1923.
Germany. — 6 June 1925.
Great Britain. — 6 August 1923.
India. — 11 May 1923.
Irish Free State. — 17 June 1924.
Italy. — 8 September 1924.
Latvia. — 9 September 1924.
Netherlands. — 20 August 1926.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Sweden. — 27 November 1923.
V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

**Austria.** — The supervision of the observance of the laws in question is carried out by the general State administrative authorities. Infringements of the law are punished through the procedure of the penal administration. Since the rights of association and combination are guaranteed in Austria by the Constitution, the observance of them is ensured by the various administrative authorities and, in the last resort, by the High Court of the Constitution, acting as a court of supreme instance.

**Belgium.** — The judicial authorities are entrusted with the supervision of the enforcement of the Constitution and of the Act of 24 May 1921.

**Bulgaria.** — No reference is made to this question in the report.

**Czechoslovakia.** — The supervision of the enforcement of the law relating to rights of association, meeting and combination is entrusted primarily to the administrative authorities of first instance.

**Estonia.** — The report does not mention the supervision of the enforcement of the Convention.

**Finland.** — Legislation concerning the rights of association and combination is part of the civil and penal legislation and the supervision of its enforcement is therefore the duty of the public police authorities and of the courts. An Order of 22 September 1922 dealing chiefly with the application of the Prohibition Act gives prefects the right, for special reasons, to close the premises of a society or club. In accordance with a Resolution of the Council of Ministers, adopted on 25 December 1924, relating to the keeping of registers of societies and lists showing the societies' premises, the Ministry of Social Affairs keeps a special register of societies. Registration is required by the law if a society is to acquire legal personality.

**Germany.** — The German Government states that the courts are competent to give judgment in disputed cases. As a rule, such cases will fall under the heading of "labour questions"; the judicial labour authorities are competent to deal with these cases.

**Great Britain.** — See under **Article 1.**

**India.** — The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, is administered by the local Governments through the registrars appointed under the Act.

**Irish Free State.** — Under § 1 (7) of the Ministers and Secretaries Act, 1924, the administration of the Trade Union Acts, 1871-1917, is a matter for the Department of Industry and Commerce.

**Italy.** — The report does not refer to this question.

**Latvia.** — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act of 18 July 1923 is entrusted to the Ministers of the Interior and of Justice and to the judicial administrative authorities.

**Netherlands.** — The application of the Act of 22 April 1855 is entrusted to the Minister of Justice, the public prosecutor, the mayors and the governors of departments, who are helped in their task by the State and the communal police.

**Poland.** — The supervision of the application of the relevant legal provisions is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare.

**Sweden.** — See under **Article 1.**

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country.

**Bulgaria.** — The report states that the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour has not had any attempt to prevent the exercise of the right of association by agricultural wage-earners reported to it.

**Poland.** — The report states that agricultural wage-earners are organised in Poland as follows: (1) Agricultural Workers' Union of the Republic of Poland, 56,810 members in 67 branches and 7,000 circles; (2) Agricultural and Forestry Workers' Union of the Polish Trade Union Federation, 89,570 members in 49 branches and 1,814 groups; (3) Christian Agricultural Workers' Unions of the Republic of Poland, 15,152 members in 16 branches. These data relate to 1 January 1927.

**Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.**

This Convention first came into force on 26 February 1923. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928.
The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Bulgaria.

Act of 6 March 1924 respecting social insurance (L. S. 1924, Bulg. 1).

Denmark.


Estonia.

Act of 1 November 1921 regulating the hours of work and wages of agricultural workers (L. S. 1921 (Part II), Est. 1).

Germany.

Federal Insurance Code of 10 July 1911, text promulgated on 9 January 1926 (L. S. 1926, Ger. 1).

Great Britain.


Irish Free State.


Netherlands.

Act of 20 May 1922 to insure persons employed in agricultural occupations against the pecuniary consequences of accidents with which they meet in connection with their employment (L. S. 1922, Neth. 2), as amended by the Acts of 21 March 1924 (L. S. 1924, Neth. 2) and 13 May 1927 (L. S. 1927, Neth. 1).

Poland.

In former Austrian Poland: Act of 7 July 1921 amending and maintaining in force the Austrian legislation relating to insurance against accidents.

In former Russian Poland: Act of 30 January 1924 extending to the former Russian territory the legislation in force in the former Austrian territory.

In former Prussian Poland: Book III of the German Insurance Code of 19 July 1911 as amended by a series of decrees and by the Polish Act of 2 July 1921.

Sweden.


II.

Please indicate in detail for the following Article of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which the Article is applied.

Article 1.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention undertakes to extend to all agricultural wage-earners its laws and regulations which provide for the compensation of workers for personal injury by accident arising out of or in the course of their employment.

Bulgaria. — § 1 of the Social Insurance Act of 6 March 1924 provides that “every wage-earning and salaried employee of a State, public or private establishment, undertaking or estate, who is not liable to deductions from his pay under any of the Pension Acts, shall be compulsorily insured with the Social Insurance Fund in respect of accident, sickness, maternity, invalidity and old age.” No distinction is thus made between agricultural and other wage-earners.

Denmark. — The Act of 6 July 1916 respecting insurance against accidents as amended by the Act of 14 July 1927, provides in § 68: “Employers, both individuals and companies, carrying on: (1) agriculture, forestry and horticulture; (2) trade in horses and cattle, studs, dairies, turf-cutting, reed cutting, marl works, threshing works, straw-pressing, pisciculture, wind and water mills; (3) supervision, advisory work, etc, in connection with undertakings of the kind named above, shall be bound to insure in accordance with the provisions of Chapters I-V and of the present Chapter, in respect to the workers employed in the said undertakings. On the proposition of the Workers’ Insurance Council, the Minister of the Interior may, by notification, include under this Chapter undertakings which can be regarded as similar to those named above.”
Estonia. — The Act of 1 November 1921 regulating the hours of work and wages of agricultural workers, which applies (§ 1) to "all wage-earning employees engaged in agriculture either on the land, about the cattle, in house or garden, or in undertakings subsidiary to agriculture, with the exception of the managers of large-scale agricultural undertakings," prescribes in § 9 that Chapter 7 of the Industrial Labour Code shall apply to accidents met with by persons covered by the Act. Chapter 7 of the Industrial Labour Code consists of the Act of 2 June 1903 relating to compensation for accidents in the case of workers and employees in factories, mines and metal works where only four workers or less are employed. The employer is individually liable for payment of compensation although the risk may be covered by insurance.

Germany. — The Government states that the German laws and regulations providing for the compensation of workers for personal injury by accident arising out of or in the course of their employment correspond with the provisions of the Convention. §§ 915 et seq. of the Insurance Code (text of 9 January 1926) cover insurance against agricultural accidents, the provisions of the Code regarding industrial accident insurance applying largely to agricultural accident insurance. The special conditions of agricultural work have necessitated some special provisions, an important instance of which is the taking of an average wage, fixed according to wage groups, as the basic figure for the calculation of pensions. These special provisions, however, neither materially nor legally constitute a limitation of the principle of equality of treatment for agricultural and industrial workers.

Great Britain. — No new legislation or administrative regulations were necessary to give effect to the Convention. The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1900, which extended the benefits of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1897, to agricultural workers, came into force on 1 July 1901, and since that date no distinction has been drawn in Great Britain between agricultural and industrial workers as regards workmen's compensation. The present law is consolidated in the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1925. The expression "worker" is defined in § 3 (1) of this Act and includes the agricultural worker.

Irish Free State. — No legislative changes were involved by the application of the 1 Russian Industrial Labour Code, Vol. XI of the Collection of Laws, Part II of 1903 edition.

Industrial undertakings employing five or more workers are covered by the Act of 23 June 1912 as amended by the Acts of 18 June 1917, 8 February 1920 and 4 April 1922, under which insurance is compulsory.

provisions of the Convention, the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1906, making no distinction between agricultural and industrial workers.

Netherlands. — Under § 2 of the Act of 20 May 1922 workers in industries liable to insurance are insured against the pecuniary consequences of accidents with which they meet in connection with their employment. § 1 of the Act defines the term "worker" as any person working for wages in the service of an employer in his undertaking, in an industry liable to insurance. The following industries are liable to insurance: (1) agriculture; (2) stock-keeping; (3) horticulture; (4) forestry. The compensation to which agricultural workers are entitled is the same as that provided for in the 1921 Act respecting accident insurance in industry (L. S. 1921, Part II, Neth. 1).

Poland. — In Poland the situation with regard to the regulation of workmen's compensation differs in the three portions of the Republic that formerly formed part of the Austrian, German and Russian Empires. In the former Austrian territories the existing Austrian legislation has been amended and maintained in force by the Polish Act of 7 July 1921. Under the Austrian Acts, the workers and employees of industrial and agricultural undertakings covered were subject to insurance against accidents. The Polish Act made compulsory the insurance of all workers employed in agricultural and forestry undertakings, whether motor power is used or not. In the former Russian territories the Polish Act of 30 January 1924 extended to these districts the Acts for the compulsory insurance of workers against industrial accidents in force in former Austrian territories. This Act empowered the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, after hearing the opinion of the Insurance Office, to fix the date or dates for the coming into force of this Act in respect of the various classes of undertakings and administrative districts. By Decrees of 7 June 1924 and 15 June 1925, the Minister fixed 1 July 1924 and 1 July 1925 as the dates of coming into force of the Act for all undertakings subject to compulsory accident insurance except the State Railways. In the former Prussian territories the insurance system in force is that set up in Book III (§§ 915-1045) of the German Insurance Code (Reichsversicherungsordnung) of 19 July 1911, modified by a series of decrees and by the Polish Act of 2 July 1921 in virtue of which the Insurance Office provides protection against industrial accidents in agriculture in the districts of Posen and Pomerania, and the accident insurance section of the Social Insurance Institution performs the same functions in Upper Silesia. All agricultural and forestry undertakings in Poland are, therefore, now
subject to accident insurance except those of less than 30 hectares in former Russian
and Austrian Poland. In the case of undertakings of not more than 30 hectares, the
application of the provisions of the Act of 30 January 1924 was postponed in order
to permit a modification in the bases of accident insurance in the case of small agri-
cultural undertakings, by which modification contributions will be collected by the
communes. The provisions of a new Bill concerning social insurance which will
regulate compulsory insurance in case of sickness, maternity, as well as as invalidity
and death, provide that all agricultural undertakings of more than 5 hectares will
be subjected to compulsory insurance. Undertakings of less than 5 hectares which employ
only a strictly limited number of workers will be excluded from this insurance
only temporarily. The Minister of Labour and Social Assistance in agreement with the
Minister of Agriculture will have the power to fix by means of orders the
period for extending the law to cover the latter category of agricultural undertakings.
These Ministers may by the same means modify the principles for the registration of
the insured, the fixing of the rates of contributions and their collections, as well
as the question of payment in kind, laid down by the general law. Meanwhile, provisions for compensation for accidents occurring on agricultural undertakings of
less than 5 hectares have been included in collective agreements regulating conditions of labour and wages.

Sweden. — The Act of 17 June 1916 respecting insurance against industrial acci-
dents, as amended by the Acts of 15 June 1922, 18 June 1926 and 24 May 1928, covers
agricultural as well as other workers. By § 2 of the Act a worker is held to be “any
person who is employed for wages on account of another in such manner that in his relations with the latter he cannot be regarded as an independent contractor, and also any person who, in order to procure training in the trade, performs such work without remuneration.”

### III.

**Article 6 of the Convention is as follows:**

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

**Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.**

**Denmark.** — The Government states that the ratification does not include Greenland.

**Great Britain.** — This Convention has been applied to British Guiana, Grenada and St Vincent. The Convention has not been considered suitable for application to the remaining British colonies, protectorates, etc. In Trinidad and Tobago, however, Workmen’s Compensation Ordinances were passed in 1926, and legislation on the subject is also under consideration in the Federated Malay States. Reasons for the non-application of the Convention in certain cases were as follows:

**Unfederated Malay States.** — There is no special legislation regarding workmen’s compensation in any of the Unfederated Malay States, so that the question of extension to agricultural labourers does not arise.

**Nyasaland.** — In the circumstances of the primitive methods of agriculture employed in the Protectorates, injuries to agricultural labourers rarely occur. When they do, it is customary for the employer—whether or not he is responsible—to pay such reasonable sums as he himself thinks fit or the authorities may advise. The native finds greater benefit in this custom of the country than he would in legislation which, if introduced, might lead employers to abandon the present practice and leave the native to the resources of the law.

**Hong-Kong.** — The Convention is inapplicable to the agricultural conditions of Chinese village life in South China, where holdings are on a small scale and agricultural work is mainly in the hands of the owner or lessee. As regards workmen’s compensation, an assurance can be given that natives engaged in agriculture are not, legally, in any less favourable position than other wage-earners in the Colony.

**St. Lucia.** — The Convention could not be applied because there is no local legislation making provision for workmen’s compensation in general.

**Jamaica.** — The agricultural population chiefly consists of peasants who own their own holdings, and grow fruit and vegetables for their own consumption and for sale in the nearest market town. Practically the only exceptions are those labourers who are in the employ of sugar estates. There are no Workmen’s Compensation Laws in the Colony, and even if a Law was passed it would apply only to hired servants, and so practically the only persons who would benefit are those employed on the big estates, and these estates, chiefly devoted to growing sugar, are at the present time unable to afford the expense of the necessary premium. Insurance Companies to insure against having to pay compensation under a Compensation Law.

**Netherlands.** — By letter dated 25 January 1929 the Minister for the Colonies informed the Office that local conditions do not permit the application of the Convention to Surinam and Curacao. As regards the Dutch East Indies, a note by the Governor-General states that, in regulating the question of insurance against accidents which is in course of preparation, agricultural workers will be included in so far as they are employed under a contract of work containing penal sanctions.
The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Bulgaria. — 6 March 1925.
Denmark. — 19 May 1923.
Estonia. — 26 February 1923.
Germany. — 6 June 1925.
Great Britain. — 6 August 1923.
Irish Free State. — 6 August 1923.
Netherlands. — 20 August 1926.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Sweden. — 27 November 1923.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Bulgaria. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Social Insurance Act is entrusted to the factory inspectors.

Denmark. — In accordance with § 76 of the Act of 14 July 1927, it is the duty of the inspecting staff appointed under the Factory Act of 29 April 1913, including the communal inspectors, to see that the obligations relating to insurance are fulfilled in the concerns under their inspection. In the case of other undertakings, the inspection in question is carried out by the police. The factory inspectors report to the Chief of Police of the district any contraventions of the law that have come to their notice.

Estonia. — The application of the relevant provisions of the Act of 1 November 1921 is ensured by the supervision of the factory inspectors and by the right of victims of accidents to take proceedings in the civil courts.

Germany. — The enforcement of the provisions regarding accident insurance in agriculture is secured by the same measures as in other branches of accident insurance. Occupational associations are insurance carriers, but, in the case of accidents in works carried on on behalf of the Reich or of one of the States, the Reich or the State concerned is the carrier (§ 957 of the Insurance Code). Supervision of insurance carriers is entrusted to the Reich Insurance Office (§ 985 of the Insurance Code), in certain specified cases to the State Insurance Office (§ 986 of the Insurance Code), and, where the Reich or a State is the carrier, to the competent Minister of the Reich or to the State superior administrative authority (§§ 892 and 894 of the Insurance Code). The competent authorities are the same in all accident insurance cases (the Principal Insurance Office, the Federal Insurance Office and, in given cases, the State Insurance Offices).

Great Britain. — The application of the above-mentioned provisions is supervised generally by the Home Office, but all claims for compensation and other questions arising in particular cases under the Acts, if not settled by agreement between the employer and workman, are settled by arbitration, normally in the County Court (in Scotland, the Sheriff Court), in accordance with a prescribed procedure.

Irish Free State. — The Department of Industry and Commerce is responsible for the administration of the Workmen's Compensation Acts, but the Judges and Court Officers are concerned with matters arising out of the settlement of claims. In default of agreement between the employer and worker, or arbitration either by a committee representative of employers and workers or by a single arbitrator, the settlement of compensation claims under the Workmen's Compensation Acts and of matters arising therefrom is a matter for the Judge of the Circuit Court whose decision is subject to appeal by either party to the High Court with a right of further appeal in certain circumstances to the Supreme Court.

Netherlands. — The application of the relevant provisions is entrusted to the National Insurance Bank at Amsterdam, the insurance councils, the labour councils, and the trade associations (§ 10 of the Act of 20 May 1922). Supervision is exercised by the Bank and by the labour councils as regards employers insured with the Bank and the workers in their employment (§ 96). A supervising council is entrusted with the supervision over the effecting of insurance by the trade associations. Offences under the Act are established by the officials of the Bank and of the labour councils, who are assisted in their task by the State and communal police.

Poland. — The supervision of the application of the relevant legislation is within the competence of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare for the whole of Polish territory with the exception of the Upper Silesian part of the province of Silesia, where supervision is exercised by the Provincial Social Insurance Office.

Sweden. — The application of the legislation is under the control of the State Insurance Office and the Insurance Council.
Should an employer fail to insure his workers, the latter are automatically insured by the State Insurance Office.

**Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country.**

**Great Britain.** — The report states that the Convention is applied as a part of the general and well recognised law of workmen's compensation, and agricultural workers enjoy, and have for the last quarter of a century and more enjoyed, its benefits on precisely the same footing as other classes of employees.

**Irish Free State.** — The report states that agricultural wage-earners have been treated in Saorstat Eireann in respect of compensation for accidents in precisely the same manner as workers in industry.

**Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.**

This Convention first came into force on 31 August 1923. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>12. 6. 1924</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>10. 7. 1926</td>
<td>26.12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>6. 3. 1925</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>15. 9. 1925</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>31. 8. 1923</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>8. 9. 1922</td>
<td>26.12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>19. 2. 1926</td>
<td>15. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>22. 12. 1926</td>
<td>27. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>9. 9. 1924</td>
<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>21. 6. 1924</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>4. 12. 1925</td>
<td>8. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>20. 6. 1924</td>
<td>8. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>27. 11. 1923</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Government of Bulgaria reports that the Bill for amending the Health and Safety of Workers Act of 1917 prepared by the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour with a view to securing the complete application of the Convention has not been adopted. The report adds that for this reason Article 1 of the Convention remains in force as law. But, as in Bulgaria white lead is not used in painting, this text remains as an indication of principle without having any practical importance. Only the general provisions with regard to work with lead and its alloys enacted as the basis of the Act concerning the health and safety of workers have practical importance. On the other hand, the measures which have been taken in Bulgaria to combat poisoning from lead and lead products and lead ore in general are mainly in connection with the lead mines which exist in some parts of the country.

The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

With regard to the application of this Convention in Greece, see the Introductory Note to the summary relating to the *Hours Convention*.

The report of the Government of Latvia states that a Bill concerning the sale and use of white lead or sulphate of lead in painting has been adopted by the Social Legislation Commission of the Saeima. This Bill contains all the provisions required by the Convention. The reports adds that up to the present Latvia has no statistics relating to lead poisoning among workers.

The Polish Government states in its report that, under the Act of 30 June 1927 respecting the production, importation and use of white lead, sulphate of lead and other lead compounds, two Orders were prepared and submitted in May 1928 to the Council for the Protection of Labour, for opinion. The draft Order respecting painting, varnishing and coating works in which white lead is used contains provisions with regard to the management of the painting workshops, the conduct of the work, the supervision of the health and the living-in conditions of the workers. The other draft Order lays down detailed provisions with regard to the sanitary condition and safety of the work in establishments where pigments and paints containing white lead, sulphate of lead and other lead compounds are prepared. These draft Orders will give effect to certain provisions of Article 5 of the Convention.

The Government of Rumania, in reply to the letter of the Office of 4 October 1928 forwarding the forms for annual reports, states in a communication dated 1 February 1929 that “the Superior Commission for Industrial Hygiene and Sanitation created in connection with the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare by the Act of 13 March 1926 and of which one member is a representative of the Minister of Labour is at present engaged upon the examination and co-ordination of the provisions relating to health, sanitation and industrial hygiene; it will take the necessary measures for giv-
the application of the Convention in question."

In Spain, a Royal Decree to provide that the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all products containing these pigments shall be prohibited in Spain in the interior painting of buildings as from 1 November 1928, subject to the exceptions laid down in this Decree, was issued on 19 February 1926. The report states that a Royal Order of 5 December 1928 has instructed the Labour Council to undertake an enquiry — to be completed within three months — with a view to the preparation of regulations for the application of the Decree of 19 February 1926. The regulations contemplated by the Decree but which for various reasons it has not been possible so far to prepare, will complete the provisions of § 4 of the Decree. The Order recommends that the joint committees and the employers’ and workers’ associations in the industries concerned should give their opinion on the exceptions provided for in § 2 of the Royal Decree and the rules to be laid down with regard to the admission of apprentices to painting works, as well as the means of ensuring the application of the regulations. The report adds that up to the present the application of the Convention, in accordance with the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926, has not given rise to any serious difficulties nor to complaints either from employers or workers.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Austria.

Order of 8 March 1923 issued under § 74 (a) of the Industrial Code and issuing regulations for the protection of the life and health of persons employed in painting, varnishing and decorating carried on by way of trade (L. S. 1923, Aus. 1 (D)).

Order of 4 February 1928 of the Minister of Social Affairs respecting the notification of cases of lead poisoning due to painting work in buildings, varnishing and artistic painting (L. S. 1928, Part II, Gr. 2 A).

Belgium.

Act of 30 March 1926 concerning the use of white lead and other white pigments containing lead (L. S. 1926, Belg. 2 (A)).

Royal Order of 16 September 1926 to regulate the purchase, sale, transport and use of white lead and other white compounds containing lead intended for trade purposes (L. S. 1926, Belg. 2 (B)).

Ministerial Order of 16 September 1926 in pursuance of §§ 2, 4, 5 and 7 of the Royal Order to regulate the purchase, sale, transport and use of white lead and other white compounds containing lead (L. S. 1926, Belg. 2 (D)).

Royal Order of 17 September 1926 concerning the use in painting of white lead, other white pigments containing lead and white pigments the lead content of which in the metallic state exceeds 2% (L. S. 1926, Belg. 2 (C)).

Royal Order of 15 November 1927 to supplement the Royal Order of 16 September 1926 to regulate the purchase, sale, transport and use of white lead and other white compounds containing lead intended for trade purposes (L. S. 1927, Belg. 9).

Royal Order of 31 October 1928 prohibiting the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age and women in painting work involving the use of white lead and other white lead-pigments (L. S. 1928, Belg. 6).
Spain.
Royal Decree of 10 February 1926 to provide that the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all products containing these pigments shall be prohibited in Spain in the interior painting of buildings from 1 November 1928, subject to the exceptions laid down in this Decree (L. S. 1926, Sp. 3).

See Introductory Note above.

Sweden.
Act of 19 February 1926 to prohibit in certain cases the employment of workers in painting work in which lead colours are used (L. S. 1926, Swe. 1).

Decree of the Royal Department of Labour and Social Welfare of 30 June 1926 concerning the form to be used for reports on cases of lead poisoning in the painting industry (L. S. 1926, Swe. 3).

Royal Decree of 10 December 1926 concerning the payment of the expense of medical examination of working painters, examined in accordance with the above-mentioned Act. Workers' Protection Act of 29 June 1912 (B. B., Vol. VIII, 1915, p. 84).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation ratifying the present Convention undertakes to prohibit, with the exceptions provided for in Article 2, the use of white lead and sulphate of lead and of all products containing these pigments, in the internal painting of buildings, except where the use of white lead or sulphate of lead or products containing these pigments is considered necessary for railway stations or industrial establishments by the competent authority after consultation with the chambers of commerce, crafts and industry and the wage-earning and salaried employees' councils, or where the use of white lead, sulphate of lead, and products containing lead is permitted for external painting only when necessary for protection against the influence of weather and water. The report adds that the general administrative authorities of the State decide, after consultation with the Chamber of Commerce and Industry and the Chambers of Workers and Employees, to what undertakings permission may be granted to use white lead, sulphate of lead and any products containing lead. No statistics of the cases in question are available.

Belgium. — § 2 of the Act of 30 March 1926 prohibits the use of white lead and other white pigments containing lead, as well as colours ready for use containing these pigments, whether for the interior painting of buildings or for the use of any object for the furnishing of buildings. White pigments other than those mentioned above are allowed only if they do not contain more than 2% lead weight in the metallic state. Further § 3 provides that § 2 is not to apply "(a) to white lead pigments contained in tubes weighing less than 500 grammes... (c) to work in parts of industrial buildings where the processes give rise to sulphuric acid fumes." § 5 provides that the conditions and limitations of the purchase, sale, transport and use of white lead and other white compounds containing lead intended for trade purposes are to be laid down by Royal Order. The report states that the Temporary Committee for the technical study of the use of white lead and other white pigments containing lead, which includes delegates from the employers' and workers' organisations, has up to the present proposed exceptions under § 5 only for the sale of white compounds containing lead to dispensers and chemists, and for the use of similar compounds in the case of minerals used for the extraction of the lead in the metallic state. A Royal Order of 15 November 1927 confirmed these decisions.

Bulgaria. — See the introductory note above.
Czechoslovakia. — § 1 of the Act of 12 June 1924 prohibits the use of white lead and other pigments and putty containing lead in internal painting, varnishing and decorating work. Internal painting as defined as “all painting which, on account of the use to which it is put, is not exposed directly to the influence of the weather either permanently or during the greater part of the time.” It is provided in § 2 that this prohibition is not to apply to “(b) railway stations, vehicle-works and other industrial undertakings where the use of white lead and other pigments and putty containing lead is certified as necessary by the competent industrial inspection office after consultation with the organisations of employers and workers; (c) painting in places where the paint is much exposed to the effects of steam or other vapours; (d) work in the application of the first coat in cases of mere touching-up of old white paint containing lead.” The Government report for 1928 states that “the exceptions under (c) and (d) were reproduced from §§ 4 and 3 of the Order of 15 April 1908’s of the Austrian Minister of Commerce and Minister of the Interior, after consultation with the competent organisations concerned, owing to the similarity between interior painting exposed to steam and other vapour and exterior painting, and also owing to the practical value of the second exception. Both exceptions are of quite a minor kind.” The Government recalls that the Ministry of Social Welfare, in order to complete on this point the report for 1927, had forwarded to the Office on 13 April 1928 a communication on this question stating “that, as the result of recent research, zinc paints are almost exclusively used in interior painting, and these paints are more expensive because they are non-poisonous, lasting and permanently white. In the application of the first coat upon wood and for putty, zinc white is used mixed with a white lead substitute, which is commercially known as “Lithopone”. Paints containing lead are used in interior painting, to the extent allowed by the Geneva Convention, only exceptionally in putty, when it is desired to obtain a specially hard and damp-resistant surface. In drawing attention to these circumstances the Ministry of Social Affairs considers that although the exception allowed by § 2 (2) (d) of the Act of 1924 is not in accordance with the White Lead Convention, its application in present practice is so unimportant that it constitutes only an insignificant and theoretical departure from the Convention. The Ministry of Social Welfare would not therefore consider it desirable to suppress the exception, since its inclusion in the Act also meets the present requirements of the experts.” Permits to use white lead under § 2 (b) are granted by the industrial inspectorate, which notifies permits granted to the competent industrial authority, this body being entitled to reverse the decision of the inspectorate, and refers to this authority for decision applications which it considers should be refused (§ 12). § 2 (1) of the Act permits the use of white paints containing not more than 2 per cent. of lead expressed in terms of metallic lead.

Estonia. — § 1 of the Act of 25 May 1928 provides that the use of white lead and sulphate of lead and of all products containing these pigments in the internal painting of buildings is prohibited, with the exception of railway stations and industrial undertakings in which the use of white lead and sulphate of lead and of all products containing these pigments is certified to be necessary by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the Minister of Communications or, where necessary, with the Minister of Commerce and Industry, after consulting the employers’ and workers’ organisations. § 2 provides that the use of white pigments containing a maximum of 2 per cent. of lead expressed in terms of metallic lead remains authorised. The report adds that the question of the exceptions provided for in this Article of the Convention for industrial undertakings has not yet been settled.

France. — §§ 78-80 of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, as amended by the Act of 31 January 1926, provide that, in all workshops, yards, buildings under construction or repair, and generally in any workplace where work in connection with the painting of buildings is carried on, the heads of the undertakings, directors or managers must observe the following provisions: the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and linseed oil containing lead, and of any specially prepared product containing white lead or lead sulphate is prohibited in all painting work, irrespective of its nature, carried out on the exterior and interior of buildings. Public administrative regulations are to lay down, if necessary, the special work for which exceptions may be permitted. The report states that no such regulations have been made, and the use of white lead, etc. remains forbidden both for the external and internal painting of buildings.

Greece. — The use of white lead, red lead, litharge, and other special products which contain lead in any form whatever is prohibited in the painting of buildings or ships by § 1 of the Act of 6 August 1921. By the Order of 28 January 1922, lead colours may be used (1) for the painting of objects exposed to the weather, (2) for the painting of enclosed places where much steam is evolved, (3) for the painting and maintenance of the rolling stock of railways and tramways. Where the use of lead colours is prohibited, they must be replaced by colours not containing more than 2 per cent. of metallic lead calculated according to the dry weight.
Poland. — According to § 3 of the Act of 30 June 1927 the use of white lead, of sulphate of lead and of other products containing these lead compounds is prohibited in the internal painting of buildings. This prohibition does not apply either to the internal painting of railway stations and of industrial establishments in which the employment of these products is certified necessary (§ 3 (a)) or to the use of white pigments containing a maximum of 2 per cent. of pure lead (§ 3 (b)). The labour inspector may authorise the above mentioned exceptions in agreement with the competent sanitary authority and after consultation with the representatives of the professional organisations of employers and workers invited by him.

Spain. — The Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 provides in § 1 that the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all products containing these pigments in the interior painting of buildings is prohibited from 1 November 1928. By § 2 work on railway stations and industrial establishments in which the use of white lead, etc. is certified as necessary by the Minister of Labour, after enquiry as provided for in § 4, shall be excepted. By Royal Decree of 5 December 1928 the enquiry in question has been entrusted to the Labour Council. The enquiry must be completed within three months and must afford facilities in order that all employers' and workers' organisations might notify the cases in which the use of white lead, etc. should be permitted in the interior painting of industrial establishments. The exception permitted by the second paragraph of Article 1 is also permitted by § 2 of the Decree.

Sweden. — According to § 1 of the Act of 19 February 1926, the Act applies to all painting work which is not exempted from the application of the Act of 29 June 1912 respecting the protection of workers. This latter Act applies to every occupation, industrial or otherwise, in which workpeople are employed for work for an employer, as well as in the building of houses, roads or water-works, water courses or any similar undertaking in which workpeople are employed for such purposes. The Act does not apply to (a) work which is undertaken in the labourer's dwelling or elsewhere under such conditions that it cannot be considered as the employer's responsibility to supervise the arrangements for such work; (b) work which is undertaken by a member of the employer's family; and (c) work which is done by sailors or which is in connection with nautical service, whether the work is done on board ship or otherwise. The Act of 19 February 1926 lays down, among other things (§ 1), that for the purposes of the Act "lead colours" shall be deemed to mean lead carbonate (white lead), lead sulphate and other pigments containing lead carbonate or lead sulphate. § 2 of the Act lays down that male workers under the age of eighteen years and women shall not be employed in painting work in which lead colours are used. Male workers who have attained the age of eighteen years may not be employed in the interior painting of buildings with lead colours unless the quantity of lead carbonate or lead sulphate in the lead colours used is such that they do not contain more than 2 per cent. of lead. § 3 provides that the chief industrial inspection authority, after hearing the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, may authorise exceptions to the prohibition of the employment of white lead in the interior painting of buildings connected with railway stations or industrial establishments where such exceptions are considered necessary. The report states that no request for an exception has been made up to the present.

**ARTICLE 2.**

The provisions of Article 1 shall not apply to artistic painting or fine lining. The Governments shall define the limits of such forms of painting, and shall regulate the use of white lead, sulphate of lead, and all products containing these pigments, for these purposes in conformity with the provisions of Articles 5, 6 and 7 of the present Convention.

Where advantage has been taken of the exemption provided for in the first paragraph of Article 2, please state what definition of the limits of such forms of painting has been laid down. Please forward copies of the regulations which may have been drawn up, pursuant to the second paragraph of this Article, in conformity with the provisions of Article 5, 6 and 7, unless they have already been communicated to the International Office.

Austria. — The report states that no use has been made in Austria of the exception allowed by Article 2 of the Convention.

Belgium. — The report states that the exception regarding artistic painting and fine lining is covered by § 3 of the Belgian Act, which allows the sale of paints generally used for this work when they are contained in tubes weighing less than 500 grammes. The report adds that "the high price of this form of container makes it practically impossible to use these paints for ordinary painting."

Bulgaria. — See introductory note. The report, moreover, states that the line of demarcation between the different forms of painting cannot be drawn in practice.

Czecho-Slovakia. — In virtue of § 2 (2) (a) of the Act of 12 June 1924 the prohibition of the use of white lead does not apply to "decoration and sign-painting and fine lining." The report states that the provisions of the Act relating to the regulation of the use of white lead apply to these forms of painting.
Estonia. — § 3 of the Act of 25 May 1928 provides that the provisions of § 1 of the Act are not applicable to artistic painting or fine lining. But the report adds that the limits of the different forms of painting have not yet been defined.

France. — Advantage has not been taken of the exception provided for in this Article.

Greece. — The Order of 28 January 1922 provides that the prohibition of the use of white lead, red lead and litharge, and of all other compounds of these oxides is not to apply to painting by artists and the production of oil lacquers and varnishes for vehicles, driers, and enamels. The report states that the limits of these forms of painting have not been defined.

Poland. — § 3 (3) of the Act of 30 June 1927 authorises the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all other products containing lead compounds in artistic and decorative painting. The report adds that the question of the distinction between these two forms of painting has not so far given rise to doubts. It is agreed that artistic painting means the work of painters creating works of art, and decorative painting includes fine lining and other decorative work done by working painters. Special measures will be taken in case of necessity by means of instructions to the labour inspectors.

Spain. — § 2 of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 provides that prohibition is not to apply to artistic painting and fine lining. The report states, however, that the use of white lead in these processes is regulated by §§ 4, 5 and 7 of the Decree.

Sweden. — The Act of 19 February 1926 lays down in § 2 that the provisions prohibiting the employment of male workers who have reached eighteen years of age in the interior painting of buildings with lead colours shall not apply to artistic painting or fine lining. The report states that apart from the provisions of § 4 of the Act of 19 February 1926 (see under Article 5) no special measures have been taken with regard to paragraph 2 of this Article of the Convention.

ARTICLE 3.

The employment of males under eighteen years of age and of all females shall be prohibited in any painting work of an industrial character involving the use of white lead or sulphate of lead or other products containing these pigments. The competent authorities shall have power, after consulting the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, to permit the employment of painters' apprentices in the work prohibited by the preceding paragraph, with a view to their education in their trade.

Please state whether permission has been granted for the employment of painters' apprentices in the

Austria. — The Order of 8 March 1923 prohibits by § 6 the employment of young persons under eighteen years and women in painting, varnishing and decorating work in which, in accordance with § 5, the use of white lead or other compounds containing lead has been authorised. Furthermore, young persons under eighteen years of age must not be employed in cleaning workshops or working clothes. The Order of 8 March 1923 contains no exceptions for apprentices as permitted by Article 3, second paragraph, of the Convention.

Belgium. — The Royal Order of 31 October 1928, issued after consultation with the organisations contemplated by the Act of 2 July 1899, prohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years and women in painting work involving the use of white lead and other white lead-pigments.

Bulgaria. — The Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour may propose, after consultation with the Superior Labour Council, and it may be ordered by Royal Decree in virtue of § 16 of the Health and Safety of Workers Act of 1917, that the employment of males under eighteen years of age and of all females shall be prohibited in work recognised to be of a dangerous or unhealthy character. See also introductory note.

Czechoslovakia. — By § 3 (1) of the White Lead Act the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age and of women is prohibited in work where the use of white lead and other pigments and putty containing lead is permitted. The competent industrial inspection offices are empowered under § 3 (2), after consulting the organisations of employers and workers, to "permit the employment of apprentices under eighteen years of age on work otherwise prohibited for them by the provisions of this Act, with a view to their training in their trade, in so far as such work is necessary for the full achievement of the purpose of their apprenticeship, provided that they shall not be so employed for more than six weeks." Permits for the purpose of § 3 (2), if granted, must be notified to the competent authority, which is entitled to reverse the decision taken by the inspectorate, and must be referred to this authority for decision in cases where the inspectorate considers the application should be refused (§ 12). The report states that "so far as the factory inspectors' reports have made it possible to judge, no case has yet occurred requiring special regulations or consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations."
Estonia. — § 4 of the Act of 25 May 1928 provides that the employment of women and young persons under 18 years of age is prohibited in painting work of an industrial character involving the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all products containing these pigments. The Minister of Labour and Social Welfare has the right, after consulting the employers' and workers' organisations, to permit the employment of apprentices on works prohibited by the preceding paragraph with a view to their education in their trade. The report adds that no use has been made in Estonia of the right given to the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare.

France. — The report states that a draft Decree providing for the prohibition of the employment of young persons under 18 years of age and of women in painting work of an industrial character (other than work in connection with the painting of buildings in which the prohibition is general) was prepared and is at present submitted for examination to the committees whose opinion is necessary, in accordance with the terms of §§ 185 and 186 of Book II of the Labour Code, namely, the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures and the Superior Labour Committee.

Greece. — The report states that the employment of young persons under 18 years of age and women in painting work of an industrial character involving the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all products containing these pigments has remained prohibited up to now. On the other hand, the Decree of 17 December 1921 excludes "works in general" in the prohibition of the use of white lead, red lead and litharge and all other compounds of these oxides.

Poland. — § 4 of the Act of 30 June 1927 prohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years and of women in painting work of an industrial character involving the use of white lead and sulphate of lead. The regional labour inspector may authorise, in agreement with the voivode and after consulting the employers' and workers' organisations, the employment of persons under 18 years of age with a view to their education in their trade. The Government states that exemptions granted will be communicated in the report for 1929.

Spain. — § 3 of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 provides that on and after 1 November 1928 the employment of young persons under the age of eighteen years and women is prohibited in painting work of an industrial character involving the use of white lead, etc. The employment of painters' apprentices in such work may be authorised by way of exception by a Royal Order of the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry issued after making the enquiry provided for in § 4. The report states that a Royal Order of 5 December 1928 has instructed the Labour Council to undertake this enquiry which must be completed in three months and which is to give all employers' and workers' organisations the opportunity of stating their opinion on the rules to be adopted for the employment of painters' apprentices in prohibited work.

Sweden. — § 2 of the Act of 19 February 1926 provides that male workers under the age of eighteen years and women may not be employed in painting work in which lead colours are used. By § 3, however, the chief inspection authority, after hearing the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, may authorise the employment of male workers under the age of eighteen years in painting work where this is necessary for their trade training, provided that the work is such that male workers who have attained the said age may be employed therein in conformity with the Act. The report states that no use has been made of this provision.

ARTICLE 4.

The prohibitions prescribed in Articles 1 and 3 shall come into force six years from the date of the closure of the Third Session of the International Labour Conference.

Austria. — The Order of 8 March 1923, the provisions of which correspond with those of Articles 1 and 3 of the Convention, came into force on 7 April 1923, the date of promulgation of the Order. The Order of 4 February 1928 was promulgated on 30 March 1928.

Belgium. — The Belgian Act came into force on 22 October 1928.

Bulgaria. — See introductory note.

Czechoslovakia. — All the provisions of the White Lead Act came into operation, in accordance with § 14, three months after its promulgation on 28 June 1924, i.e. on 28 September 1924.


France. — The prohibition of the use of white lead came into force on 1 January 1915, and that of sulphate of lead with the promulgation of the Act of 31 January 1926.

Greece. — The report states that the prohibition prescribed in Article 1 came into force on 1 March 1922, except as regards sulphate of lead, the use of which was prohibited from 19 November 1927.

Poland. — The Act of 30 June 1927 came into force on 8 March 1928.
Spain. — According to §§ 1 and 3 of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 the prohibitions therein stipulated came into force on 1 November 1928.

Sweden. — The Act of 19 February 1926 came into force, under the terms of § 14, on 1 July 1926.

ARTICLE 5.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation ratifying the present Convention undertakes to regulate the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and of all products containing these pigments, in operations for which their use is not prohibited, on the following principles:

I. (a) White lead, sulphate of lead, or products containing these pigments shall not be used in painting operations except in the form of paste or of paint ready for use.

(b) Measures shall be taken in order to prevent danger arising from the application of paint in the form of spray.

(c) Measures shall be taken, wherever practicable, to prevent danger arising from dust caused by dry rubbing down and scraping.

II. (a) Adequate facilities shall be provided to enable working painters to wash during and on cessation of work.

(b) Overalls shall be worn by working painters during the whole of the working period.

(c) Suitable arrangements shall be made to prevent clothing put off during working hours being soiled by painting material.

III. (a) Cases of lead poisoning and of suspected lead poisoning shall be notified, and shall be subsequently verified by a medical man appointed by the competent authority.

(b) The competent authority may require, when necessary, a medical examination of workers.

IV. Instructions with regard to the special hygienic precautions to be taken in the painting trade shall be distributed to working painters.

Please give full information concerning the regulations made under this Article and their application, in relation to each of the paragraphs of the Article.

Austria. — I (a). In § 8 (1) and (2) of the Order of 8 March 1923, the grinding of white lead and lead sulphate is authorised only in establishments certified by the competent industrial authorities as suitable. These lead compounds must not be introduced into other undertakings until they have been ground with oil or varnish. In all undertakings, white lead, lead sulphate and products containing these colours may be used only in a damp condition or as paint ready for use. I (b). The report states that no Orders have been issued containing provisions corresponding to this paragraph but that corresponding protective measures are ordered as required by the factory inspectors. §§ 9 and 10 of the Order, however, provide that respirators are to be worn by persons working with white lead, etc., for work where much dust is raised. I (c). § 8 (3) stipulates that dry paint containing lead or putty must “not be scraped down or pumiced until it has been damped. The scraped-off substance and the fragments falling during the process of scraping” must be removed while still damp. II (a). § 9 (2) provides that “every occupier of an undertaking shall furnish the persons working with white lead, other compounds containing lead or other poisonous substances with a sufficient supply of good water for drinking and washing, wash-bowls, brushes, soap and towels.” II (b). §§ 9 (1) and 10 (2) of the Order lay down that the occupier of the undertaking must see that the workers using white lead, other compounds containing lead or other poisonous substances, use special working clothes and head coverings, which must be properly cleansed. In establishments where more than 20 workers are employed, the occupier of the undertaking is required to furnish the workers in question with the suitable working clothes and head coverings and to see that they are cleansed regularly by a wet process. For their part, the workers are required to use the working clothes and head coverings provided for them in accordance with the regulations. II (c). § 3 lays down that if in an establishment more than 20 painters, varnishers and decorators are employed the occupier is obliged to provide these workers with special lavatories and cloak-rooms which can be heated, with arrangements for storing garments and a mess-room, and to see that these rooms are always kept clean. In addition, the notice appended to the Order especially recommends workers to keep their working clothes apart from their other clothes and to keep the latter away from dust and steam. III (a). Under § 1 of the Order of 4 February 1928 all actual or suspected cases of lead poisoning must be immediately notified. § 2 of this Order enumerates the persons responsible for making such notification. The district political authorities to whom such notification must be made must see to it that the necessary enquiries based upon the notification are undertaken. They must report the results of these enquiries to the Governor of the province and to the Minister for Social Affairs. III (b), § 11 (4) of the Order of 8 March 1923 provides that the occupier of the undertaking is to see that the workers employed on work with white lead, other compounds containing lead or other poisonous substances “are examined by a medical practitioner at least once every three months for signs of illness due to lead or other poisoning, and that they are referred to the medical practitioner of the sick fund forthwith on the appearance of the first signs of such illness.” The medical examination is held outside working hours and each examination together with its results is entered in the register kept in virtue of § 11 (2). This register must be submitted to the State supervising officials on request. IV, § 11 (1) of the Order provides that the Order “shall be
affixed in an easily accessible place and kept at all times in a legible condition." It is further provided that a copy of the notice which is printed as an appendix to the Order and which contains instructions relating to the special hygienic precautions that should be taken must be supplied on engagement to every worker employed in work with white lead, other compounds containing lead or other poisonous substances.

Belgium. — I (a). The Royal Order of 17 September 1926 provides in § 2 that the use in painting is prohibited of white lead, other white pigments containing lead and white pigments the lead content of which in the metallic state exceeds 2%, except in the form of a paste crushed or kneaded with oil. I (b). § 2 of the Royal Order of 17 September 1926 prohibits the application of white lead, etc., by means of spraying apparatus. I (c). The Act of 30 March 1926 provides in § 4 that the dry rubbing down and scrambling of surfaces painted with white lead are prohibited. II (a). § 6 of the Royal Order of 17 September 1926 provides that employers or heads of undertakings must put at the disposal of their employees, both at the place where they are working and in the workshops, soap and clean water. § 9 provides that before partaking of food or drink and before leaving the workshop or place of work, the workers must be required to rinse their mouths and to wash their hands and faces with soap. II (b). The Royal Order of 17 September 1926 provides in § 5 that employers must see that the workmen wear clothing and headdress kept exclusively for work. § 8 requires workmen to wear clothing and headdress kept exclusively for work, which must be kept in a clean condition and taken off before the workmen leave the workshops or place of work. II (c). § 5 of the Royal Order of 17 September 1926 requires employers to keep the clothing which the workmen take off before work away from poisonous dust. § 8 makes the same requirement of the workmen. III (a). The report states that "the enforcement of the Act of 24 July 1927 concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases will enable the department concerned to render the required statistics annually". III (b). The report states that up to the present the industrial medical officers have examined "workers suspected of lead poisoning". IV. The report states that "leaflets have been distributed to the workers using white lead or other pigments, putty and similar substances containing lead must be provided by the employer with suitable wash-bowls (as a rule at least one for every five workers) with water laid on (hot water wherever possible), soap, nail brushes and a towel for each worker, to be changed at least once a week. § 7 (2) of the Act provides that the workers must cleanse faces, mouths and hands thoroughly before meals and when working with substances which are dangerous to health or life, must be provided with special clothing and every possible protective device, masks, gloves, glasses, etc. which the nature of the work permits (§ 8). In § 9 it is stipulated that the necessary provision is to be made for drinking and washing water, for disposal of clothing, etc. III. The Government stated in the report for 1927 that lead poisoning is held to be an occupational disease for the purposes of the Social Insurance Act. As regards medical examination of workers, § 22 of the Health and Safety of Workers Act provides that every undertaking employing more than 10 workers must have a medical officer chosen and paid for by the employer but appointed and dismissible by the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour; it is the duty of the medical officer to supervise the health of the workers in the undertaking and to keep a health register. § 24 lays down that special municipal workers' doctors shall be appointed by communes in which there are more than 1000 workers.

Czechoslovakia. — I (a). § 5 (2) of the Act of 12 June 1924 prescribes that "white lead and other pigments and putty containing lead... shall not be used... except in the form of paste or of paint ready for use." I (b). § 5 (3) provides that "the crushing or grinding of white lead and other compounds containing lead, and the kneading thereof with oil or varnish, shall not be done by hand, but only by means of mechanical appliances, in such a way that the workers are adequately protected against the raising of dust and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into the workrooms and that dust cannot escape into 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putty and similar substances containing lead wear special working clothes and head coverings and that in undertakings usually employing not less than 15 workers he shall provide the working clothes and provide for their cleaning at his own expense. § 7 (1) of the Act obliges the said workers to wear such clothes and head coverings. II (c). § 4 (2) of the Act provides that in undertakings usually employing not less than 15 workers a separate cloak-room capable of being heated must be provided with suitable arrangements for storing working clothes and out-door clothes separately, while § 4 (3) stipulates that in establishments with a smaller number of workers the workers shall be provided at least with clothes-lockers which can be securely closed and which are arranged so that working clothes and out-door clothes can be kept apart. The appendix to the Act, which contains provisions for the inspection of workers, takes into account the provisions of paragraph II of this Article of the Convention. III (a) and (b). It is provided in §§ 2, 5 and 6 of the Act that a worker who shows signs of lead poisoning must be sent at once by the employer to the sick fund medical officer, that if a worker is certified as suffering from lead poisoning the employer must submit to the competent authority without delay a copy of the relevant particulars contained in the register of workers using white lead, etc., provided for in § 8 (1), and that the district or communal medical officer must, at the request of the factory inspectorate, examine any worker known or suspected to be suffering from lead poisoning and report his observations to the industrial authority and to the Industrial Inspection Office. Under § 8 (3-4) the employer is required to see that workers usually engaged in handling white lead, etc., are medically examined at least once in six months. The result of each such examination must be entered in the register provided for in § 8 (1). IV. § 11 provides that a copy of the White Lead Act is to be posted in a conspicuous place in workrooms where white lead, etc., is used and that every worker employed on work involving the use of these products must on entering employment be given, free of charge, a copy of the instructions dealing with lead poisoning, its causes and methods of prevention, which are appended to the Act.

Estonia. — Under § 10 of the Act of 25 May 1928, the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare is responsible for issuing regulations concerning the supervision of the general health of persons engaged in painting works and their medical examination in places where the employment of white lead, sulphate of lead, and all products containing these pigments is not prohibited. The report states that the regulations provided for in this section of the Act have not yet been issued.

France. — The measures for the regulation of the use of white lead in painting are contained in the Decree of 1 October 1913. The question of the extension of the provisions of this Decree to cover the use of lead sulphate in painting has been studied and draft regulations have been prepared which are at present being considered by the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures and the Superior Labour Committee. As regards white lead, the prescriptions of French law which correspond to the various provisions of Article 5 of the Convention are as follows: I (a). § 2 of the Decree of 1 October 1913 provides that, whenever the use of white lead is not prohibited, it shall only be used in the form of paste. I (b). A draft Decree for imposing certain safeguards in cases where paint containing white lead or sulphate of lead is applied in the form of spray has been prepared and is at present submitted for examination by the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures. I (c). § 4 of the Decree prohibits dry rubbing down and scraping. II (a). § 5 of the Decree prescribes that facilities for cleanliness shall be placed at the disposal of the workers at the workplace itself, and § 6 provides that the workshop regulations shall impose on the workers the duty of making use of these facilities. II (b). Overalls are provided for in § 5 of the Decree and by § 6 it is stipulated that the duty of using them must be included in the workshop regulations. II (c). § 5 also provides that overalls must be kept in good condition and frequently washed, and § 8 of the Decree of 10 July 1913 relating to general rules for protection and cleanliness makes the provision of cloak-rooms compulsory. III (a). Cases of lead poisoning among working painters are compulsorily notifiable under § 12 of the Act of 23 October 1913. The question of verification by a medical man appointed by the competent authority is dealt with under the next heading. III (b). The report states that the draft Decree for amending the Decree of 1 October 1913 which is at present submitted to the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures provides for the institution of medical inspection for the painting of buildings in a form analogous to that laid down by Decrees of 1 October 1913 for the lead industry and other industries. IV. § 6 of the Decree of 1 October 1913 respecting the use of white lead in painting provides that the text of the Decree must be posted up in the rooms in which workers are taken on and paid. The report adds that the draft Decree referred to above contains provisions for requiring employers to distribute to workers, at the time they are engaged, a notice drawing attention to the dangers of
lead poisoning and to the precautions to be taken to avoid them.

Greece. — I (a), § 5 of the Decree of 17 December 1921 provides that in industrial operations in which the use of white lead, red lead, litharge, or compounds thereof, cannot be dispensed with entirely, grinding in linseed oil or other substances with the bare hand is prohibited. The Order of 28 January 1922 provides that raw materials containing lead may not be directly sold for the manufacture of putty, and that putty may not be dealt in except in a state completely ready for use. I (b), § 7 of the Decree of 17 December 1921 prescribes that workers engaged in the preparation of paste or colours of a dusty nature shall wear respirators, and also gloves, if the preparation is in the form of paste or contains water. I (c), § 2 of the Decree forbids the dry rubbing down of surfaces painted with white lead, etc. except in so far as suitable precautions are taken for the protection of workers against the inhalation of dust. The Order of 28 January 1922 further prescribes that old lead colours may not be rubbed down before they have been dampened in such a way as to prevent the generation of dust. II (a), § 9 of the Decree provides that any worker who has compounds of lead oxides shall wash his hands, face, nose and mouth with soap. II (b), § 8 of the Decree makes it compulsory for workers employed in places where lead oxides are being used to wear special overalls. II (c), § 8 further provides that the overalls must be left at the workplace and that they may not be washed with household linen. III (a) and (b). The report states that these provisions will be fully applied by the new Act respecting workmen's compensation for occupational diseases. IV. The Circular No. 12609 of 1921 contains the necessary instructions for the strict application of this provision.

Poland. — I (a), § 5 of the Act of 30 June 1927 provides that white lead, sulphate of lead and other lead compounds may be used exclusively in the form of paste or of paint ready for use. I (b). The report states that the application of paint in the form of spray is not used in Poland. I (c). These measures are provided for in § 5 of the Act of 30 June 1927. The dry rubbing down and scraping of surfaces repainted with products containing white lead and sulphate of lead are prohibited. II (a). The report states that at present the measures referred to under II and III of this Article of the Convention are provided for by the legislative provisions of the former component states, i.e. in the former Austrian Poland: § 8 of the Order of 15 April 1908 in virtue of which the employer is required to furnish to the workers wash basins, brushes, soap and towels in sufficient quantity and of satisfactory quality; in the former Prussian Poland: §§ 5 and 8 of the German Order of 27 June 1905 on the basis of which measures are taken so that the workers may be assured of the necessary cleanliness; in the former Russian Poland: in virtue of § 31 of the Regulation of 31 March/13 April 1913 the workers must have facilities for washing their hands and faces. II (b). § 8 of the Austrian Order of 1908 stipulates that "the employer shall see that workmen who work with lead or lead compounds wear the special clothing and lead coverings during work, which must be properly cleaned. In industrial undertakings where more than 20 persons are employed the employer shall provide the necessary clothing and head coverings and shall cause them to be periodically cleaned." The German Order of 1905 prescribes in § 4 that the employer is to see that workers who come into contact with lead colours are provided with painters' overalls and head coverings and that they wear these garments whilst at work. The Russian Regulation of 31 March/13 April 1908 provides that workmen must be furnished with protective clothing, which must be kept in special cloak-rooms. II (c). In that part of Poland which is covered by the Austrian Order of 1908, undertakings where more than 20 painters, varnishers and decorators are employed, and where white lead is used, must have suitable heated lavatories and cloak-rooms in which clothing can be kept. Where the German Order of 1905 is still in force the employer is under an obligation to provide cloak-rooms which can be heated, and which contain clothes cupboards. In former Russian Poland the question of cloak-rooms is regulated by the last paragraph of § 23 of the Regulation of 31 March/13 April 1913. III (a). The provisions corresponding to this paragraph are contained in §§ 5, 6 and 7 of the Decree of 22 August 1927, which provide that the doctor who examines the patient must communicate in writing cases of lead poisoning to the general administrative authorities of the district and to the labour inspector. The district medical officer and the factory inspector are required jointly to conduct an enquiry with a view to diagnosing the disease and to ascertain its causes and origin. III (b). § 8 of the Act of 30 June 1927 provides that in establishments which, by reason of the employment of workers, are exposed to occupational diseases, the examination of the health of the workers, as well as the examination and enquiries provided for by legislation, must be carried out independently of the notifications of occupational diseases within limits and at intervals which depend upon the degree to which the work is injurious to health, and, as far as possible, at least once a year. IV. The Orders in force in the former Austrian and German provinces provide for the distribution to the worker on engagement of a special notice dealing with the dangers of lead poisoning and the measures to be taken to prevent it. The
that the workers shall wear special working
clothes during the whole of the working
period. II (c). § 4 (e) provides that the
necessary arrangements shall be made to
prevent the clothes taken off by the work-
ers during work from being soiled by lead
colours. III (a). § 5 of the Act lays down
that cases of lead poisoning or of suspected
lead poisoning shall be notified in writing
by the employer to the chief industrial
inspection authority as soon as they come
to his notice. Medical practitioners in State
or communal employment who attend
working painters suffering from the above-
mentioned diseases are similarly bound to
notify such cases. The form for such
notification has been drawn up by the
Royal Department of Labour and Social
Welfare. III (b). In § 6, the Act
provides that when a notification as
specified in § 5 has been made, and
also in other cases where it is consi-
dered necessary, the chief industrial inspec-
tion authority shall propose to the com-
petent provincial authority (lokalstyrelser),
that all or some of the working painters at
a particular workplace or in the employ-
ment of a particular employer be medically
examined. If such a proposal is made, the
provincial authority must at once order a
medical examination to be made in con-
formity with the proposal. § 7 provides
that a medical practitioner who makes an
examination as provided in § 6 may lay
down special conditions for the employ-
ment of workers who are suffering from
lead poisoning in work in which lead
colours are used or prohibit altogether their
employment in such work, or may even
issue special rules for the continuance of
such work at the workplace. Any such
special instructions shall be communicated
to the employer in writing. The employer
may require the chief industrial inspection
authority to prove the necessity for such
instructions. Nevertheless, until other in-
structions are issued by the said authority,
he shall comply with the said instructions.
If the instructions are altered or cancelled,
the chief industrial authority shall notify
the employer thereof in writing. The
medical practitioner shall make a report to
the chief industrial inspection authority
respecting the examination. IV. § 4 of the
Act lays down that the instructions drawn
up by the chief industrial inspection author-
ity for the prevention of illness as a result
of the use of lead colours in painting work
shall be distributed by the employer to
every worker whom he employs in work in
which such colours are used. In accord-
ance with this provision instructions were
issued by the Royal Department of Labour
and Social Welfare on 1 July 1926.

ARTICLE 6.

The competent authority shall take such steps
as it considers necessary to ensure the observance
of the regulations prescribed by virtue of the
foregoing Articles, after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned.

Please give a summary of any steps which may have been taken in pursuance of this Article, stating in what manner the employers' and workers' organisations concerned were consulted.

Austria. — The report states that the observance of the provisions of this Article is ensured by the supervision of the factory inspectors. In addition, § 11 (3) of the Order of 8 March 1923 provides that in every undertaking a particular person familiar with the risks involved in work with poisonous substances must supervise the observance of the prescribed precautions.

Belgium. — The Government states in its report that all the regulation measures were considered by a joint committee upon which the employers' and workers' organisations were represented by their delegates. Industries subject to regulation are regularly inspected by the industrial medical officers.

Bulgaria. — The report states that the provisions concerning the prohibition of white lead, especially in painting, are applied without consultation with employers' and workers' organisations, as such organisations do not exist in Bulgaria.

Czechoslovakia. — The report states that "since the competent factory inspection authorities in Czechoslovakia have received no complaints since the Convention came into force from any workers' organisations as regards the enforcement of preventive measures against lead poisoning it has not up to the present been thought necessary to issue the special regulations contemplated by this Article of the Convention."

Estonia. — § 7 of the Act of 25 May 1928 provides for fines up to 300 crowns in case of infractions of the provisions of this Act and of the Regulations issued under the Act.

France. — The Factory Inspection Service was instructed by circular to request the employers' organisations concerned to assist in securing the strict observance of the provisions prohibiting the use of white lead in the painting of buildings, and this request was complied with by numerous organisations. Since the promulgation of the Act of 31 January 1926 extending the prohibition to sulphate of lead, the Factory Inspection Service has been instructed to seek the assistance of the employers in applying this Act.

Greece. — § 4 of the Royal Decree of 17 December 1921 provides that industrial undertakings where the use of compounds of lead oxides in colours, paste, or any other form is allowed in specific cases and under specified conditions shall on application be granted a permit by the labour inspection service or, in default of a labour inspection official or overseer, by the competent police authority. By § 11, colour dealers may supply white lead, red lead, litharge and their compounds only to persons in possession of such a permit; and § 12 provides that employers and all persons carrying out painting work, either by way of trade or occasionally, may use the compounds in question only in virtue of such a permit. The report adds that these measures were taken after consultation with the organisations concerned. The same consultation will be made, when necessary, by convoking the administrations of the most important corporations of employers and working painters, and those of similar occupations.

Poland. — In the preparation of the Act of 30 June 1927, the competent authority consulted the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, which accepted the basic principles of this Act. The orders which will be issued in the future for regulating the application of the Act will be submitted in advance to the Council for the Protection of Labour. This Council is composed of 45 members, of whom 30, representing in equal number employers' and workers' organisations, are chosen from the lists of candidates submitted by these organisations. The Council, two committees of which are concerned with questions of safety and hygiene, consists also of medical practitioners and technical experts on this question. With a view to ensuring the application of the Act of 30 June 1927, §§ 8 and 9 provide for penal sanctions extending to the confiscation of the products and the materials.

Spain. — According to the report, a Royal Order of 5 December 1928 instructed the Labour Council for Workers to undertake an enquiry — to be completed within three months — with a view to the preparation of regulations for application, provided for in the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926. The Order recommends that "the Joint Committees and the Employers' and Workers' Associations in the industries concerned should give their advice... with regard to the means of ensuring the application of the Regulations."

Sweden. — The report states that it has not been necessary to take any special measures other than those mentioned under other Articles to apply the provisions of the Convention.

ARTICLE 7.

Statistics with regard to lead poisoning among working painters shall be obtained in the following manner:

(a) As to morbidity — by notification and certification of all cases of lead poisoning.

(b) As to mortality — by a method approved by the official statistical authority in each country.

Please give any statistics with regard to lead poisoning among working painters which may have been obtained, describing the statistical methods adopted.
Austria. (a). The report states that, with a view to establishing the statistics relating to lead poisoning among working painters, the political authorities of first instance have been instructed to report to the Minister of Social Affairs (Health and Hygiene Statistics Department) all cases of illness of this kind in the prescribed form. (b). The medical officers under the political authorities of first instance, who are responsible for making quarterly reports giving statistical information regarding hygiene, have been instructed to note, basing themselves on the extracts from the registers with which they are furnished every three months, cases of death due to lead poisoning among painters, varnishers and decorators, and to make a report, without delay, to the Minister of Social Affairs (Public Health Office) giving all particulars contained in the extracts from the registers (list of deaths) relating to the person of the deceased (date and place of death, sex, family situation, profession, nature of occupation, date of birth, and age). Statistics relating to lead poisoning and deaths due to such poisoning are prepared by the Statistical Service for Health and Hygiene of the Ministry of Social Affairs. A statistical report for the year 1928 mentions one case of death due to lead poisoning and 31 notifications of lead poisoning. Of these 31 cases, 24 cases were cases of chronic lead poisoning among persons engaged in painting, varnishing and decorating works. All the persons affected were of the male sex and were assistants or auxiliary workers.

Belgium. — The report states that the Act of 24 July 1927 concerning workmen’s compensation for occupational diseases fulfils this requirement of the Convention.

Bulgaria. — The report states that statistical information with regard to cases of lead poisoning is available. But the data so far collected are insignificant. In the course of the year 1928, an outbreak of lead poisoning amongst certain workers in a lead mine was reported. Steps were taken for the suppression of the causes of the disease.

Czechoslovakia. — § 10 of the Act of 12 June 1924 prescribes that official statistical record shall be kept of the cases of lead poisoning observed and of the amount of sickness and mortality among workers employed where lead or substances containing lead are used. The report adds that more detailed provisions concerning the keeping of these statistics will be contained in the Government Order which will be promulgated under § 10 of the Act. § 10 of the Act is, however, partly applied at present, since the Ministry of Social Welfare prepares statistics of morbidity and mortality from the reports which are submitted to it by the administrative authorities of second instance.

Estonia. — The Act of 25 May 1928 provides, in § 5, that doctors are required to notify to the Directorate for Assistance and Public Health cases of illness or death due to lead poisoning among working painters. The model for the notifications and the method of establishing the statistics relating to cases of lead poisoning in painting works will be approved by the Directorate for Assistance and Public Health, in agreement with the Central Statistical Office. The report adds that no statistics are so far available, as the Act came into force quite recently.

France. — The report states that the authorities have two sources of information for compiling statistics of lead poisoning among working painters. On the one hand, § 5 of the Act of 25 October 1919 provides that a worker who claims compensation under the Act must notify the mayor of the commune, who must forward a copy of the notification to the departmental factory inspector or to the responsible mining engineer. On the other hand, § 12 of the same Act provides that medical practitioners or health officers must notify all cases of occupational diseases diagnosed by them. In 1926, the total number of cases of lead poisoning reported was 1,506, of which 38 or 2.5 per cent. were working painters. The report adds that a number of these cases should, no doubt, be attributed to minium (red lead).

Greece. — The report states that the provisions of this Article will be fully applied by the new Act respecting workmen’s compensation for occupational diseases.

Poland. — The notification of cases of lead poisoning is provided for by § 7 of the Act of 30 June 1927, and by §§ 1, 5, 6 and 7 of the Decree of 22 August 1927.

Spain. — § 8 of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 provides that such statistics shall be compiled and that the health inspectors are to communicate the relevant data to the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry.

Sweden. — Provisions relating to notification of cases of lead poisoning are contained in § 5 of the Act of 19 February 1926. The report states that no cases of poisoning of this kind were reported in 1928.

III.

Article 12 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.
In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention. Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article. Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The Government states that the provisions of this Convention do not apply to the Belgian Congo nor to the mandated territories, since local conditions do not allow it.

France. — The Government states that, owing to local conditions, it has not been possible to apply the Convention in all French overseas possessions. In Algeria, the prohibition of the use of white lead in the painting of buildings was made applicable by a Decree of 21 March 1913.

Spain. — The report for 1926 stated that the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 did not contain any exceptions applicable to territories subject to the sovereignty of Spain.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Austria. — 20 July 1924.
Belgium. — 22 October 1926.
Bulgaria. — See the introductory note above.
Czechoslovakia. — 15 April 1924.
France. — 19 February 1926.
Greece. — 22 December 1926.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Spain. — See the introductory note above.
Sweden. — 1 July 1926.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Austria. — The application of penalties inflicted for breaches of the Order of 8 March 1923 is the duty of the general State administrative authorities. The supervision of the application of the Order is entrusted to the factory inspectors, who visit industrial undertakings for the purpose.

Belgium. — The application of the Act and the supervision of its enforcement are entrusted to the officers of the Industrial Medical Service.

Bulgaria. — The application of the Health and Safety of Workers Act is entrusted to the labour inspectors and the medical officers of the factories appointed in accordance with §§ 22 and 24 of the Act of 1917.

Czechoslovakia. — The factory inspectors and the district and communal medical officers are entrusted with the supervision of the Act of 12 June 1924.

Estonia. — The supervision of the application of the Act of 25 May 1928 is entrusted to the Labour Inspectorate.

France. — The application of the relevant legislation and regulations is entrusted to the Factory Inspection Service, which is under the direct and exclusive control of the Minister of Labour.

Greece. — The application of the legislation and regulations concerned is entrusted to the factory inspectors.

Poland. — The Ministers of Labour and Social Welfare, of the Interior, of Industry and Commerce, of Finance, and of Justice are competent to make regulations regarding the use of white lead. Immediate supervision is entrusted to the factory inspectors and the district medical officers.

Spain. — The supervision of the application of the provisions of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 falls to the labour inspectorate.

Sweden. — The supervision of the enforcement of the relevant legislation is within the special province of the Royal Department of Labour and Social Welfare and of the factory inspectorate.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and
nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Austria. — The report states that owing to the lack of statistics on the subject, information cannot be given respecting the number of workers protected by legislation and the number of offences reported. See also under ARTICLE 7.

Belgium. — The report states that the working of the Act and regulations has up to now caused no difficulty in application and has resulted in a marked decrease in the use of white lead. A statement by the competent service published in the Bulletin of the Labour Medical Service, and communicated by the Belgian Government with the annual report, contains an examination of the results of the application of the Act of 30 March 1926 during the year ended 30 September 1927. This statement records for this year a diminution of 50 to 60 per cent. in the sale of white lead compared with the previous year. It adds that the proper application of the regulations is well observed, that the supervision with regard to the sale of white lead works regularly, and that infractions are rare, almost nil, and finally that the supervision of the employment of white lead must be strengthened.

Czechoslovakia. — The Ministry of Social Welfare remarks that it will be able to supply the International Labour Office with detailed information concerning the experience gained in Czechoslovakia by the application of the Convention on the basis of the legislation in force, the supervision of which is within the special competence of the factory inspectorate, when the report of the Czechoslovak factory inspectorate for 1928 has been published.

France. — Statistics of the contraventions reported, both as regards the prohibition to use white lead in painting buildings and the regulation of the use of white lead, are given in the report. In 1927, no contraventions were reported.

Poland. — The report states that, in promulgating the Act of 30 June 1927, the Government enlarged its scope with reference to the provisions of the Convention. In particular, a provision has been introduced in it for prohibiting the establishing of white lead factories and the importation of this product without special authorisation. In granting these authorisations, the actual needs of the undertaking in question, as well as its technical installation from the point of view of safety and hygiene, are taken into consideration.

Spain. — See the introductory note above.

Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

This Convention first came into force on 19 June 1923. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

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<td>Spain</td>
<td>20. 6. 1924</td>
<td>8. 3. 1929</td>
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</table>

The report of the Government of Chile has not yet been received.

The report of the Government of India states that the application of the weekly rest day on railways has in some cases led to certain practical difficulties. For instance, on one railway, where, under the existing arrangement, station staff are employed on work for eight hours a day throughout the week, an arrangement to allow a day for rest once a week by increasing the hours on other days, without raising the total hours beyond sixty in the week, was objected to by the staff. On another railway, gangmen employed on the permanent way objected to a weekly day of rest which was to be substituted for two days' leave every fortnight now given to them to go to their homes. The whole question is still under examination by the Railway Board, in consultation with the Railway administrations.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention.
Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.

Czechoslovakia.
Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the eight-hour working day (L.S. 1919, Cz. 1-3).
Order of 11 January 1919 in pursuance of the Act respecting the eight-hour day (L.S. 1919, Cz. 1-5).
Austrian Order of 12 September 1912 completing and partially amending the Order in pursuance of the Act relating to the regulation of the Sunday rest and of holidays (L.S. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 1).
Legislative Article No. XIII of 1891.

Estonia.
Act of 17 December 1925 concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings (L.S. 1925, Est. 4).
Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 23 October 1926 relating to the granting of rest periods and compensation to persons employed on work which may be performed on Sundays and holidays in virtue of § 4 of the Act of 17 December 1925 (L.S. 1926, Est. 2).

Finland.
Act of 27 November 1917 respecting the eight-hour working day, as amended by the Act of 14 August 1918 (B.B. Vol. XIII, 1918, pp. 36 and 39).
Order of 1 June 1923 bringing the Convention into force in Finland.
Resolution of the Council of State of 22 December 1927 respecting special exceptions to the Act of 27 November 1917 respecting the eight-hour working day (L.S. 1927, Fin. 3).
Resolution of the Council of State of 21 December 1927 respecting hours of work in continuous undertakings (L.S. 1927, Fin. 3).
Factory Inspection Act of 4 March 1927. (L.S. 1927, Fin. 1.)

France.
Decree of 14 August 1907 completing the schedule of establishments permitted to give weekly rest by rotation (B.B. Vol. III, 1908, p. 69).
Decree of 31 August 1910 determining relaxations of the general regulations for the weekly rest as regards special workers employed in works where continuous furnaces are used (B.B. Vol. VI, 1911, p. 166).
Decree of 29 April 1913 determining the schedule of establishments in which the weekly rest of women and children may be suspended in virtue of §§ 45, 46 and 47 of Book II of the Labour Code (B.B. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 290).

India.
Indian Factories Act of 1911 as subsequently amended (L.S. 1926, Ind. 2).
Indian Mines Act of 1923 (L.S. 1923, Ind. 3).

Italy.
Act of 7 July 1907 relating to weekly rest and holidays (B.B. Vol. II, 1907, p. 258).
Royal Legislative Decree of 22 July 1923 containing service regulations for the staff of the State railways (L.S. 1923, It. 8).
Royal Legislative Decree of 19 October 1923 containing regulations concerning the drawing up of working lists and shift time-tables for the staff employed in public transport services worked under a concession (L.S. 1923, It. 8), as amended by the Royal Legislative Decree of 2 December 1923 (L.S. 1923, It. 8).
Royal Decree of 31 December 1924 approving regulations for the administration of the Royal Decree of 20 December 1923 respecting conditions of service and wages of wage-earning employees in State Departments.

Latvia.
Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work (L.S. 1922, Lat. 1).

Poland.
Act of 18 December 1919 relating to hours of work in industry and commerce (L.S. 1920, Pol. 1).
Decree of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 10 December 1921 respecting work at night and on Sundays and holidays in preparatory processes in the bakery trade (L.S. 1921, Pol. 5-8).
Decree of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce, of 16 March 1925, respecting the hours of work of tramway workers.
Order of the President of the Republic of 15 November 1924 concerning public holidays (L.S. 1924, Pol. 1), amended by the Act of 18 March 1925.
Provisions relating to rest days in the Russian Labour Act (Book II, Part I, Chapter IV, § 103), the Austrian Industrial Code (§ 88 a), the German Industrial Code (§§ 134 and 154 6). Decree of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927 relating to industrial law.
Decree of the President of the Republic of 16 March 1928 concerning workers' contract of engagement.

Rumania.
Act of 18 June 1925 respecting the Sunday rest and legal holidays (L.S. 1925, Rum. 2).
Regulations of 24 June 1925 issued in application of the Act of 18 June 1925.
Ministerial decisions of 4 July 1925, 2 December 1925, 1 February 1928, 4 and 15 March 1928, 21 April 1928, 4 August 1928, 29 September 1928 and 22 December 1928.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.
Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922 (L. S. 1922, S. C. S. 1).
Regulations of 25 October 1921 concerning measures for hygiene and safety in undertakings (L. S. 1921, Part II, S. C. S. 3).
Spain.

Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 prohibiting Sunday work (L.S. 1925, Sp. 3).

Regulations of 17 December 1926 in application of the Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925.

Royal Orders issued under the Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

**ARTICLE 1.**

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "industrial undertakings" includes:

(a) Mines, quarries, and other works for the extraction of minerals from the earth.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, cleaned, repaired, ornamented, finished, adapted for sale, broken up or demolished, or in which materials are transformed; including shipbuilding and the generation, transformation and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind.

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland waterway, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, water, work, or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for or laying the foundation of any such work or structure.

(d) Transport of passengers or goods by road, rail, or inland waterway, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves or warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

This definition shall be subject to the special national exceptions contained in the Washington Convention limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week, so far as such exceptions are applicable to the present Convention.

Where necessary, in addition to the above enumeration, each Member may define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

In addition, please state what decisions, if any, have been taken in regard to the last paragraph of Article 1.

**Belgium.** — The Sunday Rest Act applies to industrial and commercial undertakings, with the exception of water transport undertakings, fishing undertakings, and showmen's and kindred undertakings; it does not apply to agriculture. The report states that it has, therefore, been unnecessary to define the line of division which separates industry from commerce.

**Bulgaria.** — The Health and Safety of Workers Act, 1917, under which the Convention is applied, covers "all industrial undertakings, workshops, commercial undertakings, building undertakings and transport undertakings in the Kingdom" (§ 1). It has not been necessary to define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

**Czechoslovakia.** — The Convention is applied by the Act respecting the eight-hour day of 19 December 1918 which applies to undertakings subject to the Industrial Code or carried on as factories, to undertakings, works and institutions carried on by the State, by public or private associations, to funds, societies and companies, to mining undertakings and to persons employed for wages in agriculture and forestry who live outside the household of the employer (§ 1 of the Act), and by the Sunday Rest Act of 16 January 1895 which also applies to commerce. It has not been necessary to define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

**Estonia.** — The Act of 17 December 1925 concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings covers the undertakings and occupations enumerated in Article 1 of the Convention; it includes also transport by sea and does not exclude transport by hand. Commerce and agriculture are not included in the scope of the Act, and the report states that there is no necessity for a nearer definition of the line of division separating them from industry.

**Finland.** — By § 1 the Act of 27 November 1917 respecting the eight-hour working day, as amended by the Act of 14 August 1918, applies to: "(1) the undermentioned trades and undertakings in so far as persons other than the owner's husband, wife or own children are employed in them: (a) handicrafts and factory work as well as other industrial occupations; (b) building, repair and upkeep of buildings, docks, railways, bridges, and other means of communication; (c) work in connection with salvage and diving; (d) baths and bathing establishments; (e) work in connection with clearing, cleansing, draining and scavenging; (f) wood-felling and cutting; (g) raftmaking and lumbering; (h) loading and unloading of merchandise; (i) commercial, office or warehouse work; (k) inns, hotels and cafes; as well as (l) industries and undertakings which are similar to the above; and (2) the undermentioned industries and establishments in so far as employees and workers are employed in them: (a) railway and street traffic, postal, customs and telephonic services and canals; (b) automobile traffic and jobbing; (c) hospitals and prisons; and (d) industries and establishments similar to the above." It is further specified in § 1 that the Act is to apply to industries or undertakings carried on by the State, municipalities, parish councils, associations or institutions. The Eight-Hour Day Act does not apply to "domestic work or
agriculture and accessory industries, or to work directly connected with agriculture." The weekly rest in commercial establishments is covered by the Act of 24 October 1919 and the amendments thereof, respecting conditions of employment in shops and commercial establishments, offices and warehouses (L. S. 1920, Fin. 2; 1921, Fin. 1; and 1922, Fin. 4). No special measures have been taken to define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

France. — By § 30 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, the weekly rest provisions apply to employees and workers employed in an industrial or commercial undertaking, whatever its nature, whether public or private, lay or religious, or even if it exists for purposes of vocational instruction or of philanthropy. An exception is made for water transport undertakings and railways, in which the rest periods are regulated by special provisions, but this exception comes within the category of exceptions already made under existing legislation which is referred to in Article 4 of the Convention. The report further states that the question of defining the line of division which separates industry from commerce does not arise as regards the application of the weekly rest in France, as French legislation on the subject applies to both commercial and industrial undertakings.

India. — The definition of "industrial undertakings" given in Article 1 of the Convention is subject to the special national exceptions contained in the Washington Hours Convention, in so far as such exceptions are applicable. In the case of India, these special exceptions are contained in Article 10 of the Hours Convention, which limits the field of application provisionally to "workers in the industries at present covered by the factory acts administered by the Government of India, in mines, and in such branches of railway work as shall be specified for this purpose by the competent authority." The definitions of factories and mines¹ are contained in the Indian Factories Act and the Mines Act. The report states that the weekly rest day is observed by railway administrations for practically all classes of employees except train staff, certain men working stations and yards, those engaged in light intermittent duties such as gatemen and men employed on maintenance of ways and bridges, but in all these cases periods of rest are arranged which, although not strictly in accordance with Article 2 of the Convention, approximate to the principle involved. (See also introductory note).

Italy. — The Act of 7 July 1907 relating to weekly and holiday rest applies in virtue of § 1 to all industrial and commercial establishments with the exception of (1) navigation, whether at sea or on a lake or river; (2) agriculture, hunting and fishing; (3) public railways and tramways which are licensed by the State or otherwise authorised; (4) public services and industrial undertakings carried on by the State. The provisions regulating the weekly rest of the staff of the State railways are contained in the Legislative Decree of 22 July 1923, of the staff employed in public transport services (railways, tramways with mechanical traction, inland navigation services) worked under a concession, in the Legislative Decree of 19 October 1923 amended by the Legislative Decree of 2 December 1923, and of the staff employed in State services, in the Legislative Decree of 2 December 1924 approving the administrative regulations issued in application of the Royal Decree of 30 December 1923 respecting conditions of service and wages of wage-earning employees in State Departments. The report states that no definite line of division separating industry from commerce and agriculture has been laid down, because in the first place the provisions relating to weekly rest concern both industrial and commercial undertakings, and in the second place because these are provisions which have been in force for some time, and therefore give rise to no difficulties of interpretation with regard to the exclusion of agriculture from their scope.

Latvia. — The Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work applies to all private, municipal, public and State undertakings and establishments. The report states that "it was not necessary to lay down the line of division between industry and commerce because the Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work applies equally to industry and to commerce. It was also not necessary to define in the form of general provisions the line of division between industry and agriculture, as no misunderstanding had arisen on this question."

Poland. — The Act of 18 December 1919 relating to hours of work in industry and commerce covers all persons employed under a contract of work in industrial and commercial establishments, mines, communication and transport undertakings and any other industrial establishments of whatever kind, whether public or private, even those not carried on for purposes of gain. The report states that the line of division which separates industry from agriculture is laid down in the Decree of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927, § 1 of which provides that agriculture, horticulture and forestry are not to be deemed to be industry and are

¹ See above under Hours Convention, Article 10.
excluded from the application of the Decree. This provision is amplified by the rule that distilleries, saw-mills, etc. are to be deemed to be industrial undertakings, except in the case of small undertakings producing exclusively for the needs of the agricultural undertakings of which they form part.

Rumania. — The Act of 18 June 1925 respecting the Sunday rest and legal holidays applies to all industrial and commercial undertakings and branches thereof, and to all other undertakings in which persons are employed for wages. No decision has been taken with regard to the division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovënes. — Under § 1 of the Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922, the Act applies to all undertakings (establishments) carrying on handicrafts, industry, commerce, transport, mining, and similar activities in which workers are employed, irrespective of whether they belong to private individuals or public bodies, whether they are carried on permanently or temporarily, whether they are principal undertakings or subsidiary businesses carried on in connection with other undertakings or whether they are carried on as entirely independent undertakings or form parts of undertakings in agriculture or forestry.

Spain. — § 1 of the Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 prohibiting Sunday work provides that the Decree applies to all persons working for others (i.e. under the direction of other persons and without other profit than the daily wage or remuneration), or on their own account provided that such work is performed publicly (i.e. on the public highway or such place that the performance on the work can be observed from the public highway), in factories, workshops, warehouses, shops, stationary or itinerant commercial undertakings, newspaper and banking undertakings and offices, mines, quarries, harbours, transportation, public works, constructional, repairing and demolition work, undertakings in agriculture and forestry, State, provincial and communal establishments and services, and any other occupations analogous to those enumerated. It has not been necessary to define the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture.

**ARTICLE 2.**

The whole of the staff employed in any industrial undertaking, public or private, or in any branch thereof shall, except as otherwise provided for by the following Articles, enjoy in every period of seven days a period of rest comprising at least twenty-four consecutive hours. This period of rest shall, wherever possible, be granted simultaneously to the whole of the staff of each undertaking.

It shall, wherever possible, be fixed so as to coincide with the traditions or customs of the country or district.

Belgium. — § 2 of the Act of 17 July 1905, as amended, provides that employers covered by the Act may not cause to work on Sunday in their undertakings any persons other than the members of their family who are living in their house and are related to them up to and including the third degree of consanguinity.

Bulgaria. — § 20 of the Health and Safety of Workers Act, 1917, provides that "every worker shall have the right in the course of every week to a period of 36 hours uninterrupted rest, which in industrial and building undertakings shall begin at five o'clock in the afternoon, and in the case of handicrafts at six o'clock in the afternoon. This period of rest must be allowed to all workers at the same time; it may be granted with an interruption or in rotation only in the cases provided for in the Act concerning holidays and Sunday rest. In the institutions and undertakings coming under the present Act the Minister for Commerce, Industry and Labour may allow Sunday work also when important needs of the State so require." § 1 of the Act, respecting holidays and Sunday rest, of 1911 includes Sundays amongst the holidays on which, in accordance with § 4 of the same Act, private industrial and commercial undertakings and public offices must, except as otherwise provided, remain closed. Exceptions are provided in § 6 of the Act for the handling of perishable goods at river and sea ports, and railway stations, and for undertakings in which work may not be interrupted for technical reasons or to prevent deterioration of the materials. In these cases at least 52 days' rest in the year must be provided in such manner that one day's rest falls every week.

Czecho-Slovakia. — § 4 of the Eight-Hour Day Act stipulates that the worker must be allowed in every week an uninterrupted period of rest of at least thirty-two hours. In undertakings in which the processes can technically be interrupted without difficulty, this period of rest must as a rule fall on Sundays, except in so far as exceptions are laid down by the Austrian Act relating to Sunday rest, which is still in force. Further exceptions may be allowed in such continuous undertakings, where it would not otherwise be possible to alternate the shifts and the work cannot be interrupted for technical reasons, as are specified by the Minister for Social Welfare in agreement with the other Ministers concerned, provided that the thirty-two hours period of rest of each worker falls on Sunday at least every third week and that the exceptions, provided for in § 2 of the Order of 11 January 1919, only apply to the processes specified in the Austrian Order of 12 September.
1912. In the case of women employed in factories, it is provided in § 5 that the weekly rest of thirty-two hours must begin not later than 2 p.m. on Saturdays, except in such undertakings, where the employment of women is essential to the undisturbed progress of the undertaking, as are specified by the Minister of Social Welfare in agreement with the other Ministers concerned (§ 3 of the Order of 11 January 1919). Provisions relating to the granting of the weekly rest simultaneously to the whole of the staff are contained in the Act of 16 January 1893 as amended by the Act of 18 July 1905, and in the Legislative Article No. XIII of 1891.

Estonia. — § 3 of the Act of 17 December 1925 concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, which covers all the workers and employees in an undertaking, provides that “in any industrial undertaking, public or private, except those in which only the members of one single family are employed, the workers shall be free from work on Sundays for a minimum period of thirty-six consecutive hours and on legal public holidays for a minimum period of twenty-four consecutive hours.”

Finland. — § 5 of the Eight-Hour Day Act provides that “on Sundays workers shall be granted an uninterrupted holiday of at least thirty hours. If this is not possible a corresponding rest shall be granted during the week.”

France. — § 81 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare provides that no employee or worker may be employed for more than six days a week in the undertakings mentioned in § 30. This prohibition covers apprentices (§ 54). By § 32 the weekly rest must be of at least twenty-four consecutive hours, and § 33 provides that the weekly rest is to be granted on Sunday. The weekly rest is normally granted simultaneously to the whole of the staff, and exceptions are either expressly provided for in the Code and the Decrees issued pursuant thereto, or are subject to authorisation by the prefect.

India. — § 22 of the Factories Act provides that “no person shall be employed in any factory on a Sunday unless (a) he has had, or will have, a holiday for a whole day on one of the three days immediately preceding or succeeding the Sunday, and (b) the management of the factory has previous to the Sunday or the substituted day, whichever is the earlier, given notice to the inspector and... affixed a notice to the same effect. Provided that no such substitution shall be made as will result in any person working for more than ten consecutive days without a holiday for a whole day.” For mines § 23 of the Indian Mines Act limits employment to six days in the week, it being permissible to select any day in the week as the day of rest.

Italy. — § 1 of the Act of 7 July 1907 relating to weekly and holiday rest lays down that every person who is in any way engaged in the undertakings coming under the Act must be allowed a period of rest of not less than twenty-four consecutive hours in every week. Normally, this period of rest must be given on the Sunday. § 3 of the Legislative Decree of 22 July 1923, containing service regulations for the staff of the State railways, lays down that employees shall be granted a weekly rest period, which, as a rule, shall not be less than twenty-four hours, in addition to the interrupted rest period of nine hours granted between each spell of work. By preference the weekly rest periods must be granted on Sundays, as far as is compatible with the requirements of the service. The special provisions of this Decree provide that in the case of locomotive and train staff (drivers, firemen, electric train staff, head guards, senior guards, guards and brakesmen on train duty) the weekly rest period of the staff shall be not less than thirty-six hours (§ 6 (5)). For the permanent-way staff the weekly rest period must as a rule be granted on Sunday, on which day one permanent-way examiner alone is to be on duty, and half of every gang to remain at home on call (§ 7 (2)). For repairing shop staff and permanent office staff the weekly rest period is given on the Sunday (§§ 8 (2) and 9 (2)). The Legislative Decree of 19 October 1923, amended by the Legislative Decree of 2 December 1923, applicable to staff employed in public transport services working under a concession lays down that the workers covered are entitled to fifty-two rest periods of twenty-four hours in the year, without prejudice to their regular annual leave (§§ 16, 21, 26, 31 and 34). The Royal Decree of 31 December 1924, approving the administrative regulations issued in application of the Royal Decree of 30 December 1923 respecting conditions of service and wages of wage-earning employees in State Departments provides that the wage-earners covered are entitled to a weekly rest day, which must, as a general rule, be given on Sunday. From this rule are excepted: (a) foremen, supervisors and similar workers, overseers and workers entrusted with supervision; (b) workers in general, whose services consist of watching or the performance of intermittent work, employed on even outside the normal time-table and during the night, e.g. caretakers, concierges, keepers, turncocks, labourers, seamen attached to wharves and other workmen to be specified in the regulations dealing with them.
Lithuania. — § 3 of the Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work lays down that "the normal Sunday rest shall consist of not less than forty-two consecutive hours a week. \textit{Note} 1. — In all undertakings and establishments where work is carried on continuously with alternating shifts, a Sunday rest of not less than forty hours shall be granted. \textit{Note} 2. — If non-manual or manual workers cannot have their weekly rest on Sunday for technical reasons connected with their work, this rest shall be granted to them on another day of the week."

Poland. — § 10 of the Act of 18 December 1921 prohibits work on Sundays and statutory public holidays in establishments to which the Act applies, except in the cases specified in §§ 6 and 11 (see under \textit{Article} 6). A Decree of 16 March 1925 respecting the hours of work of tramway workers replaces the provisions of the Act of 18 December 1919 as regards these workers by a system whereby they work a maximum of 184 hours over a period of four weeks, or an average of 46 hours a week. No worker may, however, work in any case more than ten-and-a-half hours a day.

Rumania. — § 1 of the Act of 18 June 1925 provides for a period of rest of twenty-four hours every Sunday, during which the undertakings covered by the Act must remain closed. The rest period may begin at any time up to 6 a.m. on Sunday, terminating at the same time on the following day; in the case of newspaper printing offices, the rest period may begin at 10 a.m. Exceptions are provided by § 7 in the case of the following undertakings which may remain open all day or part of the day on Sundays: "... (f) undertakings for lighting, and distribution of water, gas or motive power, transport by land and water, loading and unloading of goods which may not be delayed; (k) industries in which the raw materials used in the process of manufacture may deteriorate if the process were interrupted for twenty-four hours..." § 8 provides that the Ministry of Labour, in agreement with the Permanent Labour Committee, shall issue regulations in application of the Act containing a list of the industrial and commercial undertakings to which the exceptions provided for in §§ 7 and 11 apply; the Ministry may also, in agreement with the Chamber of Labour, suppress or limit, generally or for specified regions or localities, some of the exceptions provided for in these sections. § 9 lays down that, in the undertakings benefiting by these exceptions, the workers shall have the right to a day's rest on another day of the week; by § 10 the day's rest must fall on Sunday at least once in every month. § 11 provides that in undertakings working continuously, or such in which the normal working would be prejudiced if the weekly rest were granted to the whole of the staff simultaneously, the weekly rest may be granted, all the year round or for a specified period, to the staff employed on the legal rest days on another day of the week or may be made to commence at 12 noon and terminate at 12 noon on the following day. According to § 10 these exceptions shall not apply to women or to young persons under sixteen years of age.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovaks. — § 11 of the Act of 28 February 1922 prohibits all work on Sundays. By way of exception to this provision, the Minister of Social Affairs may fix another rest day for a particular undertaking or establishment if three-fourths of the employees of the undertaking in question demand the same. On these days an uninterrupted rest period of not less than thirty-six hours must be ensured to the employees for a single holiday, and not less than sixty hours for two consecutive holidays. As regards other holidays, the question as to whether work shall begin and when it shall not be done, and the period during which all work shall cease on such days, is reserved for settlement by free agreement between employers and employees.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 8 June 1925 prohibits "manual work" (\textit{trabajo material}), defined in the Regulations of 17 December 1926 as "every kind of human activity involving the exercise of the physical powers", in the occupations covered by the Decree, on Sunday, which is defined in § 2 as the period from twelve o'clock midnight on Saturday to twelve o'clock midnight on the following day. "Nevertheless, if in certain industries, owing to their special necessities, the rest period cannot be arranged as above without serious prejudice to the industry, a different arrangement for the rest period may be allowed, provided that the duration thereof is not substantially different. The cases in which a different arrangement is allowed shall be decided by the Government after hearing the Labour Council." § 4 provides that the prohibition of Sunday work shall not apply, \textit{inter alia}, to work in connection with workers' organisations and distributive co-operative societies which sell goods to their own members only, and to workshops for training purposes connected with schools of arts and crafts and any similar work; whilst § 5 provides that the prohibition shall not apply (1) to processes which, by reason of their nature, cannot be interrupted on technical grounds or without seriously prejudicing the public interest or that of the industry concerned; (2) to repair and cleaning work which is required to be done in industrial undertakings in order to prevent interruptions.
Tendered indispensable by impending dispositions which are not of a recurring nature, the number of workers employed on Sundays may apply to women or to young groups of workers, the number of which is strictly necessary, that the rest period shall be granted within seven days of the Sunday on which work is performed without regard to the number of hours worked, and that this rest period shall be granted simultaneously to all the workers who have worked on Sunday in the same undertaking or, if this is impossible owing to the nature of the work, that the rest period shall be granted in rotation to groups of workers, the number of which groups to be as few as possible. § 8 provides that no exceptions to the Sunday rest may apply to women or to young persons under eighteen years of age. These provisions are amplified by the Regulations of 17 December 1926 issued in application of the Royal Legislative Decree. §§ 7 to 11 of the Regulations provide that the following industries and processes, among others, shall be excepted from the Sunday work prohibition in virtue of § 5 of the Decree: railways, tramways and public carriages and indispensable repairs thereto, telephones and indispensable repairs thereto, gas and electricity works, bakeries, manufacture of pastry, confectionery, etc. (until 11 a.m.), forwarding, loading and unloading of goods, treatment of perishable raw materials, industries requiring continuous attention for periods exceeding twenty-four hours, industries using motive power worked directly or indirectly by water, industries which by the nature of the processes to which the raw material is subjected require to work for periods exceeding twenty-four hours, indispensable preparatory work which must be done on the preceding day, work affecting the safety of workers and plant, maintenance, cleaning and repair work in mines, urgent demolition and repair work, seasonal industries. § 46 of the Regulations lays down that, by way of exception to § 6 of the Decree, where it is absolutely necessary to employ on Sunday more than half the workers ordinarily employed, the provision that the same workers may not be employed the whole day on two consecutive Sundays shall not apply. According to § 47, the question as to which workers it is strictly necessary to employ on Sundays, and the hours during which work is indispensable, is to be settled by agreements between employers and workers, made in accordance with § 9 of the Decree and §§ 51-59 of the Regulations. The prohibition to employ women and young persons under eighteen years of age on Sundays may, in virtue of § 48, be raised in certain cases on the application of any one of the parties concerned. § 49 provides that all exceptions to the Sunday work prohibition shall be subject to the provisions of § 6 of the Decree relating to the weekly rest; this section further provides that where the employment on Sunday does not exceed a maximum of four hours, the workers concerned shall have a right to four consecutive hours' rest on another day of the week, whether the Sunday work was actually of four hours' duration or not.

**Article 3.**

Each Member may except from the application of the provisions of Article 2 persons employed in industrial undertakings in which only the members of one single family are employed.

**Belgium.** — This exception is made in § 2 of the Sunday Rest Act (see Article 2).

**Bulgaria.** — The report states that no exceptions have been made under this Article.

**Czechoslovakia.** — No reference is made to this provision in the legislation concerning the Convention, except that § 8 (5) of the Sunday Rest Act provides that the prohibition to work on Sunday does not apply to the personal work of the employer in so far as it is carried on without assistance and in private.

**Estonia.** — § 3 of the Act of 17 December 1925 concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings excludes undertakings in which only the members of the same family are employed.

**Finland.** — The Eight-Hour Day Act does not cover the work of the owner's husband, wife, or own children.

**France.** — The exception for undertakings in which only members of the family are employed under the authority of the father, the mother, or the guardian is provided for in §§ 1 and 65 of Book II of the Labour Code. This exception is not specifically mentioned in the provisions relating to the weekly rest, but is applied thereto by the jurisprudence of the Court of Cassation.

**India.** — The application of this Article does not arise (see under Article 1).

**Italy.** — § 1 of the Act of 7 July 1907 contains a similar provision to that contained in the Convention.
La Práctica de la Agua, la Iluminación y el Mantenimiento de las Instalaciones de Agua, y la Comisión de los Trabajadores. No se ha permitido la excepción de estas obligaciones.

Poland. — The Act of 18 December 1919 and the other laws and orders concerned do not provide exceptions in the case of undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed.

Romania. — The Regulations in application of the Act of 18 June 1925 issued by Decree of 24 June 1925 provide in § 9 that the Act and Regulations are not to apply to the handworker who works on his own account, assisted by wife and children, but without other wage-earners or apprentices. Nevertheless, such handworkers are obliged to close the rooms or workshops on Sundays and the legal holidays.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — In accordance with § 1, the Act of 28 February 1922 does not apply to undertakings in which only members of one and the same family are employed.

Spain. — The Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 makes no provision for this exception.

ARTICLE 4.

Each Member may authorise total or partial exceptions (including suspensions or diminutions) from the provisions of Article 2, special regard being had to all proper humanitarian and economic considerations and after consultation with responsible associations of employers and workers, wherever such exist.

Such consultation shall not be necessary in the case of exceptions which have already been made under existing legislation.

Where advantage has been taken of the provisions of this Article, please state the methods adopted for consulting the responsible associations of employers and workers.

Belgium. — Both total and partial exceptions are provided for in the Act of 17 July 1903, as amended. As the Act is anterior to the Convention, the question of consulting the employers' and workers' organisations did not arise.

Bulgaria. — The Government reports that no exceptions have been authorised in pursuance of this Article.

Czechoslovakia. — The Eight-Hour Day Act does not permit of suspensions or diminutions of the weekly rest prescribed therein.

Estonia. — Exceptions to the general Sunday rest rule are provided for in § 4 of the Act of 17 December 1925 in the case of (a) work essential to meet the daily needs of the population (particularly for the maintenance of water supplies, lighting and communications); (b) undertakings where work of a continuous nature is carried out in processes which, for technical reasons, can neither be suspended nor delayed; (c) work of supervision, cleaning and repair (if such work is necessary to secure the normal working of the undertaking), and processes without the preliminary execution of which the undertaking cannot begin at the regular times fixed, to the extent to which such work cannot be executed on weekdays; and (d) the manufacture of products in which raw material or material in process of manufacture is used which deteriorates rapidly and which it is necessary to preserve from deterioration, to the extent to which such work cannot be executed on week days. § 6 prescribes that the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, in agreement with the other Ministers concerned, is to draw up a list of the processes mentioned in § 4 (a) an (b). The report states that the methods adopted for consulting the responsible associations of employers and workers vary according to the cases concerned: sometimes the draft Orders prepared by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare are communicated for observations to these associations, sometimes special conferences of representatives of the associations are convened.

Finland. — § 12 of the Act of 27 November 1917 provides that where for technical, seasonal or other imperative reasons it is not practicable to apply the Act, exceptions may be made for the period of one year. The exceptions granted under this section were in force at the time of the ratification of the Convention.

France. — § 30 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare entirely excepts from the weekly rest provisions water transport undertakings and railways, which are subject to special regulations. Provision is further made for a series of exceptions in §§ 34, 38, 39, 40, 41, 43, 45, 46, 47 and 49 of Book II of the Code. These exceptions are either permanent exceptions to the normal weekly rest of from midnight to midnight on Sunday and are granted on condition that an equivalent rest period of twenty-four hours is granted, or temporary exceptions providing for the diminution or suspension of the weekly rest. These exceptions were in existence at the time the Convention was ratified, and the provisions of Article 4 regarding the consultation of employers' and workers' organisations do not apply. The Code, however, provides for the consultation by the prefect of the local industrial associations in cases in which the authorisation of the prefect for particular exceptions to the weekly rest provisions is required (§§ 35-37). The report states, moreover, that the Minister of Labour, although he is not bound to do so by law, consults the central employers' and workers' organisations concerned regarding changes in the regula-
tions relating to exceptions applicable throughout the country.

India. — In the case of factories the provisions for exceptions to § 22 regarding the weekly rest are contained in §§ 20, 30, 32 and 42 A of the Factories Act. § 20 permanently excepts persons who may be defined by Local Governments to be persons holding positions of supervision and management and persons employed in a confidential capacity. Under § 30 (1) "where it is proved to the satisfaction of the Local Government... (b) that the work of any class of workers is essentially intermittent; or (c) that there is in any class of factories any work which necessitates continuous production for technical reasons; or (d) that any class of factories supplies the public with articles of prime necessity which must be made or supplied every day; or (e) that in any class of factories the work performed, by the exigencies of the trade or its nature, cannot be carried on except at stated seasons or at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces", the Local Government may exempt on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, work of the nature described in (b) and (e) from all or any of the provisions of § 22, and the classes of factories described in (d) and (e) from the provisions of § 22. A Local Government may also, in virtue of § 30 (2), by general or special order exempt for such period as may be specified in the year, and on such conditions, if any, as it may impose, any factory from all or any of the provisions of § 22 on the ground that such exemption is necessary in order to enable such factory to deal with an exceptional press of work. § 30 (3) lays down that in such circumstances and subject to such conditions as may be prescribed nothing in § 22 is to apply to work on urgent repairs. Finally, under § 32 and § 32 A, a Local Government may exempt any factory situated on or used solely for the purposes of a tea or coffee plantation, and any factory or class of factories in respect of persons employed therein in any engine room or boiler-house, from any of the provisions of § 22 on such conditions, if any, as it may impose. As regards mines, exceptions to the provisions of § 25 of the Mines Act are provided in §§ 24, 25 and 46. § 24 permanently excepts persons holding positions of supervision or management or employed in a confidential capacity; § 25 gives power to the mine manager in emergencies involving serious risk to the safety of the mine or of persons therein employed to permit employment in contravention of § 23 on such work as may be necessary to protect the safety of the mine or of the persons employed therein; whilst § 46 empowers the Governor-General in Council to exempt any local area or any mine or group or class of mines or any part of a mine or any class of persons from the operation of all or any specified provisions of the Act, similar powers being conferred on Local Governments only on the occurrence of a public emergency. The Government further reports that the organisation of workers is not sufficiently developed in India and that it has not been possible to take advantage of the provisions of this Article regarding consultation with responsible associations of employers and workers.

Italy. — Provision has been made for exceptions in the relevant legislation and regulations. These exceptions have been made for technical and economic reasons.

Latvia. — The report states that there has been no necessity to permit the exceptions provided by Article 4 of the Convention.

Poland. — Provision has been made for the exceptions permitted by this Article in the Act of 18 December 1919.

Rumania. — § 12 of the Act of 18 June 1925 provides that "for the execution of urgent work for the purposes of national defence, for the organisation of life-saving and salvage operations on land and water, for the prevention of accidents or for the reparation of their consequences, the rest of the staff necessary for such work may be suspended." The rest of persons employed in other undertakings, when their co-operation appears to be indispensable for the execution of the work above described, may also be suspended, but in their case § 12 makes it compulsory to grant them compensatory rest in the following week.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 14 of the Act of 28 February 1922 lays down that the provisions relating to the weekly rest shall not apply to undertakings where work cannot be interrupted on account of its nature. The Minister of Social Affairs shall specify the undertakings in question, after hearing the competent Chambers and Councils. § 15 provides that, except in the undertakings mentioned in § 14, work on Sundays may be permitted only in the following cases:— (1) When imperatively necessary on account of unforeseen emergency or force majeure, or when particular operations must be completed or carried out in the public interest; (2) When the stocktaking of an undertaking, under legal regulations, must be completed on any such day; (3) In the case of work for the cleaning and maintenance of the workplaces and premises of the undertaking, and likewise all work upon which the regular continuance and safe carrying on of the undertaking depends, in so far as such work cannot be done on working days; (4) In the case of work which is absolutely necessary to prevent the spoiling of raw
that these periods need not necessarily give time off once a week to attend public worship and one-half day's rest in seven or one-half day's rest in fourteen.

Spain. — Legislative provision for the exceptions permitted by this Article is contained in § 7 of the Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 which provides that in cases where Sunday work is permitted in virtue of § 6 (see under Article 2 above) the period of rest may be reduced to the number of hours worked on Sunday, and suspended in very exceptional cases, regard being had to all proper economic and humanitarian considerations. Nevertheless, these measures may only be adopted by the Government for specified processes and industries, after consultation with the Labour Council and the competent associations of employers and workers, wherever such exist, and provided that other periods of rest are stipulated in compensation for the suspensions and diminutions granted.

ARTICLE 5.

Each Member shall make, as far as possible, provision for compensatory periods of rest for the suspensions or diminutions made in virtue of Article 4, except in cases where agreements or customs already provide for such periods. Please give information with regard to (a) the provision made for compensatory periods of rest for the suspensions and diminutions (if any) made in virtue of Article 4; (b) agreements or customs which already provide for such periods.

Belgium. — Provision is made for compensatory periods of rest in §§ 4, 5, 9, 10 and 11 of the Sunday Rest Act. As regards the undertakings exempted under § 4, it is provided that the workers concerned are to have one day's rest in fourteen or one-half day's rest in seven; that these periods need not necessarily fall on a Sunday or be the same for all the workers and employees in the undertaking; and that the half-day must be taken either before or after one o'clock in the afternoon, the duration of work not exceeding five hours. By § 5, in undertakings where work is organised in a succession of shifts, the workers whose night shift does not end until 6 a.m. on Sunday must be given a rest period of 24 hours, i.e. they may not begin work again before 6 a.m. on Monday. The effect of §§ 9 and 10 is that where young persons under 16 years of age and girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21 years are allowed to work seven days a week, either habitually, for a specified period or conditionally, they must be given time off once a week to attend public worship and one-half day's rest in seven or one whole day's rest in fourteen.

§ 11 provides that the periods of rest in State undertakings, railways worked under a concession, and light railways, must be stipulated in regulations.

Bulgaria. — The question does not arise.

Czechoslovakia. — The report states that, given the general application of the Eight-Hour Day Act, it has not been necessary to make provision for compensatory rest.

Estonia. — Under § 5 of the Act of 17 December 1925, the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare issued on 23 October 1926 an Order relating to the granting of rest periods and compensation to persons employed on work which may be performed on Sundays and holidays in virtue of § 4 of the Act. § 1 of this Order provides that workers and employees, who are employed in any of the processes specified in the lists issued by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in virtue § 6 of the Act or mentioned in § 4 (c) and (d) of the Act, and whose work on a legal day of rest is longer than four hours, are to be granted either a weekly rest as prescribed in § 2 of the Order, or supplementary remuneration as laid down in § 4 of the Order, or longer leave as provided for in § 5 of the Order. The weekly rest may, by § 2, be granted (a) on another day of the week, either simultaneously for the whole of the workers and employees or in shifts, but in any case for not less than 24 hours; (b) from 2 p.m. on Sunday until 2 p.m. on Monday; (c) from 2 p.m. on Sunday until 2 a.m. on Monday, provided that a day of rest of at least 24 hours is granted every fortnight; (d) on two half-days in each week from 2 p.m. until 2 a.m. on the following day. Under § 4, work performed on legal days of rest may be deemed to be overtime for which the rates of pay must be at least 50 per cent. above the ordinary rates. For the application of this provision written agreements are required, otherwise the consent of the worker or employee concerned must be obtained in each case. § 5 provides that longer leave may be granted to a worker or employee for work performed on legal days of rest on the basis of one day's leave for eight hours' work. In this case a written contract must be made between the employer and the worker or employee. Should a worker or employee not have taken his leave at the time the contract expires, he receives a day's pay in respect of each rest day to which he is entitled but which he has not taken. The provisions of the Order do not apply to workers and employees of transport undertakings, in respect of whom a special Order is to be issued.

Finland. — § 5 of the Act of 27 November 1917 provides that where it is
not possible to grant the weekly rest of thirty hours on Sunday, a corresponding rest must be granted during the week. Further, as regards those processes in paper, wood pulp and cellulose factories which must be continued day and night for technical reasons, but which can be interrupted on Sundays and holidays, it is provided in the Resolution of the Council of State of 30 December 1926 respecting hours of work in continuous undertakings, issued under § 12 of the Act of 27 November 1917, that the Sunday rest averaged over three weeks must be thirty hours a week and at least twenty-four hours each week. With regard to undertakings entirely excepted from the provisions of the Act of 27 November 1917 or from its weekly rest provisions, the report states that weekly rest periods of varying length are granted. Some communal power stations and paper works working three shifts have succeeded in maintaining the statutory weekly rest periods by means of relief shifts. In other undertakings working continuously with three shifts, the workers obtain in every period of three weeks two weekly rests of twenty-four hours and one of sixteen hours. In the building trade, it is only in the case of urgent work that the weekly rest is suppressed. With regard to wood transport and floating, although owing to natural conditions it has not been possible to organise special periods of rest on the rivers, the workers thus employed on the lakes enjoy, though irregularly, the rest periods laid down. On railways, the guards obtain a rest period of at least thirty-three hours every four days, brakeman a period of at least thirty-one hours every five days and pointsmen a period of thirty-five hours at least twice a month. The organisation of rest periods in the case of engine drivers and firemen varies according to the quantity of traffic. Transport on canals is seasonal and continuous for more than seven months in the year. The number of workers employed varies considerably but never exceeds 250, about half of whom work on a three shift system and enjoy a period of rest of twenty-four hours every three weeks. The work of the other half is essentially intermittent and it has not been considered necessary to arrange special rest periods for them.

France. — The Labour Code makes provision for compensatory rest in the majority of cases in which exceptions to the normal Sunday rest are not conditional upon the granting of the twenty-four hour rest on another day of the week. One of the exceptional systems permitted by § 34 is the granting of a rest on Sunday afternoon with a compensatory rest of one day each fortnight in rotation. Under § 40 the workers of another undertaking, who are called in to assist in cases of urgent work necessitated by specified exceptional circumstances, must be granted an equal amount of compensatory rest. § 43 provides that, in undertakings employing less than five workers, and in which the weekly rest may be granted in rotation, the weekly rest of one full day may be replaced by two half-day's rest. In those seasonal industries which, under § 47, may suspend the weekly rest fifteen times a year, the workers must be granted two days' rest each month. Provision for compensatory rest for workers employed in those processes in continuous undertakings in which exceptions are permitted by the Decree of 31 August 1910 is made in the Decree. Finally, as regards railways and water transport undertakings, the report states that, under the special regulations, railway workers only work 298 days a year (or 299 days in leap years), whilst water transport workers are entitled to 24 days' rest per year.

India. — The report of the Government states that the exemptions granted by the Local Governments in accordance with Article 5 of the Convention (see also under Article 6.)

Italy. — The report states that in most cases when a suppression or reduction of Sunday rest is authorised, the legislation cited in the report makes compulsory the grant of compensatory rest in accordance with Article 5 of the Convention (see also under Article 6.)

Latvia. — The question does not arise.

Poland. — § 18 of the Act of 18 December 1919 provides that a worker who is employed for more than three hours on Sunday shall be allowed an equivalent number of hours of rest during the week. This provision, however, does not apply to establishments working continuously. Under the special system laid down for tramway workers in the Decree of 16 March 1925 provision is made for compensatory rest.

Rumania. — § 12 of the Act of 18 June 1925 provides for a compensatory rest in the following week for workers in an undertaking where the weekly rest is suspended because their work is considered an indispensable adjunct in connection with the execution of the urgent work specified in the first paragraph of § 12 (see under Article 4.)

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 14 of the Act of 28 February 1922 provides that the occupiers of the undertakings where work cannot be interrupted on account of its nature must release their workers at least every third Sunday, and must also grant them as rest time an annual leave period consisting
of a number of days not less than the number of Sundays during the year on which they were employed. With regard to the exceptions provided for in § 15 of the Act, the occupier of the undertaking must, under the same Section, grant his employees an equivalent rest period during the week.

Spain. — § 7 of the Decree of 8 June 1925 provides for compensatory rest in cases of suspensions or diminishations made in virtue of the same section. As already noted under Article 2, § 49 of the Regulations of 17 December 1926 provides that when work on a Sunday does not exceed a maximum of four hours, the workers concerned have a right to four consecutive hours’ rest on another day of the week whether the Sunday work was actually of four hours’ duration or not.

Article 6.

Each Member will draw up a list of the exceptions made under Articles 2 and 4 of this Convention and will communicate it to the International Labour Office, and thereafter in every second year any modifications of this list which shall have been made.

The International Labour Office will present a report on this subject to the General Conference of the International Labour Organisation.

In communicating the list required by this Article, please indicate separately (a) the total exceptions, (b) the partial exceptions, distinguishing in the latter case suspensions and diminutions and giving full information as possible regarding such suspensions and diminutions.

Belgium. — In application of this Article the Belgian Government has communicated information of which the following is a summary:

(a) Total exceptions. — § 1 of the Sunday Rest Act excludes water transport undertakings, fishing undertakings, and showmen’s and kindred undertakings. Under § 8, provided that the normal working of the undertaking does not permit the work to be done on another day of the week, the prohibition to employ the staff on Sunday does not apply: to urgent work in cases of force majeure or of necessity which the undertaking is not normally prepared to deal with; to the watching of the premises of the undertaking; to cleaning, repair and maintenance work which is necessary for the regular working of the undertaking, and to processes, other than processes connected with production, upon which the regular re-commencement of the working of the undertaking on the following day depends; to processes necessary for preventing the deterioration of raw materials or goods.

(b) Partial exceptions. — § 4 of the Act allows the staff to be employed for thirteen days out of fourteen or six-and-a-half days out of seven in the following undertakings: food industries where the products must be delivered immediately to the consumer; undertakings for the retail sale of articles of food; hotels, restaurants and public houses; tobacco and natural flower shops; pharmacies, druggists and shops for the sale of medical or surgical appliances; public baths; newspaper and theatrical undertakings; undertakings for the hire of taxis, chairs, and means of locomotion; undertakings for lighting, and distribution of water or motor power; land transport undertakings, loading and unloading in ports, landing places and stations; employment exchanges and

news agencies; industries in which, by reason of their nature, the processes may not be interrupted or delayed. Under § 5 of the Act Royal Decrees have been issued permitting, in a series of industries where work is organised in a succession of shifts, the continuation of the work of the night shift until 6 a.m. on Sunday; the four hours’ rest is secured, however, by the provision that this shift may not re-commence work before 6 a.m. on Monday. § 6 makes it possible for the staff of undertakings using wind or water power exclusively or mainly to be employed on the seventh day twelve times a year, subject to certain conditions and provided that the exception is not used for more than four weeks consecutively. This exception may also be granted to seasonal industries and industries carried on in the open air; and Royal Decrees have provided that laundries on the coast may employ their staff for not exceeding five hours on four Sundays in the month of August, and that jam and preserved vegetable factories may employ their staff for not more than five hours on twelve Sundays during the period from 15 May to 30 September of each year. § 7 provides for exceptions for retail shops and hairdressers’ auxiliaries. Finally, under § 9, a Royal Decree has authorised, subject to the observance of certain special conditions and of the special rest periods laid down in the same section, the employment on the seventh day of young persons under 16 years of age and of girls and women between the ages of 16 and 21 years in certain specified professions which, by reason of their nature, may not be interrupted or delayed, in mirror, crystal, hollow ware, and window glass works.

Bulgaria. — The report states that no exceptions have been made under Articles 3 and 4.

Czechoslovakia. — The report states that the question does not arise.

Estonia. — The Government has communicated to the Office two lists issued in pursuance of § 6 of the Act of 17 December 1925, and published in the Riigi Teataja No. 67 of 7 September 1926: (1) a list of works of public utility the execution of which is permitted on Sundays and holidays to meet the daily needs of the population; (2) a list of the processes the execution of which is permitted on Sundays and holidays in undertakings working continuously. These lists are as follows:

1. List of works the execution of which is permitted on Sundays and holidays when required by the public interest and necessary to meet the daily needs of the population.

(List promulgated on 19 August 1926 by the Minister of Labour and Public Welfare, in agreement with the Minister of Commerce and Industry, in virtue of § 6 of the Act concerning the publication of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.)

The following work executed in the public interest to meet the daily needs of the population is authorised on Sundays and holidays:

(1) Work in connection with water supplies;
(2) Work in gas and electricity works;
(3) Work in bakeries and confectioners’ shops manufacturing goods with yeast or barm without the addition of sugar;
(4) Work in connection with the publication of daily periodicals;
(5) Work in dairies: dairy work, conveyance of milk to dairies and its distribution to the public;
(6) Work on communications; on railways, ships, omnibuses, motor taxi-cabs and all other vehicles plying for hire;

(7) Work in connection with the transport of goods on dock and railway stations and in docks and railway warehouses.

List of processes the execution of which is permitted on Sundays and holidays in undertakings working continuously.

(List promulgated on 19 August 1926 by the Minister of Labour and Public Welfare, in agreement with the Minister of Commerce and Industry, in virtue of § 6 of the Act concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

In cases where the undertakings working continuously the following processes are to be considered as processes which, by reason of their technical nature, cannot be interrupted or postponed. In consequence, the execution of these processes is permitted on Sundays and holidays:

(1) Glass works: (a) glass melting, (b) heating of melting and refrigerating ovens;

(2) Paper pulp and wood pulp factories: work in connection with installations for the production of steam, water and electric power, with water pipes and motors, with services for the maintenance of water supplies and fuel and with the supervision of the melter and refrigera­tor; transport of raw materials and wood, preparation and regeneration of the pulp; processes connected with the barking, cleaning, reduction, grinding and heating of wood; sorting, cleaning, washing, bleaching and final manufacture of the ground and heated pulp.

(3) Bituminous shale distillation: stoking processes, processes in connection with the filling and emptying of retorts working on a continuous system;

(4) Cement and lime kilns and brick works: work in connection with machines for the production of motive power, with pumps, stoking and work in connection with rotating ovens, work in mills and laboratories, transport of fuel and raw materials, and of semi-manufactured and fully manufactured articles; loading and unloading of railway trucks by ovens;

(5) Wood working: manufacture of veneering woods, steam heating of the blocks, preparation, gluing and drying of veneering sheets; work in connection with machines for the production of motive power, with pumps, and for tending of furnaces;

(6) Distillation of alcohol; all processes connected with the distillation of alcohol during the season, rectification of alcohol;

(7) Breweries: (a) manufacture of malt; (b) supervision of fermentation;

(8) Leather works: processes connected with the tanning of the hides;

(9) Chemical industries: processes enumerated in the labour regulations;

(10) Refrigerators: work in connection with the machines and with the supervision of refrigerat­ ing premises.

France. — In application of Article 6 the Government has supplied information of which the following is a summary:

Article 3: For the purposes of French legislation, the members of the same family are the husband, the wife, the minor children, i.e. under 21 years of age; the wards. The report adds that all relatives are exempt from the application of the law, not as members of the family, but as partners, in the civil or commercial meaning of the term, who participate in the management of the undertaking.

Article 4: Permanent exceptions: § 34 of the Labour Code provides that where it is recognised that the granting of the weekly rest to all the staff simultaneously, and on Sunday, would be contrary to the public interest, or would hinder the normal working of the undertaking, the Minister may authorise the granting of the weekly rest, either permanently or at certain seasons of the year, in one or other of the following ways: (a) to all the staff of the undertaking on a day other than Sunday; (b) from midday on Sunday to midday on Monday; (c) on Sunday afternoon with a compensatory rest of one full day a fort­night in rotation; (d) to the whole or part of the staff in rotation. § 38 allows the weekly rest to be granted in rotation to the undertakings enumerated in the section and in the Decree of 14 August 1907; these exceptions are not, however, derogations from the principle of simultaneity. Under § 39 a Decree was issued on 31 August 1910 determining the classes of special workers in continuous undertakings in respect of whom exceptions to the normal weekly rest are permitted. The undertakings concerned are enumerated in the Decree as follows: (1) blast furnaces and appliances connected with blast furnaces, (2) pig-iron melting; (3) continuous steel furnaces, (4) shafts and furnaces for re-heating steel ingots, (5) sundry blisters or cement steel and continuous furnaces for the manufacture of crucible steel, (6) coke ovens, (7) gas producers and recovery furnaces other than coke ovens, (8) gas works, (9) coke furnaces, (10) shaft furnaces for lead and other metallurgical operations, (11) furnaces for refining of copper and matte-concentrates, (12) continuous revolving furnaces for sintering minerals or making cements; (13) various other furnaces for the calcination or roasting of minerals, (14) glass works, (15) continuous furnaces for pottery work, (16) chemical works, (17) cardboard

Finland. — The following is a summary of the information supplied by the Finnish Government in pursuance of this Article:

The Resolution of the Council of State of 22 December 1927 respecting special exceptions to the Act of 27 November 1917, issued under § 12 of the Act, provided that during the year 1928 the Act was not to apply to the following works and undertakings: construction, repair and maintenance of railways and of private dwelling houses and outhouses in the country; clearing, cleaning and drainage work directly connected with forestry; tree felling and wood cutting; the hauling of timber and the floating thereof on waterways otherwise than at the special sorting places; railways, as regards the staff paid by the year or month with the exception of the locomotive staff; the postal services, telegraph services with the exception of the workers employed by them; the customs services with the exception of the supervisory staff at approach watercourses and at the eastern frontiers of the country, and inland custom houses; hospitals, prisons, canals and swing bridges.

By the Resolution of the Council of State of 21 December 1927 respecting hours of work in continuous undertakings, the weekly rest provisions of the Act were not to apply during December 1927 to workers over 18 years of age employed in the following undertakings or parts of undertakings in processes which, for technical reasons, must be carried on continuously day and night on every day of the week, and in which the work is organised in three regular shifts changing over every week: furnaces rooms and power plant departments of factories; gas, electricity and water works; iron and steel works, e.g. blast furnaces, Siemens-Martin furnaces and electro-metalurgical smelting furnaces; chemical and electro-technical works, e.g. soap, cement, chlorine, and chloride of lime works; paper, wood, pulp and cellulose factories, as far as concerns the departments for pulping, boiling, preparation of the acid bath and lye, the digesting process, clearing the draining troughs, and the utilisation of bye-products.
industries having less than three machines, (18) electro-metallurgical works. For the classes of workers concerned, see the text of the Decree. As regards the extent of the exceptions, it is

proposed that industries which only work at

time when business is being carried on in industries

work has to be suspended owing to weather con­
ditions, § 45 allows the time lost to be deducted

cases, § 44 provides that industries which only work

certain periods to meet

§ 46 provides that industries which have certain periods to meet

the weekly rest to all the staff on the same day.

There are no exceptions

check on the weekly rest is granted the same day to

in industries which have at certain periods to meet

imminent accidents or the repair

of industries in which exceptions

temporary circumstances give rise to an

frequency of the processes; in the

judgement. With regard to the compensatory

of the engines and motors, greasing

members of the Factories Act, and, in respect of

§ 156 of the Legislative

provides general exceptions in unforeseen excep­
tional circumstances and in case of force majeure

and danger of accident. § 156 of the Adminis­
trative Regulations issued in application of the

Regulations issued in application of the

primary period of rest of

for the performance of work which cannot

be suspended on account of the technical nature

where temporary circumstances give rise to an

temporary circumstances and in case of

in case of industries carried on

workers may, under certain conditions, be reduced to

the change of shift, and a compensatory rest

fortnight or an eighteen Jiours' rest once a week

must be given a twenty-four hours' rest once a

and services necessary for the satisfaction of the
daily needs of the population, in particular for

the maintenance of the water supply, lighting,
cleaning, work on means of communication (in

industries and occupations in which exceptions to

the weekly rest are permitted have at various

times been issued by Ministerial Decrees.

(These lists are given in the Appendix on pp. 469-470)
In the event of actual or imminent disaster or accident which necessitates work on Sundays and holidays in order to maintain the safety of workers, to ensure the establishment against damage and to keep up its normal working, as well as to prevent loss of materials or destruction of machinery (in such cases the labour inspection office must be notified afterwards).

In case of national necessity the hours of work may be extended by an order based on the decision of the Council of Ministers and in appropriate cases such extension may take place on the advice tendered by trade associations of workers and employers; such extension may take place on any day of the week, including Sunday, in preparation of the weekly rest for which the Labour Code prescribes special works' regulations (Labour Code, §§ 60 and 103, 1913 version) this schedule must be included in the regulations. It is further provided in § 3 of the Order of 23 October 1926 that the schedule must also show which of the several arrangements for the weekly rest provided for in § 2 of the Order are in force in the undertaking concerned.

According to § 8 of the Eight-Hour Day Act "in every factory and workroom falling under this Act, or at the actual place of work, the employer

**Bulgaria.** — The Health and Safety of Workers Act, 1917, provides in § 20 that "every employer shall be bound to enter in the workers' rules of his undertaking the time at which the period of rest is to be allowed to the workers."

**Czechoslovakia.** — The Industrial Code and the legislation in force in Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia provide that in every undertaking employing more than 20 workers workshop regulations must be posted showing, inter alia, the working days, hours at which work begins and ends, and times of breaks. As regards undertakings employing less than 20 workers, the report states that the posting of notices containing the conditions of work and indicating the weekly rest period would not serve any useful purpose, as in these small undertakings employers and workers are in very close contact. Moreover, the conditions of work, which include the regulation of the weekly rest, are always inserted in the collective agreements which apply equally to undertakings employing less than 20 workers. The report further states that the application of paragraph (b) of this Article does not arise in view of the general application of the weekly rest in Czechoslovakia.

**Estonia.** — § 7 of the Act of 17 December 1925 provides that the management of an industrial undertaking must prepare a schedule of the days of rest, indicating more particularly the work which must be performed on Sundays and holidays, the way in which this work is to be performed, and the days of rest granted to the workers employed on Sundays and holidays. This schedule must be approved by the labour inspector and posted in the undertaking in a place accessible to the workers. In undertakings for which the Labour Code prescribes special works' regulations (Labour Code, §§ 60 and 103, 1913 version) this schedule must be included in the regulations. In the event of actual or imminent disaster or accident which necessitates work on Sundays and holidays, to ensure the establishment against damage and to keep up its normal working, as well as to prevent loss of materials or destruction of machinery (in such cases the labour inspection office must be notified afterwards).
shall cause a copy of this Act and a notice concerning the actual division of working hours to be always accessible in a suitable place."

**France.** — § 1 of the Decree of 24 August 1906, as amended by the Decree of 13 July 1907, provides that when the weekly rest is not given to the whole of the staff on Sunday, but is given collectively to the whole or part of the staff in any exceptional manner permitted by the law, the days and hours of collective rest must be made known by notices posted in the undertaking. When the weekly rest is not given collectively, a special register must be kept which shows the names of the workers subject to a special system, the nature of the system, and the days or parts of days on which rest is given in each case. The Decree further contains various provisions regarding these notices and registers but does not prescribe the drawing up of models. No notices or registers are required when the weekly rest is granted to the whole of the staff on Sundays.

**India.** — § 36 (1) of the Factories Act provides that "there shall be affixed in some conspicuous place near the main entrance of every factory, in English and in the language of the majority of the operatives in such factory, ... a notice containing the standing orders of the factory upon,... the weekly holidays fixed under § 22." A copy of this notice is sent to the inspector, who is also informed of any changes. By the Mines Act, in every mine there must be kept in the prescribed form and plan a register of all persons employed in the mine showing, *inter alia*, their days of rest.

**Italy.** — The Orders of 7 November 1907 and 8 August 1908 respecting the administration of the Act of 7 July 1907 lay down that in establishments where, in consideration of a compensatory period of rest, work is performed on Sunday under a system of rotation or in any other manner, a register or notice showing the alternation of shifts must be exhibited in a conspicuous place. The Legislative Decree of 22 July 1923 containing service regulations for the staff of the State railways lays down in § 5 (2) that a copy of the working lists and shift time-tables shall be posted up in a convenient place, usually before coming into operation, in order that the employees concerned may acquaint themselves therewith. § 10 of the Legislative Decree of 19 October 1923 concerning the work of the staff employed in public and private undertakings worked under a concession provides that the companies shall post up the shift time-tables in the offices, passenger and goods stations, depots and workshops, so that the staff may acquaint themselves therewith. The Royal Decree of 31 December 1924 concerning the legal and economic position of wage-earners employed by the State administration stipulates in § 84 that a copy of the time-table established shall be affixed at the entrance to the undertakings and offices and in each workshop.

**Latvia.** — § 20 of the Act of 24 March 1922 respecting hours of work stipulates that a copy of the Act shall be affixed by employers in a place readily visible to the workers in every undertaking and establishment and § 7 provides for the keeping, in the form approved by the Ministry of Labour, of an overtime register.

**Poland.** — The report states that, in the territory in which the Austrian Industrial Code is still in force, special lists make known the hours at which work begins and ends and the rest periods; in the territory formerly belonging to Russia, time-tables contain, both for adults and young persons, the hours of work, the number and length of the rest periods, the time at which work ends on the day before Sundays and holidays, and the list of holidays; in former Prussian Poland, the German Industrial Code provides for making known the hours at which work begins and ends, and the periods of rest. An Order of 14 December 1924, issued in application of §§ 11 and 20 of the Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons, provides that the register of young persons shall make known the times at which work begins and ends, and the periods of rest. The Decree of 16 March 1928 concerning the contracts of engagement of workers introduced *inter alia* provisions with regard to workshop regulations and notices. Every undertaking to which the Decree applies and which employs more than 20 workers must draw up works regulations within a period of four weeks from the date of opening of the undertaking. Special regulations may be drawn up for particular sections of the undertaking or for the different categories of workers. The workshop regulations must mention, *inter alia*, the beginning and the end of work and contain a list of the legal and other holidays observed in the undertaking concerned. The works regulations, after they have been approved, must be affixed in a conspicuous manner in the place of work and come into force two weeks after such affixation (§ 54). These regulations have compulsory force for the worker (*§ 55*) and the employer is required to communicate them to the worker before he enters upon his duties. According to *§ 56* undertakings employing less than 20 workers must affix notices mentioning, *inter alia*, the legal and other holidays observed in the undertaking in question. The labour inspection service which according to the legal provisions has to approve the works regulations issued in 1927 two model forms containing, *inter alia*, particulars relating to the weekly rest.
Rumania. — § 9 of the Act of 18 June 1925 provides that the employers in agreement with the employees shall draw up schedules of the groups of employees, the rest days and their order of rotation. These schedules must be permanently affixed in the workplaces of the undertaking and must be submitted on demand to the inspection officials of the Ministry of Labour. Any employees who are not satisfied with the arrangements may appeal to the Chamber of Labour for a decision.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that the regulations of 25 October 1921 provide for model notices and works regulations for undertakings working during the day and for continuous process undertakings.

Spain. — § 11 of the Decree of 8 June 1925 provides that the employer shall be obliged: (a) where the weekly rest is given to the whole of the staff collectively, to make known the days and hours of rest fixed in accordance with the provisions of the Decree by means of notices posted conspicuously in the establishment, or to make them known in a more convenient form, approved by the Labour Inspection Service, when work is not ordinarily carried on in a specified place; (b) where the weekly rest is not given to the whole of the staff collectively, to make known, by means of a roster drawn up in accordance with the form prescribed by the Labour Inspection Service, the workers or employees subject to a special system of rest, and to indicate that system.

III.

Article 12 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the territories under mandate, as local conditions do not permit application at present.

France. — The Government states that, owing to local conditions, the Convention is not applied in any of the French overseas possessions. Nevertheless, the Convention is applied in practice in Algeria, although it has not been made legally applicable by Decree, owing to the fact that the provisions of the Act of 18 July 1906 (now incorporated in the Labour Code) were made applicable in this colony under a Decree of 21 January 1908.

Italy. — The report states that the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies, as local conditions in each of these territories render application impossible.

Spain. — The Government stated in previous reports that the legislation in force applies to all territories subject to Spanish sovereignty.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 19 July 1926.
Bulgaria. — 6 March 1925.
Czechoslovakia. — 14 May 1924.
Estonia. — 29 November 1923.
Finland. — 19 June 1923.
France. — 3 September 1926.
India. — 11 May 1923 (factories); 1 July 1924 (mines).
Italy. — 8 September 1924.
Latvia. — 9 September 1924.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Rumania. — 18 June 1925.
Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. — 1 April 1927.
Spain. — 20 June 1924.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.
Belgium. — The supervision of the application of the relevant laws and regulations is entrusted to the factory inspectors and to the engineers of the Corps of Mines.

Bulgaria. — The supervision of the application of the Health and Safety of Workers Act, 1917, is entrusted to the labour inspectors under the control of the Superior Labour and Social Insurance Council. The supervision of the application of the Act of 1911 respecting holidays and Sunday rest falls to the police and municipal authorities.

Czechoslovakia. — See the analysis of the report on the Hours Convention.

Estonia. — The factory inspectors are entrusted with the supervision of the application of the Act of 17 December 1925 and employers and managers are required to give them every facility for the inspection of their premises.

Finland. — Supervision of the observance of the regulations in force is entrusted to the factory inspectors, in accordance with the Factory Inspection Act of 4 March 1927. The reports of the factory inspectors are published annually.

France. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

India. — The Factories Act is administered by Local Governments through their factory inspectors. The Mines Act is administered by the Mines Department subordinate to the Central Government. See also the analysis of the report on the Hours Convention.

Italy. — The supervision of the provisions relating to the weekly rest in private industrial undertakings is entrusted to the Ministry of National Economy, which acts through the industrial inspectors, the mines inspectors, the communal authorities and the police authorities.

Latvia. — The Ministry of Labour, with the labour inspectorate, attached to its Department of Labour Protection, is responsible for the supervision of application.

Poland. — Supervision isentrusted to (a) the administrative authorities of first instance (temporarily); (b) the factory inspectorate; (c) to the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare acting in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce and, in the case of undertakings directly under other Ministries, the appropriate Minister acting in agreement with the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. See also the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age of admission of children to industrial employment.

Rumania. — The enforcement of the application of the Act of 18 June 1925 is entrusted to the inspecting and supervising authorities of the Ministry of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, and Ministry of the Interior. It also devolves upon the prefects of departments and of the police, upon the presidents and secretaries of chambers of labour and of chambers of industry and commerce, upon the representatives of the public prosecutor, upon the justices of the peace, and upon various local police and administrative officials.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov·ones. — The application of the Act of 28 February 1922 is entrusted to the regional labour inspectors.

Spain. — The enforcement of the Royal Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 devolves as a general rule upon the labour inspectors, or in some cases upon the local delegations of the Labour Council through their commissions of inspection, or upon the local and administrative authorities.* * *

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the factory inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Belgium. — The report states that information regarding the contraventions reported is published monthly in the Revue du Travail. The statistics compiled by the Department of Labour do not make it possible to give details of the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation.

Czechoslovakia. — See the analysis of the report on the Hours Convention.

France. — The report gives the following statistics of contraventions of the weekly rest provisions of the Labour Code: 1926, 2,546 contraventions; 1927, 2,408.
contraventions. On the other hand, the classification of industrial undertakings, the weekly rest system of which is known to the labour inspection service, was as follows for 1927: normal system: collective rest on Sunday, 290,756 undertakings. Exceptions: collective rest on a day other than Sunday, 1,118 undertakings; collective rest from Sunday noon to Monday noon, 521 undertakings; collective rest from Sunday afternoon with compensatory rest, 985 undertakings; rest by rotation, 8,264 undertakings; special rest in continuous process undertakings (Decree of 31 August 1910), 574 undertakings. Total 11,462 undertakings.

India. — See the analysis of the report of the Hours Convention.

Rumania. — The report states that the factory inspection service is now organised as provided for in the Act of 13 April 1927. No statistics are available showing the number of workers protected by the weekly rest legislation.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — According to the annual report of the labour inspectors for 1924, the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation may be put at 175,607.

Spain. — The report states that the application of the relevant legislation has not given rise to any serious difficulties.
The following list shows the industries and occupations which, in pursuance of § 2 (a) of the Italian Act, may obtain, in respect of the whole duration of work, an exception to the obligation of the weekly rest. This table is not to apply to the industries named in Nos. 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12 and 14, which are carried on for more than three months in the year; in such cases exceptions to Sunday rest and not to weekly rest being alone permitted. The same is the case where in one and the same undertaking the same staff is employed consecutively in several industries named in the table which altogether are carried on for more than three months.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>INDUSTRY</th>
<th>Occupations in respect of which the exception is allowed.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Silk worm rearing and the silk industry</td>
<td>In respect of the collection of cocoons and the suffocating of the chrysalis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Breeding</td>
<td>During the season when the caterpillars emerge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Unrefined beetroot sugar factories</td>
<td>Loading, unloading and transporting beetroots, and all other occupations in the manufacture of the unrefined sugar, and the subsequent preparation of the molasses. Packing and despatching the finished product is not included.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Fish pickling</td>
<td>During the only season (not exceeding three months) when it is possible to prepare any particular kind of fish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Fish preserving</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Margarine factories</td>
<td>During a period not exceeding three months in the summer season in respect of workmen employed in the preliminary treatment of the fat for the purpose of preventing it from going bad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Sausage factories</td>
<td>In respect of all occupations in the preparation of pig's flesh which, for climatic reasons, cannot be carried on for more than three months in the year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Candied fruit factories</td>
<td>In respect of the receipt, cleaning, and first cooking of the fruit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Tomato preserving factories</td>
<td>In respect of all occupations from the receipt of the tomatoes until the packing of the preserves.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The oil industry.</td>
<td>In respect of all workmen employed in the oil industry in the treatment of fresh olives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Preserved food factories</td>
<td>In respect of all occupations in the receipt and treatment of the food required to prevent it going bad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Extraction of alcohol and cream of tartar from grape husks</td>
<td>In respect of occupations in the transport and storage of the grape husks in the preserving pits; in the distillation of the same, and in the crystallisation of the cream of tartar during the grape vintage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>The vine growing industry</td>
<td>In respect of the transport and pressing of the grapes, drawing off the must, fermentation of the must, and the pressing of the husks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Almond cake factories</td>
<td>In respect of all occupations in the manufacture of the cakes including the despatching of the same.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Ministerial Decree of 30 October 1908.)

15. Cold storage of poultry and game | In respect of the storage of poultry and game from 1 November to 31 December.                                                                                     |
16. Manufacture of gingerbread       | In respect of all occupations in the manufacture of gingerbread, including the despatching of the same.                                                             |
17. The truffle industry             | In respect of the reception, treatment, sterilisation, and despatch of fresh and preserved truffles.                                                            |

(Ministerial Decree of 24 October 1910.)

18. The tunny fish industry          | In respect of all occupations in the handling of the tunny fish.                                                                                                  |
The following list shows the industries, occupations and duration of the exceptions issued in pursuance of § 2 (c) of the Italian Act permitting derogations from the obligation of the weekly rest for not more than six weeks annually:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>INDUSTRY.</th>
<th>Occupations in respect of which the exception is allowed</th>
<th>Duration of the exception.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Toy factories</td>
<td>In respect of the whole manufacturing process and of despatching</td>
<td>Six weeks before Christmas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Candied fruit, chocolate, biscuit, and confectionery</td>
<td>Ditto.</td>
<td>Three weeks before Christmas and three before Easter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Bathing establishments and hydroopathic institutions</td>
<td>In respect of the whole staff employed in such establishments</td>
<td>The summer season.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The manufacture of machines and receptacles for wine and oil</td>
<td>In respect of repair of wine and oil machines and the manufacture of the casks</td>
<td>The months of August, September and October.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The publishing trade (modified by the Ministerial Decree of 23 December 1909)</td>
<td>In respect of the publication, the binding and despatch of school books</td>
<td>The months of October and November.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The fur trade</td>
<td>In respect of the making of fur goods</td>
<td>The months of October, November and December.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Undertakings for refining and milling sulphur and the store rooms pertaining to the same</td>
<td>In respect of all occupations in loading ships, waggons and vehicles for immediate departure</td>
<td>From 15 April to 31 May.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Manufacture of cells for silkworm breeding</td>
<td>In respect of the workers employed in the manufacture of cells</td>
<td>During six weeks before breeding time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Renovation of gravestones etc., and work in the gardens of cemeteries</td>
<td>In respect of the staff employed on this work and excluding the staff employed in the manufacture of new monuments, etc.</td>
<td>During the last fortnight in October.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Manufacture of funeral wreaths</td>
<td>In respect of the staff employed on this work.</td>
<td>During the month of October.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Daily newspapers</td>
<td>In respect of the staff employed in the receipt of subscriptions, the preparation and printing of addresses in so far as these tasks are directly dependent on the newspapers</td>
<td>Six weeks in the months of December and January.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Undertakings for the cleaning and repair of stoves and chimneys</td>
<td>In respect of the whole staff employed in the undertakings</td>
<td>During the months of October, November and December.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Game and poultry industries</td>
<td>In respect of staff employed in the handling, preservation and despatch of poultry and game, excluding the staff employed on work connected with the feathers</td>
<td>From the second Sunday in December to the second Sunday in January.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers.

This Convention came into force on 20 November 1922. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>19. 7. 1926</td>
<td>26.12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>6. 3. 1925</td>
<td>18. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>31. 3. 1926</td>
<td>3. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>12. 5. 1924</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>8. 9. 1922</td>
<td>26.12. 1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>10. 10. 1925</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>8. 3. 1926</td>
<td>12. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>20. 11. 1922</td>
<td>7. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>8. 9. 1924</td>
<td>19. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>9. 9. 1924</td>
<td>2. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>7. 10. 1927</td>
<td>14. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>21. 6. 1924</td>
<td>23. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rumania</td>
<td>18. 8. 1923</td>
<td>8. 2. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slov. Kingdoms</td>
<td>1. 4. 1927</td>
<td>14. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>20. 6. 1924</td>
<td>8. 3. 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>14. 7. 1925</td>
<td>19. 1. 1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Government of Belgium reports that the provisions of the Convention have now been embodied in the national legislation by the passing of the Act of 5 June 1928 which was published in the Moniteur belge of 26 July 1928 and which came into force on 4 August 1928.

The Estonian Government states in its report that the Convention is now applied by the Act of 22 March 1928.

The Government of India reports that the Convention is not at present enforced by legislative measures as distinct from executive regulations. The shipping officers are instructed not to permit any young person to be signed on as a trimmer or stoker in contravention of the terms of the Convention. The Government proposes to undertake separate legislation for giving statutory effect to the Conventions relating to seamen ratified by India, and this will be done as soon as the programme of legislation allows the introduction of a Bill on the subject.

As regards Rumania, the Government states in its report that the provisions of the Convention are applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. In accordance with § 52 of this Act, regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.
Act of 5 June 1928 concerning seamen's articles of agreement (L. S. 1928, Belg. 5A.).

Bulgaria.
Regulations of 8 August 1923 relating to the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Canada.
Canada Shipping Act, Revised Statutes, 1927.

Denmark.
Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923 (L. S. 1923, Den. 2).
Act of 26 February 1872 relating to the engagement and discharge of crews.

Estonia.
Seamen's Act of 22 March 1928 (L. S. 1928, Est. 1B.).

Finland.
Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 (L. S. 1924, Fin. 1).
Act of 26 May 1925 amending the Seamen's Act (L. S. 1925, Fin. 2).
Order of 10 September 1925 bringing the Convention into force.

Great Britain.
Merchant Shipping Act, 1894.

India.
Instructions to shipping masters issued by the Provincial Governments.
See also introductory note.

Italy.
Regulations for seamen's employment exchanges approved in 1920 by the Royal Maritime Commission set up by Royal Decree of 14 August 1919.
Royal Decree of 27 December 1925 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Latvia.
Regulations of 30 October 1928 concerning seamen (L. S. 1928, Lat. 4).
II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "vessel" includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned; it excludes ships of war.

Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not contain a definition of the term "vessel". The Act, however, seems to apply to all vessels flying the Belgian flag and engaged in maritime navigation with a view to pecuniary gain.

Bulgaria. — The Regulations relating to the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company use the term "vessel" without further definition.

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act provides in § 124 (g) that a "ship" where it appears in any section relating to the employment of children or young persons means any ship or boat registered in Canada which goes to sea and does not include any ship employed exclusively within the limits of the inland waters of Canada as defined in this Act".

Denmark. — No specific definition of the term "vessels" is given in the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923, but in practice the term has the same meaning as in the Convention.

Estonia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 does not contain a specific definition of the term 'vessel'. According to § 73 of this Act, vessels belonging to the State and employed for defence or administrative purposes and vessels under 60 tons gross are excluded from the scope of its application.

Finland. — § 86 of the Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924, as amended by the Act of 26 May 1925, lays down that the provisions of §§ 10 and 11 of the Seamen's Act, under which the Convention is applied, shall not apply to vessels belonging to the State which are used for purposes of defence or to vessels on which only persons belonging to the owner's family are employed.

Great Britain. — According to § 5 of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 the expression "ship" means any sea-going ship or boat of any description which is registered in the United Kingdom as a British ship, and includes any British fishing boat entered in the fishing boat register, but does not include any tug, dredger, sludge vessel, barge, or other craft whose ordinary course of navigation does not extend beyond the seaward limits of the jurisdiction of the harbour authority of the port at which such vessel is regularly employed, if and so long as such vessel is engaged in her ordinary occupation.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma define the term "vessel" as in this Article.

Italy. — No specific definition of the term "vessels" is given in the Regulations for seamen's employment exchanges, but this term has in Italian law the same meaning as in the Convention.

Latvia. — The Regulations of 30 October 1928 provide in § 73 that the provisions of the regulations in virtue of which the Convention is applied are not applicable to ships of war, vessels engaged in the service...
of the State, pleasure boats and vessels on which only members of the family of the owner are employed.

Norway. — The Act of 16 February 1923 does not contain a specific definition of the term "vessel".

Poland. — The German Seamen's Code of 2 June 1992, which has been kept in force in Poland, applies to all merchant vessels which are allowed to fly the flag of the State, i.e., to all vessels engaged upon maritime navigation for pecuniary gain. The report adds that for the application of the regulations in force by the term "vessel" is meant all vessels engaged upon maritime navigation, with the exception of ships of war.

Rumania. — § 23 of the Act of 9 April 1929 provides that by the term "vessels engaged in maritime navigation" is meant steamships or vessels whether publicly or privately owned, engaged in maritime navigation, with the exception of ships of war.

Spain. — No specific definition of the term "vessel" is given in the sections of the Labour Code in which the provisions of the Regulations respecting the engagement of crews for merchant vessels, approved by Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, have been included. In Spanish law, however, the term "merchant marine" covers all vessels, whatever may be their employment, with the exception of ships of war.

Great Britain. — § 2 (1) of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, provides that no young person (under 18 years of age) may be employed or work as a trimmer or stoker in any ship.

Italy. — § 8 of the Regulations for seamen's employment exchanges prohibits the engagement as trimmers of persons who are less than eighteen years of age and who have not served for at least eighteen months of effective sea service as shipboys, deck apprentices or boys attached to the cabin or kitchen staffs. It further prohibits the engagement as stokers of persons of less than twenty years of age and who have not served as trimmers for at least eighteen months of effective sea service.

Latvia. — The Regulations of 30 October 1928 prohibit by § 10 the employment as trimmers or stokers of persons under 18 years of age.

Bulgaria. — § 3 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the merchant vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company provides, inter alia, that the minimum age for admission to employment on board ship shall be twenty-one years.

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act provides in § 163 (3) that no person under 18 years of age shall be employed or work as a trimmer or stoker in any ship.

Belgium. — § 19 of the Act of 5 June 1928 provides, in particular, that a person may not be signed on or enter into a contract of employment for maritime work if he has not attained 18 years of age, for engine room duties. The report adds that this provision, being of general application, applies also to the fishing industry and thus fully gives effect to the Resolution adopted by the International Labour Conference at its ninth Session at Geneva with regard to this matter.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that, according to the provision of the Orders of 1919, by the term "vessel" is meant all ships, boats or vessels without distinction engaged in maritime navigation, whether for purposes of commerce, pleasure, investigation or in the public service, with the exception of ships of war.

France. — § 10 of the Act of 22 March 1928 prohibits the employment as trimmers or stokers of young persons under eighteen years of age.

Estonia. — § 10 of the Act of 22 March 1928 prohibits the employment as trimmers or stokers of young persons under eighteen years of age.

Finland. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act of 26 March 1928 provides that "young male persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed as stokers or coal trimmers on steam vessels."

India. — See introductory note. The instruction issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article.

Spain. — No specific definition of the term "vessel" is given in the sections of the Labour Code in which the provisions of the Regulations respecting the engagement of crews for merchant vessels, approved by Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, have been included. In Spanish law, however, the term "merchant marine" covers all vessels, whatever may be their employment, with the exception of ships of war.
Poland. — § 4 of the Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons prohibits the employment of young persons in work which is particularly heavy or unhealthy and provides that the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare in agreement with the other Ministers concerned shall issue lists of such employments after consultation with the associations of employers and workers. In accordance with this clause, a Decree was issued on 29 July 1925 enumerating the occupations in which young persons may not be employed. In this enumeration is included employment on vessels as trimmers or stokers. For the purposes of the Act of 2 July 1924 the term “young persons” is held to mean persons of both sexes who have attained the age of fifteen years but not that of eighteen years.

Rumania. — § 25 of the Act of 9 April 1928 prohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years of age as trimmers or stokers on board ship.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovencs. — The report states that the Order of 19 October 1883 provides that no persons under 18 years of age may be employed on board ship as stoker. Under the Order of 15 October 1858 no person may be certified as fit for work as stoker unless he has attained the age of 20 years. No reference is made to trimmers.

Spain. — § 41 of the Labour Code provides that “young persons under the age of eighteen years shall not be employed or work on vessels as trimmers or stokers.”

Sweden. — § 10 of the Swedish Seamen's Act of 15 June 1922 as amended by the Act of 27 February 1925 provides that “young persons under sixteen years of age shall not be employed as stokers” and “young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed as stokers or trimmers on a vessel which is propelled mainly by steam, when the vessel is used in navigation outside Swedish waters elsewhere than in Oresund or in Oslo Fjord as far as Laurvig.”

**ARTICLE 3.**

The provisions of Article 2 shall not apply:

(a) to work done by young persons on school-ships or training-ships, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority;

(b) to the employment of young persons on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam;

(c) to young persons of not less than sixteen years of age, who, if found physically fit after medical examination, may be employed as trimmers or stokers on vessels exclusively engaged in the coastal trade of India and of Japan, subject to regulations made after consultation with the most representative organisations of employers and workers in those countries.

India and Japan only. — Please state if advantage has been taken of paragraph (c), and, if so, give information with regard to the regulations made thereunder, and their application, stating what method has been adopted for the consultation of the most representative organisations of employers and workers.

Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not contain the exceptions provided for in (a) and (b) of this Article, but the report adds that the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms.

Bulgaria. — By § 5 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company it is provided that “candidates for appointments as cadets intending to continue their instruction in a school-ship shall at least have completed their course in class V of the secondary school. They may be admitted while under the age of twenty-one years.” The employment of young persons on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam is not referred to.

Canada. — The prohibition of the employment of young persons under 18 years of age as trimmers or stokers applies, in accordance with § 63 of the Canada Shipping Act neither to a school ship or training ship where the work is of a kind approved by the Minister of Marine and Fisheries and is carried on subject to such provisions as the Minister may approve, nor to a ship which is mainly propelled otherwise than by means of steam.

Denmark. — No mention is made in the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923 of the exception for school-ships. The Convention is applied to motor-ships.

Estonia. — § 10 (3) (1) of the Act of 22 March 1928 exempts from the general prohibition, in the terms of Article 3 (a) and (b) of the Convention, the work of young persons on school ships or training ships and the work of young persons on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam.

Finland. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 provides that the prohibition of the employment of male young persons under eighteen years of age as stokers or coal trimmers shall not apply to training or practice vessels if work on these vessels is approved and supervised by a public authority. Since the Act expressly states that it is on steam vessels that the employment of young persons under eighteen years of age as trimmers or stokers is prohibited, it appears that their employment on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam is permitted.

Great Britain. — By § 2 (1) (a) of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, the prohibition of the employment of a person under
the age of 18 years as a trimmer or stoker does not apply to work in a school-ship or training ship if the work is of a kind approved by the Board of Trade and is carried on subject to supervision by officers of the Board, or to work in a ship which is mainly propelled otherwise than by means of steam, or to employment in accordance with paragraph (c) of Article 3.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of paragraphs (a) and (b) of this Article, and, as regards paragraph (c), provide that an exception may be made in the case of young persons of not less than 16 years of age, who, if found physically fit after medical examination, may be employed as trimmers or stokers on vessels exclusively engaged in the coastal trade. The Government reports that no regulations governing the employment of such young persons have yet been drawn up in consultation with representative organisations of employers and workers.

Italy. — No special measures have been adopted in connection with the exceptions permitted in this Article.

Latvia. — § 10 of the Regulations of 30 October 1928 permits the employment of young persons under 18 years of age on vessels provided such employment is approved and supervised by the competent authorities, and on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam.

Norway. — The report states that no measures have been taken to give effect to the provisions of this Article of the Convention.

Poland. — With regard to the exception permitted by paragraph (a), the Decree of 29 July 1925 stipulates in § 3 that the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare may, after consultation with the associations of employers and workers concerned and in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce, authorise the employment of young persons on the dangerous or unhealthy work detailed in the Decree, with a view to their occupational training. In practice, maritime schools are open to young persons who are in possession of certificates showing that they have passed through six classes in a secondary school, i.e. are 16 years of age. The length of the maritime school course is three years.

Rumania. — According to § 25 of the Act of 9 April 1928 the general prohibition applies neither to young persons employed in school ships, provided that such employment is approved and supervised by the public authority, nor to employment in vessels which are mainly propelled otherwise than by steam.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov­enes. — The report states that there is nothing to add to the information given under Article 2, the legislation of the Kingdom being more restrictive than the provisions of the Convention.

Spain. — § 41 of the Labour Code exempts from the general prohibition, in the terms of Article 3 (a) and (b) of the Convention, the work of young persons on school ships or training ships and the work of young persons on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam.

Sweden. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act of 15 June 1922, as amended by the Act of 27 February 1925, provides for the exception for vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam. In place of the other exceptions, which at present have no importance for Swedish navigation, the same section gives the Crown power to allow exceptions in special cases. The report states, however, that no advantage has yet been taken of this power.

ARTICLE 4.

When a trimmer or stoker is required in a port where young persons of less than eighteen years of age only are available, such young persons may be employed and in that case it shall be necessary to engage two young persons in place of the trimmer or stoker required. Such young persons shall be at least sixteen years of age.

Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not contain equivalent provisions, but the report states that the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms.

Bulgaria. — This exception is not permitted by the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act provides under § 163 (4) that where in any port a trimmer or stoker is required for any ship and no person over the age of 18 years is available to fill the place, young persons over the age of 16 years may be employed as trimmers or stokers, but in any such case two young persons over the age of 16 years shall be employed to do the work which would otherwise have been performed by one person over the age of 18 years.

Denmark. — This exception is not permitted by the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923.

Estonia. — § 10 (2) of the Act of 22 March 1928 permits, in any port where young persons of less than eighteen years of age are alone available, the engagement of young persons over sixteen years of age, provided that in the place of a trimmer or stoker required two young persons are en­gaged.
Finland. — No similar provision is contained in the Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1924.

Great Britain. — § 2 (1) (b) of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 provides that where in any port a trimmer or stoker is required and no person over 18 years of age is available, young persons over 16 may be employed, but in such cases two young persons must be employed to do the work which would otherwise be done by one person over 18 years of age.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article.

Italy. — The Regulation for seamen’s employment exchanges stipulates in § 8 that in cases where persons possessing the requisite qualifications are not available for manning the ships such exceptions to § 8 may be permitted as are required. These exceptions, however, by reason of the fact that the Convention has been given force of law, may only be permitted under the conditions provided for by the Convention.

Latvia. — § 10 of the Regulations of 30 October 1928 reproduces the full text of this Article of the Convention.

Norway. — The Act of 16 February 1923 does not provide for this exception.

Poland. — No similar provision is contained in the Decree of 29 July 1925.

Rumania. — § 25 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that when it is necessary to employ a trimmer or stoker in a port where workers of this category of more than 18 years of age are not available, young persons under 18 years and over 16 years of age may be employed but in this case two young persons must be employed to fill the place of each trimmer or stoker required.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — See under ARTICLE 3.

Spain. — § 41 of the Labour Code provides that when it is not possible to find trimmers or stokers over eighteen years of age in the port at which the vessel is at anchor, young persons of less than eighteen and more than sixteen years of age may be employed, provided that it shall be necessary to engage two such young persons in place of the trimmer or stoker required.

Sweden. — See ARTICLE 3.

ARTICLE 5.

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every shipmaster shall be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of eighteen years employed on board his vessel, or a list of them in the articles of agreement, and of the dates of their births.

In addition, please give details of the method of registration in use and forward a specimen copy of the register, if any, prescribed in virtue of this Article.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms. The supervision of their application is ensured by the maritime commissioners at the time of signing on of the seamen, by means of the lists of the crew which contain, in addition to the name of each trimmer or stoker employed, the nature of his duties and the date of his birth.

Bulgaria. — Applicants for employment in the Bulgarian Navigation Company are required to submit birth certificates to prove that they are over twenty-one years of age. These certificates are registered in the work books, which, in accordance with § 7 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company, are supplied to their seamen on their entry into employment.

Canada. — § 163 (10) of the Canada Shipping Act provides that there shall be included in every agreement with the crew of a sea-going ship registered in Canada entered into under this Act a list of young persons under the age of 18 years who are members of the crew, together with particulars of the dates of their birth, and, in the case of a ship in which there is no such agreement, the master of the ship shall, if young persons under the age of 18 years are employed thereon, keep a register of those persons with particulars of the dates of their birth and of the dates on which they become or cease to be members of the crew.

Denmark. — § 11 of the Seamen’s Act provides that the captain must keep a list of crew or muster roll, the correctness of which, under § 13 of the Act of 26 February 1872, must be examined by the maritime registration officer before the enrolment takes place.

Estonia. — Under § 11 of the Act of 22 March 1928 every seaman must receive from the captain on being signed on a book in accordance with the model prescribed by the Minister of Communications; this book must state, inter alia, the year and the date of birth of the seaman.

Finland. — By § 10 of the Seamen’s Act the age of young persons under 18 years must be established by means of a certifi-
cante delivered by a pastor or other public authority. § 11 provides that seamen shall be furnished by the captain with a wages book drawn up in accordance with the form prescribed by the Shipping Board, which book shall contain the date of the seaman’s birth.

Great Britain. — § 2 (2) of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 provides that the agreement with the crew or, where there is no agreement, a register kept by the master of the ship must contain a list of all members of the crew under 18 years of age with dates of birth and dates of commencement and termination of service.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article. The Government further reports that the object of this Article is served by the lascar form of agreement which has to be used on all ships other than home trade ships of less than 300 tons burden. The name, age and date of his birth and the nature of his duties on board.

Italy. — The Mercantile Marine Code of 24 October 1877 and the Regulations of 20 November 1879 for the execution of this Code provide that the captain must keep a muster roll showing the year of birth of each member of the crew. (§ 923 of the Regulations). Moreover, the captain is required to keep on board ship the service books of the crew; these books also contain the date of birth of every member of the crew.

Latvia. — The Regulations of 30 October 1928 provide in § 11 that when a seaman is signed on the captain must deliver to him a wage book in accordance with the regulations issued by the Minister of Marine. This book must state inter alia the name and surname of the seaman, the year and date of his birth and the nature of his duties on board.

Norway. — The Act of 19 June 1888 as completed provides that the captain must keep a muster-roll of the crew or a list mentioning all persons employed on board and the dates of their birth.

Poland. — § 11 of the Employment of Women and Young Persons Act provides that every employer who employs young persons (i.e. persons between fifteen and eighteen years of age) “shall keep a register of the said young persons in accordance with a model prescribed by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare”, which register is open to the examination of the factory inspection authorities. The prescribed model was published in the Decree of 14 December 1924.

Rumania. — The report states that in accordance with the prescriptions at present in force every person engaged on board (seaman, trimmer, stoker) must possess a separate book (§ 8 of the Act of 1907 concerning the organisation of the Merchant Marine and § of the Regulations of 1928) and that all contracts of employment must be made in writing and inscribed in the ship’s register, the keeping of which is obligatory for the captain (§§ 510 and 532 of the Rumanian Commercial Code). By the particulars contained in these documents the date of birth of all persons employed on board can be easily verified.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov­ enes. — The report states that all vessels are required to keep a list of the crew as well as of the articles of agreement of the seamen. The list of the crew enables the age of all persons engaged on board to be verified clearly.

Spain. — § 35 of the Labour Code provides that the articles of agreement shall mention the date of birth of every person under eighteen years of age.

Sweden. — §§ 36 and 51 of the Royal Order of 13 June 1911 concerning shipping offices and the engagement and discharge of seamen, etc., contain provisions which, as regards the date of birth, are in conformity with those of Article 4 of the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea. A Royal Decree was issued on 22 December 1922 amending certain portions of this Order in order to bring it into stricter accordance with the stipulations regarding the registration of the age of minors employed on board ship. § 11 of the Seamen’s Act of 1922 provides that each seaman shall be furnished with a wages book showing, inter alia, the date of his birth.

ARTICLE 6.

Articles of agreement shall contain a brief summary of the provisions of this Convention.

Belgium. — § 5 of the Act of 5 June 1928 provides that the service book issued to each seaman must contain the principal provisions of the Act.

Bulgaria. — § 7 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company provides that the work book shall contain “excerpts from the acts, regulations and international conventions relating to navigation and working conditions which should be known by the seaman.”

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act provides in § 163 that there shall be included in every agreement with the crew a
short summary of the provisions relating to the employment of young persons as trimmers or stokers.

**Denmark.** — § 11 of the Seamen’s Act of 1 May 1923 provides that the account book which must be delivered to every seaman engaged must contain the most important provisions relating to the crew.

**Estonia.** — § 74 of the Act of 22 March 1928 provides that the captain must see that a copy of the Act is available on board ship for purposes of reference.

**Finland.** — § 11 of the Seamen’s Act provides that all the conditions of engagement must be entered in the wages book delivered to each seaman, and § 88 requires the captain to see that a copy of the Act is accessible on board.

**Great Britain.** — § 2 (3) of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 provides that a short summary of the provisions of the section must be included in every agreement with the crew.

**India.** — See introductory note.

**Italy.** — The report states that the maritime authority, before whom the articles of agreement must be drawn up, ensures that the provisions of the Convention relating to the minimum age of the workers in question are applied as rules of public law at the time of the drawing up of the articles. This explains why the specimen copy of the articles of agreement communicated to the International Labour Office only fixes, as regards the workers in question, the number to be employed in proportion to the amount of coal to be handled.

**Latvia.** — Under § 74 of the Regulations of 30 October 1928 the captain is required to see that at least one copy of the regulation is available on board ship.

**Norway.** — According to the terms of § 11 of the Act of 16 February 1923, the seaman must receive on the conclusion of his contract of engagement an accounts book, containing in addition to the articles of agreement a summary of the provisions of the laws and regulations relating particularly to seamen, especially those of § 10 of the Act relating to the minimum age of admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers.

**Poland.** — The Seamen’s Code of 2 June 1902 provides that at the time of his engagement the seaman must receive a statement signed by the captain or by a representative of the shipowner containing the principal conditions of his contract. The maritime office, to which the contract of engagement must be officially notified in the presence of the seaman and a representative of the shipowner, supervises the application of the provisions of the Order of 29 July 1925 which contains the list of the works in which the employment of young persons and women is prohibited and which gives effect to the Convention.

**Rumania.** — The report states that steps will be taken in order that the form of the articles of agreement of seamen may be modified in accordance with the provisions of Article 2 of the Convention.

**Spain.** — § 35 (13) of the Labour Code provides that the articles of agreement shall contain a summary of the provisions of this Convention.

**Sweden.** — The wages book with which each seaman must be furnished, under § 11 of the Seamen’s Act, contains all the conditions of engagement including the provisions of the Act which correspond with the main provisions of this Convention.

### III.

**Article 11 of the Convention is as follows:**

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Articles 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

**Belgium.** — The Government states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo, nor to the territories under mandate, as local conditions do not at present allow of application.

**Denmark.** — The report states that the ratification does not include Greenland.

**Great Britain.** — § 6 of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 provided that the provisions of the Act could, by Order in Council, be applied to ships registered in British possessions, including territories under
mandate. Under this section the Convention has been applied by Order in Council to the following maritime colonies: Bermuda, Cyprus, Fiji, Jamaica, Trinidad, and, with slight modifications, to the following: Mauritius, Seychelles, Straits Settlements. The Government of Malta has decided to adopt the Convention and intends to introduce legislation in the near future to give effect to its provisions in so far as they may be adapted to suit local conditions. Reasons for non-application in the case of particular Dependencies were as follows:

Tanganyika. — Native vessels are the only vessels registered in the territory. In the circumstances no useful purpose would be served by applying the 1925 Act.

Nigeria. — The application of the Act to Nigeria would be ill advised. A native of Nigeria at the age of 16 is capable of a full task of work.

Gold Coast. — Under § 89 of the Imperial Merchant Shipping Act of 1894, the Governor has power to appoint a port of registry for ships in the Colony, but no such port has ever been appointed. All the inter-Colonial trade of the Colony is carried by ocean-going steamers registered in Great Britain or elsewhere, and there is no necessity for the appointment of a port of registry on the Gold Coast. In these circumstances it was thought unnecessary to apply the provisions of the 1925 Act to the Colony.

Somaliland. — The only vessels registered in the Protectorate are native sailing dhows of small tonnage engaged mainly in local coasting trade. The general rule is for all members of the crew to have a share in the profits of the voyage rather than for them to be on a pay roll.

Gibraltar. — Having regard to the small number of vessels registered at the port, it was not thought advisable that the provisions of the 1925 Act should be made applicable to ships registered in Gibraltar.

Windward Islands. — As there are no ships other than small sailing craft registered in these Islands, the application of the provisions of the Imperial Act was not necessary.

Italy. — The Government reports that the Convention has not been extended to the colonies in consequence of the local conditions in each of these territories.

Spain. — The report for 1925 stated that the Regulations approved by Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, now incorporated in the Labour Code, applied without modification to all territories under Spanish sovereignty.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 17 September 1926.

Bulgaria. — 6 March 1925.

Canada. — 31 March 1926.

Denmark. — 8 July 1924.

Estonia. — 19 August 1925.

Finland. — 10 October 1925.

Great Britain. — 8 March 1926.

India. — 20 November 1922.

Italy. — 8 September 1924.

Latvia. — 30 October 1928.

Norway. — 7 October 1927.

Poland. — 21 June 1924.

Rumania. — 13 April 1928, date of coming into force of Act of 9 April 1928.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — 1 April 1927.

Spain. — 14 April 1925.

Sweden. — 14 July 1925.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The supervision of the application of the provisions of the Convention is carried out by the shipping officers when seamen are engaged, and by means of the muster rolls which show against the name of each trimmer or stoker engaged his rating and the date of his birth.

Bulgaria. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Canada. — The application of the legislation giving effect to the Convention is supervised by the Marine Branch of the Department of Marine and Fisheries.

Denmark. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to employment at sea.

Estonia. — The report states that supervision is exercised by the officials of the Seamen's Institute.

Finland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Great Britain. — In the case of foreign-going vessels, the superintendent in the United Kingdom or shipping master in other parts of the British Empire, or British consul abroad, before whom the crew is engaged, satisfies himself that no person under the age of 18 is employed. In the case of home-trade or fishing vessels, whose crews are not ordinarily engaged before a
superintendent, the half-yearly agreement or the list of crew (where no agreement is carried) is examined, when it is deposited on expiration. The penalties for offences are laid down in § 4 of the Act. The ordinary judicial procedure applies to such offences subject to the special provisions as to legal proceedings in Part XIII of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894.

**India.** — The enforcing authorities are the shipping officers, who exercise supervision at the ports of recruitment at the time of signing agreements.

**Italy.** — The application of the measures is entrusted to the maritime authorities, who work under the control of the General Directorate of the Mercantile Marine at the Ministry of Communications.

**Latvia.** — The supervision of the application of the Regulations of 30 October 1928 is entrusted to the Department for the Protection of Labour in the Ministry of Social Welfare.

**Norway.** — The supervision of the application of the relevant provisions is entrusted to the officers of the registration services. Abroad, the Norwegian consuls are responsible for the supervision.

**Poland.** — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.

**Rumania.** — Contraventions of the Act of 9 April 1928 will be reported by the inspection and supervisory authorities. Moreover, in accordance with §§ 6 and 16 of the Regulations for the application of the Act of 1907 concerning the organisation of the mercantile marine, the crew employed on board is subject to supervision by the port authorities and the navigation and harbour inspectorate.

**Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovences.** — The application of the legislation in question is entrusted to the Directorate of Maritime Affairs.

**Spain.** — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

**Sweden.** — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers affected, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

**Bulgaria.** — The report states that no contraventions have been reported.

**Finland.** — The report states that no statistics showing the number of persons covered by the Convention are available.

**India.** — The Government states that no young persons below the age of 18 years were signed on on vessels as trimmers or stokers at any of the ports of the Presidency of Madras, in Burma and at the ports of Karachi and Aden. At the port of Bombay, also, no young persons below that age were employed in the engine rooms of foreign-going vessels, but 50 boys of not less than 16 years of age were signed on at that port as lascars and stokers on ships employed in the coasting trade of India. In the ports in Bengal, 32 persons below 18 years were shipped in 1928 for work in the saloon and deck department; none were employed as coal trimmers or in the engine department.

**Norway.** — The report states that no statistics are available concerning the number of persons covered by this legislation. On the other hand, no cases of infraction or of attempted infraction of the legislation were reported to the authorities.

**Poland.** — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment. No contraventions of the provisions of this Convention have been reported.

**Spain.** — The report states that no contraventions worthy of note have been reported.

**Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea.**

This Convention came into force on 20 November 1922. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:
The Government of Belgium reports that the provisions of the Convention have now been embodied in Belgian law by the passing of the Act of 5 June 1928 relating to seamen's articles of agreement which was published in the Moniteur belge of 26 July 1928 and which came into force on 4 August 1928.

The Government of India reports that the Convention is not at present enforced by legislative measures as distinct from executive regulations. Instructions have been issued to medical officers regarding the strict enforcement of the Convention. The Government proposes to undertake separate legislation for giving statutory effect to the Conventions relating to seamen ratified by India, and this will be done as soon as the programme of legislation allows the introduction of a Bill on the subject.

The Italian Government states in its report that a special committee is at present enquiring into the question of the diseases on account of which a person would be excluded from employment on board ship in the mercantile marine.

As regards Rumania, the Government states in its report that the provisions of the Convention are applied by the Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work. In accordance with § 52 of this Act, Regulations prescribing the details of application of the Act were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.
The Act of 5 June 1928 relating to seamen's articles of agreement (L. S. 1928, Belg. 5A).

Bulgaria.
Regulations of 8 August 1923 relating to the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Canada.
Canada Shipping Act, Revised Statutes, 1927.

Estonia.
Seamen's Act of 22 March 1928 (L. S. 1928, Est. 1B).

Finland.
Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 (L. S. 1924, Fin. 1).
Act of 26 May 1925 amending the Seamen's Act (L. S. 1925, Fin. 2).
Order of 19 September 1925 bringing the Convention into force.

Great Britain.
Merchant Shipping Act, 1904.

India.
Instructions to medical officers issued by the Provincial Governments.
See also introductory note.

Italy.
Royal Legislative Decree of 20 March 1927 prolonging the provisions conditioning the registration of seamen.
Royal Decree of 27 December 1925 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Japan.
Act of 29 March 1923 concerning the minimum age and health certificate for seamen (L. S. 1923, Jap. 3) amended by Act No. 2 of February 1927.
Act concerning the application of the Act of 29 March 1923 (Imperial Ordinance No. 482 of 10 November 1924, issued under the Act of 29 March 1923 (L. S. 1923, Jap. 4), amended by Imperial Order No. 16 issued in February 1925).
Regulations of 19 November 1923 for the enforcement of the Act of 29 March 1923 (Ordinance of the Department of Communications No. 96, amended by the Ordinance of the Department of communications, No. 6 issued in February 1923).

Latvia.
Regulations of 30 October 1928 concerning seamen (L. S. 1928, Lat. 4).

Poland.
Act of 28 May 1920 concerning the Polish Mercantile Marine.
Act of 2 July 1924 relating to the employment of women and young persons (L. S. 1924, Pol. 2).

Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 14 December 1924 respecting registers and lists of young persons (L. S. 1924, Pol. 9 B).


Rumania.

Act of 9 April 1928 relating to the employment of young persons and women and the regulation of hours of work (L. S. 1928, Rum. 1).

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Orders No. 1,400 of 21 October 1919, No. 1,400 of 26 October 1919, No. 1,450 of 30 October 1919 and No. 1,500 of 31 October 1919, issued by the Directorate of Maritime Affairs.


Order No. 2,667 of 26 April 1852 of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

Instructions issued by the Minister of War in 1921 contained in a Circular on maritime navigation.

Decree No. 668 of 25 January 1873 issued by the Directorate of Maritime Affairs.

Spain.


Sweden.

Royal Order No. 263 of 22 May 1925 concerning the standard of health and physique required of seamen before engagement for certain voyages.

Royal Order of 31 December 1917 relating to medical certificates for seamen, amended by the Royal Order No. 564 of 22 May 1925.

II.

Indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions relating to medical certificates, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term “vessel” includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned; it excludes ships of war.

Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not contain a definition of the term “vessel”. The report, however, states that the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms.

Bulgaria. — The Regulations respecting the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company use the term “vessel” without further definition.

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act provides in § 124 (g) that the term “ship” where it appears in any section relating to the employment of children or young persons means any ship or boat registered in Canada which goes to sea or is about to go to sea and does not include any ship employed exclusively within the limits of the inland waters of Canada as defined in this Act’.

Estonia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 does not contain a specific definition of the term “vessel”. According to § 73 of this Act, vessels belonging to the State employed for defence or administrative purposes and vessels under 60 tons gross are excluded from the scope of its application.

Finland. — § 86 of the Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1924, as amended by the Act of 26 May 1925, lays down that the provisions of §§ 10 and 11 of the Seamen’s Act, under which the Convention is applied, shall not apply to vessels belonging to the State which are used for purposes of defence or to vessels on which only persons belonging to the owner’s family are employed.

Great Britain. — According to § 5 of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925, the expression “ship” means any sea-going ship or boat of any description which is registered in the United Kingdom as a British ship, and includes any British fishing-boat entered in the fishing-boat register, but does not include any tug, dredger, sludge vessel, barge, or other craft whose ordinary course of navigation does not extend beyond the seaward limits of the jurisdiction of the harbour authority of the port at which such vessel is regularly employed, if and so long as such vessel is engaged in her ordinary occupation.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma define the term “vessel” as in this Article.

Italy. — The Royal Legislative Decree of 20 March 1927 prolonging the provisions conditioning the registration of seamen until 31 March 1929 does not define the term “vessel”, but the Decree is of general application. The report further points out that the Convention has force of law in Italy in virtue of the Royal Decree of 27 December 1925, and that in Italian maritime law the term “vessel” has the same meaning as in the Convention.

Japan. — The Act of 29 March 1923, concerning the minimum age and health certificate for seamen, as amended applies, save in cases where only members of the same family are employed, to “seamen on vessels making coasting or longer voyages, except in the cases specified by Imperial Order”. The Imperial Order of 19 November 1923 as amended exempts from the provisions relating to medical certificates “seamen on vessels engaged in fishing or on those whose total tonnage is less than 20 tons, or whose capacity is below 200 koku”. 1

1 A koku equals 4.9629 bushels or 39.7033 gallons.
Latvia. — The Regulations of 30 October 1928 do not contain a specific definition of the term "vessel", § 73 of the Act, however, provides that the provisions giving effect to the Convention are not applicable to ships of war, vessels engaged in the service of the State and pleasure boats.

Poland. — The Act of 28 May 1920 applies to all merchant vessels, i.e., to vessels which are engaged in maritime navigation with a view to pecuniary gain. The report adds that, for the application of the regulations in force, by the term "vessel" is meant all ships engaged in maritime navigation with the exception of ships of war. The German Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902, which has been kept in force in Poland, applies to all merchant vessels which are allowed to fly the flag of the State.

Rumania. — § 25 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that by the term "vessels engaged in maritime navigation" is meant all steamers, vessels or ships whether publicly or privately owned engaged in maritime navigation with the exception of ships of war.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that according to the Orders of 1919 the term "vessel" is understood in national legislation to mean all vessels, ships or boats without distinction which are engaged in maritime navigation whether for commercial purposes, for pleasure, investigation or in the public service, with the exception of ships of war.

Spain. — No specific definition of the term "vessel" is given in the sections of the Labour Code in which the Regulations respecting the engagement of crews for merchant vessels, approved by Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, have been included. In Spanish law, however, the term "merchant marine" covers all vessels, whatever may be their employment, except ships of war.

Sweden. — § 1 (2) of the Royal Order No. 283 of 22 May 1925 concerning the standard of health and physique required of seamen before engagement for certain voyages applies to "vessels navigating outside Swedish waters elsewhere than in Oresund or in Oslo Fjord as far as Laurvig". The report states that vessels navigating in Swedish territorial waters, which consist for the most part of archipelagoes, lakes and rivers, and in the Oresund and Oslo Fjord as far as Laurvig, are not deemed to be engaged in maritime navigation for the purposes of the Convention. No exception has been made for ships of war.

Belgium. — § 21 of the Act of 5 June 1928 makes the inscription of the seaman in the list of the crew subject to a medical examination carried out by a doctor appointed by the shipowner, failing which, by a doctor nominated by the maritime authority and certifying that the employment on board ship of the seaman does not involve any danger to his own health or to that of the crew. A medical certificate is granted to the seaman by the doctor who has conducted the examination. According to § 103 the doctor must refuse this certificate to a seaman under 18 years of age if his constitution or the state of his health render him unfit for service on board. Moreover, the report states that the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms.

Bulgaria. — § 3 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company provides, inter alia, that the minimum age for admission to employment on board ship shall be twenty-one years. By § 6 "no man may be admitted to employment on board ship unless he produces a medical certificate signed by the port or a State doctor."

Canada. — The Canada Shipping Act provides in § 163 (6) that no young person shall be employed in any capacity in any ship unless there has been delivered to the master of the ship a certificate granted by a duly qualified medical practitioner certifying that the young person is fit to be employed in that capacity; this provision does not, however, apply to the employment of a young person in a ship in which only members of one family are employed.

Estonia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 lays down in § 10 (4) that the employment of any young persons under eighteen years of age on any vessel other than vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed shall be conditional on the production of a medical certificate attesting fitness for such work and signed by a doctor approved by the competent authority.

Finland. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 provides that, before a young person under eighteen years of age is engaged on board ship, it shall be ascertained by means of a medical examination paid for by the shipowners that the employment
will not be injurious to the health or physical development of the young person. The examination is carried out in the large towns by special medical officers, in other places by the district medical officers or by the ordinary medical practitioners all of whom must be recognised by the Central Medical Administration of Finland. By § 86 vessels on which only persons belonging to the owner’s family are employed are exempted from the provisions of the Act.

Great Britain. — § 3 (1) of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 provides that no young person shall be employed in any capacity in any ship, unless there has been delivered to the master of the ship a certificate granted by a duly qualified medical practitioner certifying that the young person is fit to be employed in that capacity. § 3 (1) (a) lays down that the foregoing provisions shall not apply to the employment of a young person in a ship in which only members of the same family are employed.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article and provide that the medical certificates must be signed by the Port Health Officer or other approved doctor.

Italy. — The Royal Legislative Decree of 29 March 1927 provides by § 1 that persons shall not be signed on as seamen unless they have undergone a medical examination establishing their fitness for service at sea. This examination is carried out by the port medical officer, who is a public official duly approved by the Ministry of the Interior, or, in default, by medical officers of the navy or of the army.

Japan. — The Act of 29 March 1923 as amended provides by § 3 that “persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed as seamen unless they hold a health certificate, signed by a doctor, attesting their fitness for work on vessels, as prescribed by the competent Minister.”

Latvia. — The Regulations of 30 October 1928 provide in § 10 that for the employment on board ship of persons under 18 years of age a medical certificate is necessary stating that the work is not injurious to the health or the physical development of the worker. The exception with regard to vessels in which only members of the same family are employed is provided for in the Regulations.

Poland. — The Employment of Women and Young Persons Act of 2 July 1924 provides by § 6 that young persons (persons between the age of fifteen and eighteen years, the employment of children under the age of fifteen years being prohibited) must produce on entering employment a certificate from a medical practitioner, designated by the factory inspectorate, to the effect that the employment in question is not beyond the strength of the young person.

Rumania. — § 26 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that with the exception of vessels in which only members of the same family are employed, children and young persons under 18 years of age may be employed on board ship only upon the production of a medical certificate attesting their fitness for this work, granted free of charge by a medical officer of the health service of the Government, the department or the commune.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovaks. — The Act of 29 March 1923 provides by § 1 that persons under 18 years of age may be employed on board ship only on the production of a medical certificate stating that such young persons are fit for the work and are not suffering from a contagious disease (syphilis).

Spain. — § 40 of the Labour Code stipulates that the employment of any young persons under eighteen years of age on any vessel, other than vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed, shall be conditional on the production, at the time of engagement and every year subsequent to engagement, of a medical certificate, attesting fitness for the work for which they have been engaged, drawn up by the port medical authorities.

Sweden. — § 1 (2) of the Order of 22 May 1925 (No. 263) provides that “young persons under eighteen years of age may not be employed on board ship unless they have proved to the captain by the production of a medical certificate that they are free from disease or disability and that their physical development is without defect.” Medical practitioners approved by the Royal Administration of Public Health are competent to deliver medical certificates. Vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed are exempted.

Article 3.

The continued employment at sea of any such child or young person shall be subject to the repetition of such medical examination at intervals of not more than one year, and the production, after each such examination, of a further medical certificate attesting fitness for such work. Should a medical certificate expire in the course of a voyage, it shall remain in force until the end of the said voyage.

Belgium. — The Act of 5 June 1928 does not contain similar provisions. The report, however, states that the provisions of the
Convention are applied in accordance with the terms of its articles.

Bulgaria. — This question does not arise as § 3 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company provides, inter alia, that the minimum age for admission to employment on board ship shall be twenty-one years.

Canada. — § 163 (9) of the Canada Shipping Act provides that a certificate under the relevant provisions of this Act shall remain in force for a period of 12 months from the date on which it is granted and no longer, but if the said period of 12 months expires at some time during the course of the voyage of the ship in which the young person is employed, the certificate shall remain in force until the end of the voyage.

Estonia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 lays down in § 10 (4) that the continued employment at sea of young persons under 18 years of age shall be subject to the repetition of the medical examination at intervals of not more than one year and the production after such examination of a further medical certificate attesting fitness for such work. Should a medical certificate expire in the course of a voyage, it shall remain in force until the end of the voyage.

Finland. — The Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1924 provides in § 10 that if the young person employed on board ship is engaged for a considerable period it shall be ascertained by medical examination at regular intervals of not more than one year that the continuation of the employment will not be injurious to him. If the interval at the end of which the medical examination should be made expires during a voyage, the employment may be continued until the end of the voyage without a further examination.

Great Britain. — § 3 (2) of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, lays down that a medical certificate shall remain in force for a period of twelve months from the date on which it is granted, and no longer. Provided that, if the said period of twelve months expires at some time during the course of the voyage of the ship in which the young person is employed, the certificate shall remain in force until the end of the voyage.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article.

Italy. — The report states that the obligation laid down in this Article is satisfactorily met by the preventive examinations carried out by the medical officers of the accident insurance institutions and by the general supervision exercised by the port authorities over the fitness of seamen for work at sea.

Japan. — By § 3 of the Act of 29 March 1923 as amended the period of validity of the health certificate, prescribed for persons under eighteen years of age employed as seamen, is one year. If this period expires during a voyage the certificate is deemed valid until the end of the voyage.

Latvia. — The Regulations of 30 October 1928 provide in § 10 that in cases of employment on board ship of long duration it must be established by medical certificate, at intervals not exceeding one year, that the continuation of such employment is not injurious to the young persons under 18 years of age. If the period fixed by the medical certificate expires during the course of a voyage, the seaman may continue in employment without further medical examination until the end of the voyage.

Poland. — § 7 of the Employment of Women and Young Persons Act of 2 July 1924 lays down that the management of an undertaking shall be bound to arrange, at the request of the factory inspector, at any time for the gratuitous examination of a young person by the medical practitioner designated by the factory inspector, in order to ascertain that the work on which the young person is employed is not beyond his physical strength or injurious to his development. The inspector may, on account of the medical practitioner’s findings, prohibit the employment of the young person on the work in question and also state the kind of work on which he may be employed. The Order of 14 December 1924, which prescribes the model for the register of young persons which employers are required to keep under § 11 of the Act, provides that mention shall be made in the register of the medical certificates submitted by young persons.

Rumania. — § 26 of the Act of 9 April 1928 provides that the employment of children or young persons in maritime work may be continued only by the renewal of the medical examination at intervals not exceeding one year and on the production, after each new examination, of a medical certificate attesting their fitness for maritime work. If, however, the period of validity of the certificate expires in the course of a voyage it may be extended until the completion of the voyage.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report does not expressly
refer to the question of the repetition of the medical examination.

Spain. — § 40 of the Labour Code stipulates that the employment of any young persons under eighteen years of age shall be conditional on the production, every year subsequent to engagement, of a medical certificate, attesting fitness for the work for which they have been engaged, drawn up by the port medical authorities.

Sweden. — § 2 of the Order of 22 May 1925 (No. 263) provides that "the medical certificate shall remain valid during the twelve months subsequent to the examination at which it is granted. Nevertheless, if its validity expires in the course of a voyage it shall remain in force until the end of the said voyage."

ARTICLE 4.

In urgent cases, the competent authority may allow a young person below the age of eighteen years to embark without having undergone the examination provided for in Articles 2 and 3 of this Convention, always provided that such an examination shall be undergone at the first port at which the vessel calls.

Belgium. — § 21 of the Act of 5 June 1928 provides that in cases of emergency the maritime commissioner or the consul may dispense with the medical examination. The report, however, states that the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with the terms of its articles.

Bulgaria. — The question does not arise in regard to the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Canada. — § 163 (8) of the Canada Shipping Act provides that the shipping master or consular officer may on the ground of urgency, authorise a young person to be employed on board ship notwithstanding that no certificate has been delivered to the master of the ship, but the young person in whose case any such authorisation is given shall not be employed beyond the first port at which the ship calls after the young person has embarked thereon unless a certificate prescribed by the Act is delivered to the master of the ship.

Estonia. — The Act of 22 March 1928 provides in § 10 (4) that in urgent cases the competent authority may allow a young person below the age of eighteen years to embark without having undergone the examination provided that such an examination shall be undergone at the first port at which the vessel calls.

Finland. — No corresponding provision is contained in the Seamen’s Act of 8 March 1924.

Great Britain. — § 3 (1) (b) of the Merchant Shipping Act 1925 provides that a superintendent or consular officer may on the ground of urgency authorise a young person to be employed in a ship, notwithstanding that no medical certificate has been delivered to the master of the ship, but a young person in whose case any such authorisation is given shall not be employed beyond the first port at which the ship calls after the young person has embarked thereon, except subject to and in accordance with the provisions of the Act in respect of medical examination.

India. — See introductory note. The instructions issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article.

Italy. — No provision has been made for utilising the exception allowed by this Article.

Japan. — § 3 of the Act of 29 March 1923 as amended provides that the rule requiring the possession of a health certificate by any person under the age of eighteen years entering into employment as a seaman shall not apply in cases of emergency. Where, in accordance with the provision, persons without health certificates have been employed, the captain is required to take the necessary steps at the first port of call to obtain the prescribed certificates and in this case persons who fail to obtain such certificates may not continue to be employed.

Latvia. — According to § 10 of the Regulations of 30 October 1928 young persons under 18 years of age may be employed on board ship in cases of emergency without a medical examination provided that such medical examination takes place at the first port of loading or unloading of the vessel.

Poland. — The Employment of Women and Young Persons Act contains no parallel provisions.

Rumania. — The Act of 9 April 1928 provides in § 26 that in cases of emergency the port authorities may admit a young man under the age of 18 years for employment on board without having been medically examined as laid down by the law, provided that such examination takes place at the first port of call.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slavonians. — The report refers to the Decree of 25 January 1873 which provides that, if a seaman applies to the Consuls in the course of the voyage for a renewal of his right to continue in employment at sea, the seaman shall not be required to produce a medical certificate attesting fitness for such work, but he may be allowed to continue in employment provided an entry
is made in his service book that he must provide himself with a medical certificate at the first port where the vessel calls subsequently.

Spain. — § 40 of the Labour Code provides that in urgent cases young persons below the age of eighteen years may be embarked without submitting a certificate of this nature, provided that they be examined at the first port at which the vessels calls.

Sweden. — § 1 of the Order of 22 May 1925 (No. 263) provides that “if special reasons occur, the competent inspection authority in Swedish territory or the Swedish consuls abroad may allow a young person below the age of eighteen years to embark although the prescribed medical certificate has not been submitted to the captain. Such permission shall only be valid until such time as the vessel concerned calls at a place where there is a qualified doctor.”

III.

Article 9 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The Government states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo, nor to the territories under mandate, as local conditions do not at present allow of application.

Great Britain. — § 6 of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1925, provided that the provisions of the Act could, by Order in Council, be applied to ships registered in British possessions, including territories under mandate. Under this section, the Convention has been applied by Order in Council to the following maritime colonies: Trinity, Cyprus, Fiji, Jamaica, Trinidad; and, with slight modifications, to the following: Mauritius, Seychelles, Straits Settlements. The Government of Malta has decided to adopt the Convention and intends to introduce legislation in the near future to give effect to its provisions in so far as they may be adapted to suit local conditions. Reasons for non-application in the case of particular Dependencies were as follows:

Tanganyika. — Native vessels are the only vessels registered in the territory. In the circumstances no useful purpose would be served by applying the 1925 Act.

Nigeria. — The application of the Act to Nigeria would be ill advised. The machinery necessary for enforcing the medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea does not exist.

Gold Coast. — Under § 80 of the Imperial Merchant Shipping Act of 1894, the Governor has power to appoint a port of registry for ships in the Colony, but no such port has ever been appointed. All the inter-Colonial trade of the Colony is carried by ocean-going steamers registered in Great Britain or elsewhere, and there is no necessity for the appointment of a port of registry on the Gold Coast. In these circumstances it was thought unnecessary to apply the provisions of the 1925 Act to the Colony.

Somailand. — The only vessels registered in the Protectorate are native sailing dhows of small tonnage engaged mainly in local coasting trade. The general rule is for all members of the crew to have a share in the profits of the voyage rather than for them to be on a pay roll.

Gibraltar. — Having regard to the small number of vessels registered at the port, it was not thought advisable that the provisions of the 1925 Act should be made applicable to ships registered in Gibraltar.

Windward Islands. — As there are no ships other than small sailing craft registered in these Islands, the application of the provisions of the Imperial Act was not necessary.

Italy. — The Government states that the Convention has not yet been applied to the colonies, as local conditions in each colony make such application impossible.

Japan. — The Government states that the markedly different conditions obtaining in the colonies render the Convention unsuitable for application to them, and for that reason the Convention has not yet been applied.

Spain. — The report for 1925 stated that the Regulations approved by Royal Decree of 26 March 1925, now incorporated in the Labour Code, applied without modification to all territories under Spanish sovereignty.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 17 September 1926.

Bulgaria. — 6 March 1925.

Canada. — 31 March 1926.

Estonia. — 8 January 1926.

Finland. — 10 October 1925.
Great Britain. -- 8 March 1926.
India. — 20 November 1922.
Italy. — 8 September 1924.
Japan. — 7 June 1924.
Latvia. — 9 September 1924.
Poland. — 21 June 1924.
Rumania. — 13 April 1928, date of coming into force of the Act of 9 April 1928.
Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes. — 20 April 1927.
Spain. — 14 April 1925.
Sweden. — 14 July 1925.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The supervision of the application of the provisions of the Convention is carried out by the shipping officers when the muster rolls are drawn up.

Bulgaria. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Canada. — The application of the legislation giving effect to the Convention is entrusted to the Marine Branch of the Department of Marine and Fisheries except that applicants for medical examination by a Government physician are looked after by Port-Doctors under the Department of Health.

Estonia. — The application of the Act of 18 December 1925 concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea is entrusted to the officials of the Seamen's Institute.

Finland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Great Britain. — In the case of foreign-going ships, the medical certificate of a young person under the age of 18 must be produced to the superintendent of a Mercantile Marine Office before whom he is engaged. In the case of home-trade ships and fishing vessels, whose crews are not usually engaged before a superintendent, such medical certificate is required to be produced when the half-yearly agreement or the list of crew is delivered up to the superintendent of a Mercantile Marine Office. Penalties for offences are laid down in § 4 of the Act. The ordinary judicial procedure applies to such offences subject to the special provisions as to legal proceedings in Part XIII of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894.

India. — The enforcement of the measures under which the Convention is applied is entrusted to the Port Health Officers. All persons covered by the Convention are medically examined before proceeding to sea.

Italy. — Supervision is entrusted to the Ministry of Communications, which acts through the maritime authorities dependent on it.

Japan. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Latvia. — Supervision of the application of the Convention is entrusted to the Labour Protection Department of the Ministry of Social Welfare.

Poland. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The supervision of the application of the relevant legislation is entrusted to the Directorate of Maritime Affairs.

Spain. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Sweden. — See the analysis of the report on the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.
Bulgaria. — The report states that no contraventions have yet been reported.

India. — The report states that no contraventions of the instructions issued on the subject have occurred or have been reported at any of the ports in the Madras Presidency and in Burma and at the ports of Karachi and Aden. At the port of Bombay 41 boys below the age of 16 years were signed on as deck ratings on vessels engaged in the coasting trade of India. These boys were, however, the sons of serangs and tindals and were taken on board by their parents for training. At the ports in Bengal, 32 persons below 18 years were shipped in 1928 for work in the saloon and deck department.

Japan. — The report states that no contraventions have been reported.

Spain. — The report states that no contraventions worthy of note have been reported.
Constitution concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.

This Convention came into force on 1 April 1927. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927 and from which annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>3.10.1927</td>
<td>26.12.1928</td>
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<tr>
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<td>10.12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingdom</td>
<td>8.9.1926</td>
<td>19.1.1928</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The report of the Belgian Government states that "no legislative or administrative action has been taken to ensure the enforcement of the Convention, since the Act of 24 December 1903 concerning industrial accidents is sufficient in this respect..." However, "since the 1903 Act does not provide for the supply and renewal of artificial limbs and surgical appliances, a Bill for the amendment of the Act, submitted to the Legislative Chambers on 14 February 1928 makes, in § 5, the necessary alterations to this effect."

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.


Netherlands.

Act of 2 January 1901 respecting the statutory insurance of workers against the pecuniary consequences of accidents in specified industries, text of the Decree of 28 June 1921 promulgating the said Act as amended and supplemented (L. S., 1921, Part II, Neth. 1), amended by the Act of 2 July 1928 (L. S., 1929, Neth. 1).

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.


Regulations of the Miners' Insurance Fund for workmen and staff employed in the undertakings of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes covered by the Mines Act; these regulations, which also apply to the families and relations of the said workmen and staff, were issued by the Order of 27 June 1921 of the Minister of Forests and Mines respecting the organisation of employment in mines and came into force under § 32 of the Finance Act of August-November 1925.

Order of the Minister of Communications of 30 May 1922 respecting the sickness and accident insurance of staff employed in the State communications services.

Sweden.


Royal Decrees of 30 November 1917 laying down certain provisions relating to the application of the Act respecting insurance against accidents to workers employed upon State employment, as amended by Decrees of 31 January 1919 and 9 November 1928.

Royal Decrees of 9 November 1928 respecting reports upon industrial accidents, etc. and of 31 December 1917 respecting the payment of the indemnities for which the Act respecting insurance against industrial accidents provides, with the amendments effected by the Decree of 9 November 1928.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.
ARTICLE 1.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention undertakes to ensure that workmen who suffer personal injury due to an industrial accident, or their dependents, shall be compensated on terms at least equal to those provided by this Convention.

See below, under ARTICLES 2 to 11.

ARTICLE 2.

The laws and regulations as to workmen's compensation shall apply to workmen, employees and apprentices employed by any enterprise, undertaking or establishment of whatsoever nature, whether public or private.

It shall nevertheless be open to any Member to make such exceptions in its national legislation as it deems necessary in respect of:

(a) persons whose employment is of a casual nature and who are employed otherwise than for the purpose of the employer's trade or business;
(b) out-workers;
(c) members of the employer's family who work exclusively on his behalf and who live in his house;
(d) non-manual workers whose remuneration exceeds a limit to be determined by national laws or regulations.

Where advantage has been taken of the possibility of making exceptions provided for in the second paragraph, (a), (b), (c) and (d), of this Article, please give as complete information as possible with regard to such exceptions. In respect of (d) please state what is the limit fixed by national laws or regulations with regard to the remuneration of non-manual workers.

Belgium. — § 2 (I) of the Act of 24 December 1903 enumerates the private or public undertakings which are covered by the Act. § 2 (II) adds to these undertakings industrial establishments not included under (I) which regularly employ at least five workers, agricultural undertakings which regularly employ at least three workers and shops in which at least three workers are regularly employed. § 2 (III) provides that the Act shall cover undertakings not falling under (I) or (II) which have, after consultation with the Commission on industrial accidents, been classified by Royal Decree as dangerous in character. The term "workers" includes apprentices, whether in receipt of wages or not, and those employees who, through direct or indirect participation in the work, are liable to the same risks as the workers, if their annual wages, as fixed by their contract, do not exceed 12,000 francs (§ 1). The report does not state whether any use has been made of the exceptions which are allowed by paragraph 2 (a), (b) and (c).

Netherlands. — Under § 1 of the Accident Insurance Act of 1921, all industries except the following are liable to statutory insurance: agriculture, stock-keeping, horticulture and forestry (these industries are covered by the Act of 1922 respecting accident insurance in agriculture and horticulture, Staatsblad No. 865), passenger and goods traffic carried on by ships which do not as a rule sail either on rivers or on inland waterways, or from one place within the country to another such place, and fishing carried on elsewhere than in rivers and inland waterways, as a rule out of sight of the Dutch coast. Under § 2 of the Act "worker" is defined as any person working for wages in the service of an employer in his undertaking in an industry liable to insurance. For the purpose of the application of the Act, the following are deemed to be workers, although they receive no wages: (1) Voluntary workers, apprentices, and similar persons, who receive no wages in connection with their training; (2) Persons below the age of 21 years; (3) Persons who receive payment in money from a third person on account of operations performed in the service of an employer. The report states that the persons covered by paragraph 2 (a) of the Convention are not regarded as "workers" under § 2 of the Act. The Act does not permit the exceptions allowed by paragraph 2 (b) and (c). The report states, as regards the exception under (d), that the worker is insured irrespective of his wages; §§ 16 (3) and 40 (8) of the Act provide, however, that for the purpose of assessing the compensation and the calculation of the premiums, any excess of the daily wage over eight gulden shall not be taken into account.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 3 of the Act of 14 May 1922 provides that "every person who performs physical or mental work for remuneration within the territory of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, either permanently or temporarily, irrespective of the terms of the employment, and without distinction of sex, age or nationality, shall be insured in accordance with the provisions of this Act. Apprentices, improvers, voluntary workers, pupils in workplaces belonging to public educational institutions (craft and technical schools, etc.), and likewise persons who receive no salaries or wages, or pay less than the customary rates, on account of the incompleteness of their training, shall be included among the persons liable to insurance".

Persons engaged in work for wages in their own workplaces or dwellings, by order and on account of another person carrying on a handicraft, commercial business or industry, are likewise liable to insurance, as are all persons engaged in home industry. For the lastnamed workers, however, the Minister of Social Affairs has not yet issued the special rules which are to provide the manner in which this insurance is to be effected. The members of the employer's family are liable to insurance. The report states that the exception allowed by Article 2 (d) of the Convention does not exist in Serb-
Croat-Slovene legislation. The regulations for the Miners' Insurance Fund apply to workers and staff employed in the State undertakings subject to the Mines Act, and the Order of 30 May 1922 applies to the staff of the State communication services.

**Sweden.** — The report states that all workers, including non-manual workers and apprentices, employed in private undertakings of any nature whatsoever, must be statutorily insured, in accordance with the Accident Insurance Act, against accidents arising from their employment. As regards the exceptions allowed by paragraph (2) of this Article of the Convention, the report states that the Act does not apply (a) to persons employed casually by someone who does not generally employ workers, (b) to persons performing work at their dwellings or at a place selected by themselves and (c) when the work is performed for the account of an employer only, his wife, his children, if they live under his roof, and his relations. The report does not refer to the exception allowed under (d).

**ARTICLE 3.**

This Convention shall not apply to

1. seamen and fishermen for whom provision shall be made by a later Convention;
2. persons covered by some special scheme, the terms of which are not less favourable than those of this Convention.

Where any classes of persons have been excepted in virtue of (2) of this Article, please give an account of the special schemes by which they are covered.

**Belgium.** — (1) The Act of 24 December 1903 does not apply to seamen or to fishermen. (2) The report does not refer to the question of persons covered by some special scheme.

**Netherlands.** — (1) The Act of 1921 does not apply to seamen or fishermen. The report states that the Act of 1919 respecting accidents at sea (Zeeongevalwet, 1919) applies to seamen. (2) The report states, with regard to the provisions of paragraph (2) of this Article of the Convention, that special schemes of this nature do not exist in the Netherlands.

**Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.** — (1) Seamen are included among the persons subject to compulsory insurance (§ 8 of the Act of 14 May 1922). Persons engaged in sea fishing are provisionally excluded (§ 6). (2) § 7 of the Act provided that for persons employed in offices, institutions or undertakings belonging to the State, a province, a country, a district, a town, a market town, a commune, a parish, an association of joint landowners, an association founded under the Water Act, or any other public body, institution or foundation, and likewise for employees of public railway and shipping undertakings, insurance shall not be compulsory, if they or their families are entitled to a pension in case of accident. Special schemes also exist for miners and the staff of the State communication services. In this respect the report states that the regulations of the Miners' Insurance Fund and the Order of the Minister of Communications of 30 May 1922 respecting the insurance of staff employed in the State communication services contain provisions equivalent to those of the Act of 14 May 1922.

**Sweden.** — (1) The report gives no information regarding seamen. (2) According to the report, the Government has the right to exclude from the scope of the Act persons engaged in employment for the State or for a commune if, by virtue of this fact, they secure indemnities corresponding in principles to those for which the Act provides. Under the Decree of 30 November 1917 this right has been used as regards persons employed by the State, who are, however, guaranteed indemnities in accordance with the principle of the Act.

**ARTICLE 4.**

This Convention shall not apply to agriculture, in respect of which the Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Third Session remains in force.

**Belgium.** — The Act of 24 December 1903 applies, under § 2 (II), to agricultural undertakings which regularly employ at least three workers. The Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture has not been ratified by Belgium.

**Netherlands.** — The report states that, as regards agriculture, the Act of 1922 respecting accident insurance in agriculture and horticulture is in force. The Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture has been ratified by the Netherlands.

**Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.** — The report states that the Act of 14 May 1922 also provides for the insurance of agricultural workers, but that this insurance has not yet come into force. Pending the introduction of this insurance by special regulations, the provisions of the Act of 14 May 1922 are applied in agricultural undertakings which use steam boilers or machinery actuated by simple means (wind, fire, water, steam, lighting gas, hot air, electricity, etc.) or by animal power. The Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes has not ratified the Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.
Sweden. — The Accident Insurance Act also applies to agriculture. Sweden has ratified the Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.

**Article 5.**

The compensation payable to the injured workman, or his dependants, where permanent incapacity or death results from the injury, shall be paid in the form of periodical payments: provided that it may be wholly or partially paid in a lump sum, if the competent authority is satisfied that it will be properly utilised.

Belgium. — The Act of 24 December 1903 provides in § 4 that the compensation payable in case of accidents from which permanent incapacity results, shall be paid to the injured workman in the form of an annual payment and, after the period of revision, which is fixed at three years, is over, in the form of a life-annuity. Under § 6 compensation payable for accidents resulting in death is paid to the dependants in the form of a life-annuity. § 7 provides that the injured workman or his dependants may claim the payment as capital of the third at most of the value of the life-annuity. It is for the courts to decide what is most in the interest of the applicants. In case of permanent partial incapacity, the courts may also, at the request of any party concerned, order the payment of the whole value of the annuity in a lump sum to the injured worker, when the annual payments do not amount to 60 francs.

Netherlands. — The report states that in accordance with § 16 of the Act of 1921, the insured person is entitled, in the event of permanent incapacity for work, to a pension; § 19 provides that in the event of death a pension shall be paid to the dependants of the insured person. The report gives no information regarding the facility for which the second paragraph of Article 5 of the Convention provides.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The legislation provides that compensation for accidents resulting in death or permanent incapacity shall be paid to the injured workman or his dependants in the form of a pension. § 112 of the Act of 14 May 1922 provides that if, in case of partial reduction of earning capacity the pension paid to the injured person does not exceed 20 per cent of the full pension, the injured person in receipt of the pension may demand its commutation for a lump sum. This claim may be taken into consideration by the management of the Central Workers' Insurance Institution on the basis of a previous medical report concerning the injured person's expectation of life, on condition that the commune to which the injured person belongs concurs in the payment of the commutation. The attention of the applicant must be called to the fact that on receiving the commutation he loses the right to any other compensation.

Sweden. — The report states that the provisions of the Accident Insurance Act are in complete accordance with the first paragraph of the Article. As regards the second paragraph, it should be noted that an application for the whole or partial commutation of the pension for a lump sum payment must be considered by a higher authority (the Insurance Council) and that the application is granted only for "urgent reasons". Such a commutation is allowed to the surviving members of the worker's family only when the widow or widower, being under 60 years of age, marries again; in such a case, however, the lump sum granted is limited to three fourths of the annual earnings of the deceased.

**Article 6.**

In case of incapacity, compensation shall be paid not later than as from the fifth day after the accident, whether it be payable by the employer, the accident insurance institution, or the sickness insurance institution concerned.

Belgium. — § 4 of the Act of 24 December 1903 provides that the compensation shall be paid to the injured person from the day following the accident, if the accident has resulted in a temporary total or partial incapacity for work of more than one week.

Netherlands. — The report states that under § 15 of the Act of 1921 the insured person is entitled to compensation if on the third day after the accident he is not, in the opinion of a medical practitioner designated by the State Insurance Bank, in a fit condition to perform his usual work in the undertaking of his employer.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — Under §§ 45 and 85 of the Act of 14 May 1922 the compensation is paid to the injured person when incapacity for work lasts for more than three days.

Sweden. — The report states that if the accident entails illness for more than three days which causes total incapacity or diminution of working capacity by at least a quarter, sickness insurance benefit is paid from the first day after the accident. Where the accident entails permanent incapacity or permanent diminution of working capacity by at least one tenth, sickness insurance benefit is replaced by an annuity.
Article 7.

In cases where the injury results in incapacity of such a nature that the injured workman must have the constant help of another person, additional compensation shall be provided.

Belgium. — The Act of 24 December 1903 does not apparently contain any such provision.

Netherlands. — § 17 of the Act of 1921 provides that if the insured person is even temporarily helpless in consequence of the accident, so that regular attendance and care are necessary, and that if, in view of his circumstances, the pension, which may amount to 70 per cent. of his daily wage (§§ 15 and 16), is insufficient for his maintenance, the pension may be increased to not more than one hundred per cent. of his daily wage while such condition of helplessness lasts.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 85 of the Act of 14 May 1922 provides that if an injured person has become not merely incapable of work in consequence of an accident, but so completely invalided that he needs regular nursing and attendance, the pension shall be increased by not more than one-third of the basic annual earnings for the duration of the invalidity.

Sweden. — The Accident Insurance Act provides that an increased pension, which, in case of total incapacity for work, is fixed, at two-thirds of the annual earnings of the injured person, may be granted to injured persons who are incapacitated and require special attention; the amount of this pension may not, however, exceed that of the last year's earnings.

Article 8.

The national laws or regulations shall prescribe such measures of supervision and methods of review as are deemed necessary.

Belgium. — The Act of 24 December 1903 contains provisions relating to measures of supervision and methods of receiving compensation.

Netherlands. — The report states that §§ 27 and 75 of the Act of 1921 provide for the measures and methods covered by this Article of the Convention.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — Chapters XIII and XXII of the Act of 14 May 1922 contain provisions relating to the supervision and review of compensation.

Sweden. — The report states that since the system of insurance is universal and compulsory (even automatic), special measures of supervision to protect the rights of insured persons are not necessary. Appeals from the decisions of the insurance institutions may, however, be made to the Insurance Council, whose duty it is to follow closely the application and development of insurance; it has also power to modify the decisions of the insurance institutions. If there is a radical alteration in the decisive conditions after the compensation has been fixed, the compensation may be altered, in accordance with the Act.

Article 9.

Injured workmen shall be entitled to medical aid and to such surgical and pharmaceutical aid as is recognised to be necessary in consequence of accidents. The cost of such aid shall be defrayed either by the employer, by accident insurance institutions, or by sickness or invalidity insurance institutions.

Please explain how the cost of medical aid provided for in virtue of this Article is defrayed in your country, whether by the employer, by accident insurance institutions or by sickness or invalidity insurance institutions.

Belgium. — § 5 of the Act of 24 December 1903 provides that the head of the undertaking is responsible for the medical and pharmaceutical expenses arising out of the accident and incurred during the first six months.

Netherlands. — Under § 14 of the Accident Insurance Act of 1921 insured persons who meet with an accident in their employment are entitled to medical or surgical treatment or to corresponding compensation, determined in accordance with the terms of public administrative regulations. The expense of this treatment is met by the State Insurance Bank.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 85 of the Act of 14 May 1922 provides that in respect of an accident entailing bodily injury the insured person shall be granted free medical attendance and provision of medical and curative requisites. The expense of this benefit is met by the Central Workers' Insurance Institution.

Sweden. — Under the Accident Insurance Act injured persons are entitled to medical and surgical treatment and to medical requisites at the expense of the insurance institution concerned.

Article 10.

Injured workmen shall be entitled to the supply and normal renewal, by the employer or insurer, of such artificial limbs and surgical appliances as are recognised to be necessary; provided that national laws or regulations may allow in exceptional circumstances the supply and renewal of such artificial limbs and appliances to be re-
placed by the award to the injured workman of a sum representing the probable cost of the supply and renewal of such appliances, this sum to be decided at the time when the amount of compensation is settled or revised.

National laws or regulations shall provide for such supervisory measures as are necessary, either to prevent abuses in connection with the renewal of appliances, or to ensure that the additional compensation is utilised for this purpose.

Belgium. — The report states that “since the Act of 1908 does not provide for the supply and renewal of artificial limbs and surgical appliances, the Bill to amend the Act, submitted to the Legislative Chambers on 14 February 1928, contains in § 5 the necessary amendments to that end”.

Netherlands. — § 14 of the Act of 1921 provides that medical treatment shall include the supply of the appliances appearing on the list drawn up by the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry, which are necessary for the restoration, maintenance and improvement of working capacity, in so far as this is reduced in consequence of the accident, and also instruction in the use of these appliances.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 85 of the Act of 14 May 1922 provides for the free supply of curative appliances (spectacles, crutches, bandages, artificial limbs). The report adds that in every case these appliances are repaired at the expenses of the Workers' Insurance Fund and that the issue of them is made in kind.

Sweden. — The Accidental Insurance Act provides for the supply to injured persons, either to improve their working capacity, or otherwise to remedy the results of the accident, of the necessary special appliances, such as crutches, simple artificial limbs, spectacles etc. When the annuity is fixed a sum is added to it corresponding to the probable annual expense for the renewal of appliances. As in the case of the provisions mentioned under Article 8, this benefit may be modified.

Article 11.

The national laws or regulations shall make such provision as, having regard to national circumstances, is deemed most suitable for ensuring in all circumstances, in the event of the insolvency of the employer or insurer, the payment of compensation to workmen who suffer personal injury due to industrial accidents, or in case of death, to their dependants.

Belgium. — The Act of 24 December 1908 provides in Chapter II, “Guarantees and Insurance” (§§ 14 to 20) for the assurance of payment of compensation to persons who meet with accidents and their dependants and for guarantees against the insolvency of the employer or insurer.

Netherlands. — The report states that workers are insured with the State Insurance Bank. The State has, moreover, an unlimited liability for the payment of compensation under the Act of 1921 to insured persons and their surviving relations (§ 96).

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that special guarantees against insolvency are unnecessary, since insurance is compulsory; it is effected by the Central Workers' Insurance Institution through its district institutions; the insurance of miners is effected by five Miners' Insurance Funds and the solvency of the insurance of employees in the State communication services is guaranteed by the State.

Sweden. — The report states that the existing insurance system in Sweden seems to ensure thoroughly the right to payment of compensation.

III.

Article 16 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo, nor to the territories under mandate, as local conditions do not at present allow of application.

Netherlands. — By letter of 25 January 1929 the Minister of Colonies of the Netherlands informed the International Labour Office that the local conditions in Surinam and Curaçao did not allow of the application of the Convention to these territories. As regards the Dutch-East Indies, a memorandum by the Governor-General states that regulations relating to workmen's compensation for accidents are in preparation.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.
IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 19 November 1927.
Netherlands. — 13 September 1927.
Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov·enes. — 1 April 1927.
Sweden. — 1 April 1927.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The application of the Act of 24 December 1903 is within the competence of the judicial authorities (magistrate or arbitral court of first instance—appeal court of first instance). Its enforcement is entrusted to the Ministry of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare. Insurance against industrial accidents is supervised by the supervisory officials of the insurance and social welfare institutions (supervision of approved insurance societies; supervision of steps taken to deal with disasters; supervision of the financial situation).

Netherlands. — The enforcement of the provisions relating to industrial accidents is entrusted to the State Insurance Bank at Amsterdam and to the Labour Councils. Supervision is carried out by the officials of the State Insurance Bank and the Labour Councils. These officials, assisted by the State and communal police, are responsible for the detection of offences punishable under the Act.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov·enes. — The Act of 14 May 1922 is enforced by the Central Workers' Insurance Institution at Zagreb through 23 regional institutions which are its local branches. At the seat of each regional workers' insurance institution there is a workers' insurance court of first instance to deal with cases relating to insurance payments. There are also five courts in Zagreb, Belgrade, Sarajevo, Podgoricza and Novi Sad which act as courts of appeal in cases of workers' social insurance. The Minister of Social Affairs exercises supreme control over all the workers' institutions, in accordance with the Act of 14 May 1922. The mines authorities supervise the conduct of the Miners' Insurance Funds.

A court has been set up at the seat of the mines authorities to deal with disputes with the workers. Appeal may be made to the Minister of Mines if the Court infringes the terms of the regulations. The enforcement of the Order respecting the insurance of the staff of the State communication services is carried out by the Ministry of Communications, through the Division of Social and Humanitarian Questions.

Sweden. — Questions relating to the application of this legislation are within the competence of the State Insurance Office, which possesses a large number of local agents, and of the Insurance Council in the event of appeal.

*  *  *

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, and if such statistics are available, information concerning the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the accidents reported, etc., in so far this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Netherlands. — The report states that the number of accidents reported in 1926 was 129,094 ; 124,618 of these accidents were accepted as accidents within the meaning of the Act of 1921. The number of accidents which resulted in the grant of medical attention and temporary benefit was 81,835 (by “ temporary benefit ” is meant compensation paid during the first six weeks after the date of the accident). The number of days for which compensation was paid amounted to 881,655, giving an average of 10.77 days per accident. The annuities for which § 16 of the Act of 1921 provides were paid to 972 injured persons ; in 347 cases annuities were paid to dependants. On 31 December 1926 the number of undertakings registered with the Bank amounted to 171,294. The number of “ workers ” statistically (statistically a “ worker ” = 300 working days) on that date was 1,227,308, and the total wages paid during 1926 were 1,498,925,231 florins.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov·enes. — The report states that the number of insured workers amounted in 1926 to 474,610 and in 1927 to 511,493. In addition, 6,000 thrashing machines, employing 50,000 agricultural workers, were insured against accidents during the season. At the end of 1927 the total number of pensions granted was as follows : 724 pensions for medical treatment, 2,091 provisional pensions and 2,316 final personal pensions ; 724 pensions to widows, 1,176 pensions to children, 105 pensions to
relations or grandparents and 27 pensions to brothers or sisters of persons who lost their lives as a result of an accident. The average amount of the provisional pensions was 3,040 dinars, of the final pensions, 2,647 dinars, of the widows pensions, 2,875, and of the children's pensions, 9,018 dinars, a total average of 2,680 dinars. In proportion to the loss of working capacity 33 per cent. were from 10 to 20 per cent., 25 per cent. from 20 to 30 per cent., 18 per cent. from 30 to 50 per cent., 12 per cent. from 50 to 80 per cent., and 7 per cent. of 100 per cent.

Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.

This Convention came into force on 1 April 1927. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927 and from which annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles were due in respect of the year 1928:

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</table>

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Belgium.

Act of 24 July 1927 respecting compensation for injury caused by occupational diseases (L. S. 1927, Belg. 7).

Royal Decree of 15 November 1927 respecting the organisation of the Welfare Fund for persons suffering from occupational diseases and the organisation of the Board of Directors and Technical Committee of the Fund.

Royal Decree of 30 January 1928 giving a list of occupational diseases and the industries or occupations in which compensation is payable in respect of each of them (L. S. 1928, Belg. 1).

Ministerial Decree of 8 May 1928 defining the categories of workers or assimilated employees who are exposed to the risk of lead-poisoning in the various classes of undertakings subject to the Act (L. S., 1928, Belg. 1).

Ministerial Decree of 10 April 1928 defining the categories of workers or assimilated employees who are exposed to the risk of poisoning by mercury or infection by anthrax in the various classes of undertakings subject to the Act (L. S. 1928, Belg. 1).

A number of Royal and Ministerial Decrees will define particular points in connection with the application of the Act of 24 July 1927 and with procedure.

Finland.

Act of 17 July 1925 respecting the insurance of workers against accidents (L. S. 1925, Fin. 3).

Order of 30 November 1925 respecting the application of the Act of 17 July 1925.

Resolution of the Council of State of 17 December 1925 respecting the application of the Act of 17 July 1925 to works undertaken by the State.

Act of 13 April 1926 respecting the payment of compensation to persons liable to military service in case of bodily injury or illness arising out of military service.

Order of 18 June 1926 respecting the application of the Act of 18 April 1926.

Resolution of the Council of State of 2 July 1926 respecting occupational diseases which are deemed to be equivalent to bodily injuries due to an accident (L. S., 1926, Fin. 3).

Act of 18 December 1926 respecting the compensation for accidents payable to persons in State employment.

Resolution of the Council of State of 18 December 1926 respecting the application of the Act of 18 December 1926.

Great Britain.

Act of 22 December 1925 to consolidate the law relating to compensation to workmen for injuries suffered in the course of their employment (L. S. 1925, G.B. 3).

India.

Workmen's Compensation Act of 5 March 1923 (L. S., 1923, Ind. 1).

Workmen's Compensation (Amendment) Act, No. 36 of 1926 (L. S., 1926, Ind. 3 A).

Notification of 28 September 1926 of the Department of Industries and Labour to add mercury poisoning to the list of occupational diseases and the employments specified in Schedule III of the Workmen's Compensation Act of 5 March 1923 (L. S. 1926, Ind. 3 B).

Irish Free State.


Workmen's Compensation (War Addition) Act of 21 August 1917.

Workmen's Compensation (War Addition) Act of 29 December 1918.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.


Regulations of the Miners' Insurance Fund for workmen and staff employed in the undertakings of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes covered by the Mines Act; these regulations, which also apply to the families and relations of the said workmen and staff were issued by the Order of 27 June 1921 of the Minister of Forests and Mines respecting the organisation of employment in mines and came into force under § 32 of the Finance Act of August-November 1922.
Order of the Minister of Communications of 30 May 1922 respecting the sickness and accident insurance of staff employed in the State communications services.

Switzerland.


Federal Act of 15 June 1915 to supplement the Federal Act of 13 June 1911 respecting sickness and accident insurance.

Federal Act of 9 October 1920 to amend certain provisions of the Federal Act of 13 June 1911 respecting sickness and accident insurance (L. S. 1920, Switz. 7).

Order No. 1 of 25 March 1916 respecting accident insurance.

Order No. 1 bis of 20 August 1920 respecting accident insurance (L.S. 1920, Switz. 8).

Order No. 1 ter of 8 December 1922 respecting accident insurance.

Order No. 1 quarter of 8 November 1927 respecting accident insurance (L. S. 1927, Switz. 3).

Order No. 2 of 3 December 1927 respecting accident insurance.

Order No. 3 of 2 March 1928 respecting accident insurance (L. S. 1928, Switz. 1).

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention undertakes to provide that compensation shall be payable to workmen incapacitated by occupational diseases, or, in case of death from such diseases, to their dependants, in accordance with the general principles of the national legislation relating to compensation for industrial accidents.

The rates of such compensation shall not be less than those prescribed by the national legislation for injury resulting from industrial accidents. Subjects to this provision, each Member, in determining in its national law or regulations the conditions under which compensation for the said diseases shall be payable, and in applying to the said diseases its legislation in regard to compensation for industrial accidents, may make such modifications and adaptations as it thinks expedient.

Please give

(i) a brief account of the general principles of the national legislation in your country relating to compensation for industrial accidents;

(ii) information regarding the rates of compensation prescribed by national legislation for injury resulting from industrial accidents; and

(iii) information regarding the conditions under which compensation for occupational diseases is payable, and the modifications and adaptations thought expedient in applying the legislation in regard to compensation for industrial accidents to the said diseases.

Belgium. — The report gives the following information: (i) The Act of 24 December 1903 respecting compensation for injury caused by industrial accidents applies to workers in private or public undertakings, to apprentices, even if they are not in receipt of wages, and to other employees subject to the same risks as the workers if their annual salary or wages do not exceed 12,000 francs. In default of proof to the contrary, any accident which occurs in the course of the performance of the terms of employment is presumed to be an industrial accident. The payments granted in case of accident are entirely at the expense of the head of the undertaking; he may, however, be relieved of this responsibility if he has contracted an insurance either with an insurance company approved by the State or with an approved joint accident insurance fund formed by heads of undertakings. If no such insurance has been contracted, employers must contribute to an insurance fund against employers' insolvency, the object of which is to effect the payments if the head of the undertaking is unable to discharge his obligations. Accidents which occur in the course of employment must be notified within three days by the head of the undertaking to the district magistrate and factory inspector.

(ii) In the event of total temporary incapacity of more than one week, the injured person is entitled, from the day following the accident, to a daily compensation equivalent to 50 per cent. of his average daily wages. If the incapacity is partial, or becomes so, the compensation is equivalent to 50 per cent. of the difference between the wages of the injured person previous to the accident and the amount which he can earn before his complete recovery. If the incapacity is permanent, or becomes so, an annual payment of 50 per cent. calculated according to the degree of incapacity is substituted for the temporary compensation. The head of the undertaking is, moreover, required to meet the medical and pharmaceutical expenses of the injured person for six months. The injured person is entitled to select his doctor and chemist unless the employer can prove that, under the conditions of his employment, the medical and pharmaceutical expenses are at the employer's expense. The payments granted in case of accident are entirely at the expense of the head of the undertaking; he may, however, be relieved of this responsibility if he has contracted an insurance either with an insurance company approved by the State or with an approved joint accident insurance fund formed by heads of undertakings. If no such insurance has been contracted, employers must contribute to an insurance fund against employers' insolvency, the object of which is to effect the payments if the head of the undertaking is unable to discharge his obligations. Accidents which occur in the course of employment must be notified within three days by the head of the undertaking to the district magistrate and factory inspector.

(iii) The Act respecting occupational diseases ensures compensation for injury resulting from occupational diseases contracted by workers in public and private undertakings. Apprentices, even if they are not in receipt of wages, are deemed to be workers, as are other employees and artisans who, through direct or indirect
participation in the work, are exposed to the same risks as the workers, if their annual wages as fixed by their terms of engagement do not exceed 18,000 francs. A Royal Decree gives a list of occupational diseases, mentioning, for each of them, the industries or occupations in which they give rise to compensation. To bring the Act into operation it is also necessary: (1) that the disease result either in the death of the insured person or in permanent incapacity for work, partial or complete; (2) that it is complete and has lasted for at least 15 days; (2) that the claim is made within the period laid down in § 15. The compensation granted by the Act is equivalent to that given to persons injured in industrial accidents. The operation of the Act is ensured by the creation of a single fund entitled “Welfare Fund granted by the State for the protection of persons suffering from occupational diseases”; all employers whose undertakings are covered by the Act are required to belong to it. Royal Executive Decrees define the obligations of heads of undertakings as regards the declarations and the payments which they must make. The Welfare Fund possesses legal personality and is guaranteed by the State. It is governed by a Board of Directors consisting of five members chosen from the most representative body of employers in the industries concerned and at least one member from the most representative body of workers in these industries and also of a Technical Committee consisting of nine members. The members of the Board of Directors and of the Technical Committee are appointed by the King. Employers and workers are represented in equal numbers on both bodies.

Finland. — The report states that under § 2 of the Act of 17 July 1925 bodily injury consequent upon an accident is deemed to include any occupational disease contracted by a worker in manufacturing or manipulating the substances specified in the Resolution of 2 July 1926. Cases of occupational disease are treated like cases of bodily injury consequent upon an accident and compensation is granted upon the same principles as in bodily injury consequent upon an accident. Compensation thus includes medical treatment, daily benefit and a pension, as well as a maintenance allowance to the dependants if the insured person is under treatment in a hospital. In case of death due to an occupational disease, funeral benefit and a pension are granted to the dependants.

Great Britain. — (i). Under § 1 of the Workmen's Compensation Act of 22 December 1925 the employer is liable to pay compensation if any workman is disabled by accident arising out of and in the course of his employment. Under § 3 of the Act “workman” is defined as any person who has entered into or works under a contract of service or apprenticeship with an employer, whether by way of manual labour, clerical work or otherwise, and whether the contract is expressed or implied, oral or in writing. The term includes a person engaged in plying for hire with any vehicle or vessel the use of which is obtained from the owner thereof under any contract of bailment (other than a hire purchase agreement) in consideration of the payment of a fixed sum or a share in the earnings or the property. The dependants of persons are excepted: any person employed otherwise than by way of manual labour whose remuneration exceeds £ 350 a year: a person whose employment is of a casual nature and who is employed otherwise than for the purposes of the employer’s trade or business not being a person employed for the purposes of any game or recreation and engaged or paid through a club; a member of a police force; an outworker; and a member of the employer's family dwelling in his house. (ii). Provision for compensation is made in §§ 8, 9 and 10 of the Act of 22 December 1925, which lay down that where death results from the injury the compensation shall be a lump sum, together with an additional sum if the workman leaves a widow or other member of his family (not being a child under the age of 15) wholly or partially dependent. The amounts are expressed in addition leaves one or more children under the age of 15 so dependent. The lump sum and children’s allowance may not, however, in any case exceed £ 600. The compensation where total or partial incapacity for work results from injury is a weekly payment. If, however, the incapacity lasts less than four weeks, no compensation is payable in respect of the first three days. The weekly payment may in no case exceed 30 shillings. (iii). Part II of the Act of 22 December 1925 deals with the application to certain industrial diseases of the provisions regarding compensation for industrial accidents. It provides in §§ 43 and 44 that a workman or his dependants are entitled to compensation as if the disease were an injury by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment, subject to certain modifications. The effect of this is that, broadly speaking, a workman disabled by a scheduled disease is in the same position under the Act as the workman disabled by accident, that is to say, the rates of compensation are the same for diseases as for accidents. The principal modifications in the case of disease are: (1) in default of agreement, the workman proves his disablement by the disease by obtaining a certificate from a particular doctor appointed by the Government; (2) the workman is relieved from the onus of proving that the disease was due to the employment if he was employed in a process set opposite to the disease in the Schedule: (3) provision is made in the cases where
the disease was not, or was not solely contracted under the last employer, for apportioning the responsibility among the other-employers concerned; and (4) compensation is not payable where the employment in which the disease is claimed to have been contracted ceased more than 12 months before the disablement.

India. — (i). Under § 2 (1) (n), the Act of 5 March 1923 applies to any person (other than a person whose employment is of a casual nature and who is employed otherwise than for the purposes of the employer's trade or business) who is (a) a railway servant as defined in § 3 of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, not permanently employed in any administrative, district or sub-divisional office of a railway; (b) employed, either by way of manual labour or on monthly wages not exceeding 300 rupees in the following capacities: (1) employed in connection with the service of a tramway as defined in § 3 of the Indian Tramways Act, 1886; (2) employed within the meaning of class 2 of § 2 of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, in any place which is a factory within the meaning of the Act; (3) employed within the meaning of clause (d) of § 3 of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, in any mine which is subject to the operation of that Act; (4) employed as the master of a registered ship or as a seaman; (5) employed for the purpose of loading, unloading or coaling any ship at any pier, jetty, landing place, wharf, quay, dock, warehouse or shed, at which steam, water, or other mechanical or electrical power is used; (6) employed in the construction, repair or demolition of a building more than one storey in height above ground level, a building used for industrial or commercial purposes, not less than 50 feet in height measured from ground level to apex of the roof and bridges more than 50 feet in length; (7) employed in setting up, repairing, maintaining, or taking down any telegraph or telephone line or post or any overhead electric cable; (8) employed in the construction, inspection or upkeep of any underground sewer; or (9) employed in the service of any fire brigade. § 3 provides that if a personal injury is caused to a workman, as defined above, by accident arising out of and in the course of his employment, his employer shall be liable to pay him compensation. (ii). Under § 4 of the Act of 5 March 1923 the amount of compensation is as follows: where death results from the injury, in the case of an adult, a sum equal to 30 months' wages or 2,500 rupees, whichever is less; in the case of a minor, 200 rupees. Where permanent total disablement results from the injury, in the case of an adult, a sum equal to 42 months' wages or 3,500 rupees, whichever is less; in the case of a minor, a sum equal to 84 months' wages or 3,500 rupees, whichever is less. Where permanent partial disablement results from the injury, compensation in proportion to the loss of earning capacity. Where temporary disablement, whether total or partial, results from the injury, in the case of an adult, 15 rupees, or a sum equal to one-fourth of the monthly wages, whichever is less; in the case of a minor, a sum equal to one-third, or, after he has attained the age of 15 years, to one-half of his monthly wages, but not exceeding in any case 15 rupees. (iii). § 3, paragraph 2 of the Act of 5 March 1923, as amended by Act No. 36 of 1926 provides that if a workman employed in the service of an employer contracts the disease of anthrax, he shall be liable to pay him compensation. The report emphasises that in the case of occupational diseases, with the exception of anthrax, the Act provides that the workman must have been uninterruptedly employed by the same employer for at least six months.

Irish Free State. — (i). § 8 of the Act of 1906 provides that where a workman suffers from an industrial disease (being one of certain scheduled diseases) due to the nature of his employment, he shall be entitled to the compensation provided for under the Act as if the disease were a personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of his employment. The Act of 1906 imposes a statutory liability on employers to compensate workmen who suffer either from personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of their employment or from certain industrial diseases due to the nature of their employment. If the accident or disease causes disablement, the compensation is in the form of weekly payments to the injured person while the disablement lasts, but if death results, the compensation is a lump sum for the benefit of the deceased workmen's dependants. (ii). The rates of compensation prescribed by this legislation are as follows: (a) The equivalent of the earnings of the deceased workmen during the same period as the three years preceding the accident. The maximum sum payable in any case is £ 300 and the minimum £ 150. If less than three years with the same employer the amount of the three years earnings is deemed to be 156 times his average weekly earnings with that employer. Weekly payments already
made, or a lump sum paid in redemption thereof, are to be deducted from such compensation. (2) If the workman leaves dependants in part dependent on his earnings, such proportion of the amount calculated as at (a), as may by agreement or arbitration be deemed reasonable and proportionate to the injury suffered by the dependants. (3) If the workman leaves no dependants, the reasonable expenses of his medical attendance and burial, subject to a maximum of £10. (b) In the event of total incapacity for work, the Act of 1906 provides for a weekly payment during the incapacity equivalent to not more than 50 per cent. of the average weekly earnings of the workman during the preceding twelve months or less with the same employer, such weekly payment, not to exceed 20/-, but in the case of minors not to exceed 10/-. If the workman leaves no dependants, the reasonable expenses of his medical attendance and burial, subject to a maximum of 10/-, is payable by way of compensation provided such earnings are under 20/.-. By the Workmen's Compensation (War Addition) Acts 1917 and 1919, these weekly payments are increased by 75 per cent., so long as these Acts remain in force. (c) In case of partial incapacity the maximum limits of compensation allowed are the same as those fixed for total incapacity under the 1906 Act, subject to the proviso that the weekly payment shall in no case exceed the difference between the average weekly earnings of the workman before the accident and the average weekly amount which he is earning or is able to earn in some suitable employment or business after the accident, but shall bear such relation to the amount of that difference as under the circumstances may appear proper. (iii) These rates of compensation are payable, under certain conditions and with certain modifications as shown in § 8 of the Act of 1906, in any case of death or incapacity of a workman who has contracted a particular industrial disease due to the nature of his employment. The particular industrial diseases concerned are set out in the Third Schedule to the Act and in orders which have subsequently extended the list to some twenty-five industrial diseases.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — (i). The Act of 14 May 1922 respecting workers' insurance applies to all persons who perform physical or mental work for remuneration within the territory of the Kingdom (§§ 50 and 50 bis). The object of the accident insurance is compensation for loss caused by bodily injury or death in consequence of any accident met with by an insured person in connection with work or duties in which he was engaged by order of the employer or his representative or in the interest of the undertaking (§§ 50 and 50 bis). The object of the accident insurance is compensation for loss caused by bodily injury or death in consequence of any accident met with by an insured person in connection with work or duties in which he was engaged by order of the employer or his representative or in the interest of the undertaking (§§ 50 and 50 bis). The object of the accident insurance is compensation for loss caused by bodily injury or death in consequence of any accident met with by an insured person in connection with work or duties in which he was engaged by order of the employer or his representative or in the interest of the undertaking (§§ 50 and 50 bis).
bridges, roads, hydraulic works, the excavation of pits and galleries, canalisation and the carrying on of mines, quarries and pits; (4) undertakings which for industrial reasons produce, use or store explosives. In addition, the Federal Council has power to declare compulsory insurance applicable to (1) undertakings which for industrial reasons produce, use in large quantities or store explosive substances or substances dangerous to health; (2) electrical undertakings; (3) industrial or commercial undertakings which use dangerous apparatus or machines and undertakings which are in direct relation with the transport industry. In all these undertakings the employer must take every step for the prevention of illness and accidents the necessity of which has been shown by experience and the application of which is made possible by the progress of science and by circumstances (§ 65). The National Fund effects insurance against occupational and non-occupational accidents resulting in sickness, invalidity and death (§ 67). (i)(ii). The insured benefits include: medical and pharmaceutical expenses and unemployment indemnity; pensions for incapacity for work, funeral expenses, and pensions for the survivors (§ 72). From the moment of the accident and for the period of the resultant illness the insured person is entitled to medical and pharmaceutical attendance and other curative treatment, to the apparatus which he may require and to the necessary travelling expenses (§ 73). From the third day after the date of the accident and for the period of the resultant illness the insured person is entitled to unemployment indemnity. This indemnity consists of 80 per cent. of the wages, the earnings being taken into consideration only up to 21 francs a day (§ 74). In the case of total incapacity for work, the pension for incapacity is fixed at 70 per cent. of the insured person's annual earnings. If the illness is such as to require attendance and other special treatment, the pension may be increased until it is equivalent to the total earnings. If the incapacity for work is only partial, the pension is proportionately reduced. If the insured person dies as the result of an accident, the National Fund pays the funeral expenses to the survivors up to a total of 40 francs (§ 83). Pensions for surviving dependants are regulated as follows: a widow, unless she remarries and a widower who is already infirm or becomes permanently incapable of work within five years after the death of the deceased person, unless he remarries, are entitled to pensions of 30 per cent. of the annual earnings of the insured person (§ 84); in addition, each child until it has completed 16 years of age is entitled to a pension of 15 per cent. of the annual earnings of the insured person (§ 85); ascendants in a direct line throughout their life and brothers and sisters until they have completed 16 years of age are entitled to a total pension of 20 per cent. of the insured person's annual earnings (§ 86). The pensions paid to survivors may not, however, exceed in all 60 per cent. of the annual earnings of the insured person (§ 87). (iii) § 68 of the Federal Accident Insurance Act provides that "the Federal Council shall draw up a list of substances the production or use of which may entail certain serious diseases. Any disease exclusively or mainly due to the action of one of these substances in an undertaking subject to insurance shall be deemed to be an accident within the meaning of this Act". The report states that there is no exception to the treatment of occupational diseases as accidents. The payment of compensation has not in any way been amended or changed in the legislation relating to compensation for accidents.

ARTICLE 2.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention undertakes to consider as occupational diseases those diseases and poisonings produced by the substances set forth in the Schedule appended hereto, when such diseases or such poisonings affect workers engaged in the trades or industries placed opposite in the said Schedule, and result from occupation in an undertaking covered by the said national legislation.

SCHEDULE.

List of diseases and toxic substances.
Poisoning by lead, its alloys or compounds and their sequelae.
Poisoning by mercury, its amalgams and compounds and their sequelae.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of diseases and toxic substances</th>
<th>List of corresponding industries and processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anthrax infection.</td>
<td>Work in connection with animals infected with anthrax.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of animal carcasses or parts of such carcasses, including hides, hoofs and horns.</td>
<td>Handling of ore containing lead, including fume shot in zinc factories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loading and unloading or transport of merchandise.</td>
<td>Manufacturing of zinc and lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poisoning by lead, its alloys or compounds and their sequelae.</td>
<td>Casting of old zinc and lead in ingots.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other operations which may give rise to lead carrying fumes and dust.</td>
<td>Rolling of lead sheets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polishing by means of lead files or putty powder with a lead content.</td>
<td>Extraction of silver from argentiferous lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations involving the preparation and manipulation of coating substances, cements or colouring substances containing lead pigments.</td>
<td>Manufacture of articles made of cast lead or of lead alloys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthrax infection.</td>
<td>Manufacture of lead compounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
<td>Manufacture and repair of electric accumulators.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation and use of enamels containing lead.</td>
<td>Preparation and use of enamels containing lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polishing by means of lead files or putty powder with a lead content.</td>
<td>Polishing by means of lead files or putty powder with a lead content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other operations which may give rise to lead carrying fumes and dust.</td>
<td>Operations involving the preparation and manipulation of coating substances, cements or colouring substances containing lead pigments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
<td>Handling of ore containing lead, including fume shot in zinc factories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of mercury compounds.</td>
<td>Manufacturing of zinc and lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of measuring and laboratory apparatus.</td>
<td>Casting of old zinc and lead in ingots.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation of raw material for the hat making industry, including the manufacture of felt hats.</td>
<td>Rolling of lead sheets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot gilding.</td>
<td>Extraction of silver from argentiferous lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of mercury pumps to produce a vacuum.</td>
<td>Manufacture of enamels containing lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacture of explosives containing mercury.</td>
<td>Polishing by means of lead files or putty powder with a lead content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of mercury and its amalgams.</td>
<td>Operations involving the preparation and manipulation of coating substances, cements or colouring substances containing lead pigments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of animal matter capable of containing the anthrax virus</td>
<td>All other operations which may give rise to lead carrying fumes and dust.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Belgium.** — The Royal Decree of 30 January 1928 gives the following list of diseases and toxic substances giving rise to compensation in the industries and processes mentioned:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of diseases and toxic substances</th>
<th>List of corresponding industries and processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poisoning by mercury, its amalgams and compounds, and their sequelae.</td>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthrax infection.</td>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of animal carcasses or parts of such carcasses, including hides, hoofs and horns.</td>
<td>Handling of ore containing lead, including fume shot in zinc factories.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loading and unloading or transport of merchandise.</td>
<td>Manufacturing of zinc and lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poisoning by lead, its alloys or compounds and their sequelae.</td>
<td>Casting of old zinc and lead in ingots.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other operations which may give rise to lead carrying fumes and dust.</td>
<td>Rolling of lead sheets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polishing by means of lead files or putty powder with a lead content.</td>
<td>Extraction of silver from argentiferous lead.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations involving the preparation and manipulation of coating substances, cements or colouring substances containing lead pigments.</td>
<td>Manufacture of articles made of cast lead or of lead alloys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any process involving the use of mercury or its preparations or compounds.</td>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of any nitro- or amido-derivative of benzene or any of its homologues, or the sequelae.</td>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any process in which nitrates are involved.</td>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any process in which nitrates are involved.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any process in which nitrates are involved.</td>
<td>Handling of mercury ore.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Finland.** — The resolution of 2 July 1926 provides that occupational diseases contracted in the course of the manufacture or handling of the substances enumerated below shall be deemed to be industrial accidents and give rise to payment of the compensation for which the Act of 17 July 1925 provides:

1. Anthrax

2. Mercury poisoning or its sequelae

3. Phosphorus poisoning or its sequelae

4. Arsenic poisoning or its sequelae

5. Lead poisoning or its sequelae

6. (a) poisoning by benzene and its homologues, or the sequelae.
   (b) poisoning by nitro- and amido-derivatives of benzene and its homologues (trinitrotoluene, anilin, and others), or the sequelae.

7. Poisoning by dinitropherol or its sequelae.

8. Poisoning by nitrates or its sequelae.

For the foot-notes, see p. 504.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of disease or injury</th>
<th>Description of process</th>
<th>Description of disease or injury</th>
<th>Description of process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. Dope poisoning; that is, poisoning by any substance used as or in conjunction with a solvent for acetate of cellulose, or its sequelae.</td>
<td>Any process in the manufacture of aircraft.</td>
<td>23. The disease known as Miner's Nystagmus whether occurring in miners or others and whether the symptom of oscillation of the eyeballs be present or not.</td>
<td>Mining.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Poisoning by carbon bisulphide or its sequelae.</td>
<td>Any process involving the use of carbon bisulphide or its preparation or compounds.</td>
<td>25. Subcutaneous celulitis or acute bursitis arising at or about the knee (beat knee).</td>
<td>Mining.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Poisoning by Gonionoma Kamassi (African boxwood) or its sequelae.</td>
<td>Any process in the manufacture of articles from Gonionoma Kamassi (African boxwood).</td>
<td>27. Inflammation of the synovial lining of the wrist joint and tendon sheaths.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Manganese poisoning.</td>
<td>Handling of manganese or substances containing manganese.</td>
<td>28. Glanders.</td>
<td>Care of any equine animal suffering from glanders; handling the carcass of such animal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. (a) Dermatitis produced by dust or liquids.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>29. Telegraphist’s cramp.</td>
<td>Use of telegraphic instruments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Ulceration of the skin produced by dust or liquids.</td>
<td>Handling or use of tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil or paraffin, or any compound, product or residue of any of these substances.</td>
<td>30. Writer’s cramp.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) Ulceration of the mucous membrane of the nose or mouth produced by dust.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>31. Twister’s cramp caused by twisting of cotton or woollen (including worsted) yarns.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. (a) Epithelio ma-tous cancer or ulceration of the skin due to tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil, or paraffin, or any compound, product or residue of any of these substances.</td>
<td>Handling or use of tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil or paraffin, or any compound product or residue of any of these substances.</td>
<td>32. Inflammation, ulceration and malignant disease of the skin and subcutaneous tissues, due to exposure to X-rays or radio-active substances.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) Ulceration of the corneal surface of the eye, due to tar, pitch, bitumen, mineral oil or paraffin, or any compound, product or residue of any of these substances.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Chrome ulceration or its sequelae.</td>
<td>Any process involving the use of chronic acid or bi-chromate of ammonium, potassium or sodium, or their preparations.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Scrotal epithelionoma (chimney-sweep’s cancer).</td>
<td>Chimney-sweeping.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Compressed air illness or its sequelae.</td>
<td>Any process carried on in compressed air.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Cataract in glass-workers.</td>
<td>Process in the manufacture of glass involving exposure to the glare of molten glass.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Cataract caused by exposure to rays from molten or red hot metal.</td>
<td>Processes normally involving such exposure in the manufacture of iron or steel.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Ankylostomiasis.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*India.* — The report states that the Act of 5 March 1923 as amended by Act No. 36 of 1926 and the Notification of 28 September 1926 is in conformity with the provisions of this Article of the Convention. Schedule III of the Act of 5 March 1923, as amended, contains the following list of occupational diseases and employments:

1. It should be noted that a workman suffering from one of the diseases mentioned in the first column is not debarred from claiming compensation merely because he was not employed in that process set out in the second column opposite the disease. The mention of a process in the second column merely establishes a presumption that where a workman was employed in that process at or immediately before the time of disablement the disease was due to the nature of this employment unless the surgeon certifies, or the employer proves, to the contrary. In other cases the onus of proving that the disease is due to the nature of the employment is upon the workman.

2. These diseases are included in the Schedule to the Act. The others have been added by the Secretary of State’s Order.

The description of process included in the original Schedule has been modified by subsequent Order.
Lead poisoning or its sequelae.

Phosphorus poisoning or its sequelae.

Mercury poisoning or its sequelae.

For anthrax infection, see above, under Article 1 (iii).

Iris Free State. — The report states that the occupational diseases mentioned in the Schedule to Article 2 of the Convention are to be found in Schedule II of the Act of 1906. This Schedule is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description of disease</th>
<th>Description of process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anthrax</td>
<td>Handling of wool, hair, bristles, laces and skins.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead poisoning or its or its sequelae</td>
<td>Any process involving the use of lead or its preparations or compounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercury poisoning or its sequelae</td>
<td>Any process involving the use of mercury or its preparations or compounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phosphorus poisoning or its sequelae</td>
<td>Any process involving the use of phosphorus or its preparations or compounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arsenic poisoning or its sequelae</td>
<td>Any process involving the use of arsenic or its preparations or compounds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ankylostomiasis</td>
<td>Mining.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — Under § 84 of the Act of 14 May 1922 lead, mercury, and phosphorus poisoning attributable to the handling of the substances in question in the course of work, are deemed to be accidents. The Minister of Social Affairs, in agreement with the other Ministers concerned, may extend compensation for occupational diseases to other substances. Provisions relating to anthrax infection do not occur in the legislation mentioned in the report.

Switzerland. — § 47 of Order No. 1, as amended by Order No. 1 bis and supplemented by Order No. 1 quater, lays down the list of substances the production or use of which entails certain serious diseases which give rise to compensation on the same footing as industrial accidents. This list mentions, among other substances, lead, its compounds and alloys, mercury, its amalgams and compounds, and anthrax virus.

III.

Article 7 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions under which you propose to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the territories under mandate, since the local conditions do not allow of application.

Great Britain. — The report states that the Convention has been applied to Gibraltar. The question of application in the Federated Malay States is still under consideration. In the case of the remaining Colonies, etc. Protectorates and other Dependencies (apart from one or two from which replies are outstanding) it was considered that this Convention, either as it stands, or in a modified form, was inapplicable, owing to local conditions. Reasons for non-application in certain cases are as follows:

Cyprus. — It is considered premature to introduce further legislation relating to Workmen's Compensation, which at present applies to miners, whether British subjects or nationals of other States, who are entitled to receive compensation for injuries received in the course of their work. The Colony is essentially an agricultural community and is not sufficiently developed either industrially or socially for the adoption of measures which in an industrial State are not only free from danger, but positively necessary to the general welfare. A Bill is already contemplated for the prevention of abuses in the employment of young persons and children in industrial undertakings, but the local Government would be reluctant at present to proceed further on the lines laid down by the Convention.

Sierra Leone. — Although anthrax is found amongst cattle occasionally, no human cases have come under notice, nor is there any industry in the Colony likely to spread the infection of anthrax. Lead poisoning is occasionally seen in a mild form amongst painters. In the circumstances it is considered unnecessary to enact legislation providing for compensation for occupational diseases.

Trinidad. — Local industries have not reached the stage of development which calls for the introduction of legislation on the lines of the Imperial Act. The local legislation dealing with Workmen's Compensation is a recent introduction and it is felt that further experience of the operation and effects of the original Ordinance should be awaited before attempting to add to it provisions which the longer experience and more complicated industrial conditions of European countries have only gradually evolved, but which as yet there appears to be no demand under the simpler conditions existing locally.

British Guiana. — The Executive Council considered that there were no undertakings in the Colony likely to produce occupational diseases.
Ceylon. — The Convention assumes the existence of legislation providing for the compulsory compensation of injured workmen on the lines of the English Workmen’s Compensation Acts, but since there is no similar legislation in the Colony, the Convention is not suitable for adoption. The general question of Workmen’s Compensation is, however, one which may before long be taken up by the Ceylon Government, and in that event the question of the application of this Convention will be further considered.

Hong Kong. — The number of persons employed in the Colony in the occupations scheduled under Article 2 of this Convention is so small, and the difficulty of applying any such Convention to the constantly fluctuating immigrant labour from the neighbouring provinces of China is so great that the Convention cannot usefully be applied to the Colony.

Nigeria. — None of the diseases specified in the schedule to Article 2 of the Convention have been reported as having resulted from any occupation in Nigeria.

Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland. — It is not considered that it would be desirable at present that these Conventions should be applied to these three territories either generally or in a modified form. There are no vocational industries in any of the territories and with the exception of a small amount of mining in the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland, manual employees consist chiefly of natives engaged in agricultural occupations and a small number of Europeans engaged in farming or employed in commerce.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 3 October 1927.
Finland. — 17 September 1927.
Great Britain. — 1 April 1927.
India. — 30 September 1927.
Irish Free State. — 25 November 1927.
Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slov­enes. — 1 April 1927.
Switzerland. — 16 November 1927.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislative and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Belgium. — The application of the Act of 24 July 1927 and the supervision of its enforcement are entrusted to the Labour Medical Service.

Finland. — The report states that the supervision of the enforcement of the legislation relating to compensation for occupational diseases is entrusted to the same authorities and the same insurance institutions as for accident insurance.

Great Britain. — The application of the provisions of the Act of 22 December 1925 is supervised generally by the Home Office which appoints the special doctors and adds diseases to the Schedule; but claims for compensation and similar questions arising in particular cases under the Acts, if not settled by agreement between the employer and workman, are settled by arbitration, normally in the County Court (in Scotland, the Sheriff Court) in accordance with the prescribed procedure as set out in the First Schedule to the Act of 1925 and in Rules of Court made thereunder.

India. — The Act of 5 March 1923 and the rules made thereunder are administered by local Governments through Commissioners appointed under § 20 of the Act. § 30 of the Act provides for appeals against the decisions of the Commissioners. It is compulsory for every employer to furnish annually a return showing the number of accidents for which compensation has been paid during the year and the amount of such compensation.

Irish Free State. — The general administration of the Workmen’s Compensation Acts is allocated to the Department of Industry and Commerce of Saorstat Eireann. The existing legislation, however, provides for the settlement of compensation questions: — (1) by agreement — which when registered with the Circuit Court is enforceable as a judgment of the Court; and (2) by arbitration — either before an ad hoc arbitration tribunal or before the Circuit Court Judge sitting as an arbitrator.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slow­enes. — See the summary of the report on the Convention concerning workmen’s compensation for accidents.

Switzerland. — The enforcement of the Federal Act of 13 June 1911 is entrusted, as regards accident insurance, to the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund at Lucerne (§§ 41 and ff). The Federal Department of Public Economy and the Federal Social Insurance Office belonging to it cooperate, in addition, in the execution of the Federal legislation relating to accident insurance. As regards the supervision of the provisions of the law, insured persons may prefer their claim before the courts and the Accident Insurance Act contains special regulations for the procedure to be followed by the Cantons and the Confederation in contested cases.
Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the processes carried on in your country which give rise to the diseases mentioned in the Schedule, with an indication of the extent to which they are carried on and of the number of cases of such diseases which have been reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Belgium. — The report states that the Act of 24 July 1927 came into force recently to make it possible to give (a) exact information upon the industrial processes which give rise to compensable occupational diseases; (b) the importance of these processes; and (c) the number of cases of disease notified.

Finland. — The report states that the following figures showing the total for the two years 1927 and 1928 give the number of cases in which the provisions of the Act mentioned above gave rise to compensation: compensation for disease was claimed in 29 cases; compensation was granted in 22 cases; the claim was rejected in 7 cases. As regards the causes of disease, the compensated cases were distributed as follows: sulphuric acid (1); hydrate of sodium (3); caustic (erysipelas transmitted to the hospital attendant or nurse) (3); phosphorus (1); anthrax infection (2); eruptions (2); terebenthine (4); petrol (1); ammonia (1); quick lime (1); aniline dyes (2); loud explosions (1); total 22 cases.

Great Britain. — The report states that the Convention is applied as part of the general and well recognised law relating to workmen’s compensation. Processes liable to give rise to lead poisoning and anthrax are extensively carried on in Great Britain, and statistics showing the numbers of certificates given by the certifying and appointed surgeons under § 43 of the Act of 1926 in respect of the diseases in various groups of industries are published annually in the workmen’s compensation statistics. The figures for 1926 were: Lead poisoning or its sequela, 276; anthrax, 28; mercury poisoning or its sequela, 1.

India. — Statistical information is given in the workmen’s compensation statistics for the year 1926 and the note on the working of the Indian Workmen’s Compensation Act, 1923. The statistics for 1927 are being compiled. Compensation was paid during the year 1927 for one case where permanent disablement was caused by lead poisoning and for another case where temporary disablement was caused by an occupational disease.

Irish Free State. — The report states that the number of cases of industrial disease reported to the Department of Industry and Commerce during the years 1926 and 1927 was as follows: lead poisoning or its sequela, in 1926, 3; in 1927, 6, one of which was fatal; anthrax infection, in 1926, no cases; in 1927, one case.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — According to the report, the number of undertakings and of workers exposed to the risk of occupational disease is not known, since no statistics are available. The report adds that the only cases known are those of lead poisoning and those in the printing industry. Phosphorus poisoning does not as a rule occur, since the use of white phosphorus is prohibited. There have been a few cases of anthrax infection; and since enquiry showed that the disease was the result of the employment, pensions were granted to the insured persons on the same scale as for other accidents.

Switzerland. — In comparison with industrial accidents occupational diseases due to the production or use of dangerous substances play only a secondary rôle in Switzerland. While lead may be regarded as a substance entailing certain serious consequences, mercury and anthrax infection have scarcely any practical importance. The chief causes of poisoning in Switzerland are: (a) for lead poisoning: in the chemical industry and the manufacture of viscose, lead-soldering in plumbing; in the printing industry, the melting of plates and composition; in the painting industry, the preparation and use of lead paints; (b) for mercury: in the chemical industry, the manufacture of artificial silk, the process employed for the recovery of sulphuric acid by means of mercury; (c) for anthrax infection, the spinning of hair. As regards the frequency of industrial poisoning due in Switzerland to substances or infection covered by the Convention, the medical statistics of the Accident Insurance Fund gives the following figures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of cases</th>
<th>Incapacity</th>
<th>Death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of cases</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead poisoning</td>
<td>1926</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1927</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercury poisoning</td>
<td>1926</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1927</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthrax poisoning</td>
<td>1926</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1927</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No complete figures are available for 1928. The following provisional figures are, however, available: out of 71,836 accident cases examined by the Insurance Fund up to 17 December 1928, there were 17 cases of lead poisoning, two of which were incapacitated; three cases of mercury poisoning; and no case of anthrax infection.
Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

This Convention first came into force on 8 September 1926. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1928:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>30.3.1926</td>
<td>5.2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>3.10.1927</td>
<td>26.12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czechoslovakia</td>
<td>8.2.1927</td>
<td>14.1.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>17.9.1927</td>
<td>23.1.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>6.10.1926</td>
<td>12.1.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>30.9.1927</td>
<td>7.2.1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serb-Croat-Slovak-Kingdom</td>
<td>1.4.1927</td>
<td>10.12.1928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>8.9.1926</td>
<td>19.1.1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

South Africa.

Workmen's Compensation Act No. 25 of 1914, extended by Act No. 13 of 1927 to provide compensation in the case of certain industrial diseases.

Belgium.


Czechoslovakia.

Act of 28 December 1887, No. 1 of the Imperial Code of 1888, respecting workers' accident insurance, with the subsequent amendment Acts, applicable to the Province of Bohemia and the Moravian-Silesian Province. Legislative Article No. XIX of 1907 respecting accident and sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce, as amended by subsequent Legislative Articles, in force for the territories of Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia.

Legislative Article No. XVI of 1900 respecting accident insurance for agricultural workers and servants for the territories of Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia, as amended by subsequent Legislative Articles, Legislative principles issued by the Czechoslovak Republic to supplement the basic legislation mentioned above.

Finland.


Great Britain.


India.

Workmen's Compensation Act of 5 March 1923 (L.S. 1923, Ind. 1).

Netherlands.

Act of 12 May 1928 to amend the Accident Insurance Act of 1921 (L.S. 1928, Neth. 1). Act of 29 November 1907 promulgating the treaty concluded on 27 August 1907 between Germany and the Netherlands respecting accident insurance. Decree of 18 May 1915 promulgating the treaty concluded on 30 May 1914 between Germany and the Netherlands supplementing the treaty of 27 August 1907. Decrees of 4 July 1922, 22 May 1926 and 16 April 1928 promulgating the treaties concluded with Belgium, Norway and Denmark respecting accident insurance.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Act of 14 May 1922 respecting workers' insurance (L.S. 1922, S.C.S. 2). Regulations of the Miners' Insurance Fund for workmen and staff employed in the undertakings of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes covered by the Mines Act; these regulations, which also apply to the families and relations of the said workmen and staff, were issued by the Order of 27 June 1921 of the Minister of Forests and Mines respecting the organisation of employment in mines and came into force under §22 of the Finance Act of August-November 1925. Order of the Minister of Communications of 30 May 1922 respecting the sickness and accident insurance of staff employed in the State communication services.

Sweden.

Agreement of 11 September 1923 with Finland establishing reciprocity as regards workmen’s compensation for accidents (L. S. 1923, Int. 3). Royal Decrees of 4 November 1921, 27 September 1922, 17 December 1926, 24 March, 6 May and 7 October 1927 and 27 January, 9 March, 20 April, 14 June, 24 August, 24 September, 6 and 12 October 1928 granting exemption from certain provisions of the Act of 17 June 1916, as amended, to the nationals of Great Britain and Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Union of South Africa, Czechoslovakia, Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Belgium, India, Poland, France, Luxemburg, Hungary, Latvia, Cuba, Germany, Austria and Japan.

II.

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

ARTICLE 1.

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention undertakes to grant to the nationals of any other Member which shall have ratified the Convention, who suffer personal injury due to industrial accidents happening in its territory, or to their dependants, the same treatment in respect of workmen’s compensation as it grants to its own nationals.

This equality of treatment shall be guaranteed to foreign workers and their dependants without any condition as to residence. With regard to the payments which a Member or its nationals would have to make outside that Member’s territory in the application of this principle, the measures to be adopted shall be regulated, if necessary, by special arrangements between the Members concerned.

Please give information regarding any special arrangements which may have been made with other Members concerned, forwarding copies of the texts.

South Africa. — No distinction is drawn as to the nationality of any workman competent to claim compensation; all nationalities stand on the same footing.

Belgium. — The Act of 24 December 1908 makes no distinction between Belgian and foreign persons who suffer injury due to accidents.

Czecho-Slovakia. — The report states that equality of treatment is guaranteed by Czechoslovak legislation. Equality of treatment is not conditional upon the foreign workers’ permanent residence in Czechoslovak territory, so that a foreign worker entitled to a pension does not forfeit his right to pension for injury from accident by leaving Czechoslovak territory. In such cases, however, § 42 of Act No. 1 of 1888 allows the insurance institution to substitute for the pension the payment of a lump sum in final settlement. As regards the territories of Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia, § 95 (3) of Legislative Article No. XIX of 1907 provides that if the person entitled to pension is a foreign worker who returns to his country to reside there permanently, his pension for injury from accident shall continue to be paid, provided that the State in question observes reciprocity as regards Czechoslovak nationals. Under § 77 of Legislative Article No. XIX of 1907 relations of foreign workers deceased as the result of an accident and insured under the provisions of this Act, who, at the date of the accident, are permanently domiciled abroad, are entitled to compensation only if the State in question follows the same procedure with respect to dependents, residing in Czechoslovakia, who are Czechoslovak nationals who are insured persons and die in that foreign country. If the dependents of a foreign worker who is already in receipt of a pension leave to make their permanent residence in a foreign country, they are entitled to a payment of three times the amount of the annual pension; if they return to Czechoslovakia, they have no further right to pension. The condition of reciprocity also applies to foreign dependants. The report notes that the substitution of a lump sum payment for the pension due to a foreign worker who has left the country rarely occurs and only at the request of the pensioner and that as a rule the pension continues to be paid. Equality of treatment has been arranged, up to the present, by an exchange of diplomatic notes between Czechoslovakia and Sweden and Finland. A similar procedure is at present being followed between Czechoslovakia and Belgium, the Netherlands, Japan and Hungary. A similar suggestion has been made for the arrangement of equality of treatment between Czechoslovakia and Canada. Outside the limits of the Convention, the payment of accident compensation, including grants for high cost of living, has been administratively arranged with Germany, Austria and Poland.

Finland. — The Act of 17 July 1925 makes no distinction between Finnish and foreign workers. The only exception is in § 47, which provides that if any person entitled to a pension is neither a Finnish citizen nor resident in Finland, the insurance institution may cease payment of the pension and pay him half the capital sum corresponding to the pension in final commutation. If an accident has resulted in death and the deceased was neither a Finnish citizen nor resident in Finland, funeral benefit is not paid unless the accident has resulted in death within three months. The report states, however, that exceptions have been abolished, in accordance with the Convention, as regards nationals of countries which have ratified the Convention.
Great Britain. — Under §§ 1 and 43 of the Workmen’s Compensation Act, 1925, an employer is liable to pay compensation if any “workman” employed by him is killed or disabled through an accident or scheduled industrial disease arising out of, and in the course of, his employment. The definition of “workman” in § 3 (1) does not discriminate between British and foreign subjects. No special arrangements have been made in pursuance of this Article; attention is, however, called to arrangements made with France in 1909 and recently, with Denmark which deal, inter alia, with payments outside Great Britain.

India. — Every person who falls within the definition of “workman” as contained in § 2 (1) (n) of the Indian Workmen’s Compensation Act, is entitled to the benefits of the Act irrespective of nationality or residence. No special arrangements have so far been considered necessary for payment of claims outside India.

Netherlands. — The Accident Insurance Act does not distinguish between national and foreign workers. Foreign workers are insured against accident in exactly the same manner as national workers. The Netherlands have not concluded any such arrangement as is contemplated in the second paragraph of this Article of the Convention.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — § 8 of the Act of 14 May 1922 provides that aliens employed within the Kingdom shall be treated on an equality with nationals of the Kingdom. The Minister of Social Affairs may issue special provisions concerning nationals of States in which sickness, invalidity, old age and death and accident insurance are established, but which do not treat nationals of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes employed there on an equality with their own nationals in respect of the said insurance. § 111 of the Act provides that the claim to pension is suspended if the recipient of the pension is an alien and returns to his native land to take up his permanent residence there. By way of exception, the pension may continue to be paid to him if the State in question treats Serb-Croat-Slovene nationals in the same way. If the recipient of the pension or benefit betakes himself to a permanent residence abroad, the Central Institution may on demand commute his pension for its annual amount if cause is duly shown. In the event of the subsequent return of the person in question, the pension or benefit may be granted him afresh, provided that the sum paid on commutation is deducted in instalments not exceeding three times the annual amount of the pension, if he betakes himself to a permanent residence abroad and his pension or benefit is consequently suspended. The principle of reciprocity must in all other respects govern the commutation granted to such persons. The report adds that a special arrangement is contained in the Conventions concluded between the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and Italy, signed at Nettuno on 20 July 1925.

Sweden. — Under § 27, last paragraph, of the Accident Insurance Act the Government has the power, in case of reciprocity, to accord the same treatment to foreign workers as to national workers as regards workmen’s compensation for accidents. The report states that this has been done, in virtue of special agreements, in the case of Danish, Norwegian, British and Irish, Italian, Dutch and Finnish nationals, and, in virtue of the Convention, in the case of nationals of the Union of South Africa, Czechoslovakia, Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Belgium, India, Poland, France, Luxembourg, Hungary, Latvia, Cuba, Germany, Austria and Japan. As regards special arrangements for payments, see under Article 4.

ARTICLE 2.

Special agreements may be made between the Members concerned to provide that compensation for industrial accidents happening to workers whilst temporarily or intermittently employed in the territory of one Member on behalf of an undertaking situated in the territory of another Member shall be governed by the laws and regulations of the latter Member.

Please give information regarding any special agreements that may have been made under this Article, forwarding copies of the texts.

South Africa. — No special arrangements have been made under this Article.

Belgium. — The report contains no information on this subject.

Czechoslovakia. — The report states that no special agreements have yet been concluded by Czechoslovakia.

Finland. — The report states that no special agreements have been concluded with other countries as regards workers employed as fitters or in a temporary or intermittent capacity in the territory of one State on behalf of an undertaking situated in the territory of another State. Negotiations have been opened with the Scandinavian countries for the conclusion of such special arrangements.

Great Britain. — No special agreements have been made in pursuance of this Article, but Article 2 of the Anglo-French Convention and paragraph I (i) of the
relative Order in Council contains certain provisions with regard to temporary or intermittent employment abroad.

India. — No agreements of the nature referred to in this Article have been made.

Netherlands. — Before its ratification of the Convention the Government of the Netherlands had concluded agreements with Germany (27 August 1907 and 30 May 1914) and Belgium (4 July 1922) with a view, in particular, to the prevention of double insurance. The Government has also concluded an agreement with Norway (22 May 1926) for the prevention of double insurance and concerning equality of treatment for workers. A similar agreement concluded with Denmark received legal approval after the ratification of the Convention (16 April 1928).

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that no decision has yet been reached regarding special agreements. See also under Article 1.

Sweden. — Under § 28 of the Accident Insurance Act the Government may conclude agreements on the basis of reciprocity with foreign States concerning the application of the Act or the law of the foreign State in respect of employers in the one State carrying on undertakings in which workers are employed in the other State. The report adds, however, that no such agreements have yet been made.

**ARTICLE 3.**

The Members which ratify this Convention and which do not already possess a system, whether by insurance or otherwise, of workmen’s compensation for industrial accidents agree to institute such a system within a period of three years from the date of their ratification.

Please state whether legislative provision has already been made in your country for workmen’s compensation for industrial accidents, and, if not, what measures have been taken to give effect to this Article.

South Africa. — Legislative provision has been made in the Union prior to the ratification of the Convention by the Workmen’s Compensation Act of 1914.

Belgium. — Legislation already existed.

Czechoslovakia. — Legislation already existed.

Finland. — Legislation already existed.

Great Britain. — Legislation already existed.

India. — Legislation already existed.

Netherlands. — Legislation already existed.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — Legislation already existed.

Sweden. — The report states that accident insurance is of almost general application in Sweden.

**ARTICLE 4.**

The Members which ratify this Convention further undertake to afford each other mutual assistance with a view to facilitating the application of the Convention and the execution of their respective laws and regulations on workmen’s compensation and to inform the International Labour Office, which shall inform the other Members concerned, of any modifications in the laws and regulations in force on workmen’s compensation.

Please furnish information with regard to any modifications in the laws and regulations in force on workmen’s compensation and their application, forwarding copies of the texts.

South Africa. — No modifications of the laws in force on workmen’s compensation have taken place since the date of ratification.

Belgium. — No alteration of the existing legislation respecting workmen’s compensation for accidents has taken place since the date of ratification.

Czechoslovakia. — The report states that Czechoslovakia is endeavouring to develop collaboration with other States as regards workmen’s compensation for accidents. It is thus giving full effect to the provisions of Article 4. The report adds that Czechoslovakia is preparing to amend and consolidate the legislative provisions relating to accident insurance; the Ministry of Social Affairs will keep the International Labour Office informed upon this subject.

Finland. — No Act or Order was promulgated in 1928 to amend the Acts and Orders in force in Finland.

Great Britain. — The Workmen’s Compensation (Transfer of Funds) Act was passed in 1927 in order to facilitate the payment of compensation awarded in one part of His Majesty’s Dominions to a beneficiary resident or becoming resident in another part. No alteration was made in 1928.

India. — The report states that copies of the Indian Act, of its amendments, rules made and notifications issued under it are supplied regularly to the International Labour Office.

Netherlands. — The amendments to legislation made in 1928 (Act of 12 May 1928 and Decree of 16 April 1928) have been brought to the attention of the International Labour Office.
Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

No alteration was made to legislation in 1928.

Sweden. — The report states that, under agreements already existing with Denmark, Norway and Finland, it had been agreed that the competent insurance authorities of the four countries should afford each other assistance as regards industrial accident insurance by undertaking investigations and, when necessary, making compensation payments, on condition that the expenses are refunded. The report further states that the Act of 24 May 1928 repealed the earlier provision under which the employer, and not the insurance institution, was liable for sickness benefit to injured workers in cases where total incapacity or diminution of working capacity lasted 35 days at most.

III.

Article 9 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.

In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates or possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention.

Please indicate, as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

South Africa. — The report states that the Union has no colonies, protectorates or possessions. The Mandated Territory of South West Africa is dealt with under the Mandate.

Belgium. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention are not applicable to the Belgian Congo nor to the territories under mandate, as local conditions do not at present allow of application.

Great Britain. — This Convention has been applied without modification to Gibraltar, Trinidad and Palestine. The question of applying it to the Federated Malay States is still under consideration. In the case of the remaining Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories (apart from one or two from which replies are outstanding) it was considered that this Convention, either as it stands, or in a modified form, was inapplicable, owing to local conditions. Reasons for non-application in certain cases are as follows:

Cyprus. — It is considered premature to introduce further legislation relating to Workmen's Compensation, which at present applies to miners, whether British subjects or nationals of other States, who are entitled to receive compensation for injuries received in the course of their work. The Colony is essentially an agricultural community and is not sufficiently developed either industrially or socially for the easy adoption of measures which in an industrial State are not only free from danger, but positively necessary to the general welfare. A Bill is already contemplated for the prevention of abuses in the employment of young persons and children in industrial undertakings, but the local Government would be reluctant at present to proceed further on the lines laid down by the Convention.

Sierra Leone. — There are at present no foreign workmen employed in the Colony.

Nyasaland. — There are practically no factories and few businesses in which European employees are engaged. Apart from officers in the Government Service, Europeans are engaged in planting tobacco, cotton or tea for themselves or as overseers for others. Injuries rarely occur amongst agricultural workers in the Protectorate. In these circumstances and in view of the undeveloped state of the Territory industrially the Convention is considered unsuitable for adoption locally either in its entirety or in a modified form.

British Honduras. — Having regard to the present undeveloped state of the Colony and to its mixed population and to the nature of their occupations, it is not considered advisable to adhere to this Convention.

British Guiana. — The industrial condition of the Colony is not such as to require a system of compensation for industrial accidents.

Zanzibar. — There are practically no industrial concerns in Zanzibar, the majority of the population being engaged in agricultural occupations that very rarely involve injury for which an employer could be held responsible.

Hong Kong. — The labour in Hong Kong is almost entirely Chinese, and the present condition of China renders reciprocity with that country impossible.

Nigeria. — It is not considered that Nigeria is sufficiently advanced industrially for the application of Workmen's Compensation in accordance with the provisions of this Convention.

Barbados. — Industrial accidents are of rare occurrence and there are no dangerous occupations in the Colony such as coal mining.

Basutoland, Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland. — It is not considered that it would be desirable at present that these Conventions should be applied to these three territories either generally or in a modified form. There are no vocational industries in any of the territories and with the exception of a small amount of mining in the Bechuanaland Protectorate and Swaziland manual employes consist chiefly of natives engaged in agricultural occupations and a small number of Europeans engaged in farming or employed in commerce.

Netherlands. — By letter of 25 January 1929 the Minister of Colonies of the Netherlands informed the Office that the local conditions in Surinam and Curaçao...
did not allow of the application of the Convention. As regards the Dutch East Indies, a memorandum by the Governor-General states that regulations relating to workmen's compensation for accidents are in preparation and that the provisions of this Convention will be taken into account in these regulations.

The question does not arise in the case of the other reporting countries.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

South Africa. — 8 September 1926.
Belgium. — 19 November 1927.
Czechoslovakia. — 8 February 1927.
Finland. — 17 September 1927.
Great Britain. — 6 October 1926.
India. — 30 September 1927.
Netherlands. — 18 September 1927.
Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — 1 April 1927.
Sweden. — 8 September 1926.

V.

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

South Africa. — The general supervision of the Workmen's Compensation Act is in the charge of the Ministry of Labour which, through its local and head office representatives, gives information and advice to persons affected who make application for assistance. No regulations have been framed under the Act, which is rendered effective through the ordinary Civil Courts of the country.

Belgium. — The application of the Act of 24 December 1908 is within the competence of the judicial authorities (magistrate or arbitral court of first instance — appeal court of first instance). Its enforcement is entrusted to the Ministry of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare. It has not been necessary to introduce any special method of supervision, since equality of treatment for national and foreign workers is established by the Act itself.

Czechoslovakia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the legislation in question is entrusted to the Ministry of Social Welfare so far as it is the competent body for the supervision of the autonomous accident insurance institutions.

Finland. — Insurance is paid by the private insurance companies; as regards workers in State employment, it is the duty of the Permanent Committee for enquiry into accidents occurring in Government service to fix and pay the compensation. If the company or the Permanent Committee above-mentioned refuses the claim as being unfounded, its resolution on the subject is submitted for decision to the Insurance Council. The Insurance Council has to decide the degree of incapacity and fix the amount of the pension, on the proposal of the insurance company concerned. In regard to any other ruling of a company, appeal may be made to the Insurance Council. In some cases appeal may also be made to the Supreme Court against the decision of the Insurance Council.

Great Britain. — The application of the above-mentioned provisions is supervised generally by the Home Office, but all claims for compensation and other questions arising in particular cases under the Acts, if not settled by agreement between the employer and workman, are settled by arbitration, normally in the County Court (in Scotland, the Sheriff Court) in accordance with prescribed procedure.

India. — The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act and the rules made thereunder are administered by local Governments through commissioners appointed under the Act.

Netherlands. — See the summary of the report on the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — See the summary of the report on the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.

Sweden. — The supervision of the application of the relevant legislation is within the competence of the State Insurance Institution and of the Insurance Council as ultimate authority.

* * *

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, and if such statistics are available, information concerning the approximate number of foreign workers on the national territory, their nationality, their terri-
torial and occupational distribution, the number and nature of the accidents reported in the case of foreign workers, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

South Africa. — The report states that no statistical information regarding the number and nature of accidents reported in the case of foreign workers is available.

Finland. — The report states that it is almost impossible to obtain information regarding foreign manual workers in Finland, since the lists of foreigners in question do not distinguish between manual workers and other foreigners. According to the police lists, there were 27,483 foreigners in Finland in the last quarter of 1928. According to a list prepared by the Ministry of Social Affairs, 681 persons have obtained permission to live in Finland and carry on an occupation. Information supplied by the insurance companies shows that the total number of foreigners injured by accident in the years 1927 and 1928 was 21, 10 of whom were seamen. One claim for compensation was refused. Sickness benefit and daily payments were granted to 12 persons, while two persons received sickness benefit only. Of the persons who received grants, four received pensions. Six persons died, three of whom were seamen. Pensions were granted to the families of deceased persons in five cases, while in four cases a lump sum was paid in commutation of pension. The nationalities of the injured persons were as follows: 5 British, 7 German, 3 Estonian, 3 Russian, 1 Swede, 1 Pole and 1 Australian.

Great Britain. — The report states that the Convention is applied as a part of the general and well recognised law of workmen’s compensation. As there has never been any discrimination between British and foreign subjects, no separate statistics have been kept as regards foreign workers, their occupations and accidents. This is subject only to the following exceptions: Article 5 (e) of the Anglo-French Convention and paragraph (7) of the relative Order in Council provide for returns of judicial decisions in the case of French citizens. The number of decisions up to the end of 1926 is 22. Similar provisions are made in Article 4 (e) of the Anglo-Danish Convention and paragraph 1 (iii) of the relative Order in Council, but no figures are yet available.

India. — No statistics are available regarding foreign workers in British India but it is believed that their number is very small. They are equally eligible with nationals for the benefits conferred by the Indian Workmen’s Compensation Act.

Netherlands. — The report states that the statistics do not distinguish between national and foreign workers and that it is therefore impossible to give the required information.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The report states that the number of foreign workers is not calculated by the Central Workers’ Insurance Institution. They are treated in the same way as national workers. It is also impossible to give the number of foreign workers in receipt of a pension so long as they inhabit the country. The number of persons abroad in receipt of pensions is very small (35); the payment of pensions to persons abroad has been suspended in 11 cases as a measure of retaliation.
EIGHTH SESSION (GENEVA, 1926).

**Convention concerning the simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship.**

This Convention came into force on 24 December 1927. The following table shows the countries which had ratified the Convention unconditionally before the end of the year 1927 and from which annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles were due in respect of the year 1928.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES</th>
<th>Date of registration of ratification</th>
<th>Reports received</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>24.12.1927</td>
<td>19.1.1929</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The report of the Government of Austria states that no legislation relating to emigration is in existence.

The Government of the Netherlands states in its report that there is no clause in Netherlands legislation requiring the inspection of vessels; inspection is carried out under the Act of 1 June 1861 (Staatsblad No. 53) containing provisions respecting the transit and transport of emigrants before the departure of the vessel. The Convention contains provisions for an inspectorate to supervise the protection of emigrants on board ship, but it does not make it obligatory to appoint inspectors on board ship. It follows therefore that the legislation of the Netherlands, which does not provide for official inspectors on board ship, is not in conflict with the Convention and that no amendment of it is necessary.

**Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has not already been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.**

**Austria.** — See introductory note above.

**Netherlands.** — See introductory note above.

**II**

Please indicate in detail for each of the following Articles of the Convention the provisions of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., or other measures, under which each Article is applied.

**ARTICLE 1**

For the purposes of application of this Convention the terms "emigrant vessel" and "emigrant" shall be defined for each country by the competent authority in that country.

Please indicate the definitions of the terms "emigrant vessel" and "emigrant" which have been adopted.

**Austria.** — The report states that in practice any person is deemed to be an "emigrant" who leaves Austrian territory with the intention of taking up a permanent residence abroad or earning his living there, even if he does not intend to reside permanently, together with those members of his family who accompany or follow him abroad. In practice, therefore, an "emigrant vessel" is deemed to be any vessel engaged in the transport of emigrants, as just defined, as steerage or third-class passengers or any other class treated as similar by the Austrian administration.

**Netherlands.** — See the introductory note.

**ARTICLE 2**

Each Member which ratifies this Convention undertakes to accept the principle that, save as hereinafter provided, the official inspection carried out on board an emigrant vessel for the protection of emigrants shall be undertaken by not more than one Government.
Nothing in this Article shall prevent another Government from occasionally and at their own expense placing a representative on board to accompany their nationals carried as emigrants in the capacity of observer, and on condition that he shall not encroach upon the duties of the official inspector.

If the question arises, please state whether advantage has been taken of the possibility allowed by the second paragraph of this Article of placing observers on board emigrant vessels carrying your nationals, and if so, under what conditions.

Austria. — The report states that advantage has been taken of the possibility of placing observers on board emigrant vessels carrying Austrian emigrants. These observers were not, however, required to accompany emigrant ships, but to inform themselves of the measures taken on board the vessels in question as regards emigrants and of the manner in which Austrian emigrants and Austrians returning to their country were treated. The Austrian administration reserves its right to do this with all the foreign navigation companies authorised in Austria; for this purpose every concession granted to a navigation company contains a clause which is an integral part of the concession and stipulates the conditions which must govern the transport of Austrian emigrants.

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 3

If an official inspector of emigrants is placed on board an emigrant vessel he shall be appointed as a general rule by the Government of the country whose flag the vessel flies. Such inspector may, however, be appointed by another Government in virtue of an agreement between the Government of the country whose flag the vessel flies and one or more other Governments whose nationals are carried as emigrants on board the vessel. Please state (a) whether your country has an official emigrant inspection system, and (b) whether any agreements have been made with other Governments respecting the appointment of official inspectors.

Austria. — The report states that the observers to whom reference is made above are appointed by the Emigration Office of the Federal Chancery. No agreements regarding the appointment of inspectors have been concluded with other Governments up to the present.

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 4

The practical experience and the necessary professional and moral qualifications required of an official inspector shall be determined by the Government responsible for his appointment. An official inspector may not be in any way either directly or indirectly connected with or dependent upon the shipowner or shipping company.

Nothing in this Article shall prevent a Government from appointing the ship's doctor as official inspector by way of exception and in case of absolute necessity.

Please state whether provision has been made for the appointment of ship's doctors as official inspectors in the conditions provided for in the third paragraph of this Article.

Austria. — The question of the application of this Article does not arise.

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 5

The official inspector shall ensure the observance of the rights which emigrants possess under the laws of the country whose flag the vessel flies, or such other regulations, agreements, or terms of international agreements or any contracts relating to the matter which have been communicated to such Government.

Austria. — The question does not arise.

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 6

The authority of the master on board the vessel is not limited by this Convention. The official inspector shall in no way encroach upon the master's authority on board, and shall concern himself solely with ensuring the enforcement of the laws, regulations, agreements, or contracts directly concerning the protection and welfare of the emigrants on board.

Austria. — See above, under ARTICLE 2.

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 7

Within eight days after the arrival of the vessel at its port of destination the official inspector shall make a report to the Government of the country whose flag the vessel flies, which Government shall transmit a copy of the report to the other Governments concerned, where such Governments have previously requested that this shall be done. A copy of this report shall be transmitted to the master of the vessel by the official inspector.

Austria. — See above, under ARTICLE 2.

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

III

Article 12 of the Convention is as follows:

Each Member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, possessions and protectorates, in accordance with the provisions of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace.
In application of the second paragraph of Article 421 of the Treaty of Versailles and of the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, please indicate, in respect of each of your colonies, protectorates and possessions, the action taken for the application of the Convention. 

Please indicate as far as possible, the nature of the conditions which may have led to the decision not to apply the Convention, or to apply it subject to modifications, as provided for in the first paragraph of the same Article.

Please add, in so far as they have not already been communicated to the International Labour Office, all relevant legislative texts, reports, etc.

Austria. — The question does not arise.

Netherlands. — The report states that the Minister for the Colonies will supply information on this point.

IV

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Austria. — 24 December 1927.

Netherlands. — 24 December 1927.

V

Please state to what authority or authorities the application of the above-mentioned legislation and administrative regulations, etc., is entrusted, and by what methods application is supervised and enforced.

Austria. — See above, under ARTICLE 3 (a).

Netherlands. — See introductory note.

Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the official emigrant inspection services, if any, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of persons carried as emigrants on ships flying the flag of your country (distinguishing between your own nationals and the nationals of other countries) and the number of your nationals carried as emigrants on ships flying the flags of other countries, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings, and in particular under V.

Austria. — The report states that the Government communicates regularly to the International Labour Office monthly statistics respecting emigration of extra-European countries and — in accordance with the first paragraph of the Recommendation, adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Fourth Session and approved by the Austrian Government, concerning the statistical communication of information regarding migration — three-monthly reports upon emigration to extra-European countries and an annual report upon migration movements for each year.

Geneva, May 1929.

ALBERT THOMAS.
APPENDIX I TO THE SECOND PART.

1. Report of the Committee of Experts appointed to examine the Annual Reports made under Article 408.

The Committee set up by the International Labour Conference in 1928 to consider the reports which States which ratify Conventions are bound under Article 408 of the Peace Treaty to submit annually to the International Labour Office took as the basis of its deliberations the Director’s Report and the Report of the Committee of Experts appointed by the Governing Body of the Office in virtue of a Resolution adopted by the Conference in 1926. In this the Committee was following the example of the Committee set up by the Conference the previous year. When it had finished its work and had put forward certain observations to which allusion is made below, the Committee concluded as follows:

The Committee also recognises that the work of the Committee of Experts has given useful results. Consequently the Committee expresses the hope that the Conference will invite the Governing Body of the Office to maintain this institution, which was set up as an experiment in virtue of the Resolution adopted by the Eighth Session of the Conference.

As this conclusion was approved by the Conference the Governing Body decided to renew the mandate of the Committee of Experts, the composition of which is as follows:

His Excellency R. Waldemar ERICH, Finnish Minister at Stockholm, Professor at the University of Helsingfors; Ex-President of the Council of Ministers of Finland.

Sir Selwyn FREMANTLE, C. S. I., C. I. E., Ex-Member of Council of the Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces, India; Ex-Member of the Viceroy’s Legislative Council for the purpose of the Factories Bill.

Mr. Jules GAUTIER, President of Section in the Council of State; Vice-President of the Economic Council of France.

Professor GINI, Professor at the University of Rome; President of the National Institute of Statistics; Member of the Council of the International Institute of Statistics.

Professor Ignacy DE KOSEMBAK-LYSKOWSKI, Professor of Roman Law and late Rector of the University of Warsaw.

Dr. A. D. MCNAIR, LL.D., C.B.E., Fellow and Tutor of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge.

Mr. von NOSTITZ, President of the Administrative Tribunal of Saxony; Chairman of the Social Reform Society, Dresden.

Mr. QUADRAT, Engineer; Secretary-General of the Masaryk Academy of Labour at Prague.

Mr. William RAPPARD, Professor at the University of Geneva, late Rector of the University of Geneva; Member of the Permanent Mandates Commission of the League of Nations; former Director of the Mandates Section at the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

Mr. TSCHOFFEN, Senator; former Minister of Labour, Industry and Social Welfare of Belgium.

The Committee thus constituted was convened by the Director of the International Labour Office and met at Geneva from 21-23 March under the chairmanship of Mr. Tschoffen, former Minister of Labour and Senator of the Kingdom of Belgium.

Mr. von Nostitz was unable to be present at the meetings of the Committee.
The Committee noted with satisfaction the passage contained in the Report of the Committee on Article 408 and adopted by the Conference to the effect that its work had given useful results. It felt entitled to believe that these formed a modest contribution to the "valuable results" which the Reporter, Mr. Pfister, placed on record at the end of his report and which, he considered, would "permit the development of international labour legislation and the realisation of important measures of social progress."

Adopting the procedure already followed in 1927 and 1928, and in the same spirit, the Committee proceeded to consider the reports rendered by the States Members of the International Labour Organisation which had ratified Conventions. These reports had been previously submitted to the members of the Committee by the Director. The Committee noted that of the 241 reports which should have been communicated under Article 408, 223 had been received by the International Labour Office—87 by the date fixed by the Governing Body, 119 later (up to 10 March), 17 after the latter date, but just in time to be considered by the Committee, while 18 others had not yet reached Geneva. It also noted that 8 reports in respect of the year 1927, which should have been communicated in 1928, had not yet been rendered. The Committee can only express its regret at these delays and still more at the failure in one case to render reports at all. It ventures to hope that before the opening of the Session of the Conference, in 1929 all the reports will have been received, and to suggest to the Governing Body that it should earnestly remind the States Members of the International Labour Organisation concerned of the strict obligations they have assumed under Article 408. Moreover, the Committee wishes to emphasise the bad moral effect of such delays.

The Committee further notes that the number of reports received is 223 out of 241 reports due in 1929, whereas the corresponding figures for 1928 were 175 reports received out of 209 reports due.

Finally, the Committee records with satisfaction that 189 reports have not given rise to observations and that, in consequence, in the States by which these reports were supplied, the national legislation has been adapted to the international Conventions ratified by them. As regards the remaining reports, the Committee of Experts, whilst realising the genuine desire of the States to meet the observations put forward on previous occasions, has been unable to avoid pointing out to the Governing Body in various cases that the replies submitted are not full or clear enough; in some cases there is a doubt whether the national law has been effectively adapted to the provisions of the Conventions, in others it seems clear to the Committee that certain points in the national law are not in harmony with the letter and the spirit of the Conventions.

The Committee of Experts has observed that, as it had pointed out previously, certain States with important colonial possessions have been willing to indicate those of their colonies in which the Conventions are not applied or are only partly applied, or have been modified. The British and Netherlands Governments have in particular supplied useful explanations in this respect. It must, however, be pointed out that if all the States concerned supplied detailed information with regard to the considerations on which their colonial legislation concerning the subjects covered by the Conventions which they have ratified is based, they would earn the gratitude not only of the Conference (from the point of view of its decisions in the future) but also from other States in a similar or identical position to themselves. In so doing there can be no doubt that they would be acting in accordance with Article 408, the essential object of which is to enable the Members of the International Labour Organisation to supply each other with information. The Committee of Experts therefore ventures once again to call the attention of the Governing Body to this point.

With regard to the Conventions concerning unemployment (Article 3) and concerning equality of treatment as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (Articles 1 and 2), the Committee noted that the agreements contemplated by these Conventions were as yet very
limited in number. It considered that it would be of great value from the standpoint of the realisation of international labour legislation if an effort were made in the direction of achieving the objects indicated by these Conventions.

* * *

The Experts noted that the Committee on Article 408 set up by the International Labour Conference in 1928, after observing that the Committee of Experts had limited its study to an examination of the conformity of the national laws with the international Conventions, in accordance with its mandate, laid strong emphasis on the possibility and even the necessity of a more complete examination with the additional object of noting the concrete and properly observed results of those laws. It is indeed of great importance from the point of view of the international harmony of social legislation that laws once passed should be effectively applied and that their real effectiveness should be shown by the results.

The report submitted by Mr. Pfister on behalf of the Conference Committee declared that the Committee further considered "that any study of the problem should not be confined to examining whether the provisions of the Conventions and national legislations are in harmony, but should also go into the question of the effective application of Conventions, as it was already possible to do on the basis of the reports of some Governments. The Committee draws attention to the fact that the additional question at the end of the forms for annual reports drawn up by the Governing Body already presents possibilities which it would appear desirable to develop." The experts had not lost sight of this matter, but they had felt bound to proceed in accordance with their formal terms of reference, which did not appear to entitle them to carry their studies any further. They can only welcome the action of the Committee of the Conference and of the Conference itself in laying such strong and clear emphasis on a subject of such importance for social progress. They venture to request the Governing to consider whether it might not be possible to remind States bound by Article 408 of the importance of replying as fully as possible to the additional question in the annual report forms, which invites Governments to furnish such observations of a general character on the manner in which the Convention is applied as may be considered useful 1.

The Experts would recall that they have already suggested that the States should supply detailed information on the organisation of factory inspection, the number of inspectors and the number and nature of breaches of the law. They consider that it would also be distinctly desirable that Governments should instruct their factory inspection services to deal specially in their annual reports with the application of international Conventions. Such information would of itself provide extremely useful indications.

Certain States might also perhaps feel a desire, in order to obtain a better idea for themselves of the possibility of putting Conventions into force and of difficulties encountered in other countries, to enter into direct contact with the Committee of Experts, subject, of course, in this as in other matters, to the consent of the Governing Body. In such an event, the members of the Committee might, in virtue of their experience, be able to make useful suggestions in the course of conversation. There is no doubt, as may be seen from reading the report, that the Committee on Article 408 set up by the Conference in 1928 was convinced of the necessity of enabling all Members of the International Labour Organisation to profit by each other's experience. It would appear that such an exchange of views might prove useful in promoting that object.

The Committee of Experts, anxious as it is not to go beyond its terms of reference, must nevertheless take into account the report submitted to the Conference and the lofty conception expressed by the Conference, in agreement with its Commit-

1 In the case of the Hours Convention, for example, this question is drafted as follows: "Please add a general appreciation of the manner in which the Convention is applied in your country, including, for instance, information concerning the organisation of the factory inspection services, and, if such statistics are available, regarding the number of workers covered by the relevant legislation, the number and nature of the contraventions reported, etc., in so far as this information has not already been given under other headings and in particular under VI."
Committee on Article 408, in regard to the spirit of confidence in which international collaboration regarding social legislation should be conducted. The Committee therefore ventures to assure the Governing Body that it is ready, should the Governing Body think fit, to meet the wishes of the Conference. It would be glad to be in a position to supply the Conference with this kind of information. There is no doubt that the States that have ratified Conventions realise more and more fully every year the great value and practical utility of such information now that certain early apprehensions have happily been overcome.

* * *

As a result of its examination of the reports, the Committee of Experts has formulated the observations contained in Appendix I of the present report. It is, of course, obvious that these observations relate only to those reports which have been received, i.e., to the reports of the States which have scrupulously carried out the obligations imposed upon them by Article 408. The States Members of the International Labour Organisation which have not sent in the reports required of them under Article 408 have thus avoided possible observations by the Committee.

(Signed) Jules Gautier.

Reporter.

Geneva, 23 March 1929.

APPENDIX I.

List of points on which the Committee of Experts considered that the reports examined called for observations or upon which supplementary information would be desirable:

I. Convention limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week.

Bulgaria.—In its report last year the Committee suggested that it would be desirable to ask the Bulgarian Government for supplementary information concerning the organisation of work in processes carried on continuously by a succession of shifts, for which the Convention permits a 56-hour week. In reply to a request for information on this point, and in the report for 1928, the Government explained that the Committee has now asked this information but considers that in order the better to appreciate its significance it would be desirable to ask the Bulgarian Government to communicate some examples of the time-tables of undertakings working continuously with a succession of shifts. The Committee also considers that the Bulgarian Government might be asked to furnish the list of processes which are classed as being necessarily continuous in character which is required by Article 7 (a) of the Convention.

Rumania.—The Committee has noted with satisfaction the adoption on 9 April 1928 of an Act relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work, which was promulgated on 13 April 1928. It considers, however, that the Rumanian Government might be asked for information whether the draft regulations for the application of the Act, which are quoted in the annual report, have yet been issued and put into force. The Committee further considers that the Government might be asked for supplementary information regarding the meaning attached to the expression "work required by the need for increasing production" for which the Act permits the working of overtime.

II. Convention concerning unemployment 1.

Spain.—The Committee notes that the annual report refers to previous reports as regards the application of Articles 1 and 2 of the Convention, the new information given in the report for 1928 being concerned with the preparation of a system of unemployment insurance. The Committee considers that the Spanish Government might be asked to furnish supplementary information concerning the working of the system of compiling unemployment statistics set up by the Royal Decree of 14 February 1927, and the working of the employment exchanges provided by the Royal Legislative Decree of 26 November 1926, establishing a National Corporative Organisation.

Irish Free State.—The Committee notes that the Irish Free State, in reporting that no arrangements have been entered into with other States with a view to the equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards unemployment insurance, states that "the Government of Northern Ireland, which is the immediate neighbour of Saorstát Eireann, has by its Unemployment Insurance Act, 1928, provided, in contravention to this Article (8), that no person shall be eligible for unemployment benefit who has not been resident in the United Kingdom (Great Britain, or Northern Ireland) for a period of at least three years prior to the making of a claim to benefit. The Committee took the view that it was not for it to give an opinion on this interesting question and that it could only draw the attention of the Governing Body to it.

Sweden.—The Committee notes the statement in the annual report for 1928 that an Act for the registration of cases of private employment agencies is now being considered. The Committee considers that this measure is required in order to ensure that the State supervision no measures have been taken to coordinate their activities with those of the public.

1 The reports of Chile and Greece had not reached the Office and were not examined.

1 The report of Greece had not been received by the Office and was not examined.
exchanges, and considers that the Swedish Government might be asked what measures it proposes to apply the provision of Article 2 of the Convention which requires that "where both public and private employment agencies exist, steps shall be taken to co-ordinate the operations of such agencies on a national scale."

III. Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

Spain. — The Committee notes that the annual report states that the draft scheme of a maternity insurance system prepared by the National Provident Institute has been approved by the National Assembly, and that pending its application the system of maternity subsidies continues in operation. The Committee considers that the insurance system will be brought into operation, (2) whether the Spanish Government which under the Convention must fix the amount of the benefits at a sum which is considered "sufficient" thinks that the sum of 50 pesetas should be regarded as such.

Rumania. — In addition to the general observation concerning the coming into force of the regulations for the application of the Act of 9 April 1928, the Committee considers that the Government might be asked whether the effect of Section 31 of the Act is to extend the maternity benefits payable under the Social Security Act of 1912 over the whole of the period during which a woman has the right or the obligation to absent herself from work before and after confinement.

IV. Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to industrial employment.

Rumania. — The Committee notes that the Act of 9 April 1928 provides an exception as regards the continued employment of children over 12 years of age who were bound by a contract of employment when the Act came into force, provided that the employment is not unhealthy or dangerous, and also makes it possible for factory inspectors to permit the employment of children over 12 years of age in easy employment during a maximum period of five years from the promulgation of the Act. The Committee considers that the Government should be asked for supplementary information whether it is intended to apply the latter provision, as this application would not appear to be authorised by the Convention.

V. Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.

France. — The Committee notes that the Decree of 5 May 1928, which specifies the processes in continuous undertakings in which young persons over 16 years of age may be employed at night, provides for temporary provision in the case of iron and steel works and glass works. Under these provisions, boys under 14 years of age might be employed until 1 October 1928, boys from 14 to 15 years of age until 1 October 1929, and boys from 15 to 16 years of age until 1 October 1930. The report of the French Government states that these time-limits have been provided for in order to prevent the discharge of boys already employed. The Committee has taken note of this statement.

Rumania. — The Committee notes that the Act of 9 April 1928 includes cellulose factories among the undertakings in which young persons over 16 years of age may be employed at night in continuous processes, and considers that the Government might be asked for supplementary information whether the cellulose factories concerned are factories subsidiary to undertakings for the manufacture of paper, for which an exception is provided for in the Convention, or undertakings manufacturing cellulose for any purpose.

VII. Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen.

Latvia. — The Committee notes that the report states that a Seamen's Act passed on 30 October 1928 gives effect to this Convention and the other maritime Conventions ratified by Latvia, but does not state whether the Act has come into force. The Government might be asked for supplementary information on this last point.

VIII. Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.

Poland. — The report for 1927 had stated that the question of sickness, invalidity and life insurance for workers in agricultural undertakings

1 The report of Greece had not reached the Office and was not examined.
2 The report of Chile had not reached the Office and was not examined.
of not more than 30 hectares would be dealt with by a Bill concerning social insurance. The report for 1928 states in this connection that the Bill provides for the compulsory insurance of all agricultural undertakings of more than 5 hectares. Undertakings of less than 5 hectares in which only a limited number of workers are employed are excluded temporarily. The time limit for the latter class of undertakings could be fixed by administrative order. The Committee, in taking note of the progress which the adoption of the Bill referred to above represents, considers that it could be useful to know (1) whether this Bill will give in practice to agricultural workers the same protection against accidents as is enjoyed by industrial workers, and (2) how the small number of workers in agricultural undertakings of 5 hectares and less are insured against accidents.

IX. Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

Spain. — The Committee notes that the report states that a Royal Order of 5 December 1928 ordered an enquiry to be opened before the Council of Labour, to be completed in three months, with a view to the preparation of regulations for the application of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1928 relating to white lead. The Committee considers that the Government might be asked whether these regulations have now been prepared and when they will come into force.

Latvia. — The Committee notes that the report does not indicate when it is expected that the Bill relating to the use and sale of white lead and of sulphate of lead will become law. The Government, to which a question on this point was addressed last year, might be asked whether it is now in a position to state when the Bill will be passed.

Romania. — The Committee notes that the report states that the High Commission for Industrial Hygiene and Sanitation is now engaged in studying and co-ordinating the provisions relating to public health, sanitation and industrial hygiene, and will take the necessary measures to give effect to the provisions of this Convention. The Government might be asked for supplementary information concerning the period at which it is anticipated that the recommendations of this Commission will be embodied in legislation and whether the necessary steps for the application of the Convention might not be taken without waiting for the adoption of the Bill as a whole.

X. Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Committee notes that the legislation mentioned in the report does not appear to provide for the repetition of medical examinations at intervals of not more than one year as provided for in the Convention. Upon this point the Government might be asked to furnish supplementary information.

XI. Convention concerning compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Committee notes that the legislation men-

tioned in the report does not appear to provide for the repetition of medical examinations at intervals of not more than one year as provided for in the Convention. Upon this point the Government might be asked for supplementary information.

XII. Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.

Belgium. — The Committee notes that the report states that provisions to give effect to the requirements of the Convention regarding the supply of artificial limbs and surgical appliances are contained in a Bill to amend the Act of 24 December 1903 which was submitted to Parliament on 14 February 1928, and upon which, the Committee has been informed, the report has been laid before the Chamber of Representatives. The Committee also observes that it is not clear whether the Act of 1903 covers all undertakings which would be covered by the very wide expression used in the Convention, namely, "any enterprise, undertaking or establishment of whatsoever nature, whether public or private." Further, the Committee notes that provision does not appear to be made for granting additional compensation where the injured workman must have the constant help of another person; the Committee has been informed that the new Bill submitted to the Chamber makes provision for this. Finally, the responsibility of the employer for medical expenses incurred by those injured during the first six months after the accident. The Committee considers that the Belgian Government should be asked whether the Bill mentioned in the report will remove these various differences between the Belgian legislation and the Convention.

Sweden. — The Committee notes that the Accident Insurance Act appears to provide that where the injured workman requires special help, additional compensation may be granted, whereas the Convention stipulates that additional compensation shall be provided when the injured workman must have the constant help of another person. The Government might be asked for supplementary information whether the permissive provision of the Swedish Act is always applied in practice in favour of such persons concerned who apply for additional compensation.

XIII. Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. — The Committee notes that the occupational diseases covered by the Workers' Insurance Act are not apparent in the report, and that the Government might be asked for supplementary information whether the administration of the Workers' Insurance Act is always applied in practice in favour of such persons concerned who apply for additional compensation.

XIV. Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Belgium. — The Committee notes that this report does not refer to the question whether special arrangements or agreements have been made with other States in pursuance of Articles 1 and 2 of the Convention. The Committee considers that the Belgian Government might be asked for supplementary information on this point.
# Appendix II

**A. List of Annual Reports Received and Examined by the Committee.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conventions</th>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Date of reception of reports by the Office</th>
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**Conventions**

**Countries**

**Date of reception of reports by the Office**

| Belgium | 26.12.28 |
| Bulgaria | 18. 2.29 |
| Denmark | 14. 1.29 |
| Estonia | 26.12.28 |
| France | 15. 3.29 |
| Great Britain | 12. 1.29 |
| India | 7. 2.29 |
| Irish Free State | 4.12.28 |
| Italy | 19. 2.29 |
| Latvia | 2. 2.29 |
| Netherlands | 21.12.28 |
| Poland | 23. 1.29 |
| Rumania | 8. 2.29 |
| Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Kingdom of | 14. 3.29 |
| Switzerland | 12. 1.29 |

**Minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.**

| Belgium | 26.12.28 |
| Bulgaria | 18. 2.29 |
| Canada | 3. 1.29 |
| Denmark | 14. 1.29 |
| Estonia | 26.12.28 |
| Finland | 23. 1.29 |
| Great Britain | 12. 1.29 |
| Italy | 11. 3.29 |
| Japan | 2. 2.29 |
| Latvia | 2. 2.29 |
| Netherlands | 21.12.28 |
| Norway | 14. 1.29 |
| Poland | 23. 1.29 |
| Rumania | 8. 2.29 |
| Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Kingdom of | 14. 3.29 |
| Spain | 8. 3.29 |
| Sweden | 19. 1.29 |

**Facilities for finding employment for seamen.**

| Australia | 11. 3.29 |
| Belgium | 26.12.28 |
| Bulgaria | 18. 2.29 |
| Canada | 3. 1.29 |
| Denmark | 14. 1.29 |
| Estonia | 26.12.28 |
| Finland | 23. 1.29 |
| Germany | 29. 1.29 |
| Italy | 11. 3.29 |
| Japan | 2. 2.29 |
| Latvia | 2. 2.29 |
| Netherlands | 14. 1.29 |
| Norway | 23. 1.29 |
| Poland | 23. 1.29 |
| Switzerland | 12. 1.29 |

**Age for admission of children to employment in agriculture.**

| Austria | 19. 1.29 |
| Bulgaria | 18. 2.29 |
| Czechoslovakia | 14. 1.29 |
| Denmark | 14. 1.29 |
| Estonia | 26.12.28 |
| Finland | 23. 1.29 |
| Germany | 29. 1.29 |
| Hungary | 10. 1.29 |
| Italy | 19. 2.29 |
| Irish Free State | 16. 1.29 |
| Japan | 2. 2.29 |
| Poland | 23. 1.29 |
| Sweden | 19. 1.29 |

**Rights of association and combination of agricultural workers.**

| Austria | 19. 1.29 |
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| Bulgaria | 18. 2.29 |
| Czechoslovakia | 14. 1.29 |
| Denmark | 14. 1.29 |
| Estonia | 26.12.28 |
| Finland | 23. 1.29 |
| Germany | 29. 1.29 |
| Great Britain | 12. 1.29 |
| Italy | 19. 2.29 |
| Latvia | 7. 2.29 |
| Irish Free State | 17.11.28 |
| Japan | 2. 2.29 |
| Latvia | 2. 2.29 |
| Netherlands | 21.12.28 |
| Poland | 23. 1.29 |
| Sweden | 19. 1.29 |

**A. List of Annual Reports Received and Examined by the Committee.**

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**Childbirth.**

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**Minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.**

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### Minimum age for admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers

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### Compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea

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### Workmen's compensation for accidents

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B. List of annual reports not received in time to be examined by the Committee.

### Equality of treatment (workmen's compensation)

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### Simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship

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2. Communications from Governments forwarding information supplementary to that contained in their annual reports.

**Belgium.**

(Translation.)

Brussels, 17 May 1929.

Sir,

In your letter of 17 April last, No. D. 607/3002/7, you communicated to me the observations made by the Committee of Experts respecting the application by Belgium of the Conventions concerning workmen's compensation for accidents and equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents. I have the honour to communicate to you herewith a note prepared by our Insurance and Social Welfare Office in reply to the questions asked by the Committee.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) ARMAND JULIN,

Secretary-General, for the Minister.
I. Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.

1. Prosthesis and orthopaedic appliances. - The legislation respecting workmen's compensation for accidents was brought into agreement with the Convention prepared by the International Labour Conference by the adoption quite recently by the Legislative Chambers of the following text to amend § 5 (1) of the Act of 1903: "The head of the undertaking shall be required, in accordance with the following provisions and until the expiration of the period for revision laid down in section 30 of this Act, to pay the medical, surgical, pharmaceutical and hospital expenses arising out of the accident. He shall also be required to pay for the prosthesis and orthopaedic appliances, the use of which is declared necessary, until the date of the agreement or final judgment contemplated in Section 4. A supplementary payment representing the apparatus shall be granted to the injured worker; this payment shall be fixed by the agreement or by the final judgment. It may if necessary be increased in cases where the condition of the injured worker is found to have worsened, when a claim for revision is made under the conditions laid down in Section 30. That part of the supplementary payment which has not been made within the revision period shall be paid to the injured workman in the month in which the said period expires."

2. The Act of 1903 covers private or public industrial undertakings as well as agricultural undertakings which usually employ at least three workers, and commercial undertakings in which three workers at least are usually employed.

The provision in the Bill to amend the 1903 Act bringing all undertakings within its scope, irrespective of the number of workers, has been reserved by the Legislative Chambers for further examination.

3. As regards the supplementary payment for seriously injured workers, the Legislative Chambers have adopted the following text which forms § 4 (5) of the Act of 1903: "As regards seriously injured workers whose condition normally requires the assistance of another person, the judge may increase the annual payment to a rate exceeding two-thirds but not however exceeding 80 per cent. At the expiration of the period of revision for which Section 30 provides that is to say for three years dating from the agreement reached between the parties or from the final judgment.

4. As regards the period during which the head of the undertaking must pay the medical, surgical, pharmaceutical and hospital expenses, the new text of § 3 (1) quoted above lays down that they shall no longer be required to pay for six months but from the date of the accident up to the expiration of the period of revision for which Section 30 provides that is to say for three years dating from the agreement reached between the parties or from the final judgment.

II. Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Since this Convention was adopted in July 1927 Belgium has reached no arrangement or agreement with other States. Provisions in conformity with this, for which Articles 1 and 2 of the Geneva Convention provide, are however to be found in the treaties concluded between Belgium and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg in 1905 and 1906, with France in 1906, with Germany in 1912, and with the Netherlands in 1922. It should also be remembered that Belgian legislation has always treated Belgian and foreign workers in the same manner as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Bulgaria.

(Translation.)

Sofia, 29 April 1929.

Sir,

In reply to your letter, No. 601/3001/10, the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour has the honour to communicate to you the following information:

I. At present the three-shift system exists only in coal and other mines and in some important industries which have requested the necessary permission. The time table is everywhere the same.

In reply to the time table in our most important industry, the "Pernik" coal mine, in which 5,279 workers and other persons are employed, 8,733 of whom are employed underground.

The three-shift system covers the miners and the technical staff of the mines.

The two-shift system is applied to some categories of surface workers. The shifts are fixed for one year. The hours of work are fixed at eight, and divided as follows:

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In this fashion the workers gain a daily continuous rest of sixteen hours. The weekly rest is arranged as follows:

- I shift Between the 1st and 2nd week 48 hours
- II shift From 6 a.m. to 2 p.m.
- III shift From 2 p.m. to 10 p.m.
- IV shift From 10 p.m. to 6 a.m.

With this arrangement of the hours of work the regulations limiting hours of work are exactly as stated in the annual report for the year 1926.

II. There are no regulations in Bulgaria dealing with cases of continuous work. Each case is examined separately. Up to the present the following have been recognised: employment in mines, in factories and sugar refineries (the last case only during the season), and also certain manufactories of chemical products in which the process of production is continuous.

I have the honour to be, etc.,

(Signed) Dim. NIKOLOFF,
Chief of the Labour Section.

SPAIN.

(Translation.)

Madrid, 7 May 1929.

My dear Director,

In reply to your letter of 17 April last (No. 501/3002/57) I have the pleasure to communicate to you the following supplementary information for
which you asked upon the reports for 1928 respecting the Conventions concerning unemployment, the protection of women before and after childbirth and the use of white lead in painting.

Convention concerning unemployment.

A beginning has been made in the province of Barcelona, where a workers' census kept continuously up to date exists, to put into force the decisions of the Royal Decree of 14 February 1927. The unemployment statistics in the province of Barcelona (tables of which are published in the Review of Social Affairs or in the Official Bulletin of the Ministry) are regularly prepared; they form a valuable source of information upon the extent and the duration of the industrial crisis.

In other districts unemployment statistics are also prepared with the difficulties peculiar to this kind of work.

The Royal Decree of 22 October 1928, a copy of which was sent to the International Labour Office in accordance with the obligation to submit the annual report for 1928, clearly expresses the intention of the Spanish Government to introduce unemployment benefit on the basis of subscriptions from the industries. The subscription is collected by joint committees; payment will be made with the help of the employment services of these Committees.

The Joint Committees are being gradually created under the Royal Legislative Decree of 26 November 1926 as amended on 8 March 1929. As regards the finding of employment, they are working with considerable success; but since the National Corporate Organisation is not yet completely in being, the Government consider it necessary—the Royal Decree of 22 October 1928 corresponds to this—to hasten and to organise by simultaneous measures of social welfare and corporate organisation the introduction of unemployment benefit.

Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

By Royal Decree of 22 March 1929 maternity benefit was introduced in Spain. This measure had been announced in the Report for 1928. In the text of the Royal Decree enclosed herewith it will be seen in § 20 that its coming into force is fixed for three months after the publication of the regulations of the Decree, and these regulations in their turn must be issued within this period of three months.

In consequence it does not seem necessary to reply to the question whether the amount at present granted as benefit, until the introduction of an insurance system, is considered sufficient. In performance of this promise the Spanish Government has introduced this insurance by the Royal Legislative Decree of 22 March 1929, after having granted liberal credits for assisting by subsidies the working classes which saw in this measure a generous proof of the desire of the Government to grant more extended benefit as has been done.

Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

The regulations to which the question referred are at present in preparation, and the Minister hopes that they will be shortly published.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) E. AUNOS.

Convention concerning the employment of children.

By Royal Decree of 22 March 1929 the minimum age for the admission of children to employment on ships of less than 60 tons gross has been fixed at 14 years in industrial establishments. In consequence the prohibition of the employment of children under fourteen years in industrial establishments also covers employment on board ship.

This last provision applies to every case in which the Seamen's Act does not apply, in particular to the minimum age for the admission of children for employment on ships of less than 60 tons gross.

The exclusion from the scope of the Seamen's Act of vessels of less than 60 tons gross as well as others is explained by the fact that it was not considered desirable to bring small vessels under the complicated system set up by the Act in question; on the other hand it was inspired by the desire to give effect to the Recommendation concerning the establishment of national seamen's codes and to embody in the Seamen's Act so far as possible all the legislation relating to seamen.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) V. GROHMAN.

Convention concerning the establishment of national seamen's codes.

With reference to your letter of the 17 April 1929 (D. 602/3001/45), I have the honour to communicate to you that the Government on 19 April 1929 has laid before the Storting for its passage a Bill concerning the abolition of private employment offices.

I enclose a copy of the Bill.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) FREDRIK VOGT.

Bill to supplement the Act of 12 June 1896 respecting employment offices.

I. No concession shall in future be granted to offices finding employment for seamen for payment. Those permits which have already been granted shall expire at the latest within five years from the coming into force of this Act. Permits granted until further orders shall come

Estonia. (Translation.)

Tallinn, 24 April 1929.

By your letter, No. D. 602/3001/291, of 11 April 1929, you were good enough to communicate to me a passage in the Report of the Committee of Experts relating to the steps taken by the Government of the Republic of Estonia to give effect to the provisions of the Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to employment at sea.

I am very grateful to you for this communication, since it gives me the opportunity to amend the mistake which was made in preparing the annual report. I should have realised that it was impossible for the Committee of Experts to understand all the details of our national legislation. The attention of the Committee should have been called to the fact that the Act of 22 March 1928 has neither amended nor repealed the Act of 20 May 1924 respecting the employment of children, young persons and women (Legislative Series, 1924, Est. 1.), § 1 (d), as I stated in my report for the year 1927, includes the transport of passengers or goods by sea in the definition of industrial establishments. In consequence the prohibition of the employment of children under fourteen years in industrial establishments also covers employment on board ship.

This last provision applies to every case in which the Seamen's Act does not apply, in particular to the minimum age for the admission of children for employment on ships of less than 60 tons gross.

The exclusion from the scope of the Seamen's Act of vessels of less than 60 tons gross as well as others is explained by the fact that it was not considered desirable to bring small vessels under the complicated system set up by the Act in question; on the other hand it was inspired by the desire to give effect to the Recommendation concerning the establishment of national seamen's codes and to embody in the Seamen's Act so far as possible all the legislation relating to seamen.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) V. GROHMAN.

Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

I enclose a copy of the Bill.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) FREDRIK VOGT.

Bill to supplement the Act of 12 June 1896 respecting employment offices.

I. No concession shall in future be granted to offices finding employment for seamen for payment. Those permits which have already been granted shall expire at the latest within five years from the coming into force of this Act.
to an end within two years; and those granted for a definite period, before one year from the coming into force of this Act.

Persons in possession of permits who desire to claim damages for the suppression of their permits may bring an action against the State at the latest three months after the expiration of the periods laid down in the preceding paragraph.

II. This Act shall come into force at once.

RUMANIA.

(Translation.)

Bucarest, 3 May 1929.

Sir,

On 17 April 1929 you were good enough to communicate to me a copy of the passages of the Report prepared by the Committee of Experts concerning certain annual reports submitted by the Government of Rumania in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of this letter and to communicate to you herewith my observations upon the questions raised by the Committee of Experts.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) RADUCANU.

J. SETLACEC.

Minister. Director-General.

Reply of the Rumanian Government to the questions submitted by the Committee of Experts on the Annual Reports for 1928.

I. Convention limiting the hours of work of industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week.

Regulations under the Act respecting the protection of women and children and hours of work were promulgated and published on 5 February 1929. In our letter No. 4098, of 6 February, the text of these regulations was communicated to the International Labour Office in continuation of our letter No. 4138, of 1 February, in which the annual reports were enclosed. We have the honour to communicate to you a further text of these regulations herewith.

The meaning of the expression "Work required by the need for increasing production" for which the Act allows the working of overtime is defined in § 31 (c) of the Regulations, which is as follows: "For this work the special permission of the Minister of Labour shall be asked, and it shall be granted after previous consultation with the Superior Labour Council.

Permission shall be granted only if it is proved by the detailed report of the factory inspector that the increase in production is due to unforeseen circumstances, that it is in the public interest, and that an agreement has been reached between the employers and workpeople concerned.

Permission may be granted only for a maximum period of three months in one year, and the daily hours of work shall not exceed ten hours."

II. Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

For the regulations applying the Act of 9 April 1928, see above.

As regards the maternity benefits to which § 31 of this Act refers, a provision of the Act of 1912 gives pregnant women the right to benefit for two weeks, and to women who have given birth to children for six weeks. In practice however pregnant women always receive six weeks' or about six weeks' leave before childbirth, since they are treated as sick and receive during this period a sickness benefit in addition to free medical attendance.

The Bill to re-organise social insurance which will shortly be submitted to Parliament will put the legal situation into accordance with the practice, so as to give full effect to the Convention.

III. Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to industrial employment.

The terms of § 8 (b) of the Act of 9 April 1928 are provisional. In Rumania, the Act of 24 July 1924 respecting the organisation of primary education provides for compulsory and supplementary school attendance for three years after the period of four years devoted to the primary school. Until this supplementary school attendance has been in practice completely put into force throughout the country, what is to be done with children who have completed the four years of primary education but who are unable to attend the supplementary course of education because it does not yet exist in their district? For this reason the provision was introduced into the Act of 9 April 1928 allowing them to take work, after obtaining the necessary permission and only in easy callings. Sufficient guarantees in this respect are also afforded by § 11 of the Regulations.

IV. Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.

The cellulose factories for which § 11 (c) of the Act provides are in connection with the paper mills.

V. Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

Parliament is at present occupied with Bills dealing with economic problems and the administrative organisation of the country, which questions are of a very urgent character. The question of the use of white lead in painting will however probably be dealt with at an early Session of Parliament.

KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS AND SLOVENES.

(Translation.)

Belgrade, 24 April 1929.

Sir,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter No. D/801/804/35, of 17 April 1929, concerning the additional information for which you were good enough to ask me respecting certain passages in some of the Conventions which the Government of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes has ratified, and concerning the application of which in 1928 I had the honour to send you annual reports in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles and the corresponding Articles of the Treaties of Peace.

I. As regards the Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry, I asked by telegram No. 4392, of 20 April 1929, all the factory inspectors whether they had in fact made use during 1928 of the exception allowed by § 18 (b) of the Workers' Protection Act. The replies which I have just received show that, apart from two cases in the region of the factory
inspector at Ossiek, no factory inspector has made use of this exception. Taking into account however that this exception is not provided for in the Convention, factory inspectors will be instructed in practice to use this exception as little as possible.

II. As regards the Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers, I have the honour to inform you that the legislation mentioned in the report applies not only to stokers employed on board ship but also to trimmers.

III. As regards the Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed on board ship, I have to inform you that at the moment of their engagement seamen engaged for employment on board ship are subjected each time to medical examination. To make the matter clearer however the new legislation in preparation takes this provision of the Convention into account and explicitly provides for it.

IV. As regards the Convention concerning workmen’s compensation for occupational diseases, it was mentioned in the annual report under Article 2 that some cases of anthrax poisoning had occurred; the enquiry having shown that the disease was contracted in the course of the employment, pensions were granted to the injured persons as to workers injured by accident. In consequence anthrax infection has been treated and considered as a disease covered by the Act. However, under the provisions of § 8a (5) of the Workers’ Insurance Act, the Minister of Social Welfare and Public Health decided, by decision dated 22 April 1929, No. 4445, that anthrax infection shall be assimilated to the occupational diseases covered by the Workers’ Insurance Act of 14 July 1922.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) DOUCHAN M. YEREMITCH,
Chief of the Division for Social Welfare for the Minister of Social Affairs and Public Health.

Stockholm, 29 April 1929.

As regards the first question asked by the Committee of Experts, which relates to the Convention concerning unemployment, it should be remarked that the free private employment offices existing in Sweden were created, and are for the most part directed, either by employers’ or more especially workers’ organisations, or by philanthropic institutions which attempt to find work for persons the quality of whose work is in some respect or other less than normal. At the same time the public offices and the private offices in question collaborate to a certain extent. Owing to the private interests represented by the private free offices, and to the fact that these will probably be little in favour of intervention by the public authorities, the State has not however thought it necessary to apply special provisions for the co-ordination of these offices with the public offices. But the question of a complete revision of the legislation relating to employment offices has been considered for several years, and it need not be said that the provisions in question of the Convention would be respected when the revision takes place.

As regards the second question relating to the Convention concerning workmen’s compensation for accidents, it should first of all be remarked that the provisions of the Swedish Accident Insurance Act apply to a greater number of cases than the corresponding provisions of the Convention. Under the Swedish Act a supplementary grant may be made in every case where the state of the injured worker requires special attention, while the Convention only provides for supplementary payment if the injured worker needs the constant assistance of another person. Since the text of the Act does not lay down that the supplementary payment must be compulsorily made in the cases covered by the Convention, I quote here, regarding the question put by the Committee of Experts, the official opinion expressed upon the subject by the Insurance Council which is the highest authority in Sweden for the application of the Accident Insurance Act and the decisions of which are final in this respect. The Council considers that the provision in question of the Swedish Act should be interpreted to mean that in cases where the conditions specified by the Act, and in consequence the cases covered by the Convention, exist, the injured worker must always be granted an annuity higher than that for which the Act regularly provides of an amount to be fixed in accordance with the claims of equity.

It does not appear therefore that there is any lack of accordance on this point between the provisions of the Convention and the existing Swedish legislation.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) S. LUBBECK,
Minister of Social Affairs.
APPENDIX II TO THE SECOND PART.

1. Annual Reports furnished by Chile.

The annual reports furnished by the Government of Chile in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles have been received by the International Labour Office since the publication of the Second Part of the Director's Report. The following is the full text of these reports:

I

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention limiting hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week, ratification of which was communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations in the year 1925 and promulgated by Act No. 464 of 10 August 1925.

I.

The list of laws and administrative regulations applying the provisions of the Convention was included in the report furnished by the Government of Chile in February 1927.

II

Article 1. — Section 1 of the Chilian Act of 8 September 1924 on contracts of employment exempted only work in agriculture and commercial undertakings, and domestic service.

The working day of eight hours is strictly applied, not only in industrial and Government undertakings, but also as regards salaried employees, in virtue of the Act of 11 November 1925 (section 17) on private employees.

In the preceding report for the year 1927 particulars were given of the statutory provisions enacted to give effect to the Convention.

I can therefore declare that, as stated in my communication of 2 June 1927, there are no exceptions relating to the eight-hour day in Chile.

The departments whose duty is to supervise the enforcement of the statutory provisions relating to the eight-hour day underwent considerable changes in 1928 with a view to increasing their efficiency. At the end of 1927, the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Labour was reorganised. The Department of Labour was also reorganised and a general factory inspectorate set up. In addition, in each province social welfare offices were instituted and entrusted with the inspection of factories in the provinces (Decree No. 2102 of 31 December 1927).

By a Decree of 8 August 1928 the inspection of working conditions in the saltpetre mines was placed under the supervision of the Mines and Saltpetre Inspection Staff; and, finally, to facilitate and to render more effectual the infliction of penalties, five labour tribunals were set up in various parts of the Republic.

III.

As observed in the preceding report, there has been no necessity in Chile to draw a distinction between industry and commerce in connection with the application of the Convention on the eight-hour day.

Up to the present recourse has not been had to the powers provided for in Article 14 of the Convention. Consequently, the operation of the provisions of the Convention have not been temporarily suspended. To sum up, the application of the Convention on the eight-hour day is general throughout the Republic, except as regards agricultural work, which is not covered by it.

The most remarkable fact in this connection is that during the year 1928 workers did not address a single petition to the Government, the competent organisations, or the employers, on the subject of the eight-hour day. There was not even one strike during the whole year.

II

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning the Employment of Women before and after childbirth, ratification of which was communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations in the year 1925 and promulgated by Act No. 465 of August 1925.

I.

The list of laws and administrative regulations applying the provisions of the Convention was included in the report of 2 May 1927 furnished by the Government of Chile.

II

Article 1. — The Convention is applied to all industrial undertakings mentioned in Article 1 and also to the commercial undertakings referred to in section V below.

With regard to the last paragraph of Article 1, it has not proved necessary to define the line of division between industry and commerce by provisions supplementary to the Act of 8 September 1924 on contracts of employment, since the Act draws a clear and complete line of division between industry and commerce on the one hand and agriculture on the other. In fact, section 1, sub-section 2, of the Act states that "this Act does
Article 2. — The Act does not comprise a definition of the term "woman", but in conformity with the provisions of the Civil Code of 1867 the term "woman" designates any female person, married or not, whatever her age or nationality. The term "child" signifies any child whether legitimate or illegitimate.

Article 3. — By the Act No. 442 of 6 April 1925 entitled Act on the protection of working mothers, promulgated before the ratification of the Convention, it is laid down (section 1) that "working women are entitled to absent themselves from work during pregnancy for a period of about 40 days before confinement and 20 days after." During this period the employer or the head of the undertaking is compelled, notwithstanding any provisions to the contrary, to keep the woman's post for her and to pay her 50 per cent. of her wages.

The administrative regulations in pursuance of this Act provide as follows:

Section 1. All factories, workshops and industrial and commercial undertakings of whatever kind are subject to the provisions of the following regulations. This provision applies equally to branches and subsidiary undertakings of the establishments mentioned therein.

Section 2 lays down that a working woman who desires to avail herself of the right to rest conferred upon her by section 10 of the Act to which the regulations in question relate must submit to the head of the industrial or commercial undertaking a medical certificate furnished by a doctor or a midwife and confirming that the woman is pregnant. On presentation of this certificate the employer must immediately grant the statutory leave to the woman to whom the certificate relates and must furnish her with a document in which he declares that she has left his employ owing to pregnancy and indicates the date on which her leave began.

In virtue of this document the woman may in due course require to be reinstated in the same establishment.

With regard to paragraph (c) of Article 3, the Act No. 4504 of 8 September 1924 on compulsory sickness insurance instituted benefit in kind equivalent to 50 per cent. of the wages of a pregnant woman for two weeks after confinement, and to 20 per cent. for not more than eight months (section 15, subsection C). In addition, the Act No. 857 of 11 November 1925 on private employees prescribes a compulsory rest of two months before the confinement of a working mother entitled women to two daily rest periods of one hour each to enable them to nurse their children.

The Act on compulsory sickness insurance instituted special free attendance for pregnant women.

Paragraph (d). The Act on the protection of working mothers entitled women to two daily rest periods of one hour each to enable them to nurse their children.

Article 4. — Section 3 of the regulations in pursuance of the Act for the protection of working mothers lays down that if the confinement takes place after the fortieth day from the beginning of the woman's leave or if the confinement leads to an infirmity which prevents her from working for more than 20 days from the day of confinement, the employer shall be bound to extend the period of leave, provided that before the expiry of the period he is furnished with a certificate signed by a doctor or a midwife stating the circumstances.

Chile has no colonies, protectorates or possessions.

The application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect simultaneously with the ratification since the statutory provisions referred to were already in force.

The application of the provisions is entrusted to the general Factory Inspectorate and in addition a female factory inspection service has been set up to supervise the enforcement of the provisions concerning the work of women in factories and commercial undertakings.

It may be added that there have been no difficulties in connection with the application of this Convention.

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment, ratification of which was communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations at the end of 1925 and promulgated by Act No. 464 of 20 August 1925.

I.

Full information respecting the laws and administrative regulations applying the provisions of the Convention was included in the report furnished by the Government of Chile in February 1927, which also comprised a complete statement on the position in Chile.

II.

The Convention is applied to all undertakings referred to in Article 1. Children of under 14 years of age are not allowed to work, inasmuch as the Act on compulsory elementary education, which is strictly enforced, prescribes six years of elementary education. In conformity with the regulations on elementary education these six years begin at the eighth year of age.

III.

Chile has no colonies, possessions or protectorates.

IV.

The provisions of the Convention came into effect with the promulgation of the Act of 8 September 1924.

V.

The factory inspection services and the social welfare offices which were set up to supervise and enforce all social legislation in the Republic are entrusted with the application of the legislation in question.

IV.

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.

I.

A list of the legislative texts and administrative regulations relating to the application of this Convention was contained in the report for 1927.
II.

Article 1.—For the purposes of this Convention all the undertakings enumerated in the said Article are deemed to be industrial undertakings. The Labour Act of 8 September 1924 has laid down that the Convention does not apply to agriculture, domestic service or commercial undertakings.

On 20 October 1928 an Act was passed in Chile for the protection of children, which reaffirms the prohibition of the night work of young persons under 16 years of age. This prohibition is regularly applied throughout the Republic.

On the other hand, section 30 of the Act relating to contracts of employment prohibits the night work of young persons under 18 years of age in employment which are defined in regulations as dangerous for their physical and moral development.

Article 3.—The term "night" includes the interval between 7 o'clock in the evening and 6 o'clock in the morning (§ 30 of the Act of 8 September 1924).

In coal mines the provisions of the Act are applied in the same conditions as for other industries. No exceptions are provided for in Chilian legislation. It must also be pointed out that section 31 of the Act of 8 September 1924 prohibits the employment of young persons under 18 years of age in coal mines.

Article 4.—The employment at night of young persons between the ages of 16 and 18 years is not authorised in the case of force majeure.

IV.

The Convention was applied even before the ratification of this Convention, as the night work of young persons under 16 years of age was prohibited by law and applied since 1924.

V.

The application of the relevant legislation is under the supervision of the Factory Inspection Service, and, as regards mines, of the Mines Inspection Service.

V.

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.

I.

A list of the relevant legislation and administrative regulations was given in the report for 1927.

II.

On 13 August 1927, in which employers are prohibited from discharging trade union leaders except for legal reasons, which must be decided by the Labour Tribunals.

IV.

The provisions of this Convention were applied even before ratification, as the Act was passed in 1924.

V.

The Factory Inspection Services are entrusted with the application of the Convention.

VI.

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.

I.

A list of the relevant legislation and administrative regulations was given in the report for 1927.

II.

The Accident Prevention Act of 8 September 1924 provided for indemnities in the case of industrial accidents in all industries, including agriculture.

III.

As has already been reported, Chile has no colonies, possessions or protectorates.

IV.

The provisions of the Convention were applied even before ratification, as the Act which established the right of indemnities in case of accident was put into force in 1924.

V.

By Ministerial regulations of January 1929, the Factory Inspection Service has been specially charged with the supervision of the application of the Act.

VII.

Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

As regards the application of this Convention the Industrial Health and Safety Regulations of 30 April 1926 include white lead amongst the dangerous industries and prohibit the employment of women and young persons under 18 years of age in this industry.

The industrial health and general factory inspection services are entrusted with the inspection undertakings of which use white lead.
Report for the period ending 31 December 1928 in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, Article 353 of the Treaty of St. Germain, Article 270 of the Treaty of Neuilly, Article 336 of the Treaty of Trianon, from the Government of Chile on the measures taken to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings.

I.
Detailed information concerning legislation and administrative regulations which apply the provisions of this Convention have already been given (see report for 1927).

II.
Weekly rest is compulsory in all industrial undertakings and also in commerce since the year 1907, in virtue of the Act of 27 August 1907 and Regulations of 17 January 1918. Further by the Act No. 270 of 21 February 1925, Sunday closing was made compulsory for barbers' shops.

III.
Chile has no colonies, protectorates or possessions.

IV.
The provisions of the Convention were applied even before ratification.

V.
The authorities entrusted with the application of the Convention are the municipal authorities of each commune.

2. Letter from the Netherlands Minister for the Colonies.

(Translation.)

The Hague, 15 May 1929.

Sir,

My colleague, the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry, has communicated to me a copy of your letter No. D 600/8000/8 of 3 November 1928, in which you asked to receive, in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles and following the form enclosed with the letter, the reply upon the action taken to give effect to the Convention, ratified by the Netherlands, concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship.

Since Part III of the form in question refers to the application of this Convention to colonies which are not fully self-governing, my colleague referred to above has asked me to be good enough to undertake the reply to this question in respect of the Netherlands territories overseas.

In pursuance of this request I have the honour to send you herewith a copy of the information supplied upon this subject by the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies and also a copy of a despatch, No. 876/69 of 4 April 1929, from the Governor of Curaçao, giving information upon the application of the Convention to that territory.

I may add that, accordingly to a telegraphic communication received from the Government of Surinam, the Convention in question cannot be applied to that colony.

For more detailed information I would refer you to the letter from the Government of Surinam, No. 2485/246 of 13 August 1927, a copy of which is also enclosed.

I have the honour to be, etc.,

(Signed) KONINGSBERGER,
Minister for the Colonies.

Letter from the Governor of Surinam to the Minister for the Colonies of the Netherlands.

(Translation.)

Paramaribo, 13 August 1927.

In reply to your letter of 3 June 1927, 1st and 7th Division No. 0/248, in which you were good enough to ask my opinion on the question whether it was possible and desirable to apply to the territory under my government the Draft Convention adopted by the Eighth Session of the International Labour Conference, held in June 1926 at Geneva, concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship, I have the honour to inform your Excellency that immigration, as well as the repatriation of emigrants to their country of origin, is definitely controlled by the provisions concerning immigration, including the question of medical attendance on board ship. No transport of emigrants exists in Surinam. For these reasons the application of the Convention to this territory should not be considered desirable or necessary.

(Signed) HEEMSTRA.
Governor of Surinam.

Letter from the Governor of Curaçao to the Minister for the Colonies of the Netherlands.

(Translation.)

Willemstad, 4 April 1929.

In reply to the request made at the end of your letter of 19 November 1928, 1st and 7th Divisions No. 10/524, I have the honour to inform your Excellency that the following answer can be given, as regards the territory of Curaçao, to the three questions under Part III of the form for annual report on the Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship:

1) The Convention will not be applied to the territory of Curaçao;

2) The application to which (1) refers will not be carried out because the Convention has in
practice no importance and is even impossible to apply to our small vessels. Nor is any necessity for it felt, since there is considerable immigration here, but no emigration, so that the application of the Convention would have no value for this territory.

(3) The only provisions concerning emigrants in force in Curacao are to be found in the Decree of 16 March 1920 (P.B. No. 51) laying down measures of social welfare for the health and safety of persons transported by sea, other than cabin passengers.

The only provisions concerning immigration occur in the Decree respecting foreigners, No. 14 of 1905 (P.B. 1905, No. 14).

I have the honour to be, etc.,

(Signed) FRUITTIER,
Governor of Curacao.

Information furnished by the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies.

(Translation.)

Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship. — Owing to the provisions of Article 3 of the Convention it is not considered applicable to the Dutch East Indies.

Since the transport of emigrants from the Dutch East Indies to other countries — and in particular to the Dutch territory of Surinam — almost entirely affects persons belonging to the native population, it is considered desirable that the appointment of the official inspector on board the vessel should always be made by the Government of the Dutch East Indies.