

SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS
LEAGUE OF NATIONS

CONFÉRENCE INTERNATIONALE DU TRAVAIL

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE

ONZIÈME SESSION

ELEVENTH SESSION

GENÈVE — GENEVA
1928



VOLUME II. — RAPPORT DU DIRECTEUR PRÉSENTÉ A LA CONFÉRENCE.
VOLUME II. — REPORT OF THE DIRECTOR PRESENTED TO THE CONFERENCE.

ENGLISH EDITION



BUREAU INTERNATIONAL DU TRAVAIL
INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE
GENÈVE — GENEVA
1928

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TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Pages		Pages
INTRODUCTION	1	Governing Body (§§ 22-25)	24
FIRST PART. — GENERAL ACTIVITY OF THE ORGANISATION	3	Sessions (§ 22)	24
FIRST SECTION : <i>Working of the Orga- nisation</i>	5	Composition (§ 23)	24
<i>Chapter I. — Questions of organisa- tion</i>	5	Re-election of the members of the Govern- ing Body (§ 24)	24
General constitution of the Organisa- tion (§§ 2-11)	5	Amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles (§ 25)	25
Members of the Organisation (§ 2)	5	Committees (§§ 26-29)	25
Brazil and Spain (§ 3)	5	Committees of the Governing Body (§ 27)	26
Relations with the Governments of the States Members of the Organisation (§ 4)	6	Committees including members of the Governing Body, technical experts and representatives of other institutions (§ 28)	26
Relations with the Governments of States which are not Members of the Organisa- tion (§§ 5-11)	8	Committees of experts only (§ 29)	27
United States of America (§ 5)	8	Organisation of the International Labour Office (§§ 30-35)	28
Mexico (§ 6)	10	Internal organisation (§ 30)	28
Russia (§ 7)	11	National Correspondents (§ 31)	28
Turkey (§ 8)	17	Staff (§ 32)	29
Egypt (§ 9)	17	Administrative Tribunal (§ 33)	31
Iceland (§ 10)	18	New Building (§ 34)	32
Participation of the Saar Territory in the work of the Organisation (§ 11)	18	International Management Institute (§ 35)	32
Composition of the Conference (§§ 12- 14)	18	Financial Organisation (§§ 36-40)	32
Incomplete Delegations (§ 13)	19	Budget for 1928 (§ 37)	32
Representation of certain Governments by the Ministers dealing with labour questions (§ 14)	19	Budget for 1929 (§ 38)	32
Legal questions raised by the working of the Organisation (§§ 15-21)	19	Financial questions (§ 39)	33
Nomination of substitute Delegates to the Conference (§ 15)	19	Seat of the League of Nations (§ 40)	33
Representation of native labour at the Conference (§ 16)	20	Relations with the League of Nations (§§ 41-52)	34
Translation of speeches made in non- official languages (§ 17)	20	International Economic Conference (§ 42)	34
Double discussion procedure (§ 18)	21	Intellectual work (§ 43)	35
Revision of Conventions (§ 19)	22	Health (§ 44)	36
Difficulties of procedure in connection with ratifications (§ 20)	23	Protection of children and young persons (§ 45)	36
Date of the putting into force of Conven- tions (§ 21)	24	Communications and Transit (§ 46)	37
		Unemployment (§ 47)	38
		Mandates (§ 48)	38
		Slavery (§ 49)	38
		Disarmament (§ 50)	39
		Calendar reform (§ 51)	39
		Conclusion (§ 53)	40

	Pages		Pages
<i>Chapter II. — International information</i>	42	<i>I. Working conditions</i>	115
Centralisation of information (§§ 55-58)	42	Hours of work (§ 108)	115
Library (§ 55)	42	Weekly rest (§§ 109-111)	128
Documents Service (§ 56)	43	Industrial undertakings (§ 110)	128
List of cinematograph films (§ 57)	43	Commercial establishments (§ 111)	130
Collection of pictures (§ 58)	44	Night work in bakeries (§ 112)	133
Preparation of information (§§ 59-63)	44	Holidays with pay (§ 113)	137
Collection of collective agreements (§ 60)	44	Industrial hygiene (§ 114-126)	138
International dictionary of labour law (§ 61)	44	Anthrax (§ 115)	138
Labour statistics (§ 62)	45	Lead poisoning (§ 116)	139
Enquiry into conditions of work in coal mines (§ 63)	45	White lead (§ 117)	139
Distribution of information (§ 64)	46	Creation of Government health services (§ 118)	139
Publications (§§ 65-73)	47	White phosphorous (§ 119)	139
Periodical publications (§ 66)	48	Compensation for occupational diseases (§ 120)	139
Monthly summary of the work of the Organisation (§ 67)	48	Periodical medical examination (§ 121)	141
Bibliography of the International Labour Organisation (§ 68)	48	Limitation of loads and weights (§ 122)	141
Legislative Series (§ 69)	48	Fatigue (§ 123)	142
Special publications (§ 70)	48	Cataract (§ 124)	142
Studies and Reports (§ 71)	49	Lead tetra-ethyl (§ 125)	142
Publications in languages other than French or English (§ 72)	50	Prevention of accidents (§ 127)	144
Distribution and sales (§ 73)	51	Protection of women (§§ 128-129)	146
Conclusion (§ 74)	52	Night work of women (§ 128)	146
		Employment of women before and after childbirth (§ 129)	147
<i>Chapter III. — Relations</i>	53	Protection of children and young persons (§§ 130-132)	149
Universities and educational (§ 76)	55	Age of admission to employment in industry (§ 131)	149
Relations with the Churches (§ 77)	56	Night work of young persons in industry (§ 132)	150
Charitable organisations (§ 78)	59	Factory inspection (§ 133)	151
Women's organisations (§ 79)	60		
Inter-Parliamentary organisations (§ 80)	61	<i>II. Social Insurance (§§ 134-140)</i>	152
International Federation of League of Nations Societies (§ 81)	61	Action taken in 1927 on the decisions of the Conference (§ 134)	152
Institute of Pacific Relations (§ 82)	62	The Tenth Session of the Conference (§ 136)	154
Disabled and other ex-servicemen (§ 83)	62	International organisation of social insurance funds (§ 137)	155
International Association for Social Progress (§ 84)	63	International Medical Association (§ 138)	156
Relations with workers (§§ 85-89)	63	International Federation of Disabled Workers' Associations (§ 139)	156
International Federation of Trade Unions (§ 85)	63	Development of national legislation (§ 140)	157
Christian Trade Unions (§ 86)	65		
Fascist Trade Unions (§ 87)	66	<i>III. Wages (§ 141)</i>	175
Organisations in distant countries (§ 88)	67		
Non-manual workers (§ 89)	70	<i>IV. Possibilities of employment</i>	178
Employers' organisations (§ 90)	70	Vocational education (§ 142)	178
Shipowners and seamen (§ 92)	71	Unemployment (§§ 143-147)	180
Agricultural organisations (§ 93)	72	Unemployment statistics (§ 143)	180
Intellectual workers (§ 94)	72	Action taken in 1927 on the decisions of the Conference (§ 144)	181
Co-operative organisations (§ 95)	73	Unemployment insurance (§ 145)	182
Conclusion (§ 96)	74	Employment exchanges (§ 146)	186
		The prevention of unemployment (§ 147)	189
<i>SECOND SECTION: Examination of results</i>	76		
The economic situation in 1927 (§ 97)	76		
Ratifications (§ 98)	85		
Tables showing measures taken to give effect to Conventions and Recommendations (§ 99)	87		
Requests for interpretations addressed to the Office (§ 101)	109		
Summary of ratifications (§ 103)	110		
Application of Conventions (§ 104)	112		
Commissions of enquiry and assessors for labour cases (§ 105)	113		
Conditional ratifications (§ 107)	114		

	Pages		Pages
Migration (§§ 148-154)	190	Administration of labour law (§ 189)	265
Overseas migration (§ 149)	190	Profit-sharing and workers' participa-	
Continental migration (§ 150)	191	tion in management (§ 190)	266
Action taken in 1927 on the decisions of		Participation of the workers in na-	
the Conference (§ 151)	192	tional affairs (§ 191)	267
Bilateral agreements (§ 152)	194	General conclusions (§ 192)	270
Tendencies of national regulations (§ 153)	195		
The movement of ideas (§ 154)	198		
Russian and Armenian Refugees			
(155)	200		
V. <i>Protection of special classes of</i>		SECOND PART. — SUMMARY OF	
<i>workers</i>	203	ANNUAL REPORTS UNDER ARTICLE	
Protection of seamen (§§ 156-163)	203	408	275
Action taken in 1927 on the decisions of		First Session (Washington, 1919).	281
the Conference (§ 156)	203	Convention limiting hours of work in	
Hours of work on board ship (§ 157)	205	industrial undertakings to eight in the	
International Seamen's Code (§ 158)	207	day and forty-eight in the week	281
Protection of the health of seamen (§ 159)	208	Convention concerning unemployment.	295
Social insurance (§ 160)	208	Convention concerning the employment	
Seamen's welfare in ports (§ 161)	208	of women before and after childbirth	314
Safety of crews (§ 162)	209	Convention concerning employment of	
Enquiries by the Office (§ 163)	209	women during the night	320
Agricultural workers (§§ 164-168)	211	Convention fixing the minimum age for	
Action taken in 1927 on the decisions of		admission of children to industrial	
the Conference (§ 164)	211	employment	336
Legislative measures for the protection of		Convention concerning the night work of	
agricultural workers (§ 165)	213	young persons employed in industry	347
The labour market and the problem of			
land distribution (§ 166)	214	Second Session (Genoa, 1920).	365
Organisation and representation of agricul-		Convention fixing the minimum age for	
tural workers (§ 167)	216	admission of children to employment	
Agricultural enquiries (§ 168)	217	at sea	365
Non-manual workers (§§ 169-172)	218	Convention concerning unemployment in-	
Termination of contract of service (§ 170)	219	demnity in case of loss or foundering	
Restraint of trade clause (§ 171)	220	of the ship	372
Regulation of shop closing (§ 172)	221	Convention for establishing facilities for	
Intellectual workers (§ 173)	222	finding employment for seamen.	377
Native and colonial labour (§§ 174-		Third Session (Geneva, 1921)	393
176)	224	Convention concerning the age for ad-	
The national movements (§ 175)	224	mission of children to employment in	
The international movement (§ 176)	241	agriculture	393
Special countries. Asiatic enquiry		Convention concerning the rights of	
(§§ 177-180)	244	association and combination of agricul-	
India (§ 178)	244	tural workers.	399
Japan (§ 179)	245	Convention concerning workmen's com-	
China (§ 180)	247	pensation in agriculture	403
VI. <i>The workers' living conditions</i>	248	Convention concerning the use of white	
Utilisation of workers' spare time		lead in painting.	407
(§ 181).	248	Convention concerning the application	
Housing (§ 182)	252	of the weekly rest in industrial under-	
Co-operation (§ 183)	253	takings	421
VII. <i>The workers' general rights</i>	256	Convention fixing the minimum age for	
Industrial relations (§ 185)	256	the admission of young persons to	
Right of association (§ 186)	259	employment as trimmers or stokers	441
Collective agreements (§ 187)	262	Convention concerning the compulsory	
Conciliation and arbitration (§ 188)	24	medical examination of children and	
		young persons employed at sea	448
		Seventh Session (Geneva, 1925)	455
		Convention concerning equality of treat-	
		ment for national and foreign workers	
		as regards workmen's compensation	
		for accidents	455

	Pages		Pages
APPENDIX I TO THE SECOND PART.	458	APPENDIX II TO THE SECOND PART	467
1. Report of the Committee of Experts appointed to examine the annual reports made under Article 408. . .	458	1. Letter from the Estonian Ministry of Labour and of Public Welfare. . . .	467
2. Communications from Governments forwarding information supplementary to that contained in their annual reports	463	2. Letter from the British Minister of Labour	467
		3. Letter from the Netherlands Minister of Colonies.	467

INTRODUCTION.

1. — The present Report of the Director of the International Labour Office to the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference deals with the work of the Organisation from 1 January to 31 December 1927. On some points the record given in the Report overlaps into 1928 : but, as an attempt is being made to publish the Report several weeks before the opening of the Conference, the record has not, as in previous years, been brought down to within the immediate vicinity of the Conference.

The general plan of the Report is practically the same as last year.

Part I reviews the general activity of the Organisation during the year. Part II contains the summary of the annual reports submitted by the Governments, in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty, on the measures taken by them to give effect to Conventions to which they are parties.

Part I is composed of the usual two Sections. Section I deals with the general working of the Organisation and, following the plan adopted last year, is sub-divided into three Chapters :

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

Section II reviews the results obtained.

As the International Labour Organisation becomes more intimately associated with the progress of social reform in each country and the Office's investigations spread over a wider field, the subject-matter of this second section becomes every year more abundant and more complex. It would therefore perhaps have been desirable to endeavour to arrange the different problems covered in the section according to some logical order, but it has been felt that the general lines of the Report to which delegates have been accustomed for a number of years should not be too radically changed, and that any such change would probably make it more difficult to compare one year's record with

another's. On the other hand, if the arrangement of previous Reports is too strictly followed it is possible that the present Report might not bring out the real importance and the present position of each separate topic.

Regard being had to these two sets of considerations, it has been considered advisable to arrange the second section on the following lines : to open with a short review of the economic situation in 1927, including some notes on the progress of industrial organisation and rationalisation, to follow this with the usual tables indicating the progress made in the ratification of Conventions or in the application of Recommendations, and then to divide the rest of the section under the following headings :

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

At the end of the section an attempt is made to formulate some general conclusions.

The summary of the reports furnished by the Governments given in Part II is followed, as in the case of last year's Report, by an appendix in which the conclusions of the Article 408 Committee are reproduced after their submission to the Governing Body.

Lastly, no bibliography of the publications issued during the year on the International Labour Organisation is given in the present Report. As a matter of fact, the Office, in pursuance of a proposal of the Sixth Assembly of the League of Nations, will now be publishing a general bibliography which will be brought up to date from time to time. It would therefore be mere duplication to give a bibliography in the Director's annual Report.

FIRST PART.

General Activity of the Organisation.

FIRST PART.

General activity of the Organisation.

FIRST SECTION.

Working of the Organisation.

CHAPTER I.

QUESTIONS OF ORGANISATION.

General constitution of the Organisation.

2. — No change took place during 1927 in the composition of the International Labour Organisation, which still includes the following States Members¹:

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

3. — In last year's Report a short note was given on the case raised by the

¹ In the Report submitted to last year's Session of the Conference the Republic of Costa Rica was left out of the list of States Members of the Organisation. Costa Rica had, in fact, ceased to be a Member of the League of Nations, in consequence of the announcement of its withdrawal therefrom, and it had not manifested an intention to remain a Member of the International Labour Organisation. There has been no new development in this con-

decision taken by the Governments of *Brazil* and *Spain* to withdraw from the League of Nations. At the time of writing the Spanish Government has accepted the invitation of the Council of the League of Nations and has announced its intention of resuming its place in the League. Moreover, a telegram has just been received from the Brazilian Government which seems to indicate that this Government has sympathetically received the Council's invitation to it to return to the League.

The question still remains, however, as to what would be the effect, from the standpoint of the Organisation, of a country's decision to withdraw from the League.

It was pointed out in last year's Report that while Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles provides in Article 387 that membership of the League of Nations necessarily carries with it membership of the International Labour Organisation, the converse of this proposition is not expressly laid down. It was further observed that it is a much disputed interpretation of the Treaty to hold, as has sometimes been held, that there is an absolute coincidence between membership of the one institution and membership of the other. It was argued that there is nothing in the Treaties to require that a State which withdraws from the League of Nations should cease automatically and against its own wishes to remain a Member of the International Labour Organisation.

There are one or two essential observations which may still be reiterated. In the first place, there is no specific provision but only a very controversial interpretation on which to found the claim that membership of the League of Nations is an indispensable condition for acquiring or retaining membership of the International Labour Organisation: in any case,

nection since last year, and Costa Rica is accordingly not included in the list. Although it would appear that, apart from a formal declaration by the Government of Costa Rica, there is no authority competent to pronounce that this State has ceased legally to belong to the International Labour Organisation, it may at least be considered that it has ceased to take any effective part in the Organisation.

authority is very much divided on this point. In the second place, it may be recalled that in actual fact two States have been admitted to membership of the International Labour Organisation which were not at the time Members of the League of Nations. It would therefore seem difficult to hold that, although the rules laid down in Part XIII have allowed certain States to join the International Labour Organisation without their belonging to the League of Nations, these same rules should be subsequently interpreted in a different sense and be put forward now as a basis for determining other States to withdraw against their own wishes from the International Labour Organisation because they have ceased to belong to the League of Nations. The fact is that this theory is disputable and is not supported by any real rule of law.

But an explicit and imperative rule of law would be required to oust the principle that the different States are free to choose their own course. In the absence of any such rule, the decision taken by a country to remain a Member of the International Labour Organisation, even though it withdraws from the League of Nations, should not, it would appear, encounter any serious legal obstacle.

But, whatever theoretical discussions may be raised by the special case of Brazil and Spain, the fact remains that, when they decided to withdraw from the League, these two countries expressed their intention of remaining Members of the International Labour Organisation. The Office can only record with satisfaction the tribute paid to the Organisation by the loyalty shown to it by these two important countries.

4. — It is not too much to say that at least equal loyalty has been shown by the majority of the 55 States Members of the Organisation. Of course, some of them have not yet been faced with the labour problems which accompany modern industrialism, and are hardly in regular communication with the Organisation: but all the others show in all sorts of ways their real desire for collaboration and contact.

It has not been possible this year, any more than last year, to make any attempt to give a complete and detailed picture of the Office's relations with all these States, but it may be useful to emphasise some of their characteristic features.

In the first place, the Italian cloud has been lifted. The visit which the Under-Secretary of State for Corporations, Mr. Bottai, made to the Office during the last Session of the Conference took place in an atmosphere of mutual frankness and real cordiality. In fact, an article which appeared, just as the Conference was about to meet, in *La Critica Fascista*, a review managed by Mr. Bottai, had already removed from Italian opinion some of the misunderstandings or errors of interpretation to which reference was made in last

year's Report. Since then Italy has continued its work on the rebuilding of the Italian State on the basis of the corporations. This work has been followed by the Office with the closest attention. The Office's services have studied how the working population of Italy is being gradually distributed among various occupational associations, and how Italy is dealing with the delicate questions of intellectual workers, craft guilds, co-operative societies, *métayers* and small tenant farmers in the new organisation of the country. It is gratifying to record that in a communiqué of the Stefani agency the Italian authorities have expressed their appreciation of the careful attention with which all the processes of evolution are being followed in the Office's publications.

The Stefani agency has also pointed out that between January and November last year the Office's *Industrial and Labour Information* contained notes on 68 measures taken by the Italian Government, that 8 articles were wholly or partially devoted to Italy, as well as 13 paragraphs in the *Monthly Record of Migration* and 3 notes in the *Industrial Safety Survey*. It has also expressed its satisfaction at the fact that more than 160 works and brochures by Italian writers on labour problems were referred to in the Office's bibliographical notes. This, as the agency suggested, was ample proof of "the position occupied by Fascist Italy in the field of social reforms and the trade union movement." But it is also a proof of the objectivity and impartiality of the Office's publications, which were once accused of being tendentious.

If it is gratifying to record that no misunderstanding subsists between the Organisation and any important industrial State, it is equally satisfactory to note how the different States are more and more closely collaborating with the Organisation—the increasing number of complete delegations at the Conference—regular correspondence with the various Labour Ministries, Ministries of Social Affairs, etc. and, in particular, the re-establishment in 1927 of the Swedish Delegation for International Collaboration in Social Politics—and, lastly, the presence in Geneva of permanent delegations or representatives.

In 1927 Mr. Alejandro Unsain left Geneva to return to his own country, and his place on the Governing Body was taken by the Argentine Minister at Berne. Two new South American States appointed permanent delegations in Geneva—the Government of Colombia having accredited Mr. Antonio J. Restrepo to the Office, and the Cuban Government having appointed Mr. Guillermo de Blanck as its permanent representative in Geneva. For Peru the Office can always count on the collaboration of Mr. Pedro E. Paulet. Mr. Erik Sjöstrand is still accredited to the Office as adviser to the Swedish Government on labour matters, and the Japanese delegation to the Governing Body still has its seat in Geneva.

It may be added that Canada, Hungary, the Irish Free State, Latvia, Poland, Portugal and Rumania have in Geneva permanent representatives or permanent delegations accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. The permanent Persian Office has recently been transferred to Paris. And Bulgaria, China, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Greece, Italy and Venezuela have diplomatic or consular representatives at Berne or in Geneva, who are specially instructed to keep in touch with the League of Nations or the Office alone.

Reference should also be made to the desire which is being manifested by overseas countries to keep in closer touch with the Office, and to the action which they are taking for this purpose.

In this connection the contact which the Deputy-Director established last winter with the Union of South Africa was specially valuable. Mr. Butler went to South Africa on the invitation of the Union Government, which made excellent arrangements for his visit. Thanks to the Government's assistance, Mr. Butler was able to remove any prejudice or ignorance which still subsisted in regard to the Office, and to make known the services which the Organisation could render. On the specially delicate problems created in that country by the concurrent existence of European and native labour, the Deputy-Director was able to make it clear how far and by what procedure the Office could help the Union of South Africa to find solutions which will be of value not only for South Africa itself but also for Africa as a whole. With its vast agricultural and mineral resources and the communications which are being created in it, the African Continent is rapidly acquiring increased importance in the world, and the experience of South Africa will be of the greatest interest for other countries.

In another part of the world, in Australia and New Zealand, Mr. Caldwell, one of the Office's officials, was able to win fresh sympathy for the Organisation, and bring its aims and work more closely home to those distant countries. The Office would be glad if the Conference were able to welcome a delegation from New Zealand. And the correspondance which the Office receives from the various States of Australia is already resulting in a better understanding and utilisation of the experience of this country, in which practical socialism is being worked out.

Some short notes should also be added on the various but equally cordial manifestations of friendship and confidence which have been shown towards the Office during the past year by the States Members and their Governments.

In the first place, a number of official receptions, which are an effective means of publicity, were organised during the Director's visits to different countries—Hungary, Greece, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Czechoslovakia. Whatever the type of their

administration or their political views, the Governments of these various countries almost excelled one another in expressions of regard and friendship for the Organisation. The German Government, too, took the opportunity of the splendid reception it gave to the Governing Body to emphasise before an informed public opinion its attachment to the work of international labour legislation.

Other countries, again, are shaking off their old half indifference towards the Organisation and endeavouring to fulfil punctually their obligations. For example, new and extensive relations have been established with Portugal, and in Luxemburg the Government has been making persevering and systematic efforts to ratify all the Conventions.

In federal countries, too, such as Canada and Australia, which might take refuge behind their federal constitution and the facilities given them by Article 405 to escape from the general obligations imposed by that Article, the Governments are nevertheless endeavouring by agreements between the separate States and by inter-State Conferences to take their part in the general work of ratification.

And some reference should again be made to the South American States. It is hardly possible to overlook the social policy, so imbued with humanitarian ideals, which is being pursued in these democratic countries. The Office has been specially gratified by the official reports made by delegations from these countries at the Conference (Uruguay, Argentina), the tributes to the Office which have been paid by the President or Government in Peru and Cuba, and the new administrative or legislative measures which are being taken along the lines of the Peace Treaty.

In last year's Report some apprehension was expressed at the meetings of American jurists in Montevideo or Rio de Janeiro. The Office was afraid that a movement of opinion might be created which no doubt would not be hostile to the League of Nations, but might tend to overlook its work. At the last Session of the Conference, however, delegates from South America made it clear that there was no real reason for such apprehensions. This is not the place to go into the proceedings and results of the Pan-American Conference recently held in Cuba, nor is it for the Office to analyse the political ideas which seem to have triumphed at Havana. In the field of labour, more than in any other field, the influence of the United States, supported as it is by the action and the liberal attitude of the American Federation of Labor, or rather, its sister organisation, the Pan-American Federation of Labor, can produce most successful results.

There would seem to be two significant events to which attention should be drawn. In the first place, the Pan-American Conference recommended the Executive Committee of the Union to include in the agenda

of future Conferences the consideration of problems affecting the improvement of the material situation and the standard of life of workers in the American countries. The statement accompanying this proposal argues that one of the grounds for the necessity of considering such problems is the "benefits of a legislative and technical character which the International Labour Conference and Office have conferred on a large proportion of the nations of the world". But it is no less significant that the idea which was again put forward of creating a Labour Office for the countries of America was not approved, and that the Governments of some countries, such as the Argentine, instructed their delegates definitely to oppose any such idea, on the grounds of the results already obtained by the Organisation.

Surely these are adequate reasons for attracting to the International Labour Organisation, in spite of any general political circumstances, the few States which do not yet belong to it—the United States of America, Mexico, the Union of Soviet Republics, Turkey and Egypt.

5. — In last year's Report, while the absence of the *United States of America* from the Organisation was stated to be still a matter for regret, the opinion was expressed that both employers' and workers' organisations in that country were not yet prepared to go beyond the stage of "friendly co-operation without participation", and that as long as the attitude of the Government was unchanged nothing more could be expected. It was further stated that the year 1926 had seen hardly any alteration in the attitude of the United States towards international affairs. Mention was made of various directions in which close collaboration has been established between the Organisation and the U. S. A. : but, beyond expressing the hope that it might be possible to have a representative of the U. S. A. nominated as a member of the Native Labour Committee, no prospect of any immediate improvement in the situation was held out.

The past year may be said to have been marked by a gradual extension of the Office's contacts with the United States in a number of directions. In the first place, the nomination of Professor J. P. Chamberlain of Columbia University to the Native Labour Committee, with the approval of the State Department, indicates the interest which the United States has always taken in this question, and affords another instance of its willingness to collaborate in work of the League which has no political bearings or associations. In the second place, the presence of Mr. Olzendam in the Office has created a link with American industrial affairs such as has long been wanted. The Office may congratulate itself that through the generous initiative of Industrial Relations Counselors such a link

should have been established at a moment when the United States is looming more and more largely in the industrial world, not merely owing to the volume of its production but still more, perhaps, on account of the great variety of social conditions which it exhibits. There is no question, whether it be connected with unemployment, social insurance, wages or management of industry, upon which a novel and important light cannot be thrown by investigating the wide and varied experience of the United States.

With growing industrialisation, on the other hand, industrialists, economists and trade-unionists in the United States are finding themselves faced with problems which have long confronted the industrial countries of the old world, and are beginning to pay more attention to the attempts which have been made there to solve them. The relations which have been established between the Office and American industry have therefore been of great value, both as contributing to creating a better understanding of American methods and conditions, and as enabling first-hand information on European practices and problems to be transmitted to the United States by a competent observer from that country. Again, the support given by the 20th Century Fund, and other organisations in the U.S.A., to the International Management Institute and the presence there of an experienced American engineer in the person of Mr. Percy Brown, have created another important contact which has enabled the Office to obtain valuable material with reference to the technical developments in the United States and its effect upon labour conditions. This, again, is a matter of considerable importance at a time when rationalisation is proceeding rapidly in Europe and when its effects on the worker, both as regards the stability of his employment and the conditions under which his work is to be performed, are still giving rise to doubt and anxiety.

Moreover, the increasing number of visitors from the United States to the Office in the summer and autumn, the activity of various unofficial bodies in informing the general public of the work which the Organisation is performing, the many requests for information on industrial matters which have been received from the United States, and the growing use of the Office's Reports and statistics in American publications, both official and unofficial, attest a new consciousness in the United States of the importance of the International Labour Organisation and of the utility of its work from the standpoint of that country. Further evidence of this increased appreciation may be found in the strengthening of the Advisory Committee to the Office's Washington Branch, which now includes a number of well-known American publicists, economists and labour representatives ; while the Office has been glad to be able to welcome and offer

facilities for their work to many eminent American students and scholars, among whom may be particularly mentioned Prof. Samuel McCune Lindsay of Columbia University, and Prof. Joseph H. Willits of the University of Pennsylvania, who have chosen the Office as their headquarters during a protracted period of research into European and international labour problems.

Finally, a systematic effort is being made to improve the sale of the Office's publications in the United States. The visit of Mr. Rich, who has now been charged with this work by the World Peace Foundation, and the new agreement which resulted with the Foundation, have already begun to bear fruit, and there is good reason for hoping that the scientific work of the Office will soon attain as extensive recognition on the other side of the Atlantic as it has already acquired in Europe.

The fact must, however, be faced that, in spite of these items on the credit side of the account, the debit is still very considerable. The policy of the Organisation has always been to stand on the strict terms of the Treaty of Peace and to regard as impertinence on its part any endeavour to influence the Government or public of the United States to active participation in the work of the Organisation. No other policy would be proper in the circumstances, as the question of participation can only be settled by Americans themselves in the light of their own conditions. But recent events seem to suggest that the time may have come to re-examine the relations of the U.S.A. towards the Organisation and to enquire whether some modification may not be within the sphere of practical politics.

Three important events have taken place during the past year as regards the United States of America and its policy in international affairs. In the first place, there was the Naval Disarmament Conference. Disappointing though the results of that Conference may have appeared to some European observers, the calling of such a Conference by the U.S.A., and in particular the decision to meet at Geneva, is proof of the interest of the States in world peace and their recognition of the part played by Geneva towards that end. To this must be added the negotiations entered into between France and the United States on Mr. Briand's proposal for the outlawry of war. Senator Borah, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, in writing of these proposals in the *New York Times* (February 5, 1928, Section 9) states :

Is there anything which one can conceive so well calculated to advance the cause of peace and to strengthen the League and Locarno as a pledge among the great powers that they will never recognise war as an instrument for the settlement of international disputes and that they will adjust their differences in accordance with the methods provided in the League and Locarno for peaceful adjustment ?

Professor James Shotwell in the same paper on the 6th February calls attention to Mr. Borah's striking article and support of the League, and says :

As Senator Borah sees, it is possible to embody the principle of the "renunciation of war as an instrument of policy" into the legal structure of the world with the result of strengthening rather than weakening the League of Nations.

Secondly, the full participation of the U.S.A. in the work of the Economic Conference and the important and influential delegation sent by them is evidence of the realisation that continents can no longer live in economic and industrial isolation, that the prosperity of every country is indissolubly linked up with the welfare of its neighbours, and that modern civilisation has reached the stage where industrial issues pass national frontiers and must be dealt with by international solutions. Time is necessary to put the results of the Conference in their true perspective and properly to gauge the importance of the resolutions passed. There is, however, every evidence that the value of the Conference is being more and more realised and appreciated in the U.S.A.

Finally, there is the Pan-American Conference. Reference has already been made to this Conference in connection with the South-American States ; but its importance from the point of view of the United States should be noted here. While the Naval Disarmament Conference and the full co-operation of the States in the work of the Economic Conference are clear evidence of the desire of the U.S.A. to participate in the problems of Europe and join with it in restoring conditions of peace throughout the world, the Pan-American Conference has caused some misgiving to those who interpreted it as a step backward rather than forward in the direction of national or continental, as against international, understandings. It might be thought that regional groupings such as the Pan-American Union were inimical to international co-operation on a world-scale such as the League represents. On the other hand, there is a good deal of evidence even in recent European history which favours the belief that such groupings are by no means inconsistent with the League spirit but rather tend to promote it in their own spheres. The Pan-American Conference was no specially convoked meeting but a periodic assembly, in which the U.S.A. has always played a leading part, for bringing about better understanding between the American countries. Pains were taken by the U.S.A. authorities to declare publicly that nothing in the convoking or agenda of the Congress should be interpreted as in any sense inimical to the League of Nations. Mr. Coolidge, President of the United States, is quoted as saying at the opening Session that "the existence of this Conference, held for the consideration of measures of purely American concern, involves no antagonism to-

wards any other section of the world or any other organisation." In the light of such a statement as this it would seem justifiable to consider the Pan-American Conference also as giving proof of the intention of the U.S.A. to help rather than hinder the work of the League of Nations.

In conclusion, then, there have been three important manifestations of the attitude of the U.S.A. towards foreign affairs in 1927. Two of them can be regarded as clear evidence of their desire to collaborate as fully as possible in international affairs, which the third certainly in no way contradicts.

As far as it is possible to judge, the policy of the present Government is definitely to give its fullest collaboration to the League in all matters that are non-political. Since the appointment of Mr. Kellogg to the State Department, only on one occasion has the United States Government refused to participate in the work of the League when it has been invited to take part. In that one instance, the Security Committee, political implications were to be feared. Has not the time come when it is legitimate to hope for similar participation in the work of the International Labour Organisation, seeing that it is social, economic and humanitarian in character? It need scarcely be emphasized that for its part the Office would welcome every sort of collaboration that the United States can offer. This is not the place to enter into a discussion of the advantages either to the U.S.A. or to the Organisation of fuller collaboration by that country in the Office's work. Their assistance in the preparation of Conventions, the wide experience of industrial affairs that they could bring with them, the enormous resources at their command, would be invaluable to the Organisation. For instance, in a discussion on industrial safety such as will take place at this year's Session of the Conference, the value of the U. S. A. co-operation would be immense. On the other hand, the benefit of active participation in the Organisation's work would certainly be more and more felt in the U.S.A. as their industry continues to spread from a domestic to an international field.

Has not the time come when the Organisation should make it clear that whenever the United States of America is disposed to give it the same full and friendly co-operation as it offers to all the other non-political endeavours of the League, the Office will more than welcome such a decision, and that the opportunities for mutually helpful co-operation on the part of the United States in the work of the Organisation are becoming increasingly numerous from year to year?

6. — In last year's Report the Office had to express its regret that the endeavours which it had made during the previous few years to establish some regular relations with *Mexico* had been checked.

During 1927 no change took place in this situation which deserves mention. In spite of the courtesy of the administrative authorities in Mexico in furnishing the Office with the documentary material it asks for, the Office's relations with the Government have not passed beyond the stage of an exchange of information. This is still a matter for regret, and all the more so because of the very great interest which attaches to the endeavours being made in Mexico to build up a body of social and labour legislation.

During 1927 the Mexican Senate devoted a considerable number of sittings to discussing the draft Organic Bill drawn up in accordance with Article 123 of the Constitution for the purpose of regulating the relations between capital and labour. The action taken by General Calles' Government to promote this object have been all along supported by the powerful Mexican Workers' Confederation which includes the peasants, who were made landowners. A steady effort is still being made to protect the workers, in particular against foreign control, in spite of the action taken by the Supreme Court after the putting into operation of Article 27 of the Constitution. And the policy which the Mexican authorities are pursuing in endeavouring to make social legislation applicable throughout the whole country and to establish a uniform body of labour law in all the various States is also a matter of interest to the Organisation.

No doubt, if the Mexican Government and the Workers' Confederation continue relations with the Pan-American Federation of Labour, the movement for social reform in Mexico will have the advantage of that wider outlook for which every movement for social reform feels some need. It would appear that the policy of establishing relations with the International Trade Union Federation at Amsterdam has been abandoned, and that Mexico is now confining its relations within the American continent. This, however, does not prevent the Office from retaining its conviction that a movement which is so active and progressive as the movement in Mexico cannot long remain indifferent to or outside the range of the work which is being done at Geneva.

7. — Interesting developments took place in 1927 in the Office's relations with *Russia*.

It will be remembered that these relations began with the efforts systematically made by the International Labour Office for some years to collect and publish accurate information on industrial and social conditions in Bolshevik Russia. The results yielded by these efforts continue to be noteworthy. The Office's studies on Russian industrial and labour conditions and the co-operative movement were followed, for example, by a publication on the trade union movement in Soviet Russia which was issued last year and was very favour-

ably received. Similarly, the information given in the periodical publications of the Office on the day to day events in the labour and economic life of Russia continue to be commended for their accuracy.

It is true that the information thus published by the Office is frequently quoted by important anti-Bolshevist journals and utilised for the purpose of combating Communism, and this is no doubt why it is sometimes looked on as biased when this is really not the case. It may also be that some readers would like to see the efforts of modern Russia followed with more of the generous sympathy which should be extended to every attempt to improve human organisation, even when based on questionable principles.

But the fact is that the aggressive attitude of the Bolsheviks themselves does not encourage such treatment; nor is it easy, in view of the objective and practical character which the Office's publications are bound to preserve, to prevent them from losing something of their human appeal in consequence. The significant thing is that the accuracy of the Office's critical method, the scrupulous care with which sources of information are analysed and the truth of the statements which it publishes are unassailable and have not been really questioned in any way.

No doubt these qualities are responsible for the fact that, in spite of the hostility manifested at the outset and the suspicion which still subsists, an exchange both of publications and of information has been carried on for a number of years, and has grown and developed during the last twelve months, between the International Labour Office and the U.S.S.R. These relations are increasingly assuming something more than an academic character; personal relations are now being established, and systematic co-operation is being organised.

When, for example, the Soviet delegations to the International Economic Conference (May) or to the Disarmament Committee (November) came to Geneva, several members or collaborators of the delegations got into touch with the Russian Service of the Office, which was glad to place its documentary information at the disposal of the delegates or give them such material assistance as was possible. The Office has also been glad to strengthen still further by direct personal contact its numerous relations with the Labour Commissariat. This has been one result, for instance, of a visit paid to the Office by Mr. Markusson, Chief of the Scientific Division of the Labour Commissariat, who came to Geneva last summer with a letter of introduction from Mr. Schmidt, the Labour Commissary, and investigated the Office's organisation and work in detail.

Such visits, and such personal contact, have exercised a good influence on the relations between the International Labour Office and the Russian Soviet institutions: methods of regular collaboration have been

considered, some of which have been immediately applied.

As examples of this new development it may be mentioned that the Office's study on sickness insurance in Russia, which was sent to the Labour Commissariat some months ago, was carefully examined by the competent services of that Department, which not only communicated its observations on certain points of detail but also supplied the latest facts and figures. The Central Statistical Department has also furnished information on migration movements in Russia and on the methods of investigating family budgets. Again, the Scientific Division of the Labour Commissariat has furnished the Office with a number of documents on public works, wage fixing methods and social insurance, and has promised to collaborate in the international statistical investigations of the Statistical Section of the Office. It may in fact be said that the exchange of information with the Labour Commissariat is almost becoming a matter of daily routine; and the same development is taking place in the Office's relations with such other bodies as the Scientific Management Research Institute, the International Agricultural Institute at Moscow, and the Scientific Research Committee recently set up by the Central Trade Union Council. Further, the Director of the Moscow Institute of Economic Research has described the organisation and activities of that Institute for the *International Labour Review*; and the Communist Academy has procured for the Office all the publications appearing in Russia which might be of use to the Office, in exchange for its publications and those of the League of Nations.

In addition to the foregoing examples of official systematic co-operation, it may be mentioned that articles or information appearing in the Office's publications are frequently reproduced in Russian reviews, and that Soviet publications tend to contain more and more articles on the International Labour Conference or on the activities of the International Labour Office.¹

It should also be emphasised that fresh interest is being taken by Russian administrative departments in international labour legislation itself. To quote the apt expression used by the Labour Commissary in a letter to the Office: "Our institutions are mutually interested in obtaining as complete and impartial information as possible on the different problems of social policy." The fact is that, though human societies may remain divided and their institutions may be mutually opposed, a common love of scientific truth remains a powerful factor for *rapprochement* between them.

¹Further information on this point will be found in the annual bibliography of the International Labour Organisation which is now being issued. Reference may simply be made here to two of the more important studies two articles in the Soviet Encyclopaedia on the International Labour Office: a chapter in the important volume of Mr. Kaplun on labour protection problems.

And the Office firmly believes that the common object referred to in the Labour Commissary's letter must help to bring the Office and Soviet institutions into still closer touch in the future.

This does not necessarily imply, however, that the Government of the U.S.S.R. may in the near future modify its general policy towards the International Labour Organisation, or that the administrative relations which have been formed will contribute at an early date to change the attitude of the leaders of the Red Trade Union International. If the Office were inclined to entertain any such ideas, Mr. Lozovsky and others would lose no time in disabusing it. Their declarations show that their former attitude remains unchanged. Thus Mr. Lozovsky writes :

"The International Labour Office, founded by the victors in the world war and maintained by funds from bourgeois Governments, English, French, Japanese and others, must be systematically boycotted by the workers. There are certain trade union leaders who have been corrupted by capitalism and who take an active part in this dangerous institution..... Honest workers have nothing to do with this bourgeois institution... It's not class peace, class collaboration we want, but systematic class warfare against these exploiters".

Similarly, in a manifesto issued on May 1 the same Red Trade Union International published the following slogan :

"Down with the League of Nations, that insurance society set up to maintain Imperialist thieves in the possession of their stolen booty! Down with the International Labour Office, that institution of class collaboration which would deliver the defenceless proletariat to the capitalists!"

Again, referring to the meeting of the Governing Body at Berlin, the *International Workers' Movement* (No. 43, 1927) states that the International Labour Office is suffering from "senile decay" but that—

"there are unfortunately in Western Europe large numbers of workers who blindly follow traitor leaders like Jouhaux, Oudgeest, Macdonald, etc., who do all they can to convince the workers that the International Labour Office and similar institutions for class co-operation will deliver the proletariat from its bondage without bloodshed."

But the Red International Trade Union Press is not alone in referring to the Office in such terms. The same tone is adopted in the official Soviet Government Press, where attacks against the Office frequently assume a personal character, e.g. on the occasion of the Director's visit to Hungary and Greece (*Izvestia*, 11 March 1927). Further, Mr. Bukharin, President of the Third International, speaking at the 15th Congress of the Russian Communist Party in December 1927, took to task the Amsterdam International, the Second International, the International Labour Office and its Director in particular for supporting the League of Nations and the principle of class co-operation on which, according to Mr. Bukharin, the International Labour Organisation is based.

There would thus seem to be a contradiction in the policy adopted by the Russian leaders of the labour movement towards the International Labour Office. But this apparent contradiction, in fact, is due to the existence of two opposing currents of opinion, the struggle between which will clearly decide what the future relations of the Office with the U.S.S.R. are to be. Moreover, Russia's eventual attitude towards the League would appear to depend on the outcome of this struggle of opinion just as much as its attitude towards the Office. In any case, the League is treated in the same contradictory way as the Office—steps towards *rapprochement* and co-operation alternate with contemptuous intransigence and malevolent isolation.

This is not the place to trace the history of the general relations between the League of Nations and the U.S.S.R. It may, however, help to make the Office's position clearer if reference is made to one or two events of significance in these relations during the past year.

In January 1927 the Government of the U.S.S.R. refused to send delegates to the International Economic Conference, to the Committee on the manufacture of arms and munitions, or to the Circolo Committee, because these meetings were to be held in Switzerland and it would be impossible for Russian delegates to stay in this country. But this "geographical obstacle", to quote Mr. Rykov, was removed by the agreement of 14 April signed at Berlin between representatives of the U.S.S.R. and Switzerland. Consequently, a Russian delegation was present in May at the Economic Conference, and a delegation was despatched to the Disarmament Conference in November.

Admittedly, the presence of Russian delegates at these meetings does not prevent their chiefs, or even the delegates themselves while in Geneva, from giving expression to the increasing distrust with which they regard the League of Nations, or denouncing its "talk". Mr. Stalin, for example, speaking at the 15th Congress of the Communist Party in December 1927, had no compunction in stating that the League of Nations was far from being an instrument of peace and disarmament, but was rather "a means of disguising armaments and preparations for a new war."

On the other hand, the Soviet Government does not disdain to make use of the League of Nations for developing its international relations and contacts. As a matter of fact, a new theory would appear to be taking shape to explain this apparently anomalous situation.

Necessity, the mother of invention, has provided the ingenious framers of Soviet policy with fresh formulas—"the consolidation of capitalism", "its economic and political stabilisation". These are the new expressions used, for instance, in the resolution of the plenary assembly of the central committee of the Russian Com-

munist Party on 9 August 1927, in the report made on August 11 by the President of the Council of People's Commissaries, Mr. Rykov, in Mr. Stalin's report to the 15th Communist Party Congress, and in the resolution adopted at that Congress. According to Mr. Rykov, this stabilisation of capitalism is evidenced, on the economic side, by the fact that the capitalist economic situation has not only improved beyond the point it had reached before the war but has been accompanied by the creation of new technical bases for production, and, on the political side, by the increased political importance of the bourgeois classes in the different countries. The time has passed when Bolshevism thought that the capitalist system was decaying and could be completely abolished in the near future.

"As the economic and political development of the U.S.S.R. is advancing parallel with the stabilisation of the capitalist system in the rest of the world, the contradictions between the two systems must increase. Hitherto capitalist countries have had to endeavour to establish a *modus vivendi* with the U.S.S.R., but now the conflicts arising from the simultaneous existence of the two systems are bound to be aggravated... But however strong this antagonism may be, it does not preclude improvements being made from time to time in the relations between the U.S.S.R. and the capitalist world in individual sectors of the battle front". (*Pravda*, 10 and 11 August 1927.)

The attitude of the Soviet delegates at the International Economic Conference was dictated by ideas of the same kind. Expression was given to them, for instance, in a speech of Mr. Sokolnikov at the sitting of the Conference on 7 May—

"In spite of the differences which divide the political and economic systems of the U. S. S. R. from those in capitalist countries, their collaboration is perfectly feasible. The U. S. S. R. has no doubt as to the possibility of arranging for the two systems to exist concurrently."

And the same idea was expressed by Mr. Ossinsky, chief of the delegation, who concluded a description of the contrast between the U.S.S.R. and capitalist countries with the following words:

"This contrast in itself does not imply that the two parties must be actively hostile. The fact that two different systems exist simultaneously during a given period of history by no means excludes the possibility of a practical understanding: on the contrary, such an understanding is perfectly possible."

The delegation of the U.S.S.R. was accordingly glad to see the Conference adopt a resolution on pacific commercial co-operation of all nations, in which the Conference

"recognising the importance of a renewal of world trade, (and) refraining absolutely from infringing upon political questions, regards the participation of members of all the countries present, irrespective of differences in their economic systems, as a happy augury for a pacific commercial co-operation of all nations."

As a matter of fact, the year 1927 provides still further evidence that, under

the pressure of circumstances and in spite of occasional international communist propaganda to the contrary, the U.S.S.R. still continues to develop its relations with Geneva and the rest of the world.

Thus, Soviet representatives were present as observers at the Press Conference of the League of Nations. Soviet representatives also took part in the Congress on Maritime and River Navigation (at Cairo), in the International Wheat Conference (at Rome), the Conference of the International Railway Union (at Stockholm), the International Conference of the New Education Fellowship (at Locarno), the International Democratic Peace Congress (at Wurtzburg), not to mention the International Co-operative Alliance at which the Union is usually represented. And the Commissariat of Posts, Telegraph, and Telephone promoted an aerial postal Conference which was held at the Hague in September 1927 and at which 40 States were represented.

Again, the U.S.S.R. concluded a number of agreements with other countries during the year, including, for example, a sanitary convention (28 January 1927) and a convention on boundary rivers (8 January) with Turkey, railway conventions with Germany and Poland (October 1927) and with Finland (24 October 1927), a fishing convention with Japan (23 January 1928), commercial treaties with Turkey (11 March 1927), Latvia (2 June 1927) and Persia (1 October 1927), and different commercial agreements with Sweden (2 February and 25 October 1927) and Denmark (25 May 1927). Neutrality and mutual guarantee pacts were also ratified with Afghanistan (10 April 1927) and with Persia (1 October 1927). And, following the agreement with Switzerland signed at Berlin on 14 April, the economic boycott of Switzerland was raised under an Act dated 4 May 1927 promulgated by the Central Soviet Executive Committee. Lastly, the protocol of 17 June 1925 on the employment of gas and bacilli in war was signed by Mr. Litvinov in the name of the Soviet Government at Geneva on 4 December 1927.

It may therefore be considered that it is becoming more and more the policy of the Soviet Government to release Russia from the isolated position which she occupies in the international community. Whatever the theoretical formulas employed may be, there is no doubt but that considerable progress has been made in carrying out this policy in practice since its inception two years ago, and the Office can only regard this development as confirming its hopes for the future.

It may be of interest to enquire into the circumstances and the internal exigencies which have contributed to this development of Russia's international relations. An enquiry of this kind has been made in previous Reports, which have endeavoured to show how this new policy was a necessary outcome of Russia's economic

development and its industrial and agricultural reconstitution. It is proposed to continue the enquiry this year in order to indicate the direction in which the evolution of Russia is taking place. Besides, this passage of the Director's Report is generally so much quoted that it is now hardly possible to discontinue the enquiry.

The economic development of the U.S.S.R. during 1927, then, was not perhaps—as was bound to be the case—so rapid as in some previous years, but shows a steady improvement.

(1) An improvement in agriculture is evidenced by an increase in the area under crop, which amounted to 105.5 million *desiatines*, i.e., an increase of 2.6 % over the preceding year as compared with an increase of 3.7 % in 1926 and 6.5 % in 1925 respectively. Whereas, however, the area under cereals only increased in 1927 by 1.7 % over 1926 (4 % increase in 1926 and 4.4 % in 1925), the area devoted to the cultivation of industrial plants increased by 7.7 % (1.3 % increase in 1926 and 19.6 % in 1925). The harvest of cereals showed a decrease amounting approximately to 10 % as compared with the previous year.

Live stock in general amounted to 86.6 million heads, of which 29 million were draught animals. The total increase in live stock was 6 % (6.9 % in 1926 and 6.4 % in 1925), while the increase in draught animals was 3.2 % (10.6 in 1926 and 3.2 in 1925).

(2) There was a fairly considerable increase in production in the more important industries.

The output of coal amounted to 30.9 million tons as against 24.4 million tons in 1925-1926 and 16 million tons in 1924-1925, representing an increase in 1927 of 26.6 % as against 27.4 % and 51.9 % in the two preceding years.

The output of naphtha amounted to 10 million tons as against 8.2 million tons in 1926 and 6.9 millions in 1925. The increase over the previous year was 22 % (18.8 % and 17 % in the two preceding years).

The output of iron ore amounted to 6.1 million tons as compared with 4.8 and 3.3 in the former years (increase of 27 % and 45 % respectively). The production of cast iron amounted to 2.9 million tons (2.2 in 1926 and 1.2 in 1925), this representing an increase of 31 % (increase in 1926 of 83 % and in 1925 of 96 %). The output of steel amounted to 3.5 millions tons (2.9 in 1926 and 1.8 in 1925) i.e., an increase of 20 % (increase of 61 % in 1926 and 88 % in 1925).

The output of cotton fabrics was 2.3 milliard meters (2 milliards in 1926 and 1.5 milliards in 1925) and of woollen fabrics 85 million meters (81 in 1926 and 65 in 1925). This represents an increase in cotton fabrics of 15 % (33 % in 1926 and 79 % in 1925) and an increase in woollen

fabrics of 5 % (24 % in 1926 and 32 % in 1925).

The output of powdered sugar increased by 44 % and reached the figure of 1.3 million tons (as against 0.9 in 1926 and 1 in 1925), while the output of refined sugar decreased by 7.4 %, amounting to 532,000 tons as against 574,000 tons in 1926.

The number of workers employed in nationalised factories under the Supreme Council of National Economy was 2,483,000 an increase of 5.8 % over the previous year (increase of 25.2 % in 1926 over 1925). Reckoned in pre-war roubles the individual output per worker was 2,678 roubles, an increase of 9.4 % over the previous year (increase of 15.9 % in 1926).

(3) The following tables give some comparative figures of trade returns for 1927 and 1926 :

	1926-27	1925-26
Railway goods traffic	135.7 million tons	116.8 million tons
Increase	6.3 %	39.9 %
River traffic	37.7 million tons	32.8 million tons
Total commercial turnover	28.1 milliard chervonez roubles	23.3 milliard chervonez roubles
Increase	21 %	61 %
State trading turnover	9.8 milliard roubles	8.2 milliard roubles
Increase	20 %	52 %
Co-operative trading turnover	13.8 milliard roubles	9.6 milliard roubles
Increase	43 %	84 %
Foreign trade	1,483.2 million chervonez roubles	1,432.9 million chervonez roubles
Increase	3.5 %	10.9 %
Exports	770.5 million roubles	676.6 million roubles
Increase	13.8 %	21.2 %
Imports	712.1 million roubles	756.3 million roubles
Decrease	5.9 %	Increase 4.5 %
Trade balance	Excess of 58.8 million roubles	Deficit of 80 million roubles

(4) The note circulation increased from 1,343 million roubles on 1 October 1926 to 1,641 millions on 1 October 1927, i.e. there was an increase of 24.4 % as compared with the period 1 October 1925 to 1 October 1926, when the note circulation had increased from 1,143 million to 1,343 million roubles, i.e., by 17.5 %, on the preceding year.

Loans by the State Bank and the five principal banks increased from 2,474 million roubles on 1 October 1926 to 3,148 million roubles on 1 October 1927. This represents an increase of 27.2 % as compared with an increase from 1,846 million roubles on 1 October 1925 to 2,474 million roubles on 1 October 1926, an increase of 34.0 %.

The sums on deposit and current account in the same five banks in October 1927 were practically the same as on 1 October

1926, i.e. 841 million roubles as against 855 millions.

(5) Prices were lower in practically all directions, as the following table shows :

	1925-26	1926-27
Average index numbers of wholesale prices	fell from 1.856 to 1.755	
Average index numbers of selling prices of industrial products	1.980	1.928
Average index numbers of selling prices of agricultural products	1.262	1.229
Cost of living index number	2.185	2.156
Index number of retail prices in State trading establishments, 1 Oct. 1926 to 1 Oct. 1927	2	1.83
Index No. of retail prices in co-operative trading establishments	1.97	1.83
Index No. of retail prices in private trading establishments	rose from 2.24 to 2.26	

(6) The following tables shows the position in wages and income as between 1927 and 1926 :

	1926-27	1925-26	Increases
Average monthly wages of workers in nationalised industries	60.38 chervonez roubles (= 32.14 pre-war roubles)	54.04 chervonez roubles (= 28.57 pre-war roubles)	11.7 % (12.4 % reckoned in pre-war roubles)
Million chervonez roubles			
Income of the urban population	9,267	8,100	14.4 %
Income of the rural population	11,122	10,395	7 %
Income arising from nationalised undertakings	2,171	1,777	22 %
Total national income	22,560	20,252	11 %

(7) The national budget increased from 3,920 to 5,099 million roubles, an increase of 30 %. Receipts from direct taxation increased by 40 %, i.e. from 641 to 902 million roubles, and receipts from indirect taxes by 39.2 %, i.e., from 992 to 1,380 million roubles. State internal loans amounted to 2,561.7 million roubles, realising 1,802.5 million roubles.

It is clear that an appreciable improvement is indicated by the foregoing figures. This improvement has been noticeable over several years. But a careful consideration and comparison of the figures reveals the numerous difficulties with which the U.S.S.R. is still faced.

In the first place, agricultural production is still below the pre-war level. The area under crop is 95 % of that sown before the war. The principal cereals crop in 1926-27 was only 76 % of the pre-war figure. The crop per *desiatine* was 48 *poods* as against 61 *poods* in 1913, and 30 *poods* per head of the population as compared with 42 in 1913.

The agricultural population was 120.5 millions in 1927 as against 113.9 millions in 1913, and formed 82.3 % of the total population in 1927 as against 81.5 % before the war. While the rural population was 5.7 % greater than before the war, the urban

population remained practically stationary—25.9 millions in 1927 as against 25.8 in 1913.

The partition of the land into small estates, the rapid increase in the rural population, the increase in the number of peasant farms (which have risen from 18 millions before the war to 25 millions in 1927) have all helped to create an enormous number of minute peasant holdings which it is extremely difficult, if not quite impossible, to cultivate on account of their small size and the lack of stock or material. To quote from the report of Mr. Molotov to the last (fifteenth) Congress of the Communist Party in December 1927 :

“ In the case of 8 million peasant holdings it is a waste of money, economically speaking to possess a horse, and the same remark applies to machines. Some holding can hardly be made to pay for a good plough and on small holding such an outlay is unthinkable. As for the more up-to-date machines the small holdings are entirely unable to utilise them profitably. This is the reason why there are still 5 million wooden ploughs in use on the peasant holdings.”

As a matter of fact, the disproportion between the number of the population (and the workers in particular) and the means of production on small farms has caused agricultural over-population and a surplus of workers who are forced to look for work either in the villages themselves or in the towns. Thus the number of agricultural workers, which was 2,700,000 in 1924-25 and 3,000,000 in 1925-26, was 3,200,000 in 1926-27 and according to some calculations may even be 5,000,000.

The fact is that the occupiers of small farms who are not content to be mere wage-earners and who persist in trying to get the best out of their land are forced to appeal for help to their more fortunate neighbours from whom they borrow material and live stock. Others, again, let out their land to farmers of wealth and means. On the other hand, families of means which have more land than they can work themselves either employ hired labour, lease other land or let out their material and stock. In this way a split is taking place in the peasant class, which is developing into a large mass of peasant proletarians or semi-proletarians on the one side with, on the other side, a stratum of peasants in comfortable circumstances (*kulaks*) who have acquired a position of considerable economic and social importance in the country districts. According to the report of Mr. Molokov quoted above—

“ peasants in modest or poor circumstances who have to compete with peasants of means are continually being defeated on economic grounds and there is no way out for them.”

The second economic difficulty is due to the slowness in the improvement of the heavy industry, i.e., the industry which provides the others with machinery and the means of production. Reference was made in last year's Report to the seriousness of this situation, especially as at that time the

dilapidation of existing machinery was being very acutely felt. It may be noted, for example, that while the production of cotton fabrics, woollen fabrics, coal and naphtha exceeded pre-war production by 5.4 %, 13.4 %, 7.1 % and 9.7 % respectively, the production of iron ore, cast iron, steel and sheet iron only represented respectively 52.2 %, 69.9 %, 83 %, 74.2 % of the pre-war figures. Similarly, average monthly wages in nationalised industries were 5.3 % above the pre-war level, but the wages of metal workers and miners were only 86.9 % and 81.3 % respectively of what they were before the war. Besides, the number of unemployed increased from 840,000 in 1924-25 to 1,017,000 in 1925-26 and 1,333,000 in 1926-27. According to other calculations the number of unemployed in the towns alone was 2,000,000.

These two considerable difficulties, combined with the facts that, in spite of the improvements which have been made, the economic situation has not yet recovered its pre-war level and that exports, the note circulation, the total capital of the credit institutions and the savings bank deposits were only 42.2 %, 50 %, 72 % and 63 % respectively of the pre-war figures, were the determining causes of the crisis in Russia last year, the effects of which are still being felt.

The policy of the bodies in control was first of all to industrialise the country, and considerable sums were accordingly expended on renewal of material in the State-owned heavy industries, repairing old factories and constructing new ones. But, as this money was not infrequently spent in a somewhat haphazard way and the rationalisation of industry was not carried out on any definite plan, this policy of repairing and constructing factories caused an increase in the costs and selling prices of industrial products. The consequence has been that the disproportion between the prices of industrial products and agricultural produce, though slightly reduced, has continued to operate to the disadvantage of the farmers. The index numbers of prices of agricultural produce purchased by the State from the peasants are one-third below the index numbers of industrial products sold by the State to the country districts. Again, notwithstanding the great disproportion between the prices at which agricultural produce is bought from the peasants in the farming districts and the prices at which the same produce is sold in the consuming areas, the peasant's share in the selling price, which before the war was 70 %, fell in 1927 to 52 %, which means that a very large proportion of the price is absorbed by the State or co-operative trading organisations. Moreover, while the price of agricultural produce is 1.5 times higher than the pre-war figure in the wholesale trade and 2.06 times higher in the retail trade, the respective figures for the prices of industrial products are 2.02 and 2.62.

The disposal of agricultural produce on the home market has thus been hampered by the unfavourable conditions which the peasants encounter when they wish to sell their goods. There are also numerous difficulties in the way of outlets for export. The quantity of agricultural produce for sale has been reduced as the number of very small peasant holdings has increased; the overhead charges in the State export trading organisations were 140-145% of the pre-war figures, and the prices of agricultural produce on the Russian market, which before the war were 40 %, are at present only 15 %, below world prices. Besides, a wide discrepancy exists between the par value of the purchasing power of money on the home and export markets on the one side and the official rate on the other. For these reasons exports of agricultural produce in 1927 only amounted to 27 % of the average of the five years immediately preceding the war.

As, however, agricultural produce continues to form the bulk of Russia's export trade, especially as regards the balance of payments, the decrease in agricultural exports and the consequential diminution of the part played by Russia on the world market have caused difficulties for the import trade, which has had to be considerably restricted. The State-owned industries have had to raise the necessary capital for new buildings or the renewal of machinery in the home market. In order to increase as far as possible the fixed capital required for the development of industry in general the trade most favoured was necessarily the manufacture of the means of production. State subsidies were increased by 200 million roubles and bank credits by 600 million roubles. At the end of 1927 the total amount of new capital invested in the State-owned heavy industries amounted to 2,500 million roubles, while the accumulated new capital in the country only amounted to 2,000 million roubles. As the amount of bank deposits was unchanged in 1927 and savings bank deposits were still very inadequate, the State bank was compelled, in order to meet the financial needs of the different State economic organisations, to embark upon a policy of borrowing upon a large scale, the new issues amounting to more than 300 millions instead of the 150 millions contemplated by the Commission on state projects.

This is not the place to describe in detail the consequences of this investment of the greater part of the available capital in the heavy industries and of the consequential slump in the production of goods of current consumption. Nor can space be given to describing all the repercussions produced by the people's unsatisfied demand for goods—the difficulties of the co-operative bodies which have at once to buy agricultural produce and to distribute goods, the queues at the doors of the shops in the towns, the lack of confidence among the peasants who were again hesitating to sell

their produce, and the re-appearance, produced by a fear of a return to the former Communist policy, of an illegal door-to-door traffic in agricultural produce by merchants or peasants (*Meshochniki*). It is merely desired to emphasise the fact that these difficulties have simply aggravated still further the essential feature of the crisis, namely, the slump in exports and stagnation in foreign trade, which have made it impossible to hasten industrial reconstruction.

It will thus be seen that, though it has taken a slightly different shape from last year, the fundamental problem which dominates the whole Russian economic situation is the problem of capital. The solution of this problem, however, largely depends on Russia's international relations and the place which she can occupy in the economic system of the world. The question of the methods to adopt in order to obtain the capital required for the reconstruction of the country is consequently in the forefront of all the internal discussions in the Communist Party, many of which during the past year have been of a somewhat stormy character.

The theory of the Opposition is simple: the capital required for developing industry and improving the condition of the working class must be rapidly obtained at any price. This capital must first be looked for within the country itself by applying a stricter fiscal policy to the peasants of means and the new bourgeoisie. Secondly, a more energetic foreign policy must be adopted for procuring capital abroad. These methods will prevent the recurrence of the chronic crises through which the country is passing.

The followers of Mr. Stalin reply that it is not so much the lack of capital as the absence of system and method in present economic policy which is at the root of the trouble. In their view an attempt must first be made to reduce industrial production costs by rationalisation, increased production, and a reduction in hours of work accompanied by an increase in the number of shifts. Those forms of agriculture which call for a great deal of labour must be developed in the country districts. Small savings must be encouraged. Foreign credits, it is argued, are not free from danger; their development would threaten Russia's economic independence and her socialist constitution.

The seriousness of the split in the Communist Party as a result of these discussions is no secret, and the same may be said of the fate of the Opposition leaders.

In regard to international relations, however, the outstanding feature is that, in spite of the contacts established in 1927, the lesson to be learnt from facts as they are does not appear to have influenced either the majority or the opposition in the direction of wider and more regular relations with other countries. The foreign policy of the Opposition is scarcely likely to

attract credits to Russia. The Government policy, which is probably intended as an instrument for more effectively silencing the arguments of the Opposition, implies that Russia should remain isolated both in theory and in practice. But it is possible that once again the exigencies of life, the urge of a great nation towards rebirth and the dim desire to recover that international contact which would appear to be a condition of modern prosperity, will eventually assert themselves and triumph over vain theories which try to reconcile dogma and actual facts. It is none the less a fact that things appear for the moment to be at a standstill, and that in spite of the country's economic conditions the present political policy is less directed than it was a year ago towards a *rapprochement* between Russia and the League of Nations.

8. — Previous Reports have recorded the early relations established between *Turkey* and the Organisation in connection with Turkey's labour legislation. Turkey is anxious to equip itself with a complete labour code, as part of the general scheme for modernising the country, and this code has been for many months under consideration by the National Assembly.

There appear to be no new enactments of labour legislation to record for 1927, but during that year one or two events took place which show the interest taken by the Turkish Government in labour questions generally and in the International Labour Organisation. For example, the last Session of the Conference had the pleasure of welcoming an eminent observer sent by the Government, H. E. Chukri Kaya Bey, at that time President of the Foreign Affairs Commission and at present Minister of the Interior; and in the speech in which he replied to the Conference's welcome His Excellency expressed his Government's goodwill towards and appreciation of the aims and work of the Organisation. Moreover, as will be seen in a later Section, the delicate problems which have arisen in regard to Russian refugees in Constantinople have all along, it is gratifying to record, been dealt with by the Turkish Government in a spirit of humanity and friendly co-operation.

Even if the Office still has to wait some time yet before Turkey enters into the community of nations which form the Organisation, it is glad to be able to maintain and develop very cordial and effective relations with the Government of that country.

9. — Some progress was made in the Office's relations with *Egypt* during 1927—increase of correspondence with the Government Departments, full exchange of the Egyptian Government's official publications for the Office's publications, by agreement with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, requests for information, especially information as to existing legisla-

tion, from such Egyptian trade union organisations as the general federation of labour at Cairo, the Alexandria union of workers in cigarette factories, tramway men's unions, the international commercial employees' union, etc.

Moreover, the first steps which are being taken to frame social legislation offer a further possibility for more regular co-operation. For example, in 1926 the provisions of the Act of 4 July 1909 on the employment of children in cotton preparing factories were extended to tobacco and cigarette factories. Again, in 1927 a Committee was appointed to prepare a labour code, under the chairmanship of H. E. Rida Pasha, Under-Secretary of State in the Ministry of Justice. The Committee's work is to draw up a draft labour code which will deal with hours of work, the prevention of and compensation for accidents, industrial tribunals, etc. Mr. Arthur Fontaine, Chairman of the Governing Body, met H. E. Rida Pasha during a visit to Egypt last year, and in order to help the Committee in its work the Office has furnished it with copies of such legislation as might be useful to it.

When the problem of Egypt's admission to the League of Nations has been solved, the way for its participation in the work of the International Labour Office will already have been well prepared. And perhaps it will not be long before Egypt joins the League: for Sir Austen Chamberlain recently expressed his regret that the negotiations between the British and Egyptian Governments had for the time being broken down, and that the Egyptian Government had rejected the proposed treaty which would have facilitated Egypt's entry into the League. The Office hopes that the negotiations will soon be resumed and brought to a successful conclusion.

10.—During his visit to the Scandinavian countries last August the Director had the pleasure of meeting a number of politicians from *Iceland* and of discussing with them the possibility of applying labour Conventions in their country. These conversations have drawn the Director's attention to the legal position of *Iceland vis-à-vis* the International Labour Organisation.

Down to 1918 *Iceland* was under the sovereignty of Denmark. A Danish Act dated 30 November 1918 conferred on *Iceland* the international status which it now possesses and which amounts almost to complete independence. As a matter of fact, by the Act of 30 November 1918 "Denmark and *Iceland* are two free and sovereign States united in the person of one and the same King". *Iceland* and Denmark are thus united by a real "personal union." Consequently, the membership of the International Labour Organisation acquired by Denmark subsequently to the Act of 30 November 1918 does not import any legal consequence for *Iceland*. The

general position is that the Danish Government has no authority to ratify a Convention on behalf of *Iceland*, and *Iceland* itself is free to enter into any international engagements which it thinks fit to undertake.

However, although *Iceland* is not a Member of the International Labour Organisation, it would seem that it is open to it by virtue of its present international status to acquire such membership. Indeed the autonomy with which *Iceland* has been invested since 1918 confers on that country such an international personality as opens to it the door to the International Labour Organisation as well as to the League of Nations.

The Office can only affirm its desire to develop the relations into which it has already entered with *Iceland* and the exchange of publications with that country which has already taken place, and express the hope that the statesmen of *Iceland* may see their way to take the necessary steps to associate their country definitely with the work of the International Labour Organisation.

11. — Reference was made in last year's Report to the creation of the Industrial Chamber of the *Saar Territory*. This Chamber, it may be recalled, has to submit to the Governing Commission opinions and recommendations on labour questions and to consider the possibility of applying in the *Saar* territory "the decisions and Draft Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference".

The Industrial Chamber continued its work in the normal way during 1927, but did not have to deal with any questions which have been the subject-matter of a Draft Convention.

Composition of the Conference.

12. — There were 43 States represented at the Conference in 1927. This figure has only been exceeded in 1925. The 43 States were represented by 341 delegates and advisers. This represents the largest attendance at the Conference since 1921, when the Agenda included a considerable variety of questions.

A number of protests were made against some of the delegations. For example, the credentials of the workers' delegates from Bulgaria, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and Italy were disputed, and the Trade Union Congress of South Africa protested against the absence of a workers' delegate from the South African delegation. All the credentials thus disputed were approved by the Credentials Committee and by the Conference. In one or two cases, however, the Committee made certain observations which brought out more clearly the problems raised by the protests concerned and which might usefully be taken into

consideration by the Governments when proceeding to appoint their non-Government delegates and advisers in the future.

Incomplete Delegations.

13. — Further progress was made in 1927 towards securing the equilibrium which the Treaty of Peace contemplates between the different groups of delegates. There were 32 complete delegations out of the 43 delegations present at the Conference. This represents the largest proportion of complete delegations at the Conference since the early days of the Organisation as well as the largest absolute number of complete delegations.

The following table shows the proportion of complete to incomplete delegations since 1919 :—

SESSION	No. of States represented by complete delegations.	No. of States represented by one or more Government delegates only.	No. of States represented by incomplete delegations composed otherwise.
Washington, 1919	24	14	2
Genoa, 1920 . . .	16	7	4
Geneva, 1921 . . .	25	14	0
Geneva, 1922 . . .	20	17	2
Geneva, 1923 . . .	23	16	3
Geneva, 1924 . . .	24	14	2
Geneva, 1925 . . .	29	13	4
Geneva, 1926 (ordinary Session)	28	8	3
Geneva, 1926 (maritime Session)	27	8	3
Geneva, 1927 . . .	32	8	3

As usual, the Credentials Committee went into this problem of incomplete delegations. However, as the proportion of complete delegations was comparatively satisfactory, the Committee did not make the usual enquiries into the reasons which had prevented the Governments from sending complete delegations. Nevertheless, it once more drew the attention of the Conference and the States Members of the Organisation to the necessity of complying strictly with the terms of paragraph 1 of Article 389 of the Treaty of Peace.

For its part the Office continues to collect any information by which an accurate idea can be formed of the situation of the employers' and workers' organisations in the individual countries, and takes every opportunity to ask the Governments to send delegations composed in conformity with the provisions of the Treaty.

It is satisfactory to note that the States of Latin America continue to send complete delegations to the Conference. At the last Conference Argentina, Chile, Cuba and Uruguay were represented in this way. The Brazilian Government, it is true, was unable to send a full delegation, though it

had done so in 1926, but this was due to the fact that it was unable last year to overcome the difficulties raised by the absence of organisation among the Brazilian workers. Of the other Latin American States Bolivia was again represented at the 1927 Session, Columbia sent a strong Government delegation and Venezuela sent two Government delegates.

14. — It is also satisfactory to record that a number of Governments were represented last year, as in previous years, by the Ministers of the Departments concerned with the questions on the Agenda. Thus, Bulgaria was represented by its Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour, Finland by its Minister of Social Affairs, Greece by its Minister of National Economy, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg by its Minister of Labour and Social Affairs, and Rumania by its Minister of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance.

Legal questions raised by the working of the Organisation.

15. *Nomination of substitute delegates to the Conference.* — The officers of the Tenth Session of the Conference had put to them the question whether delegations could include "substitute delegates" in addition to the advisers provided for in the Treaty and the Standing Orders. This question was referred to the Governing Body, which requested its Standing Orders Committee to go into it, and the Standing Orders Committee has since submitted a report on it to the Governing Body.

The report of the Standing Orders Committee indicates that Article 389 of Part XIII of the Treaty has imposed a limitation on the representation of the States Members at the Conference. This Article provides that each State should send four delegates to the Conference, and that each delegate may be accompanied by advisers, not exceeding more than two in number for each item on the Agenda. There are thus only two capacities in which representatives may attend the Conference, the capacity of delegate and the capacity of adviser, and the number of representatives in each of these two groups is strictly limited. Under paragraph 5 of Article 389, it is true, "a delegate may by notice in writing addressed to the President appoint one of his advisers to act as his deputy", but this provision makes it quite clear that only advisers can become substitute delegates.

The Standing Orders Committee consequently came to the conclusion that the States Members should not nominate substitute delegates in addition to regular delegates and advisers, but that it is nevertheless open to them to nominate advisers to take the place of the regular delegates if necessary. At the same time, the Committee made it clear that the Governments can only nominate advisers as substitutes

for the regular Government delegates, and that only the non-Government delegates themselves can nominate the advisers who are to substitute for them.

While considering this question of the nomination of substitute delegates, the Standing Orders Committee also considered whether it would not be desirable to allow Ministers of Labour to attend and address the Conference without their having to be nominated as delegates or advisers. The Committee thought that a rule of this kind would help to solve some practical difficulties and accordingly formulated for carrying it into effect two draft amendments to Articles 8 and 10 of the Standing Orders on which the Conference will be asked to give its decision.

16. *Mr. Giri's proposal regarding the representation of native labour at the Conference.* — At the Tenth Session of the Conference Mr. Giri, workers' Delegate from India, moved a resolution inviting the Conference to draw the attention of the States Members to the following two-fold question, viz. (1) the desirability of according representation to the workers in colonies or mandated territories at Sessions of the Conference at which questions affecting their working conditions were to be discussed, and (2) the desirability of including representatives of coloured workers in the delegations from countries in which the white race forms the ruling class but coloured races constitute the majority of the population. The Conference was of opinion that it would be difficult to discuss so important a proposal as this without previous preparation, and accordingly decided to refer the proposal to the Governing Body, which requested its Standing Orders Committee to consider it.

The Standing Orders Committee came to the conclusion that the first proposal contained in Mr. Giri's resolution could hardly be made the subject-matter of an amendment to the Standing Orders. By Article 389 of the Treaty the States Members are required to nominate their non-Government delegates and advisers to the Conference in agreement with the most representative industrial organisations. It is therefore in effect a matter for the industrial organisations themselves to propose the nomination of native workers when the Conference is to deal with questions affecting their working conditions. Clearly, it is desirable and natural that representatives of these workers should be nominated in such circumstances, but unless the Treaty is amended there is no possibility of establishing a legal rule which would make this an absolute requirement. For this reason the Standing Orders Committee adopted a suggestion made by the Director, and expressed the opinion that the best means of giving effect to Mr. Giri's proposal would be to mention the proposal in the letter convening the Conference

which is addressed to the Governments, and to request the Governments to bring the proposal to the notice of the industrial organisations which, being the most representative, have to take part in the nomination of the delegates and advisers to the Conference.

The second proposal contained in Mr. Giri's resolution, viz. that coloured workers should be represented at all Sessions of the Conference, is open to the same legal objections as the first proposal, and it would seem impossible to lay down a definite rule on the point. It is for the Governments and industrial organisations in the individual countries to decide whether coloured workers are to be nominated as delegates or technical advisers to the Conference. In view, therefore, of the delicate character of the problem and in order not to appear to be interfering in the internal politics of the States concerned, the Standing Orders Committee came to the conclusion that it could not formulate any definite suggestion in regard to Mr. Giri's second proposal.

In any case, there would seem to be no doubt but that the two questions raised in the resolution moved by Mr. Giri at the Tenth Session of the Conference are not questions which can be solved by legal procedure. They are of a political nature and any effect which is given to them must depend primarily on the industrial organisations in the countries concerned.

17. *Translation of speeches made in non-official languages.* — The Tenth Session of the Conference made a small amendment to its Standing Orders by which the interpreters at the Conference may translate speeches made in a non-official language if they possess the necessary linguistic knowledge. In this connection the representatives of Spanish-speaking countries maintained that while the Conference interpreters generally might know a number of non-official languages, e.g. German, probably few of them were in a position to translate Spanish. To remedy this the Spanish Government representative proposed that the Secretariat of the Conference should take account of "the number and continental importance of countries sharing the same language in order adequately to ensure the translation into the official languages of the speeches which their delegations deliver". This proposal was referred to the Governing Body and dealt with by the Governing Body's Standing Orders Committee.

The Standing Orders Committee considered that the Spanish Government delegate's proposal did not raise any legal problem, but dealt with a purely administrative question. The Committee accordingly simply took note of a statement made by the Director in which he undertook, as far as possible, to give satisfaction to the legitimate wishes expressed by the Spanish Government representative.

18. *Double discussion procedure.* — In last year's Report a short account was given of the new procedure which the Conference was then about to apply for the first time. It was pointed out that in 1924 the Conference adopted as an experiment a "double reading" procedure by which proposals for a Draft Convention were to be provisionally adopted at one Session of the Conference and their final adoption with or without amendment to be postponed to the following Session. Attention was drawn to the disadvantages which the practical application of this system had revealed, some description was given of the new "double discussion procedure" which the Conference had substituted for the old system in 1926, and the hope was expressed that when this new procedure was applied it would be found to be effective and be unanimously approved.

As a matter of fact, this hope has not been fully realised. The important problem of the Conference's procedure would not appear to be definitely settled, and it will have to be considered again this year.

Like the double reading procedure, the double discussion procedure involves two discussions at different Sessions of the Conference on each question on the Agenda. But under the new procedure the two discussions are quite distinct in character from each other. The discussion at the first Session of the Conference is of a general nature, whereas the discussion at the second Session centres on the framing and adoption of a Draft Convention or Recommendation.

The actual working of this system as it was applied last year and is still regulated by the Standing Orders is as follows. When a question has been placed on the Agenda of the Conference, a report is drawn up on it by the International Labour Office. This report (Grey Report) gives a survey of the legislation and practice in the different countries and contains a draft Questionnaire to be used later on for consulting the Governments. At its first Session the Conference holds a general discussion and establishes the Questionnaire in its approved form. At the second Session the Conference takes decisions on a proposed Draft Convention or Recommendation which has been framed by the Office on the basis of the replies of the Governments (Blue Report).

In accordance with the new provisions of the Standing Orders, a first discussion took place at the Tenth Session of the Conference on the questions of minimum wage fixing machinery and freedom of association. This discussion, however, instead of being of the general nature which was intended, concentrated on the actual terms of the Questionnaire which the Office had laid before the Conference at the end of its Grey Report, and developed into a discussion on specific formulae. In the result the Conference adopted a Questionnaire on

minimum wage fixing machinery, but failed to arrive at agreement on the Questionnaire on freedom of association.

In view of the difficulties which the application of the new procedure had revealed, the Conference unanimously adopted a resolution proposed by Mr. Mahaim, Belgian Government representative, inviting "the Governing Body, while maintaining the principle, to examine further the application of the double discussion procedure and to make proposals for its improvement at the next Session of the Conference".

In pursuance of this resolution the Governing Body requested its Standing Orders Committee to consider the means by which the operation of the double discussion procedure could be improved. In the Committee the problem resolved itself into the question whether it is preferable to have a Questionnaire drawn up by a deliberative body like the Conference or by an administrative body like the International Labour Office, and two points of view were expressed on this question. Some of the members were definitely against making it a function of the Conference to draw up the Questionnaire. Other members hoped that the experiment would not be discontinued until more positive results had been obtained, and proposed that no immediate amendment should be made to the Standing Orders.

After considerable discussion, which it would take up too much space to analyse here, the Committee reached a compromise between these two points of view, and adopted a resolution which contains its proposals to the Governing Body. In this resolution the Committee expresses the opinion that, as the double discussion procedure has only been tried on a limited scale, the question whether and how the procedure might be improved should be reconsidered in connection with the draft Questionnaire which is to be submitted to the 1928 Session of the Conference; and in case the Conference, after discussing the different items on its Agenda, should consider that the discussion of the Questionnaire hampers its work, the Committee recommends that the Standing Orders should be amended in such a way that in the future the Conference would simply decide "by the approval of conclusions or resolutions" the points on which the Governments are to be consulted, and that it should be left to the International Labour Office actually to draw up the Questionnaire.

At the time of writing the Governing Body has not yet taken a decision on the proposals submitted by its Standing Orders Committee. It will submit to the Conference a report on this important problem, and it will be for the Conference to take a final decision in the light of its further experience this year of the existing procedure.

19. *Revision of Conventions.* — Of all the legal questions raised by the working of the Organisation the question of the revision of Conventions is specially far-reaching both by reason of its intrinsic importance and by reason of its repercussions on the action and effect of the whole Organisation. It would be impossible to deal with the question here in a detailed way, especially as the question has only been recently raised and its investigation is far from being completed. It is simply desired in the present Report to outline the principal aspects of the problem, and to endeavour to indicate briefly on what lines its solution may be considered.

The question of the revision of Conventions was first raised at the 37th Session of the Governing Body (October, 1927), when Mr. Lambert-Ribot proposed during the discussion on the Agenda of the Conference in 1929 that a Committee should be appointed to consider the possible revision of the Washington Hours of Work Convention. This question was referred to the following session of the Governing Body held in January 1928, when the British Government delegate formally proposed the revision of the Hours of Work Convention. After considerable discussion the Governing Body decided to postpone consideration of this proposal, but instructed its Standing Orders Committee to proceed forthwith to go into the procedure to be adopted generally for revising international labour Conventions.

The question of the revision of Conventions is a general problem, and should be considered by itself without reference to particular Conventions which might be revised.

All the Conventions which the Conference has so far adopted contain one or two formal clauses, and one of these clauses, which appears in Article 21 of the Hours of Work Convention, is as follows: "At least once in ten years the Governing Body of the International Labour Office shall present to the General Conference a report on the working of this Convention, and shall consider the desirability of placing on the Agenda of the Conference the question of its revision or modification".

The effect of this provision is to impose two obligations on the Governing Body, which are to be discharged within ten years from the coming into force of each Convention—(1) to present a report to the Conference on the working of the Convention, and (2) to decide whether it is desirable or not to place the question of the revision of the Convention on the Agenda of the Conference. But, while the Governing Body is required to draw up a report on the working of the Convention, it is not obliged to propose its revision: it must consider whether it is desirable to propose revision, but revision is not obligatory.

In any case, there is no provision in the Treaty of Peace which deals with the revision

of the Conventions so summarily referred to in the clause quoted above, and, in these circumstances, the effect of revision can only be considered by reference to the general principles of international law and to the rules emanating from Part XIII of the Treaty.

The first question which arises, then, is what would be the effect of previous ratifications of a Convention which is revised. According to the Treaty Conventions are drawn up in the form of drafts by the Conference and are only binding on the States which ratify them. Consequently, if the Conference revises a Convention, it, in effect, adopts a new Convention which will only be binding on the States which ratify it. The revised Convention would not be binding on a State which refused to ratify it, because the Treaties have not empowered the Conference to impose obligatory rules on the States Members. It may, therefore, be regarded as a definite principle that a revised Convention only affects States which ratify it. Consequently, it may be added that States which have previously ratified the Convention in its original form are free not to ratify the revised Convention, and that their ratification of the original Convention imports no obligation as regards the revised Convention.

If this first point is admitted, it remains to consider whether the revision of a Convention does not affect the ratifications of the original Convention, or what may be its legal effect on the original Convention. There would seem to be two possible lines of argument in this connection—(1) that revision cancels the original Convention and puts a new Convention in its place, or (2) that it leaves the original Convention in operation, with the result that two Conventions exist concurrently.

The first submission has the advantage of being simple: the original Convention having been revised gives place to a new Convention. The States which had ratified the provisions of the old Convention which had been cancelled would have the choice between assuming new obligations in place of the old ones by ratifying the revised Convention or refusing such ratification, in which latter case they would be discharged from any obligations at all. This system would avoid the complications which would result from the concurrent existence of two different Conventions. It would, moreover, affirm the quasi-legislative character of the provisions adopted by the Conference: for the object of the decisions of the Conference should be to secure uniformity, and this would hardly be compatible with the establishment of divergent and perhaps contradictory rules on the same subject-matter.

Unfortunately, this first solution cannot, it would seem, be carried out in the present state of positive law. In the first place, there is the practical disadvantage that it would involve the cancellation of previous

ratifications and a consequential sacrifice of the progress achieved during preceding years. Moreover, it would raise the insurmountable legal objection that for the Conference to cancel a Convention which the States Members had made their own by their ratifications would be contrary to Part XIII, which has not empowered the Conference to require States which have ratified a Convention to cancel it any more than it has empowered the Conference to impose a Convention on States which have not ratified it.

If, then, the first submission that the effect of revision would be to cancel the original Convention is rejected, the only course left is to adopt the second alternative, and recognise that the effect of revision is to create two concurrent Conventions. Under this system the original Convention would remain in force for those States which had ratified it, while the new Convention would come into force by virtue of the new ratifications given to it, and each of the two Conventions would import a distinct set of obligations.

However, the mere fact that the two Conventions would exist concurrently would not seem in itself to solve the problem. It seems difficult to argue that a State bound by the original Convention should be required to remain subject to the old provisions, when the Conference had adopted new and presumably improved rules. It would therefore seem necessary that if the two Conventions are to exist side by side there should be the power to opt between them, and that States which had ratified the old Convention should be able to free themselves automatically from their obligations under it by ratifying the new Convention. A solution of this kind could perhaps be justified both by the quasi-legislative character of international labour Conventions and by the fact that the text of each Convention contains a clause expressly providing for the possibility of revision.

In order, however, to avoid any difficulties in the future on this latter point, it would probably be desirable to insert in future Conventions a provision to the effect that ratification of the revised Convention by a State which had already ratified the old Convention would *ipso facto* import denunciation of the latter. As for the Conventions already adopted by the Conference, it is probable that they will not, as a matter of fact, be revised before the time by which they can be denounced has arrived, and consequently States which had ratified them could easily denounce them when they ratified the new Convention.

In any case, if it would be useful in the future to insert special provisions in Conventions in order to define the machinery and the effect of their possible revision, it would perhaps also be desirable to consider the possibility of instituting an amendment procedure by which certain adaptations of

detail could be effected without use having to be made of the complicated procedure for revision. It will be remembered that proposals for an amendment procedure were laid before the Conference in 1922 but were rejected on account of the legal objections raised against them. Since then there has been a new development which may facilitate a solution of the problem, in a Convention on the simplification of customs formalities adopted in 1923 under the auspices of the League of Nations. This Convention provides for the possibility of amending some of its provisions under certain conditions, and the Council of the League of Nations has decided, in a resolution adopted on 17 June 1927, to recommend this procedure for the framing of Conventions on technical subjects. It would appear that the precedent of this Convention and the resolution in question of the Council of the League of Nations are calculated to meet the legal objections raised in 1922, and the Office accordingly considers that when the revision procedure is being examined it would be desirable to go again into the question of the amendment procedure which is closely bound up with it.

It is clear that the procedure for revising Conventions directly or indirectly raises a considerable number of problems, but to endeavour to deal with these problems in detail here would be going beyond the limits of this Report. The few observations which have been formulated above do not pretend to give a definite solution to this important question, the investigation of which has only just been begun at the time of writing. It has, however, been considered essential to indicate at this stage the principal aspects of a subject which affects the future of the Organisation in the highest degree.

20. *Difficulties of procedure in connection with ratifications.* — It can legitimately be said that the legal machinery for ratification laid down in Part XIII on the whole works satisfactorily. However, difficulties arise from time to time in some country or other. A very special constitutional question, for example, has been raised by the Government of India. In a letter dated 28 September 1927, Lord Birkenhead, Secretary of State for India, communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations India's ratification of the Convention on equality of treatment as regards workmen's compensation. In this letter the Secretary of State for India indicated that, as a general rule, India's ratifications of international labour Conventions only affect British India, excluding the several hundred Indian States which are in treaty with the Crown but for which the Legislature of British India has no power to legislate. This clearly is a quite special constitutional situation which is not to be found in any

other Member of the Organisation. The Government of India not unreasonably points out that it is impossible to ask each of the several hundred Indian States which have preserved their legislative autonomy to ratify the Organisation's Conventions.

As a matter of fact, in present circumstances the question would not appear to be of any very great practical interest. There is no very considerable industrial activity in the Indian States, and, for the present at any rate, the application of International Labour Conventions only has any practical value in British India. It has, however, seemed desirable to refer to the situation in this Report, not only because there is no doubt but that the position of India is a legal anomaly from the point of view of ratifications in so far as its effect is to withdraw from the consequences of ratification a part of the territory of a Member of the Organisation, but also because it is possible that in the more or less near future the economic conditions of the Indian States may for various reasons develop up to a point at present unknown, and this might, for the reason which has just been indicated, cause some complications in the execution of the work entrusted by the Treaties of Peace to the International Labour Organisation.

21. *Date of the putting into force of Conventions.*—Before leaving the subject of the legal questions raised by the working of the Organisation, it should be indicated that there are considerable divergences in the practice of the different States as regards the date on which Conventions ratified by them become operative.

It would be difficult to consider in detail here this technical legal question, to the importance of which attention was drawn by Mr. Oersted, Danish employers' Delegate, at the Tenth Session of the Conference. Perhaps the different proposals which have recently been put forward by Mr. Oersted in this connection will make it possible to remove the doubts which would appear still to subsist on the point. It may be desirable, for example, to give effect to Mr. Oersted's suggestion that a provision should be inserted in Conventions giving States which ratify them a certain time within which to put them into force. In any case, this is a problem the solution of which might be calculated to facilitate the progress of ratifications and which it would appear desirable should not be overlooked.

The proposals laid before the Governing Body by Mr. Oersted include a number of suggestions on other questions besides the question of the date on which Conventions should be put into force. Some of these suggestions contemplate improving the procedure for drafting Conventions, others deal with certain modifications which might be made in future Conventions by way of suppression, alteration or addition in the formal

clauses relating to the putting into force and application of Conventions, while others again affect the substance of Conventions. The Governing Body decided at its 38th Session to refer these interesting suggestions to its Standing Orders Committee, which will report to it at an early session.

Governing Body.

22. *Sessions.* — During the past year the Governing Body has held four sessions :

Thirty-fourth Session : 28-30 January.

Thirty-fifth Session : 30 March-1 April.

Thirty-sixth Session: 24 May and 14 June.

Thirty-seventh Session: 11-14 October.

All these sessions took place at Geneva, with the exception of the Thirty-seventh, which was held at Berlin at the invitation of the German Government.

23. *Composition.* — The composition of the Governing Body has undergone a certain number of changes in the past year.

The Japanese Government appointed as its representative Mr. Kasama, to take the place of Mr. Mayeda who has returned to Japan. Mr. Unsain, the Argentine Government representative, has been replaced by Mr. Cantilo, Argentine Minister at Berne. Mr. Th. G. Thorsen, Secretary-General in the Ministry of Social Affairs, Norway, has been appointed the Norwegian Government's representative in place of Mr. Morell. The Polish Government, acting in agreement with the Czechoslovak Government, has appointed Mr. Brablec as its deputy member in place of Mr. Stern. Similarly, Mr. Molin has been appointed by the Norwegian Government as deputy member representing the Swedish Government in place of Mr. Hennings.

In the employers' group, Sir James Lithgow, the representative of the British employers, has resigned, and his place has been taken by Mr. Forbes Watson.

No change has taken place in the composition of the workers' group.

At its Thirty-seventh Session the Governing Body unanimously re-elected Mr. Arthur Fontaine as its Chairman, and Mr. Carlier and Mr. Oudegeest as its Vice-Chairman representing the employers' and workers' groups respectively.

24. *Re-election of the members of the Governing Body.* — Under Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles, the period of office of the members of the Governing Body is three years. Since the present Governing Body was elected by the Conference at the 1925 Session, its term of office expires in 1928. The 1928 Session of the Conference will accordingly be asked to elect the members of the new Governing Body.

25. *Amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles.* — It may still perhaps be hoped that the re-election of the Governing Body will be governed by the provisions of the amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Versailles. Unfortunately, however, the situation as regards the ratification of the amendment adopted by the Conference in 1922 remains almost unchanged since last year. Only one new ratification, that of Greece, has been registered. The Government of Uruguay has announced that ratification has been approved by Parliament, but the formalities of registration with the Secretary-General of the League of Nations have not yet been carried out. The ratification of Uruguay will bring the total number of ratifications received up to 35. Under Article 422 of the Treaty of Versailles, however, amendments to Part XIII cannot take effect until they are ratified by the States whose representatives compose the Council of the League of Nations and by three-fourths of the States Members. The number of ratifications required to reach the total of three-fourths of the States Members is 42.

The following is a list of the States which have not yet ratified the amendment :

Abyssinia	Lithuania
Argentina	Luxemburg
Bolivia	Nicaragua
Brazil	Panama
Chile	Paraguay
Columbia	Persia
Guatemala	Peru
Honduras	Salvador
Italy	San Domingo
Liberia	Venezuela.

In the course of the past year the Office has continued its efforts to persuade the Governments of these countries to ratify the amendment.

It need hardly be emphasised that further ratifications are urgently required if there is to be any hope of holding the next election under the new system. The election this year will be the second to take place since the amendment to Article 393 was adopted by the Conference. It will be regrettable if a change in the composition of the Governing Body which was so generally approved by the Conference, and which was agreed upon after the fullest consideration, has to be postponed for another three years. Attention was drawn last year to the anomaly of the situation ; the enlargement of the Governing Body was proposed mainly in order to meet the wishes of the overseas countries, and yet the ratification of a number of these countries is still required to bring the amendment into force.

The Office, it would appear, has exhausted every means at its disposal to obtain the number of ratifications required. Possibly the moral authority of the Conference may be more effective than the patient insistence of the Office.

Committees.

26. — At this point in last year's Report a description was given for the first time, in connection with the activities of the Governing Body, of the constitution and work of the various technical committees and commissions which have had to be appointed from time to time to assist the Office in carrying out its work. For some years the character of these bodies had been rather indefinite. It was not clear, for example, whether they were required merely to assist and check the scientific investigations undertaken by the different services of the Office and whether they were solely under the control of the Director or had to submit the general recommendations and resolutions adopted by them to the Governing Body. This uncertainty has gradually been dispelled. It has become clear that the Committees are something more than mere adjuncts of the Office operating within the limits of its internal activities, and that their recommendations and resolutions have behind them an influence and weight of opinion which directly affect the various national or industrial interests represented in the Governing Body. The different technical or advisory committees have accordingly gradually developed into permanent bodies and become a normal part of the machinery by which the Governing Body carries out its functions. At the same time the various groups on the Governing Body have expressed a desire to be represented on these committees. This development took place in 1927 and at the beginning of 1928. Though the Director is still authorised to consult various individuals separately or in small groups on the lines to be followed by the Office in different branches of its work, in almost all cases representatives of the three groups in the Governing Body now take part in the consultations of experts.

Now that the position of the committees has thus been clearly defined, the Office hopes that the Governing Body will employ this method of work on a large scale, and will apply the system of consulting experts to the different technical problems with which the Organisation may have to deal. The League of Nations has had recourse to such technical consultations much more frequently than the International Labour Organisation. The League not only has its permanent technical committees, such as the Economic and Financial Committee, the Transit Committee, the Health Committee, etc., but the Council of the League does not hesitate to incur the expense involved in frequent consultations on all kinds of subjects. One of the most recent consultations, which was in every way successful, was the Conference of press experts which met at Geneva in 1927. Such action as has been taken by the Governing Body on the same

lines, e.g. the Statistician's Conferences, have also been of very considerable value. It is to be hoped, in the interests of the Organisation's authority and the co-ordination of its scientific work, that these examples will be more frequently followed in the future.

The different committees of the Organisation, including both those composed of members of the Governing Body and the technical advisory committees, which are at present in operation may be divided into three distinct groups.

I. Committees of the Governing Body.

27. — Besides the *Finance Committee* and the *Standing Orders Committee*, which were both set up in the early days of the Office's existence, the following committees of the Governing Body were at work in 1927 :

Committee on conditions of work in coal mines,

Committee on unemployment,

Committee for the study of social charges.

Each of these Committees is composed solely of members of the Governing Body, but has power to call for the assistance of experts.

(1) The object of the *Committee on conditions of work in coal mines* was to supervise the Office's investigations into the conditions of work and remuneration in the coal mining industry in various countries. Its work is now terminated, in consequence of the decision taken at the 37th Session of the Governing Body (October, 1927) authorising the Office to complete and publish on its own responsibility the report which it had prepared on the results of its enquiries.

The Committee was constituted as follows :

Government Group : M. Sokal, M. Belterton.

Employers' Group : Sir James Lithgow, M. Lambert-Ribot.

Workers' Group : Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Poulton.

(2) The *Unemployment Committee*, which was reconstituted at the 35th Session of the Governing Body (March 1927), was set up in order to supervise the Office's work on unemployment questions. It is composed as follows :

Government Group : Mr. Kasama.

Employers' Group : Mr. Cort van der Linden.

Workers Group : Mr. Schürch (substitute, Mr. Hueber).

(3) *The Committee on social charges*, which was appointed at the 33rd Session of the Governing Body (October, 1926), was

created in order to assist the Office in the enquiry which it had been instructed to undertake into the calculation of the cost of social services in the different countries. It is composed as follows :

Government Group : Mr. Weigert, Mr. Cantilo. (Substitute, Mr. Kasama.)

Employers' Group : Mr. Hodač, Mr. Forbes Watson.

Workers' Group : Mr. Thorberg, Mr. Müller.

II. Committees including members of the Governing Body, technical experts, and representatives of other institutions.

28. — The Committees classified under this head are enumerated below.

(1) *Joint Maritime Commission*. The composition of this Commission remains unchanged since last year's Report. It will hold its 8th Session in the spring of 1928 in order more particularly to consider the items placed on the Agenda of the Maritime Session of the Conference to be held in 1929. It has set up sub-committees of its members on deck cargoes and seamen's welfare in ports.

The first of these sub-committees is composed as follows :

Shipowners : Mr. Cuthbert Laws, Mr. Salvesen.

Seamen : Mr. Ehlers, Mr. Henson.

The sub-committee on seamen's welfare in ports consists of two members, Mr. Salvesen representing the shipowners and Mr. Lundgren representing the seamen.

(2) *Mixed Advisory Agricultural Committee*. The membership of this Committee is the same as last year. The Committee has not met since January 1927. Its meetings are convened both by the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome and by the Governing Body. On Mr. Oersted's proposal the experts who were present at the meeting of the Committee at Rome in November 1925 were consulted before the Tenth Session of the Conference on the proposed Draft Convention on sickness insurance for agricultural workers drawn up by the Office, and most of them communicated their views to the Office.

At the 35th Session of the Governing Body (April, 1927) it had been decided that the six representatives of the Governing Body on the Committee might form a kind of special committee to discuss agricultural questions from the point of view of the International Labour Office. This special Committee met for the first time during the 38th Session of the Governing Body in February 1928. The Government Group was represented by Mr. Arthur Fontaine, Chairman, Mr. Sokal, and Mr. Riddell (substitute), the employers by Mr. Carlier and

Mr. Vanek (substitute for Mr. Oersted), and the workers by Mr. Müller and Mr. Schürch. The Committee took note of the programme of work of the Agricultural Service of the Office, and discussed the invitation addressed to the Governing Body by the International Institute of Agriculture to take part in the work of an International Agricultural Co-ordination Committee. This question, which was placed on the agenda of the Governing Body, is discussed later.

(3) *Permanent Migration Committee.* This Committee consists of the officers of the Governing Body assisted by experts. No further appointments have been made or proposed for increasing the Committee's membership since last year's Report. One of the Japanese experts, Mr. Sugimura, however, having become Under-Secretary-General of the League of Nations, has consequently ceased to be a member of the Committee. No meeting of the Committee was held in 1927. When the 1928 Conference assembles, however, the officers of the Committee are to meet the organisers of the London Migration Congress in 1926.

(4) *Advisory Committee on intellectual workers.* The decision to set up this Committee was taken by the Governing Body at its 35th Session (March, 1927). The object of the Committee is to supply the Governing Body with advisory opinions on any questions concerning the conditions of work of intellectual workers with which the Office may have to deal.

There are three members of the Governing Body on the Committee, viz :

Mr. G. de Michelis, Government representative (Italy),

Mr. Lambert-Ribot, employers' representative (France),

Mr. J. Oudegeest, workers' representative (Netherlands).

The Committee also includes two representatives of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation appointed by that Committee with the approval of the Council of the League of Nations, viz :

Mr. J. Destrée, Deputy and ex-Minister (Belgium), and

Mr. A. Einstein, Professor of Physics in the University of Berlin (Germany).

The International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation has also nominated the following two persons to act as substitute members if required :

Mrs. M. Curie-Sklodowska, Professor of Physics in the University of Paris (France), and

Miss K. Bonnevie, Professor in the University of Oslo (Norway).

The membership of the Committee is to be completed by the appointment of a number of experts representing the organisations of intellectual workers concerned.

A first meeting of the representatives of the Governing Body and of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation took place at Brussels in December 1927 for the purpose of making proposals to the Governing Body in regard to the final membership of the Committee and to the agenda of its first plenary meeting.

(5) *Correspondence Committee on industrial hygiene and safety.* This Committee was until recently composed solely of experts who were convened by the Governing Body but who dealt directly with the Director. The Governing Body decided at its 38th Session, however, to add six of its own members to the Committee, three to deal with industrial health questions and the other three to deal with industrial safety problems. The Government group has appointed Count de Altea and Mr. Thorsen for these two purposes respectively and the workers' group Mr. Müller and Mr. Poulton. The representatives of the employers' group will be appointed later.

Two further members were also appointed during 1927 in order to complete the number of experts on the Committee, viz., Dr. Bauer, technical adviser to the German Ministry of Labour, and Dr. Bridge, Senior Medical Inspector of Factories, Great Britain.

The Director regrets to announce the death in December 1927 of Dr. Zielinski, technical adviser to the Polish Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, who had been an active member of the Committee since 1922.

The Safety Sub-Committee held a meeting in November 1927 which is referred to in the second Section of this Report.

III. *Committees of experts only.*

29. — Under this heading are included the three Committees referred to below.

(1) *Committee of experts on social insurance*, the composition of which has not been changed in 1927.

The Office has not had occasion to call any further meeting of this Committee since 1926. It should be emphasised, however, that the work of the Committee has been particularly helpful to the Office in the past, and that the Office was very glad to have the benefit of the advice of its experts in the Office's early ventures and investigations into the problems of social insurance. Indeed, the Office fully recognises the debt it owes to the devoted assistance of these experts and collaborators in the early stages of its work.

As the work of the Office has become more clearly defined, however, and as the general problems of social insurance have had to give place to the detailed investigation of specific questions, the task of the Office has become more difficult. In its recent work on the question of sickness insurance, for example, the Office would have been glad to have the help of specialists in the management of sickness insurance funds or of medical men with experience of the organisation of the medical service of these funds. At a later stage, perhaps, the Office may have to take up the problems of invalidity, old age and life insurance and the retention of their pension rights by workers who proceed from one country to another. And all these problems are accompanied by a series of highly technical problems—measure of incapacity, financial systems, hygienic equipment, distribution of the costs between several countries, etc.

The Office hesitates to call a meeting of the above Committee every time that delicate questions of this kind have to be enquired into, because the Committee may not contain specialists in the particular branch of insurance for which help might be required. It might therefore be desirable to consider whether the Committee should not be remodelled or increased in size and take perhaps the form of a Correspondence Committee.

(2) *Committee of experts on native labour.* The following persons were appointed to this Committee by the Governing Body in 1927 and should be added to the list of members of the Committee published in last year's Report:

Mr. H. R. Joynt, of the Federal Secretariat of the Malay States,

Mr. Nobubumi Ito, Director of the Japanese League of Nations Office at Paris.

Mr. Joseph P. Chamberlain, Professor of International Law in Columbia University, New York.

The Committee met for the first time in July 1927 to consider a draft report on forced labour submitted by the Office. The results of this meeting are considered later.

(3) *Committee on Article 408.* This Committee was set up to examine the annual reports forwarded by Governments in accordance with the provisions of Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, and its membership was given in last year's Report. It met this year from 5 to 8 March, and drew up a report which will be submitted to the Governing Body at its 39th. Session and will then be presented to the Conference.

Organisation of the International Labour Office.

30. — The internal organisation of the Office has not undergone any noteworthy changes during 1927. The distribution of work among the Divisions has not been modified, nor has any Service been abolished, created or extended. The Director has simply endeavoured to utilise the sums placed at his disposal by a certain number of vacancies in order to create several posts of a lower grade, so as to readjust the disproportionate number of members of section as compared with that of clerical assistants which has been noted in various services.

31. *National Correspondents.* — The value and importance of the assistance afforded by the National Correspondents of the Office is continually being realised. These representatives of the Office, being on the spot, are an indispensable adjunct to the central organisation, and the utility of their work in every direction very appreciably increased last year as compared with previous years.

Through the Correspondents the Office is kept constantly in touch with Government offices, trade unions, institutions and individuals in the countries where their offices are established. Apart from their periodical reports, which complete the information of the Office on industrial life in the different countries, and which are of use in guiding the Office's work, they also furnish the necessary data for the preparation of replies to the requests for information which are received in increasing numbers in the Office. They also assist in acquainting the public with the work of the International Labour Organisation.

The Office's Correspondents have also been instrumental in increasing the sale of publications, a further improvement over the already encouraging figures for last year being shown by some of the Offices, e.g., Berlin, London and Rome. The monthly reviews published at Berlin, Rome and Madrid, as well as the Bulletin published at Tokyo, are still issued by the Office's Correspondents in these towns, and continue to meet with success.

As has been already stated, a Correspondent's Office will shortly be established in India, at Delhi. An examination for two Indian officials, one of whom will be the Director of the new Office, has been held, and the appointment of Director will shortly be made.

The question of a Correspondent's Office in Moscow remains unsettled. Ever since the Office was instructed by the Governing Body to carry out an enquiry into conditions of work in Russia, it has always been thought that the establishment of a Correspondent's Office in that country would

facilitate the permanent study on the spot of the development and evolution of Russian conditions of work. As the Office's technical relations with Russia, with the Labour Commissariat, and with Russian organisations in general, already rest on a firm foundation and are constantly growing, it would be of the greatest value to have a Correspondent's Office in Moscow as soon as circumstances permit.

It is also thought that, should the political situation in China become clearer, consideration should be given to the desirability of establishing a Correspondent's Office in that country, to study conditions of work and the effect on European industrial countries of the inferiority of these conditions.

The creation of Correspondents' Offices in Canada and South Africa is also to be desired. And it appears equally urgent to have Correspondents in the Scandinavian and Baltic countries, where living conditions are somewhat special, and great importance is attached to social reform and labour legislation.

It is also thought essential that something further should be done in the case of South America. One of the officials of the Office has already been delegated to Rio de Janeiro, and at Buenos Aires some of the work of a regular Correspondent has been entrusted to the delegate of the Refugees Service. But these preliminary measures cannot be considered as adequate. The League of Nations has recognised the value of closer contact with the South American countries and has increased the number of its Correspondents in them. The Office should follow this example, and still further develop its relations with these important countries of unlimited future possibilities. The information in the Office on changes in conditions of work in South America is not always adequate, as was noted, for example, during the preparation of the Office's "Collection of labour laws in South American countries", when an unsuspected number of facts came to light which are of interest quite as much for Europe as for the South American States themselves, who are occasionally ignorant of what is transpiring in other countries of the same continent.

Clearly, the future development of the Office's programme depends principally upon financial possibilities. The Governing Body has already, as a preliminary step, voted an extra sum of 5,000 francs under the heading of "outside collaboration", in order to develop the system of Correspondents' Offices. But this sum is insignificant in relation to the Office's requirements, and hardly be expected to yield appreciable results. Any money put at the Office's disposal, however, can be put to much greater use, if the Office receives some assistance from the States themselves and the example of Rumania, as it is hoped it will be, is followed by other countries.

The Rumanian Parliament has just voted an addition of 150,000 *lei* to the Budget of the Ministry of Labour, Co-operation and Social Insurance, as a contribution to the cost of a Correspondent's Office at Bukarest, which it will thus be possible to establish this year. The Office takes this opportunity of expressing its gratitude to the Rumanian Government and Parliament for the help it has thus given.

32. Staff. — The numbers of the staff have increased to a fairly considerable extent in the course of the past year. The budget for 1926 provided for 362 posts, whereas in 1927 there were 375 posts. The increase in the German contribution after Germany's entry into the League of Nations supplied the main source from which the Governing Body was able to provide the necessary credits.

In previous Reports to the Conference attention has been drawn to the manner in which the staff of the Office is recruited. The essential principle, laid down in the Peace Treaty, is that officials should be chosen, primarily, with the object of obtaining the greatest possible efficiency and, secondarily, with a view to granting representation on the staff to the various nationalities. A system of international competitive examinations has been instituted for carrying out these two rules. Endeavours have been made to recruit competent officials in each technical branch, or at any rate persons who as they grow older will be likely to acquire competence. It is, however, hardly necessary to remind the Conference, in view of the complaints expressed at almost every Session, that it is still difficult to meet the largely legitimate claims of the various nationalities. By degrees, as the French and English officials who had to be recruited in the early days, because of the absolute necessity of obtaining persons with a sound knowledge of the two official languages, tend to retire, endeavours are made to recruit in their place officials belonging to nationalities either not represented or insufficiently represented on the staff. The number of nationalities represented has thus increased from 32 in 1925 to 33 in 1926 and 35 in 1927. It will only be possible, however, to grant a somewhat greater measure of satisfaction to all the States if the staff as a whole is increased by the creation of a certain number of new posts, which the Governing Body is asked to authorise, as the needs of the Office require.

As has been pointed out in previous Reports, an attempt has always been made to establish precise and definite rules for all questions of appointment, grading and promotion of the staff, identical so far as possible with those established at the Secretariat and in the technical organisations of the League. It is quite certain that any considerable differences in the internal

organisation of kindred organisations situated within a single city, particularly as regards the material situation of the staff and the rules and regulations to which they are subjected, are bound to have serious and regrettable results. During the past year the Office has again felt obliged to draw the attention of the Governing Body and the Supervisory Commission to a certain number of anomalies from which the Office has suffered. In the first place, on grounds of economy it had been thought advisable in a certain number of services to create posts for assistant members of section in which members of section might begin their career. Again, in many cases, instead of suggesting the creation of posts for members of section A the Office has simply asked for the appointment of members B. This moderation in the creation of posts has, however, in many cases had unfortunate effects on recruiting. In 1927, for example, an attempt to recruit an assistant member of section in the Argentine and another attempt to obtain in Great Britain a member of section B with special qualifications on safety questions both met with failure. Moreover, the attribution to a particular nationality of low grade posts does not provide representation on the staff of the Office sufficient to satisfy public opinion in the country concerned. Not only indeed does it fail to satisfy public opinion, but in many cases officials engaged by the Office as assistant members of section are confronted within a few months of their arrival at Geneva by openings in a higher grade and for better paid posts at the Secretariat of the League. It is difficult for the Director to refuse to allow them to compete for such vacancies, and so the Office may be deprived of the fruit of the efforts which it has made to recruit a satisfactory official—efforts which in the case of a distant country are frequently considerable. The Office might perhaps be well advised to follow the example of the Secretariat in not creating posts of too low a grade where it is necessary to secure both a competent official and a representative of a particular nationality: and this has been urged upon the Governing Body.

There is a further anomaly which has been a source of embarrassment to the Office. As regards internal organisation an endeavour has been made to maintain a definite administrative framework. Each year the Governing Body when it draws up the budget decides the composition of each section of the Office. Each section includes a certain number of members of section in classes A and B. According to the general idea underlying the Office's organisation members of section B are regarded as ordinary or unspecialised drafting clerks: members of section A, on the other hand, are supposed to be either specialists and scientific experts or responsible officials whose duty it is to organise and direct the work of a number of members B or

assistant members of section. The individual member B can only achieve promotion to Class A by competing for a vacancy in class A, whenever one occurs. It has frequently been pointed out on the Governing Body that under this system a certain number of members B may be condemned to remain in that category, since the vacancies in class A will be of an insufficient number and the general organisation of the Office is based on the idea of a definite proportion between A and B posts.

On the other hand, the practice at the Secretariat, which has been more or less definitely approved by the Supervisory Commission, is that the two classes of member of section are regarded as constituting a single grade. Members of section B who reach the top of their salary scale automatically become members A if their work has given satisfaction. They fail to obtain such promotion only where their work has been of poor quality. Thus practically every member of section B at the Secretariat is sure of becoming a member of section A, the passage from one class to another being regarded not as a promotion but as the normal course of a member of section's career.

The disastrous administrative and moral effects from the point of view of the organisation of the Office of such a divergence of principle are immediately evident. The Office may find it more difficult to recruit its staff, while the staff already in its service may regard such difference of treatment as an injustice and become demoralised in consequence.

The Director still considers that the practice of the Office is the better of the two, and that it is advisable to maintain a definite cadre and to retain the means of distinguishing between the qualities and capacities of the various officials, especially in view of the existing practice of granting automatic annual increments which are only withheld in serious and exceptional cases. In his view it is the Office's practice which should become the general one. If, however, the Office's example is not to be followed, it will be extremely difficult to sacrifice the general interests of the Organisation to such anomalies, and the Director will be obliged to ask for a readjustment of the position of relative inferiority in which the Office is placed.

As a matter of fact, the Governing Body has realised the difficult position in which the Director is placed and has approved year by year a certain number of exceptional and personal promotions for meritorious officials, i.e. in many cases persons who specialise in a specific branch of research work, and who having reached the top of their salary scale would, without promotion, be entitled to no further annual increments. It is also to be noted that the Secretariat of the League of Nations has set up side by side with the category of members of section properly so-called a

category, for example, of translators whose salary may rise to a maximum lower than that fixed for members of section A.

All that the Director and the Governing Body ask is that their practice should be governed by rules common to both institutions clearly laid down by the Supervisory Commission. In asking for the establishment of such rules, however, the Director feels bound to insist that he should be given sufficient latitude to ensure the efficiency of the staff as a whole. He realises as well as anyone the necessity of making proper provision in the administrative structure of the Office for the guarantees of security which the staff are entitled to demand. No one has more felt the need for drawing up rules for the staff in such a manner as to ensure stability and exclude the possibility of arbitrary treatment. He considers that a system of annual increments by which length of service is progressively rewarded is entirely justified, but he cannot consent, in an Office like that of which he is the head, to renounce all power to grant special promotion as a reward for special services and special merit.

This does not in any way imply that he has modified his opinion of the work and activities of the staff. He believes that the scientific and administrative competence of the staff continue to increase year by year. After eight years of office work and in spite of the fixed and routine habits which such work necessarily involves, he does not believe that there has been any falling off in enthusiasm and loyalty. He thinks, however, that, now that in the course of the last few years all the essential guarantees of security have been established, definite rules are required in order to maintain the zeal and spirit of competition of the staff for the future.

A further question which has caused some anxiety to the staff, and which will no doubt be settled in the course of the present year, is the method of fixing salaries. It is scarcely necessary to recall the manner in which this question has arisen. The Assembly has noted that the system hitherto adopted for establishing an index of the cost of living as a basis for the calculation of the variable portion of the salaries has proved unsatisfactory. It has therefore instructed the Supervisory Commission to consider the possibility of improving the system. The Commission will report to the Assembly next September. It is difficult to anticipate what the Commission's conclusions will be. Clearly, it will never be possible on the basis of the information at present available to establish an entirely satisfactory index showing the variations in the cost of living for an international staff with very varied habits and ways of life. This difficulty is, however, one which also confronts national systems of variable salary rates, which continue to work in spite of it. The real question is

whether a system of fixed salaries or one of variable rates is preferable, and, if salaries be fixed, what the rate should be. This is the crux of the question from the point of view of the staff. If salaries are stabilised at the present rate, then the reduction which took place in 1923 and which the Supervisory Commission has since recognised to have been excessive is rendered permanent. On the other hand, how is a fair rate to be discovered when the machinery for estimating the cost of living gives inaccurate results? A return to nominal salary rates would meet with the approval of the staff, but how far is such a solution acceptable on financial and political grounds?

33. — The *Administrative Tribunal* to which reference was made in last year's Report was set up early in 1928. Satisfaction has thus been given to the legitimate demands of the staff of the League and of the Office. Any disputes which may arise in future between the Secretariat of the League and the Office, on the one hand, and the staff of these two institutions on the other in connection with the execution of their contracts will be dealt with by the Administrative Tribunal according to a definite procedure.

The Council of the League has now appointed the following persons as judges of the Tribunal:

Mr. Raffaele Montagna, Judge of the Council of State (Italy).

Mr. Devèze, Barrister, Member of the Chamber of Deputies, former Minister (Belgium).

Mr. Froelich, Geheimer Justizrat, Judge in the Greco-German Mixed Arbitral Tribunal (Germany).

The following have been appointed as substitute judges:

Mr. de Tomcsanyi, Barrister, Professor of Administrative and Public Law in the University of Budapest, former Chief of Section in the Ministry of Finance (Hungary).

Mr. Eide, Judge in the Court of First Instance at Copenhagen; former prosecuting counsel to the Danish Army (Denmark).

Mr. van Ryckevorsel, Member of the Second Chamber of the States-General, President of the Board of Appeal on industrial accident insurance matters (Netherlands).

The Tribunal held its first meeting at Geneva on 1 and 2 February 1928 to elect its officers and draw up its standing orders. Under the standing orders a member of the staff of the Office has been appointed Assistant Registrar to the Tribunal.

Now that the Administrative Tribunal has been definitely set up, the Director is entitled to recall that he has never ceased

to press energetically for the creation of such a body, which will be of great value and will complete the guarantees secured to the staff by the staff regulations.

34. — *New Building.* — A certain number of new gifts were received during the past year. The Portuguese Government has confirmed its intention of presenting porcelain panels, and the artist who is to execute them has come to take the measure of the spaces to be filled. The trade unions of French Switzerland have presented an electric clock for the Governing Body room. Dame Katharine Furse has presented four sketches by her late husband, Mr. Charles Furse, the eminent English artist. Mrs. Kate Crane-Gartz has presented \$100 for the purchase of seats for the garden. And the Rumanian Government has stated its intention of presenting three mural panels. The Director takes this opportunity of expressing the thanks of the Office to all the Governments, organisations and individuals who have thus given tangible proof of their friendship and sympathy.

35. *International Management Institute.* — It was stated in last year's Report that the International Management Institute had been set up as an independent body working side by side with the Office and in collaboration with it, and receiving assistance from its resources. During 1927 the Institute took an active part in the work of the International Economic Conference and in that of the International Congress on Scientific Management and the Congress of the International Institute of Agriculture at Rome. It has set up some of its departments, such as the library, the information service, and the technical service which has to reply to requests for information received. It has obtained the assistance of specialists in industrial psycho-technology and staff capable of dealing with the application of scientific management to agriculture and railways. A summary of the information collected is published in a monthly bulletin of which there are three editions, English, French and German.

On 2 February 1928 a small gathering took place under the chairmanship of Mr. Arthur Fontaine, Chairman of the Governing Body of the Office, to celebrate the anniversary of the creation of the Institute.

Financial organisation.

36. — There are no important changes to report in the financial organisation of the Office in 1927. It will be sufficient to indicate the present total and general distribution of the 1928 Budget and the main lines of the estimates for 1929.

37. *Budget for 1928.* — As stated in last year's Report, the Budget estimates for

1928 as fixed by the Governing Body amounted to 7,995,685 francs for expenditure and 115,000 francs for receipts other than contributions from the Governments. The total contribution of the Governments thus amounts to 7,880,685 francs.

The Supervisory Commission approved the general lines of the estimates and merely made some changes of detail. The Office had to ask the Assembly for certain increases in the credits which had proved to be necessary during the six months intervening between the voting of the Budget by the Governing Body and its adoption by the Assembly. The increases were necessary in the first place to bring the salaries of the staff of the Rome and Paris Correspondents' Offices into harmony with the cost of living and the new scales of civil service salaries in the countries in question, and in the second place to meet the extra postal expenditure resulting from the growth in the number of letters sent and certain recent increases in postal rates. The Assembly granted these further credits, and the Budget was finally fixed at 8,098,470 francs, distributed as follows :

Section I (ordinary expenditure).

Chapter I. — Sessions of the Conference and the Governing Body	347,000
Chapter II. — General services of the International Labour Office	7,342,295
Chapter IIa. — (extraordinary and temporary expenditure). Work on behalf of refugees	339,175
Chapter III. — Profit and loss on exchange	—

Section II (capital expenditure).

Chapter IV. — Buildings, permanent equipment, etc.	70,000
Total	8,098,470
Deduct : Estimated receipts from sale of publications	140,000
Net total	<u>7,958,470</u>

The increase of 260,980 francs as compared with the 1927 Budget consists mainly of the regular annual increments (about 120,000 francs), a few new posts (30,200 francs), and the budget of the Delhi office which is to be set up this year (50,000 francs).

38. *Budget for 1929.* — As an endeavour is being made this year to publish the present Report several weeks before the Conference opens, it is not possible to submit the Budget estimates approved by the Governing Body. The main outlines of the estimates which will be submitted have only just been drawn up. If it is desired to benefit by the experience of the first months during which the 1928 Budget is administered, it is necessary to wait until just before the Governing Body's April Session, when the Budget is considered.

It is already possible to say, however, that the Budget will necessarily represent a

certain increase over that of 1928. Most of these increases will, as usual, be those which do not depend on the Director's decision. These will include fresh credits for staff involved by the application of the Staff Regulations, annual increments, provident fund, payment of fares of officials on leave, etc. There will also be the credits required by decisions taken by the Governing Body or the Conference, e.g. for the two Sessions of the Conference in 1929. Increased credits will, moreover, be necessitated by the fact that further committees have been set up and that some of them now meet more frequently than in the past.

In addition to these unavoidable increases in the estimates, there are others which would be justified by the normal development of the Office. In proportion as Governments, administrative departments and employers' and workers' organisations have increasing recourse to the services of the Office, the work of the translation and proof-correction services, the typing pool, and the postal and despatch services also tends to increase. Some of these services are showing clear signs of overstrain. Besides, the Office has been obliged to deal with new questions, and although every effort is made to move the available staff from one department to another as required, it has been found necessary to make certain requests for fresh staff because there are so many questions on which continuous work has to be done. If the requests for new staff are granted, the Director will have fresh opportunities of meeting the legitimate desires of various nationalities.

39. — Financial experts, when discussing questions of public finance, frequently emphasise the distinction between budgetary and purely financial problems, a distinction which is of great importance but is too often forgotten. The International Labour Office has to meet certain purely financial problems. It is true that they are less serious now that a working capital fund has been established and that the contributions of the States Members of the League of Nations are paid more regularly. In 1923 the percentage of the annual contributions actually received was only 62. Last year it was 88. The Supervisory Commission, however, noted that in 1926 the Office expended 98 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. of its Budget, whereas the Secretariat only expended 83 per cent. It was necessary not merely to have recourse to the working capital fund specially reserved for the Office, but also to borrow from the working capital fund of the Secretariat. The Governing Body and the Director were easily able to explain that all the items in the Budget of the Office had been kept as low as possible, that there was a very small margin for unforeseen expenditure, and that if the Office was to carry out all the work expected of it, it was obliged to

expend the extremely restricted credits which the Governing Body allowed it.

It might also have been noted that in the Budget of the League of Nations large sums sometimes amounting to as much as 500,000 francs were allowed for unforeseen political events, necessity of sudden action by the Council, or even urgent enquiries, and that there were large items for unforeseen expenditure in the various chapters relating to the technical organisations.

As the Chairman of the Governing Body stated in a letter to the Chairman of the Supervisory Commission, the strict methods followed by the Governing Body in drawing up the Budget would appear to be the right ones. There may be some difficulties from the purely financial point of view, but it is for the Supervisory Commission or the Assembly of the League of Nations to provide, side by side with the carefully calculated estimates, such sums as may be necessary to meet possible deficiencies in the contributions, and to ensure that the Office's work can be continued in a normal way.

40. — One observation should be added here before concluding this review of the material organisation of the Office, its building and the position of the staff. There has been some talk in recent times of moving the headquarters of the League of Nations. Under the Peace Treaty the Office is established at the headquarters of the League, and it would therefore be obliged to move if the rumours which are current were based on fact. It is not necessary to emphasise the difficulties which this would involve from the practical point of view, since hardly two years have elapsed since the Office's new building was completed on the site provided by the Swiss Confederation. There would also be serious disadvantages from a more general point of view.

The Director has sometimes regretted that the Office was not established in a great industrial centre where the staff could have obtained experience of labour and industrial matters. Possibly, however, there would have been compensating disadvantages; Geneva is a much more suitable place for calm and steady work. Some of the staff may have feared that they would have felt somewhat isolated in the city of Geneva, which receives its guests with the greatest courtesy, but sometimes keeps them somewhat at a distance, and which, though famous for its hospitality, seems sometimes to adopt a rather reserved attitude towards strangers.

Whatever fears may have been entertained have long been removed by the warm welcome which the Office has received. Many of the inhabitants of the great and ancient city of Geneva, which has played so important a part in international life in the past, have taken pains to remove the first hasty impressions which may have been formed.

They have done their best to promote *rapprochement*, and have been assisted by the various international associations which take an interest in the Office's work, and by the Press, which, with a few rare exceptions, has given the Office its hearty support. Joint meetings have been arranged, relations have been established and friendships are growing up. Thanks to the personal relations thus established, the Office can congratulate itself on living on terms of friendship and sympathy with the nation which has given it its hospitality, and on being able to overcome easily any small difficulties which may arise. It has every reason to desire that the headquarters of the League of Nations may not be moved.

Relations with the League of Nations.

41. — The collaboration of the Office with the various sections and technical organisations of the League of Nations becomes more and more frequent, varied and complex. From day to day a variety of activities of varying degrees of importance are carried out in common. As in previous years, the development of these activities will be briefly reviewed.

42. *International Economic Conference.* — Attention was drawn in last year's Report to the importance of this Conference to the International Labour Organisation, because of the impossibility of separating economic and labour questions, and the necessity of reconstructing the international economic system on the basis of social justice. The work of the Preparatory Committee was outlined, and reference was made to the collaboration of several of the members of the Governing Body in this work, and to the reports, memoranda and notes which had been supplied by officials of the Office.

The Conference met from 4 May to 23 May. It was attended by 194 members and 157 experts from 50 countries, four of which are not members of the League of Nations—Egypt, the United States of America, the U. S. S. R. and Turkey. It may therefore be said to have been universal in a very wide sense of the word. Among these 50 delegations, however, there were only 11 which included a representative of the interests of labour.

This is not the place to describe the work which the Conference accomplished. It may simply be noted that the documentary information supplied by the Office was appreciated and welcomed, that in the committees and plenary sessions eminent members of the Governing Body and the Labour Conference frequently took a very important part, and that the Chairman of the Governing Body pointed out in the clearest manner the analogies and the connection between the objects of the International Labour Organisation and those of

the International Economic Conference—social justice and economic peace.

The Conference, of course, simply laid down principles, established methods, and indicated plans, and it could not have done otherwise. But it bequeathed a number of duties to the Office for following up the Conference's work.

For the work to be done on industrial statistics, for example, the Office has been requested to collect statistical information on wages, hours of labour and employment. In the permanent enquiry into industrial agreements, again, the Office is to study conditions of labour. As regards the "social aspects" of scientific management, the Office could hardly but be associated with the enquiries on this subject. Moreover, the Office will be consulted in the enquiry into the means of encouraging international commerce in so far as "the just interests of producers and workers" are concerned, and in the enquiry into agricultural economics in so far as this subject is viewed in relation "to the condition of the workers."

A permanent advisory Committee was contemplated by the Conference to see that the principles laid down were realised. This advisory committee, according to the decision of the Conference itself, was to be constituted and balanced according to the same rules as the preparatory committee—in other words, the International Labour Office was to be to some extent associated with its constitution. Accordingly, in conformity with the decisions of the Assembly of the League of Nations in September 1927, the Office has been invited to propose the names of three workers' members for this committee. This proposal was laid before the Governing Body of the Office at Berlin on 12 October. After some discussion, the Director was instructed to inform the Secretary-General that the workers' group in the Governing Body submitted the names of Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Müller and Mr. Oudegeest, and that the Governing Body had taken note of these nominations. These names were ratified by the Council of the League in December, and the members nominated by the workers' group on the Governing Body were appointed members of the advisory committee. This is the actual position.

The Office is regularly carrying on the work within its competence which was undertaken at the time of the first Economic Conference, and for any technical collaboration required will be at the disposal of the Consultative Committee and more particularly of the President and Vice-Presidents of the committee, who are authorised to take all necessary preparatory steps for the meeting of the committee with the assistance of the Secretariat and in touch with the other permanent technical bodies. This collaboration is all the more likely to be effective as one of the Vice-Presidents—i.e. the Vice-President of the

agricultural section—is Sir Atul Chatterjee, who is a member of the Governing Body.

As a matter of fact, as the Director has had occasion to explain in his Reports to the Governing Body, the Office does not regard the above methods of organisation as entirely satisfactory. From the very first day when an Economic Conference was talked about, those who supported the idea at the League of Nations had spoken of associating the International Labour Office, particularly after the enquiry of the Office into production, with all the inside work of the Economic Conference. It appeared that, while it would not be placed exactly on the same footing as the Economic Section of the Secretariat, the Office would have a similar place in the preparatory or following up work of the Conference. Although the discussion in the preparatory committee might have left the impression that this intention was being largely respected, it has not been entirely carried out in the actual organisation. Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Müller and Mr. Oudegeest are merely three workers, members appointed by the workers' group on the Governing Body; they cannot speak on behalf of the Governing Body. During the discussions at the Assembly of the League of Nations, the Director asked that, in addition to three workers' members, three employers' members should be appointed on the same conditions. In this way a certain balance would have been obtained, and a small group would have had authority to represent the principles and ideas of the International Labour Organisation. But this proposal was not approved. The possibility of having the International Labour Organisation represented in the Committee by the three officers of the Governing Body might also have been considered, though the Governing Body itself at its October Session did not definitely approve this idea. The position at the time of writing is that a further discussion is to take place on this question in due course.

At the last Session of the International Labour Conference, which immediately followed the Economic Conference, some of the employers' delegates appeared to attach a great deal of importance to the establishment of regular liaison between the new economic organisation and the International Labour Organisation. The Governing Body in October did not appear to attach the same importance to these considerations. It is thought, however, that organic relations among the League of Nations institutions as a whole would be desirable. It is possible that a favourable solution may be found by friendly negotiations with the Secretariat.

43. *Intellectual work.* — The Office's relations with the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation have continued in a normal way. A representative of the Office took part in the work of the Com-

mittee at its plenary meeting in July last. He also took part in the work of the Sub-Committee on intellectual rights, the Sub-Committee of experts on the instruction of youth in the aims and existence of the League of Nations, and the Committee of experts appointed to draw up a draft international Convention on scientific property. The Office has also collaborated with the International Committee in the first negotiations for setting up an Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers to assist the Office. In pursuance of the wishes of the Governing Body the Office asked the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to appoint two of its members to form, with three members of the Governing Body, the first nucleus of the new Committee. This invitation was accepted by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and, with the approval of the Council of the League, Mr. Destrée and Mr. Einstein were appointed. Mr. Destrée and Mr. Einstein were present at the first meeting of the new Committee at Brussels in December 1927.

At its last meeting the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation asked the Office to go into the problems of unemployment among intellectual workers, the finding of employment for artistes and the use of the theatre as providing facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time. The Committee took note of a report prepared by the Office on the position of salaried inventors, and asked the Office to continue its investigations into this problem and to bring it before its Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers when this Committee was definitely constituted.

The Office's relations have also developed in a normal and satisfactory way with the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, with which the Office continues to exchange publications and information. The Institute asked the Office to take part in the work of a Mixed Committee appointed to lay down the bases of statistics on intellectual workers. This Committee was composed of three members appointed by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation and three members appointed by the International Institute of Statistics. A first preparatory meeting was held on 3 November 1926, and was followed by two meetings of the Committee in 1927, on 28 February and 10 June. The Office was glad to have a representative on this Committee, because its proposals on statistics of intellectual workers contain items on technical education, continuation schools, popular libraries, the theatre, the cinematograph, statistics of the liberal professions, etc., all of which items are of interest to the Office. In December 1927 the Committee's proposals were laid before the Cairo Congress of the International Institute of Statistics and were approved by it.

The Office was also represented on the international Committee on education

through the cinema which was created after the First International Cinema Congress convened by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. Further, the Italian Government has offered to create at Rome an International Educational Cinematographic Institute. This offer was accepted in principle by the Assembly of the League on 7 September 1927, and the Council of the League considered the means of constituting this institute at its meetings on 28 September 1927 and 7 March 1928. The Council recognised the importance to the International Labour Office of education on social questions through the cinema, and, accordingly, when it had been furnished by the Italian Government with a draft copy of the constitution and rules of the new institute and before it concluded any agreements with this Government for ensuring the institute's normal organisation and working, the Council asked the Secretary-General to communicate the draft constitution and rules for their observations to the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Child Welfare Committee and the International Labour Office. At the time of writing the draft is being carefully considered by the Office.

44. *Health.* — The Office's Industrial Hygiene Service has continued to follow closely the work of the Health Section of the Secretariat of the League, and has lost no opportunity of collaborating unreservedly with it. The chief of the Industrial Hygiene Service, for example, was asked to assist in a series of lectures on international health which were organised in Paris by Professor Bernard at the request of the Health Committee. He gave three lectures, one on recent progress in the ventilation of workshops, one on lighting and one on the purification of industrial gases and cases of poisoning by such gases which have occurred in recent years.

At the final meeting held in Geneva as usual of the health officers who had taken part in last year's "interchange", the Industrial Hygiene Service and the Social Insurance Service of the Office gave an account of their work.

The Industrial Hygiene Service is continuing to collaborate with the Health Section of the Secretariat in investigating the disinfection of hides and skins. When further light has been thrown on this exceedingly difficult problem it will be necessary to consider convening a meeting of the Mixed Committee.

Some of the experts of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene have contributed to that part of the annual report on health submitted to the Assembly which deals with the progress made in industrial hygiene.

It will thus be seen that the Office is collaborating even more closely than

hitherto with the Health Section of the League, and it may be hoped that this will lead to important practical results.

As regards the Mixed Committee on sickness and invalidity insurance and health which was set up by agreement between the Governing Body of the International Labour Office and the Health Committee of the League to study the relations which should be established for the prevention of disease between public health departments and the medical departments of insurance institutions, it has to be recorded that this Committee did not hold its second session as proposed in October-November 1927.

Nor have the five special sub-committees set up by the Mixed Committee in April 1927 to study questions of popular health education, protection of motherhood, prevention of tuberculosis, prevention of venereal disease and protection of children of school age so far completed their enquiries, and none of them are yet in a position to submit a report.

As a matter of fact, little progress has yet been made. Only one of the sub-committees, that on the prevention of tuberculosis, appears to have definitely established a scheme of work. Mixed groups of investigators have been set up in Germany, Belgium and Austria to enquire into the preventive work done by insurance institutions, public health departments and private associations. It is hoped that the first reports will be ready about next June and that the sub-committee will be able to meet about the middle of 1928. Every effort will be made, in agreement with the Health Section of the League of Nations, to speed up the work of the other sub-committees. The second session of the full Committee will probably take place towards the end of the year.

The Office will continue to cooperate in the work of the Mixed Committee on the lines laid down by the resolution adopted in February 1927 by the Health Committee of the League and in April 1927 by the Governing Body of the Office. The resolution provides that the sub-committees and the investigations undertaken are to be of a mixed and joint character and that the work is to deal solely with the principles of effective co-ordination between the work of public health departments and the medical departments of sickness insurance institutions in the prevention of disease.

45. *Protection of children and young persons.* — The Migration Service of the Office has successfully continued, as for some years past, to collaborate with the Commission of the League of Nations which deals with the above subject, and with its two Committees, the Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children and the Child Welfare Committee.

The Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children has been principally occupied this year in dealing with the report submitted by its Committee of experts after a careful enquiry into the international traffic in women. It considered the conditions of employment of women in foreign countries, and more particularly the question of the contracts accepted by performers in music halls and similar establishments, who appear to be specially exposed to the danger of the white slave trade. A resolution was adopted, and approved by the Council of the League of Nations, asking that the Secretariat, in collaboration with the International Labour Office, should study the measures taken in various countries for the protection of the material and moral interests of performers in music-halls and similar establishments who are touring abroad under a contract. The study is now in progress, and the Office has submitted a preliminary report.

The Committee also adopted a resolution asking Governments to supervise carefully the conditions under which young girls of under 18 years of age are authorised to accept contracts abroad, and more particularly to require where necessary the strict enforcement of emigration laws and regulations.

The Child Welfare Committee has also dealt, in collaboration with the competent services, with questions relating to the families of emigrants and foreign workers. A legal sub-committee is at present carrying out preparatory work for the conclusion of two international Conventions, the first on the relief of minors and their repatriation and the second on the execution of judgments relating to maintenance payable on behalf of children by persons responsible for their support and living abroad. Both these sets of proposals involve important problems of international and social law.

46. *Communications and transit.* — The Transit Section of the League and the Office have continued to co-operate on all questions affecting the two organisations.

It was pointed out in last year's Report that the Private Law Committee set up by the Committee on Inland Navigation of the Transit Organisation considered that it could not go into the unification of the rules of law affecting inland navigation without taking account of the provisions governing the working conditions of the workers employed in this form of navigation, and it was explained that the Office had been requested, for the information of the Committee, to undertake an enquiry into working conditions of inland watermen in the principal European countries.

For the purpose of this enquiry the Office drew up a comprehensive questionnaire on the basis of the Private Law Committee's suggestions, and asked the Government Departments concerned and its own Corres-

pondents to help it to collect as full information as possible. The result is that the Office is now in possession of replies for 19 countries. On this information a series of national studies have been prepared which can be submitted to the next meeting of the Private Law Committee: and it is proposed to complete this extensive material later and publish it.

It is to be noted that there is a desire in different countries to improve the working conditions of their inland watermen, and to establish identical conditions to some extent on the international waterways on their boundaries.

It was indicated in last year's Report that an agreement had been arrived at ensuring the representation of seamen on a number of technical bodies under the Transit Organisation which have to do the preparatory work for framing or revising international rules concerning safety at sea. Good results have been produced by this consultation: it has been a means of giving some satisfaction to the increasing number of requests and proposals which have been addressed to the Office by seamen's organisations, and it has been particularly appreciated by the members of the technical committees as giving them an opportunity of hearing the seamen's practical views.

The Technical Committee on the Buoyage and Lighting of Coasts, on which seamen and deck officers were represented by experts and which had been collecting the views of various seafarers' organisations, has completed its work. Its recommendations for a Draft Convention have been submitted to the Governments concerned.

As further indicated in last year's Report, various seamen's organisations had forwarded to the Office suggestions and in some cases detailed proposals for amending or completing the 1912 Convention on wireless telegraphy at sea and the 1914 Convention on safety of life at sea. These suggestions were communicated to the Transit Organisation and examined by its competent bodies, and representatives of the seamen's organisations concerned were given an opportunity of explaining their views on certain technical committees. In the Transit Organisation itself, however, the seamen have not been able to participate in the same way on these particular questions, as the steps for revising the 1912 and 1914 Conventions were taken by the United States and British Governments.

An international wireless telegraphy Conference was convened at Washington for revising the 1912 Convention. The United States Government took measures to ensure the representation of the operators through the international federation of wireless-telegraphy operators, which had previously, at the request of the Office, been invited to take part in the discussions of a committee of experts of the Transit Organisation.

As regards the 1914 Convention on safety of life at sea, the British Government has transmitted to the other Governments concerned the proposals which, in its opinion, might serve as a basis for revising the Convention and which cover the following points: sub-division of ships, life saving appliances, wireless telegraphy, fire extinguishing appliances, ice patrol, and collision regulations.

If, as a result of this consultation it appears that there is agreement in favour of amending the Convention, a Conference is to be summoned for next autumn. Several seamen's organisations have requested the Office to take action to obtain separate representation for them at this Conference. These requests were communicated to the British Government, which, however, considers that seamen could only take part in the Conference as members of their national delegations.

47. *Unemployment.* — The Mixed Committee on Economic Crises held its Fourth Session on 2 May 1927. It considered the systematic organisation of public works as a means of the stabilisation of employment. An account of the results of the Committee's work is given elsewhere. Mr. Bellerby, Mr. Max Lazard, Mr. Mahain, Mr. Sjöstrand, Mr. Wagemann and Mr. Max Weber sat on the Mixed Committee together with the members appointed by the Economic Committee and by the Financial Committee of the League and gave the Office valuable assistance on the scientific side.

48. *Mandates.* — Two sessions of the Permanent Mandates Commission were held in the course of the past year. At its Eleventh Session, held in June-July 1927, the Commission considered the annual reports on eight mandated territories, and at the Twelfth Session, held in the following October-November, those on the remaining six mandated territories. No new points of outstanding interest in connection with labour questions were raised at either session.

At the request of the Commission, the representative of the International Labour Office made, during the later session, a statement explaining the work which was being done by the Office on forced labour and gave details of the findings of the Committee of Experts on Native Labour. The Commission devotes special attention to this question, and in its reports on the work of these two Sessions asked for further information on the conditions of forced labour in the French Cameroons, New Guinea, Tanganyika and Western Samoa. The Commission also made suggestions regarding the medical examination of certain transferred workers employed in Nauru and South West Africa.

The Commission heard with much interest an oral statement made by the Governor

of Tanganyika regarding the system of indirect native administration which he is instituting in the territory and which aims at securing the social and political progress of the native tribes by preserving and developing their own institutions.

49. *Slavery.* — An account was given in last year's Report of the circumstances which led to the adoption of the Slavery Convention and of the manner in which the necessary investigations in connection with the question were divided between the League of Nations and the International Labour Office. The Assembly itself had recognised that the work undertaken by the Office on forced labour lay within the normal competence of the Organisation, and had, in order to emphasise and co-ordinate the division of work, drawn attention to the "importance of the work undertaken by the Office with a view to... preventing forced or compulsory labour from developing conditions analogous to slavery".

The 1927 Assembly noted that very little progress had been made in ratifying the Slavery Convention: of the 56 signatory countries only 14 had ratified. However, the delegates of Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and Norway gave reason to hope that these countries would find themselves in a position to ratify at an early date.

The Assembly also considered a number of annual reports, submitted in pursuance of a resolution adopted on 25 September 1926, in which a number of States Members described the measures taken by them to ensure progressive abolition of slavery and conditions analogous thereto.

During the discussions on these reports in the Sixth Committee of the Assembly Count Apponyi drew attention to the fact that no reference had been made to the question of forced labour in the reports submitted to the Committee by the States Members. In this connection, the Portuguese representative pointed out that a collection of enactments concerning native labour in the Portuguese colonies had been forwarded to the Secretariat. He emphasised the importance of the work in connection with the question of forced labour which was being done by the International Labour Office, and in particular the work of the Committee of Experts on Native Labour which the Office had appointed. He suggested that, in order to avoid duplication, it would be advisable that the Sixth Committee should await the result of the work undertaken by the International Labour Organisation before taking the matter up with Governments.

Information concerning slavery and other conditions of native and colonial labour which has come to the notice of the International Labour Office during the past year will be found, classified under countries, in the second Section of this Report.

50. *Disarmament.* — There have been three stages in the Office's co-operation with the League on the question of disarmament.

In 1921 the Governing Body complied with an invitation received from the Council of the League by appointing three members of the workers' group, Mr. Jouhaux, Mr. Oudegeest and Mr. Thorberg, to be members of the Temporary Mixed Commission which had been appointed to advise the Council on the reduction of armaments and the private manufacture of arms and munitions. The employers' group thought it preferable to leave it to the national employers' organisations to propose, and to the Council to appoint, the employers' representatives through the Governments concerned.

In 1924 the Temporary Mixed Commission was re-organised and became a Co-ordination Commission. It was required to co-ordinate the work of the various bodies which were associated with the work of the League for the reduction of armaments. On the invitation of the Council the workers' group in the Governing Body appointed Mr. Jouhaux and Mr. Oudegeest as members of the Committee, and the employers' group agreed that Mr. Hodac and M. Oersted should sit on the Committee in their personal capacities.

Lastly, in 1925 the institutions of the League which were dealing with the question of armament reduction were again reorganised, and a Joint Commission was appointed to advise the Preparatory Commission for the Disarmament Conference on the economic aspect of the disarmament question. In reply to the invitation of the Council the employers' and workers' groups on the Governing Body decided that those members who had represented them on the Co-ordination Commission should also be instructed to sit on the Joint Commission in the same capacities as on the old Commission.

In October 1926 the Joint Commission submitted a report on the various questions which had been left to it by Sub-Committees A and B of the Preparatory Commission. The Preparatory Commission is continuing the work of preparing for the meeting of an international conference on armament reduction which will be called at a later date.

51. *Calendar reform.* — To complete this account of the Office's relations with the League, some account should be given here of the League's work on the reform of the calendar. After several years of international enquiry and discussion this question entered upon a new phase during the last few months of 1926. The Committee of enquiry having found that after all the preliminary investigations which had taken place the question should now be considered as having really focussed public opinion, the question was referred to the different coun-

tries for examination by the Assembly of the League, which expressed the hope that national committees of enquiry would be appointed including representatives of the interests chiefly affected.

In order that the necessary information on this subject should be in the hands of different bodies which are represented in the International Labour Organisation and which will no doubt take part in the work of these national committees, an article on calendar reform was published in the *International Labour Review* in August 1927. The Office will follow with the greatest attention any views which may be expressed on this subject by industrial organisations, and at the request of the Secretariat of the League will keep the Advisory Committee on Communications and Transit informed of such views.

The following are the principal reasons for which the Organisation is interested in calendar reform :

(1) It would remove a cause of fortuitous variation in monthly statistics which are of immediate interest to the workers, e. g. statistics of production and output which form a basis of negotiations for collective agreements and certain measures for their execution.

(2) It would furnish a more reliable basis to heads of industries in making forecasts and so help them in arranging their programme of work. In this way a scientific arrangement of the calendar would constitute a valuable aid to scientific management in general.

(3) By providing that dates would fall on the same day of the week each month it would eliminate those fortuitous variations in the calendar which occasionally involve the loss of a holiday through the fact of its coincidence with a Sunday.

Accordingly, in the interests of employers and workers alike the Office must follow the development of this question attentively.

52. — The Office can once more congratulate itself on the good results which have been achieved in a number of directions by collaboration between the Secretariat and its technical organisations and the International Labour Office. Collaboration has continued smoothly and regularly and has been facilitated by the frank and cordial relations existing between the officials of all ranks belonging to the two organisations. Whenever a divergence of views has arisen it has been rapidly and often indeed spontaneously removed.

The Office may, however, make one reservation, or rather express a hope. Members of committees or conferences do not always appear to realise exactly the legal and general position of the International Labour Organisation. In resolutions dealing with

the distribution of work, or in votes of thanks for assistance given, or again in the constitution of certain committees, the International Labour Office is sometimes placed on the same footing as official bodies which are entirely independent of the League of Nations, or even with private organisations. The Office is an autonomous institution, but at the same time it is part of the institutions of the League of Nations. It cannot be regarded, or invited to collaborate on the same footing as, for example, the International Chamber of Commerce, to mention one of the most important and highly respected private institutions. This was the basis on which various demands were put forward as regards the constitution of the Consultative Economic Committee, on the ground of the special constitutional character of the International Labour Organisation.

To those who regard matters from a purely practical standpoint it may, perhaps, seem unnecessary to attempt to define the relative legal position of the various institutions which make up the League of Nations. But the Office considers that during the early years of their existence, when their individual character is being impressed on Governments, public departments and private associations, such a definition is of the first importance.

It is to the utmost degree desirable—and the officials in the technical organisations of the Secretariat are fortunately coming to realise this more and more—that relations with the various private organisations, industrial or other, should be governed by a regular procedure or, if the expression be preferred, spheres of influence should be defined. It has repeatedly been pointed out that the Office is the natural intermediary through which industrial organisations, and more particularly workers' organisations, can approach the various technical institutions of the Secretariat. The Office has in many cases, and frequently with success, impressed on various technical committees the desire of the trade unions to have delegates representing them on such committees, and it has generally been the Office which has been asked to forward on their notes and memoranda. Inversely, the Office has, so to speak, stood surety for the League before working-class opinion. If there were to be any departure from the traditions thus established, and if unco-ordinated action were to be taken, disorder and confusion would be introduced into the work of the international institutions.

Even if it should seem that it is paying undue attention to details or asking for excessively rigid organisation, the Office feels compelled to emphasise the necessity of carefully defining the constitutional position of each of the international institutions in all cases, and the rules which should

govern their relations. If this course is adopted, the various institutions can collaborate even more constantly, more completely and more successfully than before.

Conclusion.

53. — Perhaps after reading this first chapter of the Report a reader who has little experience of the Office's daily activities will feel somewhat oppressed by the multitude, and the apparent futility in some cases, of all these problems of organisation and adaptation of the international machinery set up in Geneva. There are so many legal discussions, so many discussions on points of procedure, so many conferences, councils, committees and sub-committees! And the reader may wonder whether the generous and spontaneous desires for collaboration between the nations may not be buried under a mass of legal abstractions and formalities, and whether the new international institutions are not likely to be carried away into wasting their resources on all these apparently subsidiary ramifications of their work.

It would be useless to deny this danger, which can only be averted by vigilant attention. The moral obligation on the meetings which are held at Geneva not to abandon without any solution the problems which call for international action may sometimes lead to abstract rather than practical results. In any case, the repercussions of international decisions are less immediately felt than the effects of national action.

But if the various sub-sections of this first chapter are read with an eye to the number of problems which have already been considered with a view to international solutions, and to the trouble which is often involved in simply collecting a number of men together and defining the joint work they are to undertake, the very complexity of the work which is being carried out will be a sure index of the intensity and variety of the new developments in international life.

Surely, for example, the sub-sections which have been devoted this year, as in previous years, to the United States of America and to Russia show that, in spite of certain apprehensions or theoretical attitudes, no State in the modern world can overlook the guarantees or benefits which can only be secured by international collaboration. And far from being the product of a bureaucratic imagination or some Utopian ideals, most of the new institutions, commissions and so forth, have surely had to be created in response to the claims of the various groups concerned or appeals of public opinion.

But what is clearly becoming more and more necessary, and what the Office feels an increasing need of after its eight years

of experience, is that there should be more order, more method and more clarity of ideas in the international institutions as a whole. As new questions have emerged, new institutions have been superimposed on, or set up side by side with, older institutions. The League of Nations institutions have had to face a hundred and one new problems which have arisen haphazard on all sides, and yet older institutions have all the time been drawing attention to the earlier Conventions by which they were created and which also emanated from the will of sovereign States. The new field of activity was so vast that it seemed that there was room in it for everyone, and no thought has been given to defining the character of each individual institution or

its special work, with the result that certain disputes as to competence have had to be settled. The League, like other institutions, has had its "founder's years", years of fervour and enthusiasm in which its friends thought they could attract to it all the influences and resources for peace in the world and collect together within it, without distinction, all the institutions which were working towards that object. But has not the time now come for a "town planning" scheme, for defining the respective positions of each institution and its future possibilities, and for laying out the general lines of the new city on definite principles and in the light of a critical examination of the work being done by the various existing institutions?

CHAPTER II.

International information.

54. — More unity and more method—such is the rule which the Office would be glad to see introduced into all the international institutions. It has endeavoured to keep this rule in mind for improving its international information work.

As a matter of fact, as the Office's different information and publication sections are continually developing, as a result of the services they are called upon to render, the increasing number of requests for information addressed to them, and the new tasks imposed on them by resolutions of the Governing Body or the Conference, it would be surprising if the Office were not alive to the need for greater co-ordination and a fuller grip over all this enormous undertaking. At the same time, the Office has not infrequently found itself torn between two somewhat opposed tendencies—the immediate aspirations of industrial organisations or States which expect positive and immediate decisions from the Conference, and that anxiety for scientific certainty which is being all the more keenly felt as the Office's officials and experts have become more practiced and more conscious of the value of their work. The present chapter will show how far it has been possible to reconcile this two-fold obligation. It will also show how the instruments of this information work have grown in number and how its methods are being improved year by year.

Centralisation of information.

55. *Library.* — The Library continues to grow, as the following figures for the publications received by it in 1926 and 1927 will show :—

	1926	1927
Books	5,330	7,477
Brochures	8,029	7,986
Total	13,359	15,463
Publications (Series) .	6,413	8,711
General total . . .	19,772	24,174

The number of publications received has thus increased in one year by 4,402, i. e. 22.2 %.

Some idea of the rapid increase in the work which has to be carried out by the Library staff can be formed by comparing the number of publications received in 1923 and in 1927. In 1923 the Library received 10,228 publications. In 1927 the figure was 24,174, i. e. in four years there has been an increase of 136 %.

As in previous years a considerable number of publications have been presented to the Office. For example, the widow of Professor Vilfredo Pareto presented the Office with 500 publications, chiefly comprising doctorat theses on social and legal questions. Again, a number of the works of classical authors on political economy (Turgot, Say, Bastiat, Le Play, Blanqui, etc.) have been presented by Mr. Félix Garcin, President of the South-East Federation of Agricultural Trade Unions in France. The Office wishes to express here its best thanks to all these donors.

The Office would be particularly glad if in the future Governments, organisations or institutions, authors or publishers would adopt the principle of treating the International Labour Office Library as a sort of international "legal deposit" library for all publications concerning labour, its history and legislation.

A year or two ago the Governing Body authorised the Office to accept a legacy of £ 60 left to it by Mrs. Annie Mather, at one time an official of the Office. It has been decided to use this sum for acquiring and binding the Catalogue of the French National Library which is at present being reprinted. Thirty-five volumes of this Catalogue, with Mrs. Annie Mather's name on the binding, are already available in the Office's reading-room.

There has been a steady increase in the number of outside persons who come to work in the Library. During 1927 permission was given to 222 persons for this purpose. These included 40 persons from the United States, 40 from Switzerland, 32 Germans, 18 persons from Great Britain, 16 Poles and 9 persons from France. There were also among the 222 persons referred to above 80 students, 19 of whom were using the Office Library for the preparation of their theses.

Close collaboration has, of course, been established between the Library of the International Management Institute and the Office Library. A duplicate of the Institute's card index is to be found in the Office's reading-room.

Further efforts have been made in 1927 to speed up binding. A very considerable number of periodicals have been bound, a sum of 21,000 francs having been spent in this way.

With a view to ensuring the proper working of the Library without increasing its staff to an extent proportionate to the increase in the number of publications, the Librarian has been investigating improved methods. For this purpose he was sent on mission to Kiel to study the organisation of the library of the *Institut Für Weltwirtschaft und Seeverkehr*.

The preliminary steps for preparing the printed catalogue have been taken. It now remains to find the means of beginning shortly to put the catalogue into final form: when printed it will be a most useful instrument of work both for the officials of the Office and for the public. The Librarian has also begun to adapt the Office catalogues to the new edition of the decimal catalogue which is published by the International Bibliography Institute at Brussels.

In accordance with a desire expressed at the Sixth Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations, the Librarian has begun to prepare an annual list of publications which deal with the International Labour Organisation. The first edition of this bibliography appeared at the end of 1927 and consisted of 95 pages. A fresh edition will be published each year, and will take the place of the bibliography which has previously been published in an appendix to the Director's annual Report.

The generous gift by Mr. Rockefeller of two million dollars to erect at the seat of the League of Nations a large international library is naturally a matter of interest to the International Labour Office. In the negotiations which preceded Mr. Rockefeller's decision and the acceptance of his gift by the Assembly of the League it was understood that the international library which would be created should take in material on all the questions with which the League of Nations deals, and that labour and social questions should be included in the new library's programme. After the Assembly had accepted Mr. Rockefeller's gift, correspondence took place between the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and the Director of the International Labour Office on this matter. In the course of these negotiations, which aim at establishing a programme for the organisation of the future library and collaboration between the Secretariat and the International Labour Office, the question has been raised as to whether it would be

desirable for the purposes of the large international library which Mr. Rockefeller had in mind to hand over to the future library a part of the stock of publications held by the International Labour Office. The Librarian of the Secretariat is to be sent to the United States to study the technical working of a large organisation of this kind. When his investigations are completed, the negotiations will be continued on the question of the relations to be instituted between the general library and the Office's own library on labour matters.

56. *Documents Service*. — There was a considerable increase during 1927 in the number of periodicals and newspapers taken in by the Office, the respective figures for 1926 and 1927 being 2,604 as against 3,075. The figure for 1927 is double the 1924 figure (1,571). With these 3,075 periodicals and newspapers there are 725 received each working day to be registered, distributed, classified and assembled. These figures show both the double amount of work which has fallen on the Documents Service, which has less staff than it had four years ago, and also the growth in the sources of information on which the Office's officials can draw, a growth which has in fact accompanied the expansion of the Office's work. Since the beginning of 1927, for example, the Office has taken in about 50 new periodicals, official and otherwise, for the purposes of its Native Labour Section. It may also be noted that, in spite of the increase in its work, the budget of the Documents Service for purchases is the same as it was three years ago.

The bibliographical or press cuttings service was slightly improved during 1927 as regards the German language, for which there are now 2 clerks available instead of 1: but there is still only 1 clerk to perform the press cuttings work for publications in English and French. This shortage of staff substantially affects all the services of the Office, which practically have to rely on this central service for the numerous general publications received by the Office. It would no doubt be an economy to employ a higher grade and therefore a better qualified staff for this work. If this were done, the work would probably be carried out more quickly and accurately and would be of better quality, with the result that there would be a wider distribution of the cuttings and publications throughout the Office. The Governing Body has been asked to consider these problems and find solutions for them.

57. — As has been stated in previous Reports, the Office was asked by the Governing Body to prepare a *list of cinematograph films* on labour questions. This list at present includes more than 700 films which have been shown in Australia, Austria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, India, Italy, Japan, Poland,

South Africa, Spain and the United States. New films are constantly being brought to the Office's notice, and the list is rapidly growing.

58. — The Office's *collection of pictures* is being added to from day to day, thanks to the interest it has awakened in those who have been curious enough to look at it. At present it includes 1200 plates, which have a real documentary value, and are a welcome contribution to the work of the Organisation. The Office reiterates the hope which it expressed last year that the Registrar may receive further help from all those who are interested in this collection.

Preparation of information.

59. — The Office had originally prepared, for inclusion in this Report, as complete a survey as possible of all the work done by it last year by way of classifying, analysing, criticising and working up its information on the lines indicated in last year's Report; but it has decided not to print this statement, for various reasons. In the first place, to give here an enumeration of the principal pieces of study which have been undertaken would largely overlap with the notes which are given later on in this chapter on the various publications which have been issued or prepared. Besides, as it is proposed to indicate in Section II of this Report the positive results of the Office's scientific research work, there would have been still further possibilities of repetition and duplication. The attention of the Conference will therefore simply be drawn here to some general or special features of last year's work which will give some idea of its quantity and comprehensiveness.

It may be stated, then, at the outset that during 1927 there was a steady increase in the Office's scientific studies and research work, which is largely attributable to the increased confidence which is being shown in this work and to the fact that a larger number of Governments and private institutions of all kinds apply to the Office for information. That considerable progress has been made in this direction will be clear, as just stated, from the notes contained in each chapter of the present Report, and especially from the Second Section of the Report.

In the Office's opinion, there is one fact which is indicative of the competence attained by its scientific investigators and of the skill they now possess for dealing authoritatively with almost all the problems on which the Office has to work. The *International Labour Review* not only publishes the results of investigations and documents for which the Office is entirely responsible, but also unsigned and signed articles on specific subjects. Between January 1927 and March 1928, for example, 62 articles of this kind were published

in the *Review*. Of these 35, i. e. more than half, were written in the Office. They were either jointly prepared by a number of officials working on the special question dealt with, or were published under the signature of one of the officials as the responsible author.

60. — One of the most interesting pieces of work begun or followed up last year to which further reference should be made is the Office's collection of *collective agreements*. The Office considers the study of collective agreements to be of first-class importance. In many cases collective agreements are the precursors of social legislation. In the English-speaking countries, where legislation on social questions tends towards brevity, collective agreements are perhaps of still greater importance, and a study of them is still more essential than in other countries in order to obtain an idea of the lines on which conditions of labour are regulated. Moreover, collective agreements present a more direct and vivid picture of conditions than the laws themselves. For these reasons the Office feels obliged to endeavour continually to add to and bring up to date a collection which has already enabled it to meet numerous requests for information and to obtain a more accurate idea of various important factors in modern industrial life. Thus, the report recently published on holidays with pay was based almost entirely on information obtained from the Office's collection of collective agreements.

61. *International dictionary of labour law.* — To help it in its work of preparing information on the regulation of working conditions, the Office proposes to prepare an international dictionary on labour law. Such a dictionary would be most useful to the Office, which has felt the need of it for some time, and has long thought of preparing it. It would give in several languages the expressions which have to be continually used in handling labour law. Experience has shown that the discussions which take place in the International Labour Organisation suffer on occasion from the fact that the arguments put forward are not always, in spite of the skill and attention of the Office's interpreters, translated as accurately as might be desirable. Inaccuracies in translation sometimes cause speakers unwittingly to form an erroneous idea of statements which have been made or to put a misplaced interpretation upon facts. Such discrepancies will be impossible to avoid as long as there is no fixed terminology for labour law expressions, at least in most of the languages employed in the discussions.

The need for a labour dictionary is felt still more by national bodies which have to investigate foreign laws in detail and which have not at their disposal, as the Office has, a specially trained staff of translators.

Uniform and accurate translations of labour law expressions have already been settled, to a large extent, by the Office's publications, especially by the *Legislative Series* and the *International survey of legal decisions on labour law*. The Office could therefore confine its first work on the dictionary to a compilation of the expressions which are already currently translated. If the dictionary were to go further, it would no doubt be necessary to have the co-operation of competent national authorities. The Office hopes to be able to prepare, at least in a provisional form and within a comparatively short time, a dictionary which would meet more immediate needs and which could subsequently be improved and enlarged in the light of experience.

62. — In the field of *statistics*, which are so important for international investigations, the Office has been following up some specially interesting lines of action. It has continued its activities for securing uniform methods in labour statistics, especially in connection with industrial accidents and occupational diseases. The investigations which it had carried out into the general problems of statistics of industrial accidents for the purposes of the International Labour Statisticians' Conference in 1923 convinced the Office that it was necessary to go further and deal with the particular conditions in certain industries where accident statistics present certain special features. Consequently the Office first set to work on methods of compiling accident statistics in mines and on railways. The investigations carried out in these two sections of the field of labour will be of special value in view of the fact that the question of the prevention of industrial accidents is on the Agenda of this year's Session of the Conference.

Similarly, it has been considered desirable to examine from the statistical point of view the problems of occupational morbidity. Existing statistics in general deal with a limited number of occupational diseases for which compensation is payable, but any comprehensive and systematic investigations into the problems of occupational diseases generally are rare. The report on this subject which has been prepared by the Office goes in detail, for the first time it is believed, into all the problems involved in the statistical determination of occupational disease and indicates the incidence of these diseases internationally.

In view of the interest it is taking in the question, the Office was glad to be able to have a representative on the expert statisticians' Committee which was set up by the Health Committee of the League of Nations to examine and revise the international list of the causes of death and disease. The Committee met in March 1927 and prepared a provisional list of the causes of death. A further meeting will be held

next year to examine the nomenclature of diseases.

63. — There is one particular enquiry among all those which are being carried out by the Office in which the workers are specially interested, namely, the enquiry into the *conditions of work in coal mines*.

The origin of this enquiry has been adequately explained in previous Reports, which have also described the work of the Committee set up by the Governing Body and indicated the reasons for the delay in the completion of the Office's report on the enquiry.

In the form in which it has just been published, it may be said that this report is undoubtedly the first complete attempt which has ever been made to compare, on an international basis, miners' remuneration and hours of work. The report deals solely with the year 1925, as it was impossible, in view of the exceptional difficulties of the coal mining industry in 1926 as a result of the labour dispute in Great Britain, to take that year as a basis for comparison.

In dealing with the question of *hours of work*, considerable difficulties have been caused by the variety in the methods applied in the different countries concerned for calculating the length of the underground worker's working day. The Office has, however, succeeded in reducing to a common denomination the different interpretations of the working day.

It was also indispensable to have for all the different countries affected a common idea of what constitutes *wages*. Wage statistics published in the different countries often only give cash wages, and do not make allowance for grants in kind (e. g., free housing and coal), which in many countries form a considerable part of the worker's earnings from his work. Having defined wages, it was then necessary to draw a clear distinction between the working day and the shift, between the average number of workers and the average number of full-time workers. Taking these statistical elements as a basis, the Office has succeeded in calculating country by country the average earnings per working day, per hour of work and per year. To make these calculations comparable, they have first been expressed in gold francs, and then their relative purchasing power has been calculated on the basis of the retail prices for a given quantity of foodstuffs. These calculations have been completed by working out the average output per working day and the average wages per amount of coal produced.

Now that the enquiry has been terminated, it may legitimately be hoped that industrial organisations will find in the report the information which they wanted to enable them to form an intelligent idea of their position, and that the authorities in the different countries will find in the re-

port a reason for taking further action to adapt their statistical methods to the needs of international comparison on wages, hours of work and the calculation of the labour employed in the mining industry. It is further hoped that this limited enquiry will be the starting point for a general enquiry into the situation in the coal industry throughout the world. The International Economic Conference created a permanent body for following up urgent economic questions. Surely there is no question more urgent than this. If the new consultative economic committee takes up this vast problem, it may be said that the Office's report will provide it with the preliminary information essential for indicating the direction in which the required solutions are to be found.

Distribution of information.

64. — This important part of the Office's information work continues to develop, as is proved by the number of fresh requests which have had to be replied to by the different services of the Office. In 1922, when the Office first began to keep statistics on the point, the total number of requests for information received during the year was little more than 180. In 1927 the number was 920 (as compared with 800 in 1926), without counting those received and dealt with directly by the Office's National Correspondents.

As in previous years these requests are classified below according to their subject-matter and the source from which they have been received :

SUBJECT	Governments	Employers' Organisations	Workers' Organisations	Various Organisations (including private organisations)
Conditions of work, hours, wages, profit-sharing, participation in management, arbitration and conciliation	29	17	54	87
Hygiene and safety	25	6	19	60
Various enquiries, addresses, bibliographies, statistics, economic matters such as production, consumption, economic barometers, taxes, demographic information	8	3	27	59
International Labour Office, Conference, ratifications	11	—	8	76
Social insurance, disabled men	13	2	11	54
Labour legislation	14	1	17	43
Employment and unemployment	10	1	5	27
Apprenticeship, vocational guidance	8	—	9	25
Employers' and workers' organisations	3	2	16	18
Co-operation	4	—	3	32
Family budgets, cost of living, housing	4	2	5	22
Agriculture	7	1	2	17
Migration	4	1	2	13
Maritime labour	5	—	4	9
Intellectual workers	—	—	3	5
Native workers	1	—	—	6

These figures are indicative of the variety of subjects on which information is asked for and of the expansion of the Office's work in distributing information, but they give no adequate idea of the amount of work involved in dealing with the requests received. In the figures as they are given, for example, a request from a Government which entails long investigations by the Office and its Correspondents or the dispatch of voluminous documents specially prepared for the occasion is treated as a single enquiry, on the same footing as a request from a trade union official for bibliographical information to be used in a Congress report.

Among the more important replies to requests from Governments mention may be made of the following :

An account of national regulations dealing with industrial organisations of employers and workers (supplied to the Italian Minister of Corporations for the preparation of the Labour Charter);

Information on national legislation on the payment of gratuities to hotel staff (tipping), required in connection with the preparation of a Bill on the sharing of such gratuities (supplied to the French Ministry of Labour);

An enquiry into the cost in dollars of a basket of provisions, in order to calculate real wages in the principal industries (for the Polish Ministry of Labour);

Information on shop opening hours (for the British Home Secretary) ;

Information on the regulation of hours of work and on agreements in force in inland navigation (for the Belgian Ministry of Railways, Maritime Affairs, etc.);

Information on the conditions of work and occupational risks of telephonists (for the Labour Commissariat of the U.S.S.R.);

Material on the rules and regulations of Labour Chambers in different countries (for the Ministry of Social Affairs in the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom);

Information on hours of work in industry in Canada (for the Norwegian Ministry of Social Affairs);

Bibliography on minimum wage fixing systems (for the Japanese Government);

Information on women's labour legislation (for the United States Department of Labor).

The greater part of the information supplied is of a general character, and most requests can be rapidly met from the material in the Office's possession. In other cases the Office is compelled to ask for additional information from Government offices or private associations. Some

delicate situations arise, however, to which the attention of the Conference should be drawn. It not infrequently happens that industrial associations, whether of employers or workers, ask for detailed information on wages and hours of work current in the same industries in other countries. Sometimes, in fact, these requests are very definite and deal either with a particular large establishment or a very special class of workers. It is not difficult to imagine the reason for these requests. The workers desire to make use of the better conditions in competing countries in order to reach the same level. The employers desire to calculate the cost of production in neighbouring countries in order to ascertain why they are in a position to compete, and to find the best means of defence. It has happened that information thus sought was intended to be used to obtain from a Government or Parliament an increase in protective tariffs as against a neighbouring country in which lower wages are paid.

In such cases the Office is placed in a difficult situation. It cannot, without failing in its duties, or without running the danger of being accused of incompetence, refuse to obtain and furnish such information. After all, the work of the Office is founded on constant comparisons between conditions of work in the various countries. The information it supplies, however, may conceivably be used at once for the purposes of competition by persons who ordinarily trouble little about the principles of the Treaty of Peace. In fact, it is frequently necessary, in order to get definite information, to apply to employers' associations or managers of undertakings, who would no doubt consider themselves extremely simple if they furnished information which might be utilised by their competitors in other countries.

The result has been that unpleasant incidents of various kinds have occurred. Manufacturers complain, for example, that they have unreservedly furnished the information asked for, though similar information has been refused by their foreign competitors. Or they complain that they have not been informed of the reasons why an enquiry has been made through the Office. Or, again, they draw attention to the misinterpretation which has been put upon their figures. In other cases figures taken from official publications after manufacturers have refused to furnish information spontaneously are declared to be misleading or out of date, or manufacturers declare their willingness to supply figures directly to those concerned without going through the International Labour Office.

The Office might almost be tempted to refuse systematically to furnish information of this kind. But it is thought that such a course would not be feasible. The Office owes it to itself to collect and prepare such information. If it failed to do so the

information would frequently be communicated from one country to another with no scientific guarantee, and in circumstances which would increase mutual distrust. It is the duty of the Office to help by sane methods to oppose the out-of-date conception of business secrets by developing that spirit of sincerity and mutual information on which the Americans have rightly insisted so emphatically. Every possible precaution must, of course, be taken. Sources of information must be clearly indicated, and, where necessary, criticised. Those from whom information is requested must, above all, be told who is the person or the institution which is asking for it. The Office must even indicate the reasons for the request when these are known. Once all these precautions have been taken, however, the Office cannot refuse, to quote the Treaty of Peace, to "distribute information" on all subjects relating to conditions of labour which it may be asked to supply.

The Office counts on having the assistance of the representatives of the different Governments and organisations in this difficult task.

Publications.

65. — The most effective means of distributing information which the Office possesses is to develop its publications. These publications, in fact, have already become a powerful agent for world education in the affairs of social and industrial life.

No change of any importance has been found necessary during the past year in the general scheme of the publications, which remains as it was described in previous Reports and, indeed, substantially as it was originally planned in the first year of the Office's activity. Attention should, however, be called to the increasing difficulty which is being encountered in complying to the full with the Office's obligations, owing to the financial limitations imposed on it. If the budgets for the last five years be dissected, it will be seen that the sum voted for the general publications of the Office (omitting documents for the Conference, the Governing Body and Committees) has fallen as follows :

1924.	500,000	francs
1925.	455,000	»
1926.	435,000	»
1927.	424,000	»
1928.	416,000	»

By the exercise of a vigilant control over printing costs, and by similar means, the Office has so far been able, in spite of this steady decline in monetary resources, to maintain and even increase to some extent

the volume of output. In approximate figures, the aggregate number of printed pages in a complete set of the principal publications, periodical and non-periodical in all languages, has been as follows in the last three years:

1925.	20,900 pages
1926.	26,000 »
1927.	27,100 »

Financial stringency, however, has compelled the Office more than once to renounce or postpone the publication of certain valuable studies, and at the same time to limit the effort of production in languages other than French and English. More will be said on this point in the paragraphs below devoted to *Studies and Reports*. It is, nevertheless, thought well to direct attention here to the fact that, however desirous the Office may be of making public the products of its scientific studies and investigations, and however willing it may be to meet the reiterated pleas from various quarters that more of its publications shall be made available in other languages than the official languages, the Office is bound to have regard to the budgetary limitations which are imposed upon it.

66. *Periodical publications.* — The periodical publications of the Office, both general and special, are all now well established. They have acquired a recognised position of authority, of which the Office can be proud. They are often referred to in Parliamentary discussions, closely consulted by Government departments and industrial organisations, and their accuracy is seldom impugned.

67. — Mention was made in last year's Report of the *Monthly Summary* of the work of the Organisation which is now published as a supplement to the monthly record of the work of the League. This departure (which, incidentally, has been undertaken within the limits of the existing credits for printing) serves the double purpose of bringing the activities of the Organisation to the knowledge of a wider circle than is yet reached by the general publications of the Office, and of exemplifying the relationship between the Organisation and the League. Experience during the past year fully justifies the continuance of the *Summary* as a medium for broadcasting information with regard to the progress of the Office's work.

68. — In accordance with a suggestion made at the Sixth Assembly of the League of Nations, the Office published for the first time last year a trilingual *Bibliography of the International Labour Organisation*, comprising particulars of books or articles (other than those appearing in daily newspapers) relating to the Organisation in

general. It is intended to keep this material constantly up-to-date, and to issue a supplement to this publication each year.

69. *Legislative Series.* — The *Legislative Series* maintains its position as a unique compilation of the chief laws and regulations relating to labour in the different countries. The progressive expansion of the annual volumes since the Office assumed the publication of the Series nine years ago reflects, in part, the continued enlargement of the body of new and amending labour legislation adopted year by year in all parts of the world. Since 1925 it has been found necessary to allot to this publication an increasing quota of the total sum available for printing. Other material factors, however, including the heavy and exacting task of translation involved in the issue of the Series in three languages, have compelled the Office to restrict the dimensions of the work so far as this can be done without impairing its character. The method of publication instituted with the 1924 Series—division into three Parts, two containing the texts of laws and regulations and the third giving chronological and subject indexes—was generally commended, and has been followed for the 1925 volume.

A special endeavour has been made to enlarge the space allotted to legislation promulgated in overseas countries and mandated areas. But the expansion of the scope of the Series, necessary and desirable as it may be in itself, is not without certain drawbacks. In spite of strenuous and sustained efforts, it has not yet been possible with the existing staff to reduce to any adequate extent the interval—considerable, in many cases—between the promulgation of an Act or a Decree and its appearance in the *Legislative Series*.

70. *Special publications.* — (a) *International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law.* — The second annual volume of this publication, containing a collection of decisions taken in 1926, follows in its main lines the first of the series, which was described in last year's Report. A number of suggestions made by the distinguished jurists whose valuable collaboration the Office secured for this work have been incorporated in the new volume, which comprises a larger number of decisions than the first, including in a special section the opinions expressed by the Permanent Court of International Justice relating to the international regulation of conditions of labour. Like the first volume, it covers only four European countries—England, France, Germany and Italy. It is hoped to be able to extend its scope, so as to include the United States, in the next volume. In the meantime, the favourable opinions which have been given on this publication by jurists and others directly interested in

labour law and jurisprudence justify the belief that it forms a complement, of immediate and permanent value, to the *Legislative Series*.

(b) *International Labour Directory*. — No complete new edition of this publication was issued in 1927, for the reasons indicated in last year's Report; Part VI (Co-operative Organisations) was, however, revised and published in a new edition in the course of the year. Several suggestions have been made for extensions of the scope of the Directory, e.g., by the addition of Parts relating to agricultural organisations and social insurance institutions; but it is thought that the purpose of these suggestions would better be served by the publication, not as parts of the *Directory* but possibly as *Studies and Reports*, of handbooks to such organisations, containing perhaps in addition to year-book data a historical survey and other connected letterpress. This, it must be added, is not a definite project; it could not, in any event, be carried out in 1928, having regard to the means available.

(c) *Encyclopaedia of Industrial Hygiene*. — Progress continues to be made with the issue of this publication, the value of which has been cordially acknowledged in the technical press. So far, about 147 brochures have appeared, and the completion of the series dealing with subjects coming under the first few letters of the alphabet has made it possible to begin the preparation of the volume edition, containing the brochures arranged in alphabetical order. Every precaution is being taken to ensure that the treatment of each subject shall be full, accurate, and authoritative, and in this endeavour the Office has had invaluable aid from its Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene.

71. *Studies and Reports*. — The following *Studies and Reports* were published in 1927:

Series A. *Industrial Organisation*.

- No. 26. *The Trade Union Movement in Soviet Russia*. French, English and German editions. (287 pp.)
- No. 27. *Industrial Relations in the United States*, by H. B. Butler. French, English and German editions. (135 pp.)
- No. 28. *Freedom of Association*. Volume I. French, English and German editions. (141 pp.)

Series B. *Economic Conditions*.

- No. 17. *Scientific Management in Europe*, by Paul Devinat. French and English editions. (261 pp.) (For German edition, see below.)

Series D. *Wages and Hours of Work*.

- No. 17. *Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery*. French, English and German editions. (156 pp.)

Series F. *Industrial Hygiene*.

- No. 10. *The Medical Inspection of Labour*. English edition. (80 pp.) French edition published in 1926. German edition published by German Government.
- No. 11. *White Lead*. French and English editions. (415 pp.)

Series M. *Social Insurance*.

- No. 6. *Compulsory Sickness Insurance*. French, English and German editions. (794 pp.)
- No. 7. *Voluntary Sickness Insurance*. French and English editions. (570 pp.)

Series N. *Statistics*.

- No. 13. *Methods of Compiling Statistics of Housing*. French edition. (132 pp.) (For English and German editions, see below).

Reference has already been made to the compulsory restriction of the output of *Studies and Reports* for 1927, owing to lack of money. So far as the actual volume of production is concerned, it may be of interest to note that the French editions of nine of the above *Studies and Reports* comprised a total of about 2,870 printed pages (an average of about 320 pages each), while the French editions of the ten *Studies and Reports* referred to in last year's Report comprised a total of about 1,700 printed pages (an average of about 170 pages each). When it is added that, in order to meet increasing demands entailed by sales, exchanges and free distribution, the number of copies printed tends to increase, it will be seen that the Office has not only maintained but has even considerably enlarged its output in spite of declining credits.

The *Studies and Reports* actually issued in 1927, however, do not by any means represent the complete results of the researches made by the Office during that year. Had resources been available, not only of funds but of editorial staff (translators, correctors, etc.), it was hoped to add the following to the above list:

Migration Laws and Treaties. French and English editions. Three volumes. (1,000 pp.)

The Organisation and Representation of Agricultural Workers. French and English editions. (200 pp.)

Freedom of Association, Volumes II-V. French, English and German editions. (1,400 pp.)

These volumes have, perforce, been postponed from 1927 to 1928, together with the following:

Scientific Management in Europe. German edition.

Methods of Compiling Statistics of Housing. English and German editions.

This postponement to 1928 of a number of publications which normally would have been issued in 1927 has imposed a curtail-

ment of the programme of new *Studies and Reports* for this year. A strict selection has had to be made among the various works in hand, and only six new *Studies* can be added to those postponed from 1927.

72. *Publications in languages other than French or English.* — At every Session of the International Labour Conference, and frequently at the Sessions of the Governing Body, a plea is made for the issue of publications of the Office in other than the two official languages. To these appeals, the cogency of which it is impossible to deny, the Office strives to give the utmost satisfaction its means will permit.

(a) *German.* — The *Studies and Reports* enumerated above as having been issued in 1927 or postponed to 1928 comprise a total of about 5,500 printed pages in each of the official languages; those published or to be published by the Office in German comprise some 3,300 pages. This represents approximately three times the output in German in 1926.

Most of the publications issued in connection with the International Labour Conference are now published in German, e.g. the Grey Reports, the Questionnaires, the Blue Reports, the Report of the Director, and a summary of the proceedings.

The *Legislative Series*, the *Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law*, and the *Industrial Safety Survey* appear separately in German editions, while the *Bibliography of Industrial Hygiene*, the *International Labour Directory* and the *Bibliography of the International Labour Organisation* are all trilingual.

The Office continues to publish, through its Berlin Correspondent's Office, the monthly *Internationale Rundschau der Arbeit*, which contains a selection of the articles, notes and statistics given in the *International Labour Review* and *Industrial and Labour Information*.

Finally, negotiations have been instituted with a view to ensuring the issue in German by private enterprise of certain publications which, for want of financial resources, the Office itself is unable to issue in this language.

(b) *Italian.* — The monthly *Informazioni sociali* issued by the Office's Correspondent is akin to the review issued in Berlin. In addition, the Rome Correspondent issues, in the form of supplements to this periodical, substantial summaries in Italian of some of the principal *Studies and Reports*, e.g. *Freedom of Association*, *Industrial Relations in the United States*, and *Scientific Management in Europe*.

(c) *Spanish.* — The monthly review issued by the Office's Madrid Correspondent — *Informaciones Sociales* — has an increasing circulation not only in Spain but in most of the countries of Spanish-speaking America.

A notable departure during 1927 has been the publication in Spanish only of the first volume (some 450 pages) of a two-volume *Collection of labour laws in Latin America*. This work, of which a general analysis appeared in the *International Labour Review* early in 1928, was undertaken in response to a request frequently expressed by the Governments and scientific workers of the countries concerned. It is intended primarily to assist those countries in formulating new legislation by providing them with a comprehensive view of the present state of labour legislation among their neighbours; it helps to throw light on a body of legislation with which many people are unacquainted; and, incidentally, it is a tangible sign of the close and sympathetic interest taken by the Office in social progress in Latin-America. In the preparation of this work the Office had the valuable assistance of Mr. Poblete-Troncoso, former Under-Secretary in the Chilean Ministry of Hygiene, Social Affairs and Labour, who, it may be remembered, represented the Government of Chile in the capacity of technical adviser at the Seventh Session of the International Labour Conference.

At the beginning of 1928 the Office entered into a contract with a Spanish publishing house, whereby that firm undertakes to publish, under the control of the Office, editions in Spanish of at least six *Studies and Reports* each year. By this indirect means it is hoped to make the results of the Office's research work more rapidly available to Spanish-speaking peoples.

Finally, the Office is glad to be able this year, for the first time, to present to the Spanish-speaking delegates a Spanish edition of the present Report. It is hoped that this departure, coupled with the publication in Spanish of a summary of the proceedings of the Conference, will give some satisfaction to those who are interested in the language question in connection with the Conference.

(d) *Japanese.* — The Office's Correspondent in Tokyo has continued to publish the monthly *Kokusai Rodo* (International Labour), containing translations or extracts from various publications of the Office.

It will thus be seen that a good deal is being done to disseminate a knowledge of the Office's work in as many languages as possible. In spite of the progressive decrease in the credits for publications during the last few years, it is hoped that it will be possible to go even further in the future. But no false hopes should be entertained. The credits for publications will never be such as to make it possible to translate all the Office's publications in the various languages in which they are asked for. But if the Governments would help the Office by indicating the publications which they consider might most usefully be translated and would themselves undertake their pub-

lication, the Office would be glad to facilitate their undertaking, as far as possible within the limits of its budget, by itself meeting part of the cost. Steps in this direction have already been taken by the Czechoslovak and Polish Governments, and the Office hopes their example will be followed by other Governments.

73. *Distribution and Sales.* — It is not necessary to traverse again in any detail the ground, amply covered in previous Reports, of the general considerations governing the distribution of the Office's publications, whether by gift, by exchange or by sale. Only the salient points need be recalled.

In the first place, the Office is required by the Peace Treaty to "distribute" information and to "publish" a periodical paper. The Treaty does not specify whether the distribution of information should be solicited or unsolicited, free or by sale. It is arguable, in fact, that the Office would not be departing either from the letter or from the spirit of the Treaty if the whole of its distribution were gratuitous. In practice, however, the Office has taken the view that, while its publications should be supplied free to Governments and to the central industrial associations, on which the structure of the Organisation is based, and while they should be used as a medium of exchange for other publications needed for the work of the Office, it is still the duty of the Office to sell its publications wherever it can find buyers, in order that the revenue may be utilised to diminish the Governments' contributions.

That the Office has not been remiss in this matter is best demonstrated by the fact that the receipts from sales are rising year by year. The following figures show the gross sales in each of the years 1923-1927 :

1923	99,000 francs.
1924	121,400 »
1925	133,500 »
1926	149,600 »
1927	220,100 »

This progressive expansion sufficiently indicates that the Office's publications are becoming more widely known and appreciated, and, if this is so, it may be claimed that the fact is attributable in a large degree to the development in the last three or four years of a system of intensive publicity by circularisation to all parts of the globe. This form of propaganda reached its highest point in 1927, when more than 100,000 copies of 35 circulars in various languages advertising its publications and soliciting orders were issued from the Office. That the Office has more to sell may also account for some part of the increase in its sales. It is an interesting and gratifying fact that the demand for any given publication is not necessarily exhausted in the first year of its issue, but that there is a continuing

demand for some publications from year to year. This is the case not only as regards back numbers of the periodical publications, but more noticeably as regards certain of the *Studies and Reports*, e.g. those dealing with unemployment, family allowances, conditions in Russia, and vocational guidance.

This gradual accretion of "business", if the word may be used, necessarily entails a corresponding increase in the amount of work falling on the Office's Sales and Distribution Branch. In 1926, there were despatched either direct from the printers or from the Office a total of 330,000 packets of publications, including single numbers of periodicals; in 1927 there were despatched no fewer than 434,000 packets. These figures cover the entire distribution, free, exchange and paid. They afford one measure of the thoroughness with which the Office is carrying out its task of disseminating information on matters touching industrial and social life. There is now practically no country in the world to which its publications do not permeate.

Striking as these figures are, however, the Office has no intention of relaxing its efforts to attain greater results, even with the comparatively exiguous staff and financial means at its disposal. During 1927 the Sales Department made further progress along the lines of direct canvassing and marketing which were traced in last year's Report. For example, the Office has cancelled an arrangement which entrusted to a commercial firm of publishers in Germany the exclusive handling of its publications in that country, and has transferred this business to its Berlin Correspondent, with results which are already highly satisfactory. Similarly, in Great Britain the selling of Office publications is conducted mainly by the London Office. The Office has also revised its contract with the World Peace Foundation, in the United States, and resumed its right to undertake business in that country direct from Geneva, while continuing to allow the Foundation to act as a local agent. Further, in outlying countries such as South Africa and Australia—countries in which direct circularisation from Geneva cannot be expected to produce great results—the Office has arranged for leading booksellers to act as agents in the sense that, while they do not themselves keep stocks of Office publications, they are given the customary trade discount on any orders which may be obtained by their action.

By these and similar means the selling branch of the Office's publishing activity has been placed on a sound commercial basis, and may be regarded as amply justified by its results. Much more undoubtedly remains to be done in the direction of making Office publications better known in all countries, and particularly in those which are most remote from Geneva. To this

purpose the efforts of the Office's small Sales Branch are unceasingly directed, and the experience of the past year encourages the hope that the circulation of the publications and the revenue they yield will continue to become greater year by year. It need only be added that the Office is always prepared cordially to accept any help from any quarter towards the attainment of that object.

Conclusion.

74. — The Office can hardly conclude this chapter, in which a description has been given on the usual lines of the general features and methods, rather than the results, of its research work and studies, without feeling a certain amount of satisfaction. No doubt, all this work is a vast undertaking, many new lines of research are being taken up every year, and the future holds many more tasks in store. Nevertheless, it is felt that the necessary proportion and clarity have been preserved in the programme which is being carried out. Above all, the Office is becoming more and more certain of the value of what it is doing. When it finds its large publications on social insurance, migration or industrial hygiene or safety being used as handbooks or works

of reference in public administrative departments or in the research sections of employers' or workers' organisations, it is convinced of the real practical value and day-to-day utility of its work. And, as will be seen throughout Section II of this Report, there is a close relation between the Office's researches and studies and the advance which is being made in the different subjects of social reform.

The Office must again, however, deplore the fact that its financial resources are being continually found inadequate, not so much for assuming new undertakings, which are nevertheless necessary to complete its work (regrets have been expressed, for example, that a periodical on native labour questions or a social insurance review are not yet published) as for publishing works which are finished and ready to be issued, i. e., for distributing information which has been collected and worked up and which is needed by specialists on the subjects concerned. Is it to be said that, even in the new international institutions, ideas can hardly find the means for their expression and dissemination? It is the Office's hope that the various and important sections of public opinion which support it will emphasise and re-emphasise as time goes on the real need for its scientific work and its distribution throughout the world.

CHAPTER III.

Relations.

75. — It is unnecessary to open this chapter with the same remarks as have been made in preceding years. No one any longer thinks of criticising the Office's publicity work for the principles of Part XIII of the Treaty, for making the Office's work better known, or for developing relations with organisations or individuals who are working for social justice. It is now generally agreed that the international machinery whose complexity has been described in the previous chapters would be of no use if the united goodwill of individuals and peoples did not keep it running. Nor is it any longer necessary to reply to those critics who think it their duty to stimulate the Office's zeal and who regard its efforts in the direction of publicity as insufficient. At the beginning, the very formation of a Relations Division in the Office was criticised: but to-day the warmest friends of the Office are inclined to think that it is not sufficiently active. The truth is that they can hardly be aware of the amount of work it actually does perform.

The fact is that to keep up the Office's publicity work at the high level which is desirable in view of the importance of the cause which it is intended to serve calls for more than the enthusiastic conviction of a small group of officials continuously on the alert to seize new opportunities or take advantage of all the new methods which modern inventions can offer: whatever else is available, nothing can be done without funds. It was pointed out last year, as a cause not for jealousy but for regret, that the strong information section of the League of Nations was in a much more favourable position than the Office's national information service with its multiplicity of tasks. But the difference between the material resources which the States Members of the League of Nations allow for the League's publicity work and the funds spent by the Third International on propaganda work is just as striking. Surely it is regrettable to think that the institutions of the League cannot budget for even the modest credits required to allow them to participate worthily in some of the great international exhibitions which are one of the most

powerful means to-day for spreading new ideas or practical information.

But even with its limited resources the Office endeavours, indefatigably and by every means, to meet the urgent need of keeping public opinion alive to the importance of the work of the Organisation. How far it has succeeded in this task during the past year will appear from the rest of this chapter.

To take first the direct personal work of the members of the staff, from the highest down to the most humble officials. It is hardly necessary to emphasise the importance of the journeys which the Director or the Deputy-Director make to different countries in order to expedite ratifications, arouse public opinion, and overcome prejudice and ignorance. The two principal journeys of the Director in 1927—first in Austria, Hungary, the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and Greece, and then in the Scandinavian and Baltic countries—were of great value for these purposes. And the same observation applies to the Deputy-Director's visit to the four provinces of the Union of South Africa, which was the mean of making the Office's existence and work widely known in that country.

It is also a pleasure to record that at the 35th Session of the Governing Body (March, 1927) it was an employers' representative, Mr. Gemmill, who suggested that not only the Director, but also the higher officials of the Office, should make more frequent visits to the different countries in order to accelerate ratifications. As far as credits available allow, officials are in fact sent on such missions. Last year, for instance, members of the staff visited Canada, China and Australia, and a representative of the Office took part in the Congress of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu. It should further be added that often members of the staff while on leave in their own countries spend a considerable portion of their time in making the Office better known, and that many of them—when credits are not available—themselves undertake at their own expense journeys and lectures on behalf of the Organisation.

Nor should it be forgotten in this connection that the Office is very considerably helped by the personal assistance which is given to it in all parts of the world by members of the Governing Body, delegates or advisers to the Conference, and various of-

ficials in the Labour Ministries or other Departments with which the Office corresponds by virtue of Article 397 of the Peace Treaty.

This enthusiasm in its cause is the driving power behind the Office's publicity work: but to give it full scope advantage must be taken of all the resources of modern life.

Every advantage is taken, for example, of the facilities which the Press offers. The Office's press communiqués, as has often been noted, are scarcely sensational or dramatic. But newspapers and telegraphic agencies no longer neglect the Office, to which Correspondents now come for news and interviews and more particularly to follow sittings of the Governing Body. As a matter of fact, a meeting of the Governing Body in another country—e.g. the one in Berlin—is now worth many years of publicity. Constant endeavours are also made to secure the attention of the Press by issuing as interesting a news service as possible on ratifications of Conventions, meetings of the various Committees, new studies and reports, and the other various manifestations of the Organisation's many activities. Such communiqués, of course, are not always published in their entirety in all the publications to which they are sent. Each newspaper takes from the matter which the Office supplies the information which it believes the most valuable for its own circle of readers. But in the aggregate the reproduction of the matter circulated to the newspapers is very considerable, as is to be seen from the innumerable cuttings which reach the Office almost daily from all over the world and from the systematic marking by the Documents Service of thousands of newspapers and periodicals.

On its part the Office can say that it has carried out, with some difficulty, an enquiry into journalists' living conditions, and that, quite recently, the Office's Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers decided to give permanent representation to the International Association of Journalists. It is hoped that journalists will see in these decisions not only the Office's recognition of its duties towards them, but also an expression of its friendship and gratitude.

The Office also endeavours to reach the public by direct publicity of its own, through the *Monthly Summary* of the work of the Organisation which is incorporated with the League's monthly record. This publication is much appreciated, though it is felt that it still needs improving. Several small pamphlets and a series of pictorial posters have also been issued to give publicity to the work of the Conference and of the Governing Body.

From time to time the Office receives assistance from outside institutions. For instance, the Non-Partisan Association of the United States of America has given financial aid towards the illustrated posters referred to above. Again, the British League

of Nations Union has published the following leaflets during the past year: "The I. L. O. Record in 1926"—"Why British Employers should support the International Labour Organisation" by Lord Burnham—"The Washington Hours Convention"—"The World's Labour Problems"—"India and the I. L. O."—"Slave or free?" (a summary of the work done by the Organisation on the question of native labour). It would be very helpful if this example could be followed by private associations in other countries! Books and articles on the work of the Organisation are also continually increasing in number: those which appeared in 1927 are being published separately in a detailed bibliography. These new works include the splendid book by Mr. Mayeda, which was recently published in Japan, and which shows the firm friendship for the Office of this ex-member of the Governing Body.

On the "oral publicity" side the Office has endeavoured to make more use of the far-reaching opportunities offered by broadcasting by wireless telegraphy. It has kept in close touch with the International Union of Broadcasting Organisations (*Union internationale de radiophonie*) at Geneva, to which broadcasting stations in most European countries are affiliated. The Secretary-General of the Union has sent two circular notices to the national affiliated broadcasting stations, the first giving details of the constitution and the aims of the International Labour Organisation, and the second informing them that arrangements have been made by which the Office would regularly despatch to them information concerning its activities. The Office has sent to the most important of the European broadcasting stations copies of its *Monthly Summary*, and its National Correspondents have got into touch with them for giving them additional information or organising special addresses by authorities on the Office's work. As examples of this important development may be mentioned the reviews on social politics broadcast by the Berlin station since June 1927, similar addresses sent out by Tokyo, Prague, Warsaw, etc. and the New Year message issued by the broadcasting stations of the British Broadcasting Corporation addressed to "Geneva, the League of Nations and the International Labour Office". It would take a great deal of space to enumerate all the amusing and curious steps which have been taken in this new field of publicity.

As for what may be called "visual publicity", the Office has increased the number of lantern slides in its possession, and they have been sent to all corners of the world, to accompany addresses given in New Zealand, Persia, China, Argentina and India; as well as in countries nearer to Geneva. The Office also endeavours, as far as it can, to make use of the cinema. A film taken

by a commercial firm during the Tenth Session of the Conference has been very successful. But the Office's own collection of films, unfortunately, is insignificant. If only some artist would help, and ways and means could be found of taking proper advantage of the unrivalled opportunities of the cinema, the Office's publicity work could be facilitated and developed on a large scale.

Stamps are also a means of publicity. The Swiss postage stamps surcharged "*S. d. N. Bureau international du Travail*" are said to be much sought for by collectors. The German Government, too, during the meeting of the Governing Body at Berlin, issued special postage stamps for the members of the Governing Body and the secretarial staff bearing surcharged the letters "*I.A.A.*" (*Internationales Arbeitsamt*) and the dates 10-15.X.1927. They were only good for the period indicated. There is also a considerable demand for the "Nansen" stamps which are used for the passports delivered to Russian and Armenian refugees.

It will thus be seen that the Office neglects no available medium which can contribute even in a small degree to the success of its publicity work.

The Office, moreover, continues to attract increasing numbers of visitors of all kinds, from tourists on holiday to experts and eminent politicians, who come to see the Office or become acquainted with its work. During the past year these visitors included such distinguished personalities as President Masaryk, Paul Doumer, President of the French Senate, M. Alfredo Rocco, Italian Minister of Justice, three Ministers of the Greek Government — Mr. Michalacopoulos, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Cafandaris, Finance Minister, and Mr. Papanastasiou, Minister of Agriculture—the President of the Republic of Liberia, Mr. Charles Dunbar Burgess King and Mrs. King, etc. On an average between 250 to 300 persons per week visited the Office during the summer. Organised visits were also made by groups of persons who were taking part in the vacation courses such as those organised by the Geneva University, the Geneva Institute of International Relations, the Geneva School of International Studies, the International Federation of League of Nations Societies, the Teachers' Summer School, and the Summer School of the British League of Nations Union. At all these courses and summer schools members of the staff of the Office gave lectures upon different aspects of the Office's work. Similar visits have also been paid to the Office by various Congresses or Conferences which have been held at Geneva, or by bodies of trade unionist miners from Belgium, France, Germany, etc. All these visits are, of course, an additional duty which adds to the work of the Office, despite the precautions taken to ensure that

the ordinary work does not suffer. But the time devoted to visitors cannot be considered as wasted. Besides, a number of voluntary workers put their services at the disposal of the Office last year for receiving and helping visitors, among them being an American — Miss Cheyney — who very kindly gave her time during the summer to helping the many visitors who came from the United States to see over the building and explaining the Office's work to them.

But all this publicity work on behalf of the Organisation's ideals would be useless if it did not fall on soil already in some way or other prepared to receive it. It is the good fortune of the great human ideas of peace and justice that all kinds of tendencies and spiritual forces are working in their favour. And it is the function of this part of the annual Report to record how these great forces are developing, and to examine how they can contribute to the success of the Organisation.

76. Universities and educational. — To take the Universities first, which have such unrivalled opportunities for inculcating the ideas of peace and social justice. No doubt, the Universities are often divided between opposite policies, the spirit of the League does not always dominate the instruction which is given, and false doctrines are sometimes still taught. Nevertheless, it is encouraging to find that the Covenant of the League, Part XIII of the Treaty and the work of the International Labour Organisation are annually taking a more prominent place in a large number of courses of instruction and becoming subjects of regular study in the departments of political economy, and in courses on international law.

A University Institute of Higher International Studies has been established at Geneva, and is assisted by the Office in its instruction in social problems. Perhaps through it a general teaching programme is being developed which could be followed in the universities of every country. More encouraging still is the interest which students throughout the world are taking in international labour questions. Innumerable theses for doctors' degrees have specialised on questions affecting the League institutions, and many of them have been prepared in the Office's library. Moreover, the various students' international associations continue to affirm their sympathy and their enthusiasm for the International Labour Organisation, as is evident from the resolutions adopted last year by the International University Federation for the League of Nations at its Oxford Congress (July, 1927), the Council of the International Confederation of Students (Rome, August-September 1927), and the Congress of the International Student Service (Schiers, July 1927) etc.

Frequent references were also made to the Office's work at the meeting of the Committee of representatives of interna-

tional student organisations which was held on 11—12 April last year under the auspices of the League of Nations, and which was attended by representatives from the three above-mentioned federations, as well as from the International Federation of University Women, the World Student Christian Federation, the Pax Romana and the World Union of Jewish Students. One of the resolutions adopted welcomed the creation of the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, expressed the hope that the work of the Committee would not be limited to inquiries but would lead to the adoption of Conventions regulating working conditions for intellectual workers, asked the Office to consider the measures to be taken to deal with the unemployment of intellectual workers, and requested it to devote special attention to the question of vocational guidance for intellectual occupations.

Surely it is the duty of the League of Nations, and of all its States Members, to foster this faith in peace and justice which is so strikingly manifested by the students. And this matter has, in fact, already attracted the attention of eminent personalities, as was pointed out in last year's Report.

The Eighth Assembly of the League approved the Recommendations made by its Sub-Committee of experts on the instruction of children and youth in the existence and aims of the League. These Recommendations include the suggestion that copies should be supplied to teachers not only of the Covenant of the League but also of the International Labour Charter. The suggestion is also made that schoolmasters and directors of workers' educational establishments, industrial and agricultural schools, technical and continuation classes should be provided with documentary material and be prepared for giving instruction on the work of the League and the Labour Organisation. The Office has been in contact with the two experts appointed to prepare the special chapter of the handbook to be issued for teachers and professors dealing with the constitution of the League and the International Labour Organisation.

These Recommendations have already produced satisfactory results. In France, the President of the French Federation of Associations for the League of Nations addressed to the teachers of France on 8 November 1927, with the authorisation of the Minister of Education, an appeal to give instruction on the League, including special reference to the measures to be taken on behalf of industrial and agricultural workers. The principal British teachers' associations have also prepared a note on the lessons to be given on the International Labour Organisation. This note deals in some detail with the best methods of conveying the Organisation's work to the minds of children. Moreover, in Canada, the Department of Education of Nova Scotia last year arranged for a

six weeks' summer school for teachers at Dalhousie University, Halifax, at which lectures on the work of the League and the International Labour Organisation were given by a former member of the staff of the Office.

It may thus be said that the ideals of social justice are gradually permeating through all the forms of education.

77. *Relations with the churches.* — The Office endeavours to follow with the same sympathy and attention the modern religious movements, which are taking so much interest in labour questions and which can exert a greater influence than is often supposed. These movements can undoubtedly give the International Labour Organisation valuable assistance in various ways.

The great movement, for example, which was originated in the Roman Catholic Church by the Encyclical "*Rerum Novarum*" continues to produce excellent results. It would be very interesting to follow all its developments in detail, but there is only space here to note some of its more important features.

On assuming the pontificate (December, 1922) Pope Pius XI. restated the catholic doctrine on moral, legal and social questions, and especially on "the right of ownership, the rights and duties of workmen, both agricultural and industrial, and relations between workers and employers". Pius XI. protested energetically against those who, while recognising these principles, "acted throughout their lives exactly as if the teachings and orders so often reiterated had lost their initial value or had even been wholly repealed". The Pope therefore stated that these instructions should be again put into force, and specially emphasised the necessity of a "renaissance in the education of modern youth".

The Catholic Hierarchy has remained faithful to this spirit of the Encyclical "*Rerum Novarum*", and is intensifying its efforts to make the influence of the Encyclical felt in everyday life. Provincial decrees, pastoral letters, collective manifestoes, and catechisms all reiterate and expand the teachings of Leo XIII on the rules of a really Catholic social organisation, on an adequate wage, legitimate strikes, conciliation, and the duties of the workman to assist his companions in joining "associations which support in a Christian manner the interests of the workers."

Faced with the changed and unforeseen conditions of the last few years and the economic conflicts of the war and post-war periods, the Catholic Hierarchy has applied itself to completing and expanding this teaching. With a renewed energy the Bishops have condemned the doctrines and disastrous effects of *laissez-faire*. A joint declaration of the Belgian Episcopate, for example, (August, 1925) reiterates the words of Leo XIII, and charges *laissez-faire* with being responsible for the "lamentable situa-

tion of the working classes during the last century; it is due to it that the workers' interests have been so unjustly misunderstood, badly protected and so badly defended in Parliaments... Socialism has rightly reacted against the social disorganisation produced by *laissez-faire*, but it must not pride itself upon monopolising this reaction". And, as a temporary measure for furthering the solution of specific problems, the Bishops state that they are not against a "compromise" or political union between socialists and Christian democrats, provided the integrity of their respective doctrines and programmes is respected.

In the same year seven Austrian Bishops, in a joint Christmas Message, expressed their reprobation of that *laissez-faire* doctrine which "has changed to capitalism in the worst sense of the word and to the tyranny of ownership—the principal cause of the disorder and the ruin of our economic structure". The Message did not condemn modern industry, the present system of credit, or the wage-earning system, but it did vigorously denounce that "uncontrolled plutocracy" which "flouts justice and monopolises the power to raise prices". It also denounced "the money magnates who use the sufferings of the common people to consolidate their own power... The banks reign supreme over the States of the world, and so long as they maintain their rule there can be no workers' legislation which will be durable and effective".

The moral is that there must be a return to real Christianity. And in this connection the Austrian Bishops, pointing to the lessons of history, energetically refuted the "false and wicked" accusation that "the Catholic Church is satisfied to preach to the workers obedience and patience in face of the pride of capitalism, and that it favours and protects industrial magnates". But "it is not with the devil of socialism that the demon of capitalism can be driven out." The new world must be built upon Christian principles: Leo XIII. laid down the principles, and they should be the basis of the new order.

On the duties of securing work for the workers or of fixing a just wage, joint messages issued by Bishops in the United States, Belgium, Austria, Northern France and Lyons all likewise develop the doctrines of the Encyclical.

The Austrian Bishops remind property owners of their "social mission" and the duty of work, and state that "they should employ their riches for the well-being of society as a whole, with a view to opening new workshops for those who seek employment, for all men who can work have both the duty and the right to work". The situation of the wage-earning workman must be "secured"; and hence the necessity of a wage which, though based on output, will allow for a standard of life suitable to the individual, as well as for the creation and support of a family, and from which

provision can also be made against sickness and old age. The Bishops of Lombardy (1920) also emphasised that in exceptional periods of economic crisis it is only just that the capitalist and property owner should accept reductions in their income before the workman who can economise nothing of his own needs. And the United States Bishops in their "programme of social reconstruction" demand legislation fixing a scale of wages which should at least suffice for the decent support of a family in the case of a wage-earning man, and in the case of a woman should allow her to live alone according to a reasonable standard. In the absence of such legal minimum wage, the State should provide for sickness insurance as well as unemployment and old age insurance. This programme further declares that a living wage is only the minimum required by justice, and it expresses the hope that the right of the worker to organise and to deal with his employer by his own elected delegates will never again be questioned.

In September 1925, during the bank strike in France, several French Bishops also stated that a proper wage should "be sufficient for the necessities of daily life". The Bishop of Trèves, too, when he intervened in the dispute in the Saar in 1927, impressed upon the managements of the iron and steel firms the necessity of a peaceful solution, and asked the employers' organisations of Sarrebrück to be conciliatory and to grant the slight increases in wages which had been approved by a conciliation committee.

The 1891 teachings on trade union questions have been completed and expanded in the same way.

The Popes and Bishops, of course, emphasise the right of private ownership, the duties of workers towards employers, and the right of the employer to conscientious work. They recall the services of capitalists in enterprise and production. They regard the workers' unions in a confessional light, but they mean to safeguard the independence of these organisations. The Austrian Bishops welcome the spirit of solidarity of the workman "who does not wish to see himself delivered defenceless to the power of capitalism". The Archbishop of Lyons (May, 1924) believed that an employer "neglects the pontifical teachings when he will only deal with individual workmen", and in the name of Pope Benedict XV. the Cardinal Secretary of State (1921) approved the separate formation of employers' and workers' organisations with joint arbitration committees as liaison bodies between them.

The Austrian Episcopate strongly endorsed "intelligent collaboration between employers and employees in a real community of interests. Workers are perfectly justified in demanding a real vote in the management (e.g. works councils), provided they do not prejudice the rights of others,

whether employers or members of other social classes". The Archbishop of Cologne, too, on two occasions (December 1926 and February 1927) emphasised the necessity of collaboration between employers and workers. In his opinion it was clear that Christianity does not in any way condemn the existing economic order, technically called "capitalist", which represents real progress in economic life; but an exclusively economic mentality, cupidity for profits without any regard for the fate of the producers, and "mammonism" have created economic and social situations which are a grave danger for the employer and a real threat to millions of men that they will be deprived of all that is most valuable in human life. Such conditions necessarily create increased economic dependence and insecurity. Nevertheless, machinery and specialisation of work do not necessarily make the worker a mere automaton and destroy all his pride and pleasure in his work if the Christian spirit is fostered and vocational education is developed to the greatest possible extent. Besides, industrial undertakings must establish a personal relationship between the men and the management, so that the management understands the higher aspects of labour and can appreciate how to treat their men in this spirit. In the Archbishop's judgment, where works councils are made compulsory by law they are in a position to create and enhance a feeling of common responsibility, and to render the worker capable of taking a responsible part in the administration of industry. Above all, the success of such a measure depends on the choice of the persons representing the two sides. On the one side, the workers must understand economic requirements and loyally co-operate for improving their output, promoting rationalisation and enhancing the quality of their work. On the other side, "employers must give labour the position it deserves in modern conditions alongside capital, and must recognise the rights of the working class to a standard of life worthy of civilised countries and to an intellectual and moral as well as social progression." If this spirit is incalculated, prosperous and contented labour populations will develop throughout the world, and the proper measures will be taken to continue this state of things.

In 1925 the Belgian Bishops stated that it was necessary "to harmonise the rights of capital with those of labour in industrial organisations sustained by faith and represented and defended in the Legislatures... and to use universal suffrage to secure the establishment of peace and order, midway between the other alternatives with which political parties threaten us—anarchy or dictatorship." The same year, the Austrian Bishops declared that "it is a social law that a whole class cannot be permanently deprived of its rights and ignored without causing the most disastrous results to society as a whole".

And they added: "that is the evil fate of our epoch. The worker should have the chance to work, he should enjoy the rights and social consideration which the dignity of labour deserves in Christian society. The class of factory workers should, therefore, have been incorporated into society from the very first". In the same sense the Bishops of Lombardy wrote, in 1920, that a class "*quâ* group of individuals exercising the same occupation should be organised, if it is to attain to its full strength and be able to use it for the moral and material well-being of its members in their dealings with other classes and the public authorities."

In the strictly economic field, i.e. without reference to any political system, the National Catholic War Council of the United States has advocated very considerable reforms. In April 1919 its administrative committee, composed among others of four Bishops and Archbishops (including the Archbishop of New York) published a programme of "social reconstruction" which the United States Bishops called "remarkable". The document deals particularly with factory organisation. It states that, although collectivism has little chance of rapidly succeeding, this is no reason for being content with the *status quo*. Employers should recognise the workers' unions, and labour should gradually secure a larger representation in the administration of industrial affairs, such as control of processes and machinery, the nature of products, employment and dismissal of staff, and healthy conditions of labour. The real possibilities of intensifying production will not be realised so long as the majority of workers remain simply wage-earners. Most of them should, in one way or another, become owners at least of the instruments of production, through co-operative producing societies and combinations of co-associations. By the second method, they would acquire a considerable share in the common fund, and would exercise a reasonable control over the administration—and this would mean that the wage-earning system would be to a great extent abolished, but would not imply the abolition of private property.

Once again the fundamental conception of the Christian economic system is emphasised. Profit is not the chief end of industry, and riches are only held in trust. As the Archbishop of Cologne wrote in December 1926, the manufacturer should not only aim at the greatest output but "he should also see that his undertaking provides his men with the means of leading a really humane life, while the worker by his application and conscientious conduct should turn out work of the best quality. Economic activity should be a social mission."

It has been considered important to give the above quotations here and so re-emphasise the Catholic doctrine enunciated in

the Encyclical of 1891. In the light of this doctrine it is not difficult to understand how, from the point of view of their own teachings, the Catholics can give their support not only to the programme of labour legislation defined in Part XIII but also to the aspirations from which that programme was formed.

As a matter of fact, this support was given in various ways in 1927, as in previous years.

The Office was represented, as on previous occasions, at various "Social Weeks", and at the "Foreign Missions Weeks" at Louvain, which are considered specially successful in missionary circles. Increasing attention is also being paid to the social aspects of colonial reforms, and especially the problem of forced labour, by the principal publications of mission organisations, groups of "Social" Catholics and the Catholic Union of International Studies.

The Office also maintains cordial relations with the International Catholic Social Service Union, and supported, with very successful results, the proposals of the "Caritas Catholica" that it should participate in the next International Congress of Social Work.

During 1927 the Office has also largely increased its contacts and relations with the Catholic organisations, including among others the International Union of Catholic Physical Education Work and the new International Office of Catholic Journalists.

On the Protestant side, the movement for social action inaugurated by the world Christian Conference on Life and Work at Stockholm in 1925 has been strengthened in various ways during 1927.

At its annual session at Winchester (England) the committee for developing social collaboration among the protestant, anglican and orthodox communities decided to deal specially with the various items of the Message which the Stockholm Conference addressed to the Christian world and in which industrial and social problems were given an important place.

Moreover, the International Institute of Social Christianity, an offspring of the Stockholm Conference, has been definitely established, with its seat at Geneva. The Institute proposes to study social and economic developments and problems in the light of Christian morality; it aims at being a centre of *rapprochement* and information helping the churches to carry out their social and moral work. A preliminary information service is already functioning. It both gives information to the churches adhering to the Stockholm Conference on the social and humanitarian activities of the various private and official international institutions, and supplies these institutions with information upon the attitude of the churches towards social problems. Particular attention is paid to the International Labour Organisation and Office. In addition, the In-

stitute has recently begun to publish an international review called "Stockholm". The object of this quarterly publication, it is stated, is to emphasise the fundamental principles of Christianity and their repercussion upon the social and economic order of society, and to guide the work of the churches on social and labour questions.

And this international action on the part of the churches adhering to the Stockholm Conference is supported by national movements on the same lines.

In Germany, for example, two important congresses were held last year, the Social Evangelical Congress at Hamburg on 7 and 8 June, and the 25th Church Social Congress at Düsseldorf from 3-5 October. At Düsseldorf the following questions were discussed—the effect of rationalisation, the relations between life and labour, the situation of actors, holidays for young workers, the forms of social and Christian collaboration between workers and employers, etc.

In Great Britain, too, the steps taken at Birmingham in 1924 by the C. O. P. E. C. Conference (Christian Order in Politics, Economics and Citizenship) to establish a Christian order of society have been and are being followed up by many practical schemes. One of the most recent is the organisation of a nation-wide campaign for the protection of adolescents. It aims at securing through the creation of a strong body of public opinion the extension of the obligatory school age to 15 or even 16 years, the raising of the age of admission to work, and various other measures of protection (vocational guidance, holidays, facilities for leisure, etc.).

In Switzerland, again, the Federation of the Churches has made an official appeal for extending the weekly rest day.

The Protestant Churches are thus gradually working out the conclusions adopted by the Stockholm Conference, and so helping to carry out the principles of the International Labour Charter with which those conclusions are closely identified.

78. *Charitable organisations.* — Another powerful influence for humanity and justice is the international charitable organisations, whose ultimate objects are really to promote social well-being.

They can infuse a spirit of goodwill and solidarity into the Organisation's legal and official work for the protection of the workers, and collaboration between them and the Organisation can produce very fruitful results. The Office cannot therefore neglect the work which they are doing or not maintain relations with them. Hence the Office's continued collaboration with the League of Red Cross Societies and the other national and international associations for social service which are organising the International Conference of Social Work to be held this year at Paris.

One of the five sections of this Conference will deal particularly with social service in industry. Voluntary social work, which of late years has widely developed, more and more requires a high standard of personnel. The Conference will study the relations which should exist between voluntary social work and public social services in the industrial field, and the training of the new type of personnel required for this work. It will specially investigate the relations between the factory inspectorate and social service work. The voluntary associations for social service are directly interested in the factory inspectorate not only to the extent to which they seek to have the inspection system strengthened so as to ensure strict enforcement of the law, but also to the extent to which they can collaborate with and assist the factory inspector in his work. And the fourth section of the Conference will deal with the relation between the factory and the family—standard of life of the family, workers' spare time, unemployment and the family, and family migration problems.

Relations have also been maintained with the International Association for the study and improvement of human relations in industry. This organisation has not held any general congress during the past year, but it organised a summer school and its work has progressed in various directions.

The Office has also kept in regular touch with the International Red Cross Committee and took part in the Conference which it organised last year; and it is in constant relations with the International Save the Children Fund and the International Child Welfare Association.

The Office is following with close attention the increasing tendency which is being shown by the Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association to take up and study labour problems. The World Alliance of the Y.M.C.A. has created an international committee for labour problems. This committee submitted its report to the plenary meeting of the World Committee at Geneva in July 1927. It particularly called the attention of the national committees to the necessity for extending the services of the Association to young workers. It emphasised the duty of developing the idea of social solidarity between young men of all occupations, classes and nations. In the United States, in particular, the Christian associations have paid great attention to the field of labour. Three or four conferences have taken place during the year on "human relations in industry".

The Rotary International is another important association for social service with which the Office has entered into relations. Its endeavours to promote a higher moral outlook in business and in-

dustrial relations cannot but attract the Office's attention.

79. *Women's organisations.* — Another of the great forces working for justice is the women's movement, which, if it sometimes seems disjointed or incoherent, is nevertheless making steady progress. It has again manifested itself in 1927 in its twofold aspect—the general feminist movement claiming absolute equality between women and men, and the working women's movement with its special claims, which sometimes coincide with working men's claims and sometimes are opposed to them, particularly on organisation problems.

As a matter of fact, it would appear that the opposition between the two branches of the movement, from which the work of the Office has sometimes suffered, and which has been referred to in previous Reports, is to a great extent diminishing.

It is true that, during his recent visit to the northern countries, the Director found that the Scandinavian women's organisations are not content to accept special protection for their sex, partly on grounds of principle and partly because they are afraid that special treatment may place working women in a position of economic inferiority. But even in these countries it would appear that the partisans of absolute equality are obliged to recognise that night work places a double burden on women—their occupation and their household work—and that maternity is an inequality imposed by nature itself. The Office does not despair of obtaining even from the Scandinavian countries adherence to such Conventions as the one on the night work of women or the maternity Convention, which has recently been ratified by Germany. In any case, it was decided at the last meeting of the International Council of Women that no steps should be taken in connection with women's protective legislation without previous consultation with the working women's organisations concerned.

This is a prudent step. Everything goes to show that the numbers of working women are increasing every year. The following fact is sufficient to warrant this assertion: the German census of 1925 showed an increase of 30 % as compared with 1907 in the number of working women, while during the same period the total female population only increased by 15 %.

The working women's organisations have been asserting their claims more emphatically every year. In July last, the International Conference of Working Women convened at Paris by the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade Unions adopted resolutions in which working women formally assert their determination to obtain satisfaction for their claims for the protection of working women in all branches of feminine activity. These demands are concerned, firstly, with the protection of women

quâ workers, and, secondly, the protection of working women *quâ* women. They cover all sorts of protective measures—the eight-hour day, factory inspection, sickness insurance, freedom of association, minimum wages, ratification of the Washington Conventions on the non-employment of women before and after childbirth and the night work of women, and extension and application of the Washington and Geneva Recommendations on the protection of women employed in unhealthy industries and in agriculture.

In Great Britain the Permanent Mixed Committee of Women's Industrial Organisations, which represents more than a million organised working women, issued on November 1 last a manifesto in the *Labour Woman* in which the Committee stated its attitude towards protective legislation for working women. This manifesto affirms that the advantages to be derived from a more powerful organisation of the workers can only be obtained for women through the adoption of legislation, which is envisaged under three forms :

(1) provisions which would be of advantage both for men and for women, but which can only be obtained at the moment for the latter ;

(2) regulations which are more necessary to women than to men, because the former are less fitted for carrying out certain dangerous work, particularly work which calls for great muscular effort ;

(3) the protective regulations required for women by reason of the fact of maternity.

English working women are opposed to the prohibition of the employment of married women on the mere grounds of their marriage, demand the same pay for the same work with men, and maintain that all occupations should be equally open to both sexes. These claims, which they have always upheld, have now gained the support of other feminine organisations, and further progress in legal protection may be expected.

80. — In this review of the social forces which can contribute to the success of the work of the Organisation some consideration should perhaps be given to the various *political parties*. It is obviously of their essence to strive continually to accentuate their differences and mutual opposition. Moreover, the same party labels do not always imply the same policies and programmes in the different countries, and curious confusion is created by the infinity of shades of opinion. It is also true that general theories such as might have retained some international value have been noticeably modified, not to say weakened. It would serve no real practical purpose to state the claims which might be made first by conservatism, then by liberalism, then by socialism for the de-

velopment of the workers' protection or the defence of the dignity of man in the person of the producer. It is wiser for the moment to say no more than that for the realisation of certain ideas, for understanding between the nations, for the triumph of the League of Nations, or even directly for the international protection of the workers, men of all parties are grouped in associations with aims and objects which are often similar to those of the International Labour Organisation. Hence the many opportunities for cooperation which the Office endeavours to develop every year.

The Inter-Parliamentary Union. — The Twenty-Fourth Conference of the Union was held at Paris from 25 to 30 August, thirty-three countries being represented. Two questions of interest to the Organisation were on the programme : migration and the work of women. The Office kept in touch with this meeting of the Union.

The Inter-Parliamentary Commercial Conference. — It would perhaps be a misnomer in this case to speak of close collaboration : there have even been occasional misunderstandings to which attention has been drawn in previous Reports. It would not appear that the organisers of the Inter-Parliamentary Commercial Conference have always had complete confidence in the International Labour Office or in the League of Nations as a whole. The need of international agreement is such, however, that misunderstandings cannot last for long. It was noted by the observer sent by the Office to last year's Conference, which opened at Rio de Janeiro on 5 September, with representatives from 44 countries, that migration problems again caused the attention of the Conference to be turned to the work of the Office, and that in endeavouring to find solutions for the crises in the mining industry the Conference was led to consider the possibility of national and international arrangements between Governments, employers and workers, from which the Office, by its very constitution, cannot be entirely excluded. It was also noted by the same observer that, while some delegates still manifested a certain amount of reserve in their attitude towards the League of Nations, others showed that they fully appreciated the value of the International Labour Organisation. The Office is convinced that more complete agreement will be reached as time goes on.

81. *The International Federation of League of Nations Societies.* — Collaboration with this Federation runs smoothly and is comprehensive. At the annual conference at Berlin, which was attended by representatives from 24 nations, three resolutions were adopted recommending the national associations to form advisory committees to study industrial, social and economic questions, to work for the adoption

of international labour Conventions and the nomination of complete delegations to the Conference, and to work more particularly for the ratification of the Hours of Work Convention and for instruction in schools in the principles of the Labour Charter. The Federation also gave public evidence of its desire to collaborate in the activities of the Office by sending a deputation to the International Labour Conference, which was received by the President of the Conference and the Chairman of the Governing Body, to whom it officially transmitted the resolutions adopted at the Berlin Congress.

82. — The Office was similarly interested in the conference held by an important body, which at the other end of the world is endeavouring to promote international understanding and peace, viz. the *Institute of Pacific Relations*, which was founded in July 1925 and which held its second Conference at Honolulu in July last. As is done by the Associations for the League of Nations, the Institute collaborates with national groups, in the different countries bordering on the Pacific Ocean. The Conference of the Institute, which meets every two years, unites the different national groups in studying problems of common interest and in examining the appropriate means of furthering international understanding and cooperation.

At the 1927 meeting groups were present from the following countries: Australia, Canada, China, the United States of America, Great Britain, Hawaii, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, and the Philippine Islands. The questions discussed included some which were of particular interest to the Office, viz. the industrialisation of the East (present status of factory production and household industries in China and Japan, effects of the industrial development of the East on European industries, etc.) and the economic aspects of migration (effect of migration on the economic conditions of the workers in the lands from and to which emigrants go: migration and the standard of living).

One of the Office's officials was present at this Conference. A few months later the Secretary of the Institute visited the Office. As the Office is at present engaged in collecting information on labour conditions in Far Eastern countries, the work of the Institute is of extreme importance to it. But still more important perhaps is the spirit of conciliation and understanding which the Institute is endeavouring to foster in countries between which dangerous disputes are still possible on these very population and labour questions.

83. *Disabled and other ex-service men.* — Like others of the associations already referred to, the associations of disabled and other ex-service men have a membership

of men of all parties: they have special reasons of their own for furthering the cause of peace. As it has done from the beginning, the Office continued in 1927 to keep in close touch with these associations, sometimes taking advantage of their support and backing before public opinion, and at other times assisting them by means of research or information.

These associations, some of which expected to be ephemeral, have retained their membership and their vitality. In several countries, e.g. in France, there is a movement towards the creation of a national federation to formulate a common programme not merely for the defence of the private interests of ex-service men, but also for the solution of the more comprehensive problems of national life.

The international organisation created at Geneva in 1925 is steadily developing. At the third international Congress at Vienna in September 1927 there were more than 100 delegates representing 25 national federations and through them more than 5 million members.

As in previous years the Congress examined the situation of ex-service men and their dependants in the different countries, and laid down principles for the assessment of disability and the fixing of war pensions. Documentary information prepared by the Office was extensively utilised in preparing the reports laid before the Congress, and in thanking the Office for its assistance the Congress asked that the Office's technical collaboration should be extended and that a Committee of experts should be convened to examine the problem of compensating war victims, as was done in 1922 for the problems of medical insurance and prosthesis and in 1923 for the problem of re-fitting disabled men for normal life. It may be that this request, which the Governing Body has not yet examined, will encounter certain difficulties, as it would not appear to fall strictly and directly within the competence of the Office.

The disabled and other ex-service men, however, are not solely concerned with their own material interests, but are giving more and more attention to the problems of organisation for peace. These problems were in the forefront of the agenda and discussions at the last international Congress, which not only reasserted its acceptance of the principles of compulsory arbitration, of effectively controlled disarmament and of the rationalisation of economic agreements between States, but also considered and criticised the work of the League of Nations and of the International Labour Organisation during the past year. Its criticism is eminently sympathetic and constructive. The discharged and disabled soldiers and sailors realise the difficulties and slowness of international progress and the gravity of the dangers still threatening peace. Without bitterness or discouragement they ex-

pressed their confidence in the future of international institutions for the realisation of political peace and social peace. They asserted their determination to continue to serve the cause of educating the nations for peace through their great national federations, their thousands of district and local groups and their hundreds of journals or pamphlets, and decided that their efforts to educate should first be directed to the millions of war orphans and children of ex-service men.

As the French Minister of Foreign Affairs remarked when receiving the Managing Committee of the international organisation in January 1928, "it is gratifying for those responsible for the direction of international institutions, for statesmen and ministers, to feel that they are understood and supported by the war generations."

84. — The last association to be referred to was the fore-runner of the International Labour Organisation, viz. the *International Association for Social Progress*, which includes men and women of all parties and schools of thought. It was formed by the amalgamation of three associations which were working on parallel lines for furthering international labour legislation, social insurance, and the prevention or relief of unemployment, and has continued to produce the gratifying results anticipated at its first general assembly held at Montreux in 1926. The 1927 Assembly was held at Vienna, the former Austrian Chancellor, Dr. Karl Renner, presiding, and was brilliantly opened by speeches from the present Chancellor, Monsignor Seipel, the Minister of Social Affairs, Dr. Resch, and the Lord Mayor of Vienna, Mr. Seitz. The Assembly was assured by Mr. Hainisch, President of the Confederation, of his warm sympathy, and later discussed with the greatest competence questions of capital interest to the International Labour Organisation, such as the relations between protection and output, the main principles of unemployment insurance, credit control with a view to stabilising employment, the social consequences of scientific management, maternity insurance and family protection. Reports of high scientific value had been prepared on each of these questions, and the high level of the discussions and the conclusions to which they led will not be without permanent influence on the more enlightened sections of public opinion which follow these activities, which indeed may be considered as the preliminary ground work in preparation for the time when the same questions will be dealt with by the official Conference of the International Labour Organisation. The Vienna Assembly also considered the problem of the application of international labour Conventions. In a special resolution it was stated that the specialists and active workers in labour and social affairs who are grouped in the numerous national sections of the Associa-

tion appreciate the new procedure which has been instituted to facilitate examination by the Conference of the annual reports furnished by the States Members under Article 408; and the national sections were invited to approach if necessary their respective Governments with a view to urging them loyally to fulfil their international engagements. At its meeting at Basle on 4 February 1928, immediately after the 38th Session of the Governing Body, the Managing Committee of the Association expressed its grave apprehension that the proposal for revising the Hours of Work Convention which had just been made might endanger this "essential basis of every policy of social progress."

The Office is convinced that such an enthusiastic centre of scientific and practical activity for the improvement of the worker's lot cannot itself be endangered by the material difficulties of which hints have reached the Office. The old associations of which the present one is the successor were supported not only by the subscriptions of their members but also by State subsidies. Some of these subsidies have now disappeared, while others have been maintained at the old figure, though their present value is much diminished. It is hoped that no one will imagine that such an association is less necessary than before, when the International Labour Organisation had not come into existence. The rôle of a private international association, most of whose aims are also those of the official international organisation, can of course no longer be the same as before, but the part it has to play in co-ordinating—and transmitting to the official organisation, even by way of criticism—the scientific and moral help of those elements of public opinion which are not directly represented at the Conference, is still one of the greatest importance. It is hoped that the Office will never lack the help of this Association, and that the material difficulties which it is now experiencing will soon be successfully overcome.

85. *Relations with workers.* — However important may be the assistance which the various associations so far referred to can give to the work of the Organisation, more important still is the direct action of the organisations of workers and employers with which the Office is, so to speak, constitutionally allied. The progress made by these organisations is in fact a determining factor in the Office's progress.

No doubt the world of labour is still profoundly divided. There is hardly any country where the wage-earners of all shades of political and denominational opinion are combined in one organisation as a matter of course, though this is generally held to be the ideal form of trade union organisation. However, it is encouraging to note that the various wings of the labour movement, excepting the com-

munist, approve the aims and objects of the Organisation and participate in its work; and this fact may be regarded as a sound guarantee for the future.

To take the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade Unions first. There is surely no longer any need to reply to the one-time criticism that the Office is a "branch" of the Amsterdam International, or, on the other hand, to the communist reproach that the Amsterdam Federation is a vassal organisation of the International Labour Office. Such allegations have died a natural death, and the situation is now clear and settled. The Office does not impose any programme or policy on the International Federation of Trade Unions and, conversely, the majority standpoint of the Amsterdam International among organised workers does not prejudice the constitutional working of the International Labour Office.

It may simply be noted that, by virtue of these clearly defined principles, the International Federation of Trade Unions has repeatedly shown that it retains complete confidence in the limited, yet effective, work accomplished by the Conference and the International Labour Office. The proceedings of the International Trade Union Congress held last year in Paris, as well as of the Congresses of the General Confederation of Labour of France and of the British Trade Union Congress, furnish ample support for this statement. For example, the Report of the General Council of the British Trade Union Congress to the 59th Annual Session of Congress held at Edinburgh last September says:—

The Sessions of the Conference have once more shown the absolute necessity for the existence of the International Labour Office. The ill-informed criticism which was directed against the institution soon after its establishment is now seldom heard. The institution has certainly gained the confidence of the workers. Every year it extends the area of its operations; it has made its influence felt in all parts of the world, east and west; the annual Conference is the most useful of international gatherings held in the cause of international justice and exercises international pressure on backward States (for example, in the discussion on the Director's Report, a number of Government representatives offered apologies for failing to ratify Conventions and assured the Conference that every effort will be made to introduce the necessary legislation as soon as possible in their countries.) In addition, at the Conference one learns to appreciate factors in social problems which are not revealed in the separate internationalisms of the workers or the employers. The keen struggle which takes place every year in the committees and the plenary sessions is but a reflex of the gigantic struggle in the outside world. This was clearly illustrated in the debates on the subject of freedom of association. Had the Conference not been so representative, these debates might have ended in some useless compromise, instead of which they reflected the real situation.

And the fraternal delegate of the British Trade Union Congress to the Convention of the American Federation of Labor held last September in Los Angeles, California, endorsed this attitude when he stated that

the co-operation of the British movement with the International Labour Office promised immediate and effectual international results for the trade union movement.

It is, however, not merely by means of friendly and sympathetic statements or resolutions that this co-operation is being made manifest. It is to be seen in the numerous demands for information (in 1927 approximately 150 requests), by the interest taken in the preparatory work of the Conference and committees, and the part which the workers' organisations take in the Office's research work and investigations. In the period under review innumerable proofs of this activity have again been furnished. For instance, it was to the International Labour Office that the workers' delegates of all shades of opinion turned at the time of the International Economic Conference to obtain documents which they regarded as indispensable to the important discussions in which they took part. The international trade union secretariats of metal workers, workers engaged in the food and drink trades, transport workers, and building operatives, are profoundly interested in the problems which are engaging the attention of the International Labour Office, particularly the problems of safety and industrial hygiene. The enquiry into the conditions of work in the coal mining industry has also afforded the Office an opportunity for very close contact with the representatives of the Miners' International Federation.

It is to the International Labour Office, again, as the acknowledged protector of the interests of working people, that the various trade union organisations turn, even when they desire to have presented to and urged upon other international bodies such claims as those of the miners, who are feeling the adverse effects of the coal crisis, or those of the officers of the mercantile marine, who consider that their careers are menaced by the decision given by the Permanent Court of International Justice in the "Lotus" case.

This close connection between the Office and the workers' organisations itself explains the attention with which the various services of the Office follow day by day the development of the trade union movement in the various countries and of the international trade union secretariats. Whenever desirable and possible, the Office has complied with the invitations which have been addressed to it, and has sent officials to attend workers' congresses (international congresses of metal workers, compositors, glass workers, clothing workers, barbers, leather workers). And the Office was also represented throughout the period of the Congress of the International Federation of Trade Unions which was held last year in Paris.

Time and space do not allow of any attempt being made to review in detail the

present situation of the International Trade Union Federation, or to define its present orientation. A clear idea of what is happening, however, is of paramount interest to the International Labour Office. The strength and predominance of one wing over another in this active organisation will determine the nature and extent of the Federation's participation in the work of the Office. The past year has given rise to all sorts of problems in this connection, one of which at any rate appears to have been solved. The activities of the Anglo-Russian Advisory Committee, whose development has been described in previous Reports, have now finally terminated, the Trade Union Congress at Edinburgh having put an end to its fruitless career. The idea of an unconditional fusion of the International Federation of Amsterdam and Moscow as a necessary condition for a united working class front has thus now been abandoned.

In the Scandinavian countries, however, the situation has not yet been cleared up as in Great Britain. Last year the opinion was expressed that the Norwegian Federation of Trade Unions, which had seceded from the International Federation of Trade Unions, was gradually becoming more disposed to rejoin the Federation, and that the Finnish Trade Unions, whilst continuing to endorse communist principles, would be disposed to adopt methods of closer collaboration with the trade union movement of western Europe. These hopes have not been realised. The Norwegian Federation has decided not to re-affiliate with the Amsterdam Federation, and a new committee has been formed for the purpose of establishing closer relations between the trade union federations in Norway, Finland and Soviet Russia.

On the other hand, the International Federation of Trade Unions has secured the affiliation of the trade union movements in Estonia, and the white workers' federation in South-West Africa.

Although the International Federation of Trade Unions appears to have formulated an almost unanimous policy towards the Red International of Labour Unions, however, it still feels the need of a clearer pronouncement of its policy towards the newer developments of industrialism. It will be no easy matter to settle this policy, for the problem of peace in industry and the means of attaining this object is involved. This surely is the great question which the trade unions in each country now have to face. And surely the manifesto which has recently been published by the General Confederation of Labour in France on the eve of the general election and which is not influenced in any way by political or party considerations, is singularly suggestive on this point.

The Office is gratified to think that the practice which has been followed for the past eight years in the International Labour

Organisation and the traditions which have thus been created will help the masses of working people organised in the International Federation of Trade Unions to find the best basis for their endeavours to solve this new problem.

Perhaps the existence of the International Labour Organisation will help the Federation to surmount the difficulties which the Paris Congress revealed. The example of the Organisation will perhaps indicate how the various temperaments within the labour movement, and the different customs and trade union traditions of such large communities as those in the English, German and Latin countries can be harmonised and moulded together for the necessary purposes of international agreement.

Furthermore, the very regularity of the Organisation's activities, the Sessions of the Governing Body and the annual Sessions of the Conference, is in itself a stimulus to the International Federation of Trade Unions as well as other large-scale trade union organisations in the direction of creating a more coherent and united form of organisation. It is no mere chance that, at a time when the Federation is strengthening the ties between itself and its affiliated centres, its secretariat is taking an increasingly active interest in the preparatory work of the Conference or meetings of the Office's committees. Obviously, the scope of trade union action surpasses by far the somewhat limited work which has been entrusted to the Office, but surely the trade unions must feel that this work provides a sure foundation for any international action.

86. *Christian trade unions.* — The Christian trade unions also feel the importance of co-operating with the Organisation. This collaboration is based on the same principles and methods as in the case of the trade unions affiliated with Amsterdam—constant correspondence with every section of the movement including the Utrecht International Federation, the international occupational federations, and the national federations—requests for information or for investigations on the social or moral questions of particular interest to Christian trade union circles, such as the wage labour of married women—and often exchanges of views on the work which is being carried out by both parties.

Nor has the Office neglected those personal contacts which it has always regarded as specially important. On every possible occasion representatives of the Office have been sent to Christian trade union congresses and international meetings, and the Office has also been visited by many Christian trade unionists, who have come to Geneva to get into personal touch with the various services of the Office or to take part in meetings arranged by the Office or the League of Nations. It is noteworthy in this connection that the League is following

the Office's example and is increasingly applying to representatives of the Christian trade union movement for their aid in the discussion of questions affecting the working classes.

The Office places its scientific information at the disposal of the Christian trade unions. It follows the policy, from which it has never departed during the last few years, of making no distinction between any of the organisations which have been given the opportunity to co-operate in proportion to their membership in many of the Office's activities and have shown themselves ready to help to bring those activities to successful results. The Office is well aware of the active goodwill of the Christian trade unions towards it, and much appreciates the loyal co-operation it receives from them both at Geneva in the Conference and other meetings and in their work in their own countries for furthering ratifications.

The Christian trade union movement in the various countries, like the labour movement as a whole, appears to have been greatly strengthened by the mitigation of the economic crisis. In Germany and Austria, besides Belgium, Holland and France, the numerical strength of the Christian trade unions is steadily growing. And in Switzerland the Christian unions have been able since last September to make good their losses during the previous years, and have reached their highest membership since the war. In the international field, too, the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions has been strengthened by the affiliation of the Swiss Federation of Protestant Trade Unions, and negotiations are at present in progress to secure the affiliation of the Christian unions in Poland, Mexico and Chile.

There still remains outstanding, however, the claim of the Christian trade unions for wider and more direct association with the actual machinery of the Organisation and especially with the Governing Body.

The Office's attitude on this question has not, and could not have, changed since it was first raised: the Office is bound by its constitution and established rules.

In last year's Report reference was made to the two lines on which it had been proposed to find a solution. The first method was suggested by Mr. Serrarens, i.e. to amend the Standing Orders of the Conference so as to introduce a kind of proportional representation system in the various groups', and particularly the workers' groups, elections and appointments. This proposal was examined by the Standing Orders Committee and rejected *nem. con.*, a decision which was clearly prompted by a desire not to interfere with the already well-established autonomy of the groups. The other method, which the Office has endeavoured to promote as far as possible, was to try to secure an understanding between the two trade union federations concerned by means of direct negotiations be-

tween Utrecht and Amsterdam. These negotiations have not yet progressed very far, partly no doubt because of the numerous questions raised at the Paris Congress and the changes which ensued in the secretariat of the Amsterdam International, and partly owing to other circumstances. The Office is aware, however, that the negotiations will be continued in due course and ventures to hope that a result will be reached without much further delay.

Perhaps the relations which already exist in various countries between the Christian trade union movement and the trade unions affiliated with Amsterdam should help to foster international collaboration between the two movements, at any rate in regard to the work of the International Labour Organisation. A united front, to borrow a hallowed phrase, cannot be effected unless there is a common objective. Surely the programme of social reform contained in the Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty furnishes such an objective.

The Office ventures to believe that by participation in such joint action the Christian and non-denominational trade unions could not but strengthen their own respective movements. What is striking in the history of the working class movement is that the competition between great national and international organisations is very limited, and that their advances and regressions are generally simultaneous. A systematic and concerted effort by the two movements to bring about the social reforms envisaged in the Treaty would guarantee their mutual progress.

87. — Some account must also be given of the relations of the Office with the *Fascist trade unions*. These unions have no international character, and it is only through the International Labour Organisation that they enter, though not without difficulty, into direct contact with the workers' organisations of other countries and collaborate constitutionally with them. The position of the Fascist unions is a special one. They form part of the economic constitution which the Fascist State has instituted in Italy. They represent an important element in the system of corporations. According to the *Lavoro d'Italia*, the journal of the National Federation of Fascist Unions, the membership of the unions was as follows at the end of 1927: the National Federation of Industrial Workers had 1,206,586 members regularly enrolled, the National Federation of Agricultural Workers 990,797, that of commercial workers 254,179, that of workers in land transport and inland navigation 247,344, that of workers in banks 40,317, and that of intellectual workers 70,418, making up a total of 2,809,641. The provincial unions and the various occupational categories numbered 5,366, and there were about 25,000 municipal or local unions. To the total number of

organised workers belonging to the National Federation of Fascist Unions should be added the 50,200 members of the Federation of Employees in Sea and Air Transport, which is independent.

It was pointed out last year that, although the Fascist unions have constantly collaborated in the adoption and ratification of Conventions, relations were perhaps somewhat strained between them and the Organisation. A wish was expressed that frank explanations should be exchanged. Such explanations were to a large extent given at the last Session of the Conference. Since that time, relations have tended to become constantly closer, and no incidents have arisen. The Office has been in constant contact with the Ministry of Corporations, and also with the National Federation of Fascist Unions and with the Federation of Employees in Sea and Air Transport for the exchange of publications, the supply of information and the development of the activity of the Rome office.

The discussion on the credentials of the Italian workers' delegate which takes place every year in the Conference is no longer mentioned as a reason for distrust of the Office. It is gratifying to record, in fact, that Mr. Rossoni now regards that discussion in a good-tempered and philosophic spirit. He wrote as follows at the end of an article published by the *Lavoro d'Italia* on 30 October 1927:

"At the last International Labour Conference at Geneva it was noticeable that our movement was regarded far more sympathetically than at previous Conferences. The delegates who based their opposition not on their personal convictions but on the necessity of obeying the orders of their party were increasingly numerous. Some of them appreciate what our unions have done, even though they express regret at the Fascist character of the corporations. As a matter of fact, it is only the word 'Fascist' which now alarms our opponents. The thing itself can no longer be despised. In time, the name also will come to be accepted."

Mr. Rossoni, in a address which he gave at the *Casa del pensiero* at Rome, again spoke of his impressions of Geneva and of the character of the meetings of the League of Nations which he had recently attended. He contrasted them with the debates of the International Labour Conference, not to the disadvantage of the latter. "In the International Labour Conference" he said, "it is not perpetually forbidden to give expression to one's real feelings and convictions."

"The International Labour Conference", he concluded, "constitutes a tribune from which it is possible to speak freely. It is an arena in which one can attack one's opponents or remain on the defensive. I repeat that the atmosphere has considerably changed in the International Labour Conference as far as Fascism is concerned. The change is so great that I am afraid my credentials may not even be contested at the next Session. I assure you that I should very much regret it if this were the case."

It will be appreciated that such regrets would not be shared by the Direction of the

Office. It is, however, noted with satisfaction that the bitterness of the discussions which took place in the past no longer interferes with the participation of the Fascist unions in the work of the Office, and that they unreservedly recognise its value.

88. — In order that this account of the various features of the life of the workers throughout the world may be as complete as possible, reference must be made to the organisations, whether affiliated or not to an international federation, which continue to develop in the States Members of the Organisation.

In *Japan*, in spite of the financial crisis which took place during the year, the membership of unions continued to increase. The total number of members in June 1927 was over 292,000, distributed in 488 unions. They were mostly engrossed in political rather than economic activities, in view of the approaching general election under universal suffrage. Evidence of their continued interest in international affairs is, however, to be found in the discussion which took place at the annual congress of the General Federation of Japanese Labour on a proposal that the Federation should repudiate the International Labour Conference and sever relations with the Organisation. This proposal was to a certain extent the outcome of the disappointment felt at the decision of last year's Conference to drop the question of freedom of association from this year's Agenda. Owing, however, to the strong opposition of a large majority of the leaders of the Federation, the proposal was withdrawn before it was put to the vote. Though it is regrettable that such an incident occurred in the most important workers' organisations of this country, it served in fact to demonstrate the solid faith and unshaken confidence which the majority of Japanese workers have in the International Labour Organisation.

In *China*, it would appear that the workers, in spite of the horrors of the civil war, continue their efforts towards organisation. The deplorable condition of the great mass of the workers in the overpopulated cities, their ignorance and lack of experience in organisation have certainly facilitated the spread of Communist ideas and the growth of the influence of Moscow. Bolshevik theories have found a certain amount of favour in China, in spite of the resistance offered to them in many cases by trade union leaders concerned for the real interests of the workers.

The Office has followed the various phases in the development of the Chinese workers' movement and the struggles for predominance in the movement. It has noted, for example, the constitution by the Moscow International of a Pan-Pacific secretariat, the seat of which is at Han-

kow. In spite of this, however, the Chinese workers' leaders have not pronounced in favour of either International. Doubtless they too prefer a policy of *rapprochement* and unity.

It must be said that in this vast movement of ideas it is not yet possible to say definitely on what lines the workers' organisations are developing, or which of the two Internationals at present exercises the predominant influence. The Office only hopes that a solidly established organisation will create the possibility of the representation of the Chinese workers at the Conference. The contact thus provided with the workers' representatives of other countries would undoubtedly be of assistance to the Chinese workers in deciding the lines of organisation of their own movement.

In *India*, trade union organisation seems to be progressing. Although inspired by national culture and sentiment, Indian trade unionism has profited from its close connection with the British movement and the relations which it has had with the International Labour Organisation. Representatives of the Trades Union Congress General Council of Great Britain were present at the all-India Trades Union Congress held at Cawnpore in November of last year. This Congress showed a certain development of trade unionism and the claims of the movement were formulated, including its international policy. After having expressed regret that the Government of India had adjourned consideration of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted at the Ninth Session of the Conference, the Congress demanded the application of the eight-hour day to seamen and railway workers and the putting into force of the decisions of the 1926 Conference concerning seamen's articles of agreement and the inspection of emigrants on board ship. In India the Communists have practically no influence on the organisations, whose representatives have been in contact with their European comrades and have taken part in the work of the Organisation.

During the past year there has been formed in *Australia* a new body called the Australasian Council of Trade Unions which aims at becoming the central trade union organisation of the Commonwealth. The All-Australian Trade Union Congress which decided to set up this Council took place at Melbourne in May of last year.

At one of its first meetings the Australasian Council took steps to ensure a more co-ordinated system of appointing workers' delegates to the International Labour Conference. The Australian trade union movement has decided to affiliate neither with the Amsterdam International nor with the Red International, but to postpone any action on the question of affiliation till such time as unity of the

trade union movement has been realised—a result which, in its opinion, might be achieved by the holding of a joint conference of the two Internationals.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee appointed by the All-Australian Trade Union Congress a decision was taken to affiliate with the Pan-Pacific secretariat which, as already indicated, was set up last year at Hankow. It would appear, however, that these newly formed international relations of the Australian movement should not be considered as other than tentative, inasmuch as there seems to be no decline in the interest which is being taken throughout Australia in the British Commonwealth Labour Conference, to be held in London this summer.

The Australian trade union movement has also given its attention to two questions which it considers of paramount importance—immigration and the danger of war in the Pacific.

With regard to immigration, according to the resolutions recently communicated to the Office by the Executive Committee of the Australasian Council, the movement has protested against mass immigration into Australia, and has decided to inform the Miners' Federation of Great Britain and the British Trades Union Congress, as well as the workers' organisations of other countries, of the conditions obtaining in Australia and to arrange for all ships carrying immigrants to be met for the purpose of directing the immigrants to the various organisations.

With regard to the problems of the Pacific, the Council has indicated its intention of organising in Australia in 1928 a Pan-Pacific Congress "for the purpose of finding a mutual attitude towards any outbreak of war in the Pacific", and has decided to invite all the working class organisations of Pacific countries to take part in the Congress.

Direct contact has been established this year with the *New Zealand Alliance of Labour*, a central workers' organisation which seems to have gained much in authority since the holding in Wellington of the Open Conference of Trade Unions during the spring of 1927.

From this organisation the Office has received repeated testimony of the value of the research presented through the medium of its publications. The latter are also used to a considerable extent in the discussions on public bodies and in the debates of the Parliament. A comparatively recent example of this is the debate in the New Zealand Parliament on a Bill seeking to abolish night work in bakeries. Accompanying the co-ordination of trade unionism in New Zealand, there is to be perceived a development of interest in international

affairs. Thus, the movement was represented at the Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations held at Honolulu in 1927. The participation of New Zealand in this Conference aroused widespread public interest in New Zealand, and it may not be too much to predict that this step will be followed by a more systematic policy of representation at Congresses of international importance to workers' organisations. An indication of this is already to be observed in the favourable reception given to the invitation to send delegates to the British Commonwealth Labour Conference. A still further indication is the action of the New Zealand labour movement to secure regular representation at the Sessions of the International Labour Conference.

With the steady revival of the membership of the Trades and Labor Congress of *Canada*, this organisation's interest in the work of the International Labour Organisation has increased. In the legislative programme submitted to the Government by Congress this year, the demand for federal action to facilitate the ratification of Conventions continues to occupy a prominent place. The Canadian trade union movement attaches paramount importance to legislation in its endeavour to advance the status of its members, and the decisions of the International Labour Conference play an important part in reinforcing the representations made by the movement to the Dominion and Provincial authorities. This is in itself a sufficient reason to justify the support which Canadian trade unionists give to the Organisation. A movement has now been initiated by the trade union movement of the Dominion to co-ordinate workmen's compensation legislation throughout *Canada*. In view of the novel features of the Canadian trade union proposals, the result of this effort will be awaited with interest.

In *South Africa*, it will be remembered that no workers' delegate was appointed to the last Conference, owing to no agreement having been reached between the Trade Union Congress and the Cape Federation of Labour as to a joint delegation until the last moment. It seems probable that these difficulties are not likely to recur, as a Trade Union Co-ordinating Committee has now been set up which forms a link between the two principal bodies of white workers in the Union. On the other hand, Clements Kadalie, Secretary of the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union, the organisation of native workers which is affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions, paid a visit to Geneva last year and followed the work of the Conference. As the result of his visit to Europe and of the information which he acquired as to trade union organisation, reorganisation of the Industrial and Commercial

Workers' Union is now being carried out in order that it may be conducted on trade union lines on the European model.

Recently, the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union applied to the Trade Union Congress of South Africa for affiliation, but this request was not accepted for reasons which were explained in a memorandum issued by the Trade Union Co-ordinating Committee and to be reproduced in *Industrial and Labour Information* of 2 April. On the other hand, the Trade Union Congress offered to meet the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union from time to time to discuss matters of common interest, but the latter declined this form of co-operation.

In *Palestine* the General Federation of Jewish Labour exercises considerable influence on social conditions in that country. It is particularly concerned with the welfare of Jewish immigrants. The Federation has established relations with the Office, and follows the work of the Organisation with great interest.

In *Egypt*, the trade unions have recently set up a central organisation, the executive of which is composed of 24 representatives of the 12 affiliated bodies. The new organisation has decided to establish close relations with the International Federation of Trade Unions. It appears to be devoting particular attention to the improvement of labour conditions and the institution of social insurance.

In *America*, the movement in favour of organisation continues to develop, more slowly, perhaps, but not less solidly, in the countries of Latin America.

The Workers' Federation of the *Argentine* reaffirmed its adhesion to the International Federation of Trade Unions on the occasion of the Paris Congress.

In *Guatemala*, trade unions are developing, partly owing to the support which they receive from the Government. The Federation of Trade Unions includes about 30,000 members, and is in contact with the Amsterdam International. It is perhaps permissible to hope that the Federation may soon take part in the work of the Conference.

In the *United States of America*, the powerful American Federation of Labor continues to dominate the workers' movement. The Federation recognises the value of close relations between the workers' organisations of all countries. In the contacts which the Office has had with the President of the Federation, Mr. Green, the latter has recognised the importance of such relations.

The relations of the American Federation of Labor with Amsterdam have not im-

proved substantially up to the present. The question of affiliation fees still continues to be raised, but the chief point at issue is that the American Federation of Labor maintains its point of view that it does not wish to subscribe to statements of policy which are in opposition to its own stated platform, and it does not wish to be involved in partisan political controversies.

It is the opinion of the Office, representatives of the Federation might once more be sent to Europe to open up negotiations on the subject. The simplest way of doing this might perhaps be to carry out the suggestion, put forward by the late Mr. Gompers in 1922, of sending an "observer" to the International Labour Conference.

89. *Non-manual workers.* — This picture of the international workers' movement would not be complete if some reference were not made, as in previous Reports, to the non-manual workers' movement. It is true that the federations of non-manual workers are often affiliated to the same central body as manual workers, but in many cases also they have a separate organisation.

In the international sphere three tendencies are to be observed: "free" unions, Christian unions, and neutral unions. The Office possesses only approximate figures for the year 1927, but these are sufficient to show the importance of the chief bodies. The International Federation of Commercial Clerical and Technical Employees ("free" unions) includes about 730,000 members; the International Federation of Christian Unions of Salaried Employees, 500,000 members; and the International Federation of Neutral Employees' Organisations, 350,000. In the case of salaried employees in hotels, cafés and restaurants, there exists the International Federation of Employees in the Hotel, Café and Restaurant Industry (63,000 members) and the Geneva International Association of (Hotel and Restaurant) Employees (22,000 members).

Reference was made in last year's Report to the fact that most of these organisations were represented at the International Employees' Conference held at Montreux in 1926, that they adopted a common statement of claims, and that, during a conversation which took place a few days later at Geneva, they requested the International Labour Office to assist them in the carrying out of their programme.

Since that date the Montreux programme and the appeal made to the Office have been ratified by the various organisations: in June and November by the International Federation of Commercial Clerical and Technical Employees; in June by the Third Congress of the Christian federation; and in October by the Second Congress of the federation of neutral organisations. The various bodies have been unanimous in asking for the de-

finite constitution in the Office of a special section for employees, and the setting up of an advisory committee similar to the Committee set up for intellectual workers. This is in itself sufficient to indicate the confidence which salaried employees place in the International Labour Organisation. It will be for the Governing Body to consider whether it is possible to give effect to the request. In recent months the Director has endeavoured, by clearing away a certain amount of misunderstanding and impatience, to indicate, in spite of the misapprehensions existing in many countries, the work to be done for intellectual workers and the work which may concern employees.

It is undoubtedly true that the definition of these two categories is in many cases uncertain. The organisations overlap. Co-operation is essential. A distinction must, however, be drawn between intellectual workers, salaried employees, and that important group of employees consisting of public servants and the staffs of local administrations. The latter already utilise the information supplied by the Office, and are anxious to know how the machinery of the Organisation could be used for their benefit.

Whatever may be the future development of the relations between the Office and these various organisations, it would appear that a certain amount of satisfaction is being given to the requests put forward by employees. The Governing Body has selected for the Agenda of the 1929 Conference a question of interest to them—indeed, the one to which they attach the greatest importance—international regulation of their hours of work.

90. *Employers' organisations.* — In comparison with the variety of relations maintained from day to day with the world of labour, the collaboration of the Office with employers' organisations in 1927 must appear somewhat insignificant.

Almost every day the Office receives requests from workers' organisations for information, documents and all the necessary material for publicity purposes or negotiations with employers. The employers, however, succeed in obtaining their material themselves, and to maintain a service for relations with employers' organisations of the same order of magnitude as the service for relations with workers' organisations would not at present serve any practical purpose. None the less, however, the employers, by their requests for information or by their suggestions on the general work of the Office, still help very considerably to improve the Office's methods and develop its studies. More than this, they last year for the first time publicly recognised their collaboration with the Office by inviting the Director to attend their annual assembly (Zurich, May 1927).

At the first sitting of this Congress, the policy of the employers' associations was defined by the President, Mr. Tzaut. He reminded the meeting that if the employers had opposed certain measures based on the principles of Part XIII of the Treaty, but which nevertheless were thought dangerous, they had always done so in good faith and not in a narrow spirit of obstruction, but to ensure that international legislation should take account of realities and be really effective. A group which had unanimously or by large majorities voted in favour of 13 out of 19 Conventions (not including maritime Conventions) could not be accused of holding up or trying to sabotage the work of the International Labour Organisation.

Mr. Oersted also spoke in the same terms, and maintained that everyone was agreed that within certain limits an international labour system was in the interests of all employers.

But the practice of such a policy certainly creates difficulties for the employers' group. It might be indiscreet to attempt to define these difficulties here. But the employers themselves have done so in their speeches or their writings during 1927. Mr. Oersted himself, in fact, asked at the meeting referred to above whether there could be any real question of international employers' interests, and whether commercial competition between countries—which was inevitable and desirable for the quality of the goods produced and for world economy—was not an insurmountable obstacle in the way of an international employers' *entente* in the widest sense of the term.

This view has been referred to in previous Reports; in certain countries employers have had difficulty in deciding between the community of interests among employers and the particular interests of their national industry. During last year's Conference, too, as one of the employers' reports on the Conference stated, the Government and workers' delegates probably had heard of the internal difficulties which had arisen in the employers' group from this cause. And the report added that the employers' group had been uncertain of the course to follow and embarrassed by its inability to secure unanimity except on negative attitudes or the safe refuge of abstention.

Employers have thus been led to reflect in their associations on the constitution and activity of the groups at the Conference. They consider, to follow again the above-mentioned report, that eight years' experience has proved that the group system is feasible, and that it can even give satisfactory results, but on one condition, viz. that each group should first reconcile its own differences and draw up a programme of action which will take account of the real desires of the other group and the possibilities of arriving at definite results.

The Office notes with unreserved satisfaction this reference to a programme of action, and is convinced that the employers' group is capable of drawing it up. Admittedly the establishment of such a programme would not be effected without difficulty. It might once more bring to light the economic differences which are encountered by every international attempt at social progress. But, for this very reason, such a programme would be of all the greater value. If it were drawn up in this spirit and secured the "stabilisation" of one group, and so necessarily required the other group to stabilise itself, it would make a powerful contribution to the progress of the Office's work.

If such a programme had been forthcoming last year, even on the question of hours of work, it is possible that the progress of that question would have been less frequently held up and diverted. What is more, there are at present in every country interesting movements, still wavering and disjointed and frequently interrupted, towards "industrial peace". Surely it is not too much to imagine that the two groups in the International Labour Organisation, employers and workers, could play a leading part in the progress of these movements.

91.—It now remains to add some notes on the development during the past year of the Office's relations with various classes of employers or workers who, on account of their special conditions of work, or in some cases of the special attitude they adopt, have to be dealt with separately from the general body of employers and workers.

92. *Shipowners and seamen.*—In spite of their regularity, the Office's relations with the shipowners, and sometimes too with the seamen, have still been difficult and delicate.

On the shipowners' side, the Office is treated with the greatest courtesy and politeness, and these two qualities have been most useful at times when things were difficult. Often, too, the merits of the Office's work have been publicly recognised, and certain manifestations of personal sympathy towards the Office have been encouraging. But in the manifestoes issued and resolutions adopted by important shipowners' organisations considerable apprehension is still expressed as regards the Geneva institutions. The difficulty of finding solutions for the incidents which have taken place, in regard to the composition of special maritime Sessions of the Conference or the representation of seamen and shipowners in the Joint Maritime Commission, has hardly been calculated to remove these apprehensions, which in any case might perhaps be expected to some extent from the traditional outlook of the shipowners.

The fact is that in many countries the shipowners maintain that direct negotiations between them and the seamen are the

best method for regulating labour problems. As a general rule, they are hostile to protecting the seamen by law, and they carry their opposition into the international field. Sometimes the Joint Maritime Commission finds grace in their eyes when it succeeds in making a compromise, but they oppose any Convention which would extend intervention by legislation.

On the seamen's side, there have also been considerable difficulties. There are various disputes and divergences of views, not only between international organisations, sometimes between national organisations, but often even between individuals. All, or practically all, seamen consider that the International Labour Office can help to give satisfaction to their claims; but the question is what line the Office should take. Should it simply furnish the means for direct trade union action? Should it be the means by which new agreements and compromises can be made with the ship-owners? Or should it endeavour to promote legislation for the protection of seamen in the different countries? More or less consciously these alternative policies are advocated by different sections of the seamen, and the Office therefore welcomes any occasion on which it finds itself faced with clear situations or definite formulas which cover the same claims.

The Office has sometimes wondered since Genoa, or during the second special maritime Session of the Conference in 1926, whether it could succeed in retaining the full participation of the two sides in its work. But, to be frank, it still hopes that by dint of sincerity, by conciliatory methods, and a determination to render useful services, it will not only keep the sympathy and esteem of the two parties, but will be able to convince them that it can accomplish the task which has been entrusted to it on maritime just as much as on "land" questions.

93. Agricultural organisations.—Previous Reports have described how, by patience and good will, the Office succeeded in making its peace with the agricultural world. Since that satisfactory result the Office's relations not only with agricultural workers but with agriculturists of all classes have yearly been becoming more extensive and confident. The following notes give some instances of this development in 1927.

To begin with, the Office had the opportunity of actively collaborating with the agricultural world at Geneva during the Economic Conference: the special agricultural Committee of the Conference often availed itself of the scientific documentation which had been collected in the Office. A few days later the 13th International Congress of Agriculture met at Rome, when the new organisation, which was described in last year's Report, began to be put into operation, and the Conference of agricultural associations was the first section of the Congress. The International Institute

of Agriculture at Rome, too, convened meetings of its permanent international Commission of agricultural association and of its international scientific agricultural Council, and so took another step towards co-ordinating the various agricultural organisations in the co-ordination Committee for agriculture which the Institute has decided to create, and in which the Governing Body has decided to participate. The Office will thus have a new opportunity for coming into touch with the representatives of the associations, and of continuing the system under which the associations will collaborate together for the solution of labour questions within the Organisation.

Again, it is now the regular practice with agricultural associations, as with other organisations, to exchange information with the Office, to undertake rapid investigations for it, or to verify the results obtained in the Office's studies.

It is a further proof of the new development and of the value of the Office's relations with them that the agricultural organisations are claiming a more direct and substantial representation for agriculture, both in the Governing Body and at the Conference itself. This policy was supported by Dr. Hermes, ex-Minister, in a communication addressed to the German Agricultural Council on "the international relations of German agriculture." It is also being constantly urged by Mr. Garnier, general secretary of one of the most important French agricultural associations. Mr. Garnier also proposes that the Office should be sufficiently equipped to carry out the work which agriculturists may require of it. Agriculturists no longer dispute the competence of the Office to deal with problems of agricultural labour, but they wish—and the Office can only approve their wish—that the Office's technical equipment should always be worthy of the Organisation.

94. Intellectual workers.—There was a considerable expansion of organisation among intellectual workers in 1927. In a short enquiry which the Office made prior to the meeting of the five first members of its Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, information was collected on 45 international organisations covering different classes of these workers. Perhaps there are too many such international organisations, but their number shows the real need which these workers feel for organisation.

The International Confederation of Intellectual Workers, which is the largest and most representative of these organisations, held its Fifth Congress in September 1927, at which the Office was represented as in previous years. Among the resolutions adopted by the Congress, special reference may be made to one which invites the national federations of intellectual workers to undertake active publicity work in their respective countries to secure the adherence

of intellectual workers to the work and spirit of the International Labour Organisation—one which thanks the Office for having created an Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers—and one which expresses the wish that the Confederation should be largely represented on this Committee. The Congress also proposed that the Office should deal with a new intellectual workers' problem—the restraint of trade clause as it affects engineers.

The International Federation of Journalists embraces national associations in 20 countries, including the more important countries in Europe. The Federation has created as standing committees a Committee for social affairs, with its seat at Vienna, and a legal Committee with its seat in Berlin. The Federation has asked that it should be directly represented on the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, and has requested the Office to study the problem of the dismissal or resignation of journalists when the newspapers which employ them change their policy. The International Federation of Journalists is very active, and has a clear and firm conception of the aims it should pursue for the protection of its members. The Office fully expects to be closely associated with its work in the future.

The International Medical Association, which first held preparatory meetings in 1926, had its constitution and rules definitely adopted in 1927 at a meeting of its General Council. Twenty-three countries have so far joined the Association, the aims of which are to promote and defend doctors' interests. It has a twofold interest in the work of the Office. As will be seen later, it is interested in the question of social insurance, and also in the work which is to be done by the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers. The General Council of the Association has appointed two of its members, one of whom is its general secretary, to keep in permanent touch with the Office on behalf of the Association.

In 1926 was formed the International Union of Dramatic Artistes, which has its seat at Vienna, and which already has a membership of more than 34,000 persons in 21 countries. The Executive Committee of the Union is preparing for a world Congress of dramatic artistes, and it has asked the Office to help it in studying various questions affecting their work—working conditions of theatre artistes, restrictions on the engagement of foreign artistes, etc. The World Theatre Society, too, which includes theatrical managers, artistes, producers, and theatre manual workers, organised the first International Theatre Congress at Paris in June 1927. Several sections of this Congress dealt with questions affecting the improvement of the material conditions of artistes, finding employment for them and the development of popular theatres, popular fêtes, etc., all of which questions are

of direct interest to the Office in their relation to the development of facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time. The Congress asked the Office in particular to study the question of the employment of children in the theatre, the question of regulating the finding of employment for artistes, etc. At the same time, an International Music Office is being created in Vienna, and the International Musicians' Union, which has been in existence since 1924, held its second Congress at Paris in October 1927, which was attended by delegations from 15 countries. In a unanimous resolution adopted by it, this Congress claimed an unbroken weekly rest of 36 hours for musicians, a six hours working day, holidays with pay, and insurance provision, and expressed the hope that it would have the support of the International Labour Organisation.

It will thus be seen that intellectual workers on all sides are organising themselves, both occupationally and internationally. Substantial progress in this connection has been made in various countries—France, Italy, Germany, and all the Central European countries. And it is a satisfaction to the Office to note that, whenever an organisation of this kind is projected, or is being formed, it immediately approaches the Office, thus showing its faith in the Office's work. This confidence has been enhanced by the creation of the Office's Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, and the Office hopes that the work of this Committee will show that it has not been misplaced.

95. Co-operative organisations.—The foregoing survey of the various kinds of organisations and associations which are in sympathy or collaboration with the Office's work would be incomplete if the Office did not express its satisfaction at the relations it maintains with co-operative organisations. These relations have been established since the beginning because of the similarity which exists, and which the co-operative organisations immediately perceived, between their aims and objects and the work assigned to the International Labour Organisation. Being in close touch with the interests of the workers by reason of the composition of the classes of persons forming their membership, co-operative societies of all sorts, whether in the cities or in the country districts, have shown, by their attitude towards labour problems and by their achievements which have so often anticipated legislation, that their members and the workers they employ are associated in a common desire for improvements and progress.

Year by year the Office comes into closer relations with the co-operative associations and their common central organisation, the International Co-operative Alliance. The exchange of publications and information on both sides has grown in importance and regularity, and on certain definite research

problems the Office and the co-operative movement have established a real partnership of work.

Last year, for example, an agreement was reached between Mr. H. J. May, General Secretary of the International Co-operative Alliance, and the Office for the co-ordination of the work of the two institutions, in particular on the collection and publication of statistics of co-operation and laws and regulations dealing with the legal position of co-operative societies in the different countries. The Office is gratified at this agreement, because it will ensure that the best use will be made, for carrying out the joint programme of work, of the means for collecting information and taking other action which the two institutions have at their disposal.

The International Co-operative Alliance held its Twelfth Congress at Stockholm in September last. The Office accepted the invitation of the Congress, and the Director was himself present at it to represent the International Labour Office.

The co-operative movement was represented at the International Economic Conference by co-operators from different countries, and through the appointment by the Council of the League of the general secretary of the International Co-operative Alliance. The Stockholm Congress expressed the wish that similar representation should be given to it in the economic organisation which is to follow up the Conference's resolutions. The Office welcomes as a deserved recognition of the practical achievements and the high ideals of the co-operative movement the appointment to the Consultative Economic Committee of Mrs. E. Freundlich and Mr. A. Örne, who previously took an influential part in the work of the Preparatory Committee, and of Mr. Vaino Tanner, President of the International Co-operative Alliance, who a few months ago, in his capacity as Prime Minister of Finland, manifested his real sympathy for the objects of the International Labour Organisation.

On the joint proposal of the representatives of agricultural and consumers' co-operative societies, the International Economic Conference adopted a resolution emphasising the constructive value of these two movements and the importance to the economic world of direct relations between them. A resolution on similar lines was adopted by the International Co-operative Congress at Stockholm, on the basis of a report submitted by Mr. B. Jaeggi, the distinguished President of the Swiss Union of Consumers' Co-operative Societies. No doubt these resolutions were largely inspired by action which the Office has taken during the last few years and by the documentary material it prepared for the Economic Conference. This is an important step in the putting into operation of the programme laid down for the Office in the resolution adopted by the 1922 Session of the Confer-

ence—a programme of investigation into all the forms of co-operation, to be studied of course in their special features and their own specific problems, but also with the special purpose of discovering their common principles and the similarity between the work they perform.

Consumers' and agricultural societies were naturally the first sections of the co-operative movement which the Office investigated and with which it established relations, because of the strength of their memberships, the high degree of organisation among them, and the position which they hold in the economic world generally, and in particular in the production and distribution of foodstuffs—matters of special importance to agricultural and industrial workers *quâ* producers or consumers. The Office now proposes to extend its investigations to other classes of co-operative societies, such as co-operative fishing societies, co-operative artisan societies and societies of small rural industries. These societies, like co-operative agricultural societies, include workers who are legally independent but who can only better their condition by using co-operative methods to strengthen their feeble economic position.

The Office has also endeavoured to follow the first steps which are now being taken to form organisations in countries where the co-operative movement is of recent origin. In the Far East, for example, it has been noted that, in addition to the co-operative movements in India and Japan which have some twenty years' experience behind them, a further guarantee of the economic and social progress of certain important categories of workers is to be seen in the creation of co-operative societies, principally credit societies, in the Malay States, Corea, and the Philippine Islands, and that considerable results have already been obtained in China among the peasants through the enlightened and methodical work of the International Famine Relief Commission.

By extending its relations and carrying its investigations into all the fields where co-operative activity manifests itself, the Office is winning for its work the sympathy and support of many most important bodies which are working for the improvement of labour conditions and social progress.

Conclusion.

96. — It is hoped that the preceding general survey of the Office's relations in 1927 will give the reader the impression which the Office itself has, not only that the various influences for social justice are actively at work on all sides and in all countries, but also that the need for international collaboration is being everywhere increasingly recognised.

It was stated in last year's Report that the Office would have to take more system-

atic action to bring into still closer touch with its work the various groups, associations and institutions which are working for similar objects to those of the International Labour Organisation. The account given in this chapter, it is considered, shows that, in its relations both with industrial organisations and with the other associations referred to, the Office has secured valuable results, that on all sides collaboration between it and these outside bodies is being established on a more permanent and definite basis, and that this collaboration is no longer furnished merely by responsible heads or secretaries but is the outcome of the united will of all the members of the different bodies concerned.

No doubt, much yet remains to be done. More cohesion and unity are required to co-ordinate all these means of social progress. The working classes, in particular, feel that unity is all-important not only for the promotion of their own interests but also for the good of society as a whole.

The importance of such unity was clearly shown by the different and sometimes contradictory attitudes adopted by workers' re-

presentatives on the subject of freedom of association at the last Session of the Conference. The "united front", advocated, often for tactical reasons, by communists of the Third International—the corporate organisation of the Fascist State—the endeavours of organised workers to attain their ends by free combination and freedom of action on the lines desired by Mr. Thorberg—all these manifestations spring from the same desire for unity.

But it is doubtful whether any combined action is even partially possible, unless it be directed to a common object. And it is just the value of the International Labour Organisation that it furnishes such an object. The more this is brought home, the more the Office will be helping to co-ordinate all the contributions towards it, to tighten up international relations, to establish peace—the more, in fact, it will obtain the results which are expected of its activities, results which, it must be repeated, cannot be obtained by mere scientific and administrative work, but requires the co-ordination of all the influences for social progress.

SECOND SECTION.

Examination of Results.

97. *The economic situation in 1927.* — It remains now to state, on the lines followed in last year's Report, the results which were obtained in 1927 on the different subjects of social reform.

As usual, an attempt will be made first of all to indicate the atmosphere in which the Office worked last year and the economic and other circumstances which governed its activities.

It is surely no longer necessary to emphasise here the extent to which social reform is promoted or retarded by economic circumstances. The truth of this proposition was abundantly illustrated at the last Session of the Conference. Although the *Enquiry into Production* published by the Office a few years ago called forth a considerable amount of criticism, it is now unanimously admitted that the two classes of problems, economic and social, cannot be treated independently. In fact, the danger may now lie in the other direction; for some minds are tempted to consider that economic conditions must primarily determine the extent to which even the most necessary social reforms can be effected. Both in the Director's Report and at the Conference itself, warnings have been uttered against this danger. All the same, economic prosperity does facilitate the application of needed reforms. What is more, 1927 has shown—and this has been perhaps one of its most interesting features—how certain economic methods can and must promote social progress.

It should be first recorded, then, that in 1927 a new stage was passed in that economic recovery of the world which has been traced in successive Reports, and which so directly affects the work of the Organisation.

Admittedly there are still shadows in the picture, and individual nations and the international commonwealth still have to face considerable difficulties. Recent progress has, however, strengthened the foundations on which the future will rest, and the nations of the world can now continue their arduous efforts to recover from the effects of the war in a better atmosphere of confidence and hope.

The first outstanding fact to note is the definite improvement in the currency situation. At the end of 1922 Sweden was the only country which had stabilised its currency on the par value of the dollar, in other words, on a gold standard. In varying degrees all the other countries of the world were struggling with their currency difficulties and the League of Nations had to intervene to save Austria from imminent collapse. To-day, after a variety of experiments and trials, the certainty of new stability is acquired. Last year made a decisive contribution in this direction. It proved, for example, the effectiveness of the second currency reform which was effected in Belgium, in October 1926, where the currency remained stable throughout the year. At the end of the year, too, Poland and Italy gave legal form to the practical stabilisation which had been in force for some months. In France, again, since the end of 1926 the currency has been stabilised in fact; the only object of the exchange action taken in that country during 1927 was to prevent speculation for a rise. And, outside Europe, practical or legal stabilisation was effected last year in such countries as the Argentine and Brazil. The only two countries in which exchange fluctuations were noticeable in 1927 are Spain, whose currency fluctuated between 83 and 91 points in relation to the gold standard, and Japan, where there was a fall from 98 to 93 from December 1926 to December 1927.

The *yen* crisis was a temporary effect of the banking crisis caused by the liquidation of the Quake drafts, i. e., drafts payable in the areas devastated by the 1923 earthquake. As regards the movements of the *peseta*—a rapid rise followed by depression—these were only important during the first half of 1927; during the second half of the year the fluctuations were insignificant. In both cases it is permissible to look for permanent improvement within a short period. The year 1927 brings to a close the first five years of currency recovery.

The first results of this recovery have been described in previous Reports. The movements which were there outlined have

progressed — reconstitution of savings, re-opening of credit, increased financial balances, lower interest rates. In France, the development last year was striking. The official discount rate, which had been 7½% in 1926, was brought down 6½% in the last fortnight of the year, 5½% on 3 February 1927, 5% on 14 April, and 4% on 29 December, which latter is the same as the 1913 rate. In Great Britain, too, the 4½% rate for the last nine months of 1927 was lower than the 1913 rate, which was 4.8%. And in Switzerland and Sweden, the official discount rate fell to 3½%, while in the United States it moved between that figure and 4% according to the objects of the Federal Reserve Banks.

These results have been produced not only by currency stabilisation, but also by the extension of international credit operations and the consequent circulation of capital from one country to another and from one continent to another. The total loans, for example, placed in the United States, Great Britain, the Netherlands and Switzerland, by various countries during the last four years, amounted to 1,653 million dollars in 1924, 1,547 millions in 1925, 1,856 millions in 1926, and 2,451 million dollars in 1927. Out of these amounts the share of the United States was 1,005 million dollars in 1924, 1,095 millions in 1925, 1,156 millions in 1926, and 1,520 million dollars in 1927.

In connection with these international financial operations and with the movements in official discount rates, mention must be made of an event which has called forth little remark, but which is nevertheless most noteworthy—the meeting of the Governors of the New York Federal Reserve Bank, the Bank of England, the German Reichsbank, and the Deputy Governor of the Bank of France, which took place at New York at the beginning of July 1927. It will be remembered that in 1922 the International Economic Conference at Genoa had expressed the hope that the principal banks of issue throughout the world would hold a conference with a view to organising international co-operation in currency and credit policy. It is permissible to see in this meeting a first step in the direction of such collaboration, notwithstanding the reserve maintained with regard to the character and object of the conversations. It is not perhaps fantastic to assume that these conversations will have some value, either in the direction of generalising the credit policy of the United States Reserve Banks for regularising industrial activity, or in the direction of ensuring the regular maintenance of the gold exchange standard which must be basis of the new financial system of the world.

It is interesting to note the movements in prices which accompanied the currency stabilisation in 1927.

In the United States—largely, no doubt, as a result of the credit policy referred to

above—wholesale prices only varied during the year to a comparatively slight extent, the index number having passed from 147 in January 1927 to 149 in November, and the lowest point, 144, having been reached in the second quarter of the year. In Great Britain, where the miners' stoppage had affected price movements, the index fell from 143.6 in January 1927 to 140.4 in December of that year, the lowest point, 139.8, being reached in April. In Switzerland the extremes were 145 in January and 150 in November. In all the countries where the currency has been stable for some time the situation is approximately the same, viz., relative stability of prices. The contrary is, of course, the case in countries where sharp revalorisation has taken place, as for instance in France, where the wholesale price index fell from 836 in July 1926 to 626 in December of that year, and to 587 in October 1927, rising again in December to 604. In Italy, the index fell from the record figure of 691 in August 1926 to 619 in December of that year, and gradually continued down to 483 in December 1927. A similar phenomenon is observable in Norway, where, from the record figure of 281 in February 1925, the index fell to 220 in December of that year, to 184 in December 1926, and to 166 in December 1927.

These movements had their inevitable effect on the labour market. The unemployment situation in 1927 is dealt with later on in a special sub-section, but a few figures may be given here to show how the situation was affected. The number of totally unemployed persons in Italy, for example, increased from 80,000 in July 1926 to 181,000 in December, 263,000 in July 1927, and 414,000 in December of that year. In Norway, unemployment, which was 8.5% on the average in 1924 and 13.2% in 1925, varied during the first ten months of 1927 from a maximum of 31.1% in February to a minimum of 20.6% in August. In France, the movement was more restricted. At the same time, the number of unplaced applicants rose from 7,756 in July 1926 to 21,000 in December of the same year, and to 93,000 in February 1927, after which a gradual reduction took place until the figure of 27,603 was reached in December 1927.

Improvement in the medium of exchange in the different countries has, generally speaking and apart from a few local and temporary occurrences, contributed to the development of international trade. Besides, as compared with gold, the purchasing powers of different currencies, which towards the end of the inflation period bore no sort of relation to one another, have been gradually being brought nearer together, and consequently world trade has been revived. The following table shows the percentage increase or decrease in 1927 on 1926 in the imports and exports of a num-

ber of countries reckoned in national currency :

Country	Imports	Exports
Australia	+ 2.4	+ 6.9
Austria	+ 11	+ 19.1
Belgium	+ 26.4	+ 35.7
Canada	+ 7.8	— 3.9
Czechoslovakia	+ 17.5	+ 13.9
Denmark	+ 2.6	+ 2
Estonia	+ 0.9	+ 9.9
Finland	+ 12.3	+ 12
France	— 11.3	— 7.5
Germany	+ 41.5	+ 4.2
Great Britain		
(compared with 1926)	— 1.8	+ 8.6
(compared with 1925)	— 6.0	— 8.3
Hungary	+ 21	— 8
India	+ 4.3	— 1.2
Irish Free State	— 1.3	+ 6.4
Italy	— 21.5	— 17.2
Latvia	— 4.1	+ 16.6
Lithuania	+ 10.4	— 2.9
Netherlands	+ 4.4	+ 8.6
New Zealand	— 10.1	+ 7.5
Norway	— 9.6	— 15.5
Poland	+ 87	+ 11.6
South Africa	+ 0.3	+ 20.5
Spain (average of first six months)	+ 5.7	+ 18.8
Sweden	+ 5.5	+ 13.7
Switzerland	+ 6.2	+ 10.2
United States	— 5.8	+ 1.2

It is clear that in the case of countries such as France or Italy the diminution to be noticed in both imports and exports is explained to some extent by the revalorisation or, in other words, the lowering of wholesale prices reckoned in national currency. In the case of Great Britain, the year 1925 has been taken into consideration as well as 1926, the figures for the latter year having little value on account of the industrial troubles. It is interesting to note that in the case of France both imports and exports reckoned by weight show an increase from 1926 to 1927 :

	1926	1927
Imports in tons .	45,393,986	49,358,947
Exports in tons .	32,548,504	38,050,956

The above figures thus show a general progressive tendency in international trade.

Figures for some of the principal industries throughout the world, including two key industries, also indicate an increase in production in 1927 over 1926.

In the case of coal, the 1913 figure of 1,242 millions was passed for the first time. The following are the figures for the last three years :

		Ratio to 1913 figures
1925	1,222 millions	98.4
1926	1,205 millions	97.1
1927	1,324 millions	106.7

The following figures show the increased production of petroleum throughout the world :

		Ratio to 1913 figures
1913	385 million barrels	—
1926	1,097 million barrels	285
1927	1,254 million barrels	326

In the case of cast iron, the total world output, which was 79 million metric tons in 1913, was slightly less in 1926 and appreciably more in 1927, when it amounted to 84 millions (estimated). The index numbers were :

1926	99.7
1927	108

The following index numbers in relation to 1913 also show increased production of copper, lead and zinc :

	1926	1929
Copper	151.5	155.7
Lead	130.1	134.6
Zinc	125.4	133.5

In the case of agriculture, the position is generally speaking similar. The following table shows the index numbers for 1926 and 1927 in relation to the average of the years 1909-1913 :

	1926	1927
Wheat (42 countries)	111	115
Rye (26 countries)	78	88
Barley (39 countries)	103	109
Oats (31 countries)	103	102
Maize (16 countries)	99.7	98.5

The combined figures for wheat and rye in all the countries under consideration are :—

	million metric quintals	Index numbers
Average of 1909-1913	1,067	
1926	1,102	103.3
1927	1,157	108.5

For sugar (beet and cane together) the following are the world production figures, (no pre-war figures are available for comparison) :

		Increase
1926-1927	21,288,725 metric tons	—
1927-1928	22,780,215 metric tons	7%

There was also an increase in 1927 over 1926 in the construction of merchant ships throughout the world. In order to take account of the effects of the miners' stoppage in 1926, as must be done, the year 1925 is taken for purposes of comparison, but even so progress is evident, although much less appreciable, as the following figures show :—

1913	3,333,000 tons
1925	2,193,000 tons
1926	1,675,000 tons
1927	2,286,000 tons

The post-war figures, of course, are much below the pre-war figures, but it should be remembered that there was a very considerable increase in tonnage throughout the world during the war and immediately after it.

Apart from a few unimportant exceptions, the figures which have just been given show a very definite movement towards increased production, and that there was appreciable progress in 1927 in this field, as in international commerce and in finance.

A correct appreciation of the economic situation of the world cannot, however, be based on these considerations alone. Notwithstanding the progress in the various directions indicated, the situation is still difficult and, in certain countries or in certain economic fields, almost amounts to a real crisis. The medium of exchange has been restored; production is increasing; international commerce is developing; but there is still the difficulty of adapting buying power to producing power. As an instance, a considerable increase in the output of coal coincides with a marketing crisis which is particularly acute in certain countries. At present the coal problem is one of the most serious questions in the international economic situation.

There are also great difficulties in the textile industry, particularly the cotton industry, which is also faced with a serious falling off in demand. For a long time past the old industrial countries have been exporting both to the Near East and to the Far East large numbers of machines, which have gradually been forming centres of competition. A falling off in exports from the old countries was consequently bound to come sooner or later, and it has in fact arrived.

Some industries and some countries have been more severely hit than others. Apart, however, from certain new industries the problem is general. The markets' power of absorption is below the factories' power of production. In some cases the extent of the difference has been shown by skilfully conducted investigations. In a memorandum submitted to the International Economic Conference, for example, by the German Machine Construction Union (*Verein deutscher Maschinenbauanstalten*), a parallel is drawn between the actual amount of machinery built throughout the world in 1925 and the capacity of the factories at the same date, the relation being 74%. The factories are therefore producing less than three-quarters of what they might produce, owing to lack of markets. This is more or less the problem with which the business world has to contend in most countries. It is this situation which finds its expression in the unemployment figures, which are still exceedingly high, notwithstanding the improvement to be noticed here and there, particularly in comparison

with the pre-war figures, as the following table shows :—

COUNTRY	Average number of unemployed trade union members	
	1913	1927
Denmark	7.5%	22.3%
Germany	2.9%	8.8%
Great Britain (under the insurance system). . . .	3.7%	9.8%
Netherlands	5.2%	8.5%
Norway	1.6%	25.1%
Sweden. . . .	4.5%	11.4%

How is work to be found for the unemployed? How are the partly or totally idle factories to be occupied? How is the markets' power of absorption to be brought into line with the productive capacity of men and machines?

In last year's Report an attempt was made to show how the industrial world was trying in various ways to remedy the situation—how commercial understandings and agreements were increasing, notwithstanding fresh outbursts of protection—how direct agreements were being concluded between industrial organisations in various countries—and how it seemed that the rationalisation of production and distribution could enable markets to be developed and at the same time stabilise industrial production.

It was these difficulties, problems and different developments which called forth the International Economic Conference. Reference has already been made in the first chapter of this Report to the conditions in which this Conference was held: but it should be noted here that it was so to speak the centre of international economic life during the past year, of which it was undoubtedly the most important event.

It is not for the Office to pass judgment on its work, nor is this perhaps the place to discuss its main tendencies or to estimate their importance in the present-day movement of economic and social ideas and aspirations. But the main features of its work should perhaps be shortly emphasised.

According to the resolutions it adopted, the aim of the Conference was not to re-establish pre-war conditions but to help in inaugurating a new order. It wished to respond to the unanimous desire of its members to see international commerce gradually freed from the obstacles which unduly hampered it. It desired to see accepted as an essential element of any programme of execution the principle of concerted and simultaneous action by the different nations. Besides thus recognising the community of interests of all nations, the Conference also noted the interdependence between the different branches of economic activity—agriculture, industry, and commerce, which could not enjoy lasting prosperity independently of one another.

As has been said, it is impossible to analyse in detail here the resolutions of the Conference. Its moral influence, however, has been enormous, as will be seen in the following paragraphs, in which a survey is given, on the lines followed in previous Reports, of the measures by which it is sought to intensify and regularise production—abolition of obstacles to trade, industrial agreements, rationalisation.

(1). Attention was drawn last year to the importance of Customs disarmament and the progress made in this direction. The International Economic Conference recommended the abolition as far possible of prohibitions or restrictions on imports and exports, the gradual and unlimited reduction of customs duties, the stabilisation of tariffs, the return to long term commercial treaties, action against dumping, etc. Its recommendations would appear to have received immediate attention.

Not long after the meeting of the Conference, the Annual Congress of the International Chamber of Commerce was held at Stockholm. This Congress gave its unreserved approval to the resolutions dealing with international commerce, and supplemented them by a resolution on the free circulation of capital. Several Governments have also declared that they fully approved the principles enunciated and the objectives aimed at, and announced their intention of taking account of them.

It is officially recognised that the Franco-German trade negotiations were influenced by the resolutions of the Conference. By the Agreement which was signed last August, and which is provisionally in force until 15 December, 1928, the most-favoured-nation clause applies to the relations of the two countries for almost all products. So far as the tariff question is concerned, this is one of the points on which the Conference was most insistent. The influence of the Conference is also to be seen in the rules which have been drawn up for the establishment of German nationals in French colonies and protectorates, and, in a more general way, in the regulations for individuals and companies, the clauses relating to maritime and river navigation, the railways, German merchandise and ships in French colonies, possessions and protectorates, and arbitration or the jurisdiction of the Hague Court in case of dispute as to the interpretation or application of the Agreement.

It is known that difficulties as regards other countries have been raised by some of the practical measures arising out of the application of this Agreement. These difficulties have, however, been settled or are in course of being settled at the time of writing, and in any case such temporary problems in no way diminish the value of the new principles enunciated by the Conference.

The recommendations of the Conference are also born out by a number of further Agreements for tariff reductions which have been concluded since the Conference. The following is a list of these Agreements, in chronological order, with the Franco-German Agreement in its place.

Greece-Sweden	11 June
France-Hungary	6 July
Czechoslovakia-Switzerland	12 July
Germany-Turkey	22 July
Czechoslovakia-Finland	31 July
Czechoslovakia-Hungary	8 August
Czechoslovakia-Austria	10 August
France-Germany	6 September
Germany-Norway	6 September
Hungary-Turkey	26 September
Germany-Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes	20 September

These Agreements, which have mainly been concluded between European countries particularly concerned in the work of restoration contemplated by the Conference, are all the more interesting because they are in striking contrast with the tendency to increase tariffs noticeable in 1927 in the majority of non-European countries.

The International Diplomatic Conference for the abolition of prohibitions of and restrictions on imports and exports met at Geneva from 17 October to 8 November, 1927. Thirty-four States took part in it. Before its closure, the representatives of eighteen States had affixed their signatures to a Convention, by which the contracting parties undertake to abolish within six months from the coming into force of the Convention, and subject to a certain number of exceptions in special cases, all prohibitions and restrictions on imports and exports, and not to impose fresh ones.

The work of this Conference will be continued at a subsequent Conference, which is to meet at Geneva between 15 June and 15 July this year, and which will, in particular, have to consider different requests for exemptions. It would, therefore, be premature to express an opinion on its results, though it may be noted that the Conference has clearly been influenced in its work and decisions by the International Economic Conference.

As the President of the Conference remarked, this Convention constitutes the first multilateral agreement governing commercial relations between States. It is another feature of it that the principle of compulsory arbitration is for the first time introduced into international economic relations. Admittedly, arbitration is only compulsory for the interpretation of the legal clauses, but under Article 9 of the Convention the contracting parties have the option of applying it to the exemptions and reservations specified. The Conference also created a guarantee of another kind, to ensure the strict execution of the Convention, i.e. a recommendation to the Council of the Lea-

gue of Nations to convene committees of experts to find effective means for preventing protection against epidemic diseases among animals and plants from becoming a weapon of prohibition in disguise.

(2). Reference was made in last year's Report to the considerable growth in 1926 of direct agreements between industrial organisations in different countries—twenty new agreements had been concluded. The subject naturally received the attention of the International Economic Conference. The Conference considered that “in certain branches of production they can—subject to certain conditions and reservations—on the one hand, secure a more methodical organisation of production and a reduction in costs by means of a better utilisation of existing equipment, the development on more suitable lines of new plant, and a more rational grouping of undertakings, and, on the other hand, put a check on uneconomic competition and reduce the evils resulting from fluctuations in industrial activity.”

No doubt the Conference considered that if it encouraged tendencies towards monopolies, or the adoption of injurious commercial methods, the agreements might constitute a grave danger for consumers and workers. The Conference consequently examined what control public opinion could have over them and how such control could be organised. As a matter of fact, the Conference has given a fresh impulse to the formation and activities of industrial agreements, thus ensuring a fresh possibility of industrial recovery.

(3). Above all, however, the year 1927 has marked a fresh advance in the great movement for rationalisation or scientific management of labour, production, and distribution.

References to this important problem will be found in various parts of this Report. In the first chapter a description was given of the new instrument which had been created in order to find solutions for the problem—the International Management Institute, which was created alongside the Office and works in collaboration with it. Later, consideration will have to be given to the effects of scientific management on working conditions and the living conditions of the working class—questions of industrial hygiene, fatigue and over-work problems, psycho-technical problems, problems of occupational training, unemployment problems, etc. What it is desired to emphasise here is the importance of scientific management for economic restoration and industrial prosperity.

Attention was drawn in last year's Report to some of the more recent developments in the United States. It would now seem that the lesson has spread to Europe. Two series of figures may assist in throwing light on the extent and efficacy of the

scientific management movement. In Germany, for instance, in the United Steel Works, *Vereinigte Stahlwerke*), between April-June 1926 and April-June 1927, the following progress was effected :—

		Increase
Tons of Coal extracted.	From 5,362,736	
	To 6,100,130	13.8%
Coke production	From 1,506,769	
	To 2,077,779	37.9%
Cast Iron production	From 981,758	
	To 1,628,488	65.9%
Sheet Iron production	From 808,834	
	To 1,253,484	55%
Raw Steel production	From 1,048,470	
	To 1,723,532	64.4%

During the same period the increase in the labour employed was from 173,416 to 195,905, i.e., 13%—a much smaller increase than that in production in most of the above branches.

More striking results still have been obtained through scientific management in the August Thyssen Blast Furnaces, as the following figures show :

	Output in April 1926 Tons.	Output in April 1927 Tons.	Increase
Pig Iron	62,639	124,825	99.1%
Raw Steel	81,062	172,728	113.1%
Sheet Iron	60,573	129,534	113.8%

At the same time the labour employed fell from 11,474 to 11,162 hands, a reduction of 2.7 %.

In view of the attention now being given to the question in European economic circles, the International Economic Conference could not do other than examine the problem of scientific management. In a carefully drafted resolution which expressed both a desire to safeguard the immediate interests of the workers and a desire to safeguard the necessities of production, the Conference indicated the general rules on which a common policy on this point might be based. After explaining that the term “rationalisation” was understood to mean “the methods of technique and organisation designed to secure the minimum waste of either effort or material”, the Conference proceeded to consider the ways of applying these methods. It was added that “rationalisation includes the scientific organisation of labour, standardisation both of material and products, simplification of processes and improvements in the system of transport and marketing”. The advantages of rationalisation were emphasised “both in the lowering of costs of production and of prices and in expanding markets.”

... "The Conference considers that such rationalisation aims simultaneously :

- (1) *At securing the maximum efficiency of labour with the minimum of effort ;.....*

Its judicious and constant application is calculated to secure :

- (1) To the community greater stability and a higher standard in the conditions of life ;
- (2) To the consumer *lower prices* and goods more carefully adapted to *general requirements* ;
- (3) To the various classes of producers *higher and steadier remuneration to be equitably distributed among them.*

It must be applied with the care which is necessary in order, while at the same time continuing the process of rationalisation, *not to injure the legitimate interests of the workers ; and suitable measures should be provided for cases where during the first stage of its realisation it may result in loss of employment or more arduous work.*

It requires, further, *so far as regards the organisation of labour in the strict sense of the term, the co-operation of employees, and the assistance of trade and industrial organisations and of scientific and technical experts."*

Completing this statement of principles and desiderata, the Conference drew up a number of recommendations to "governments, public institutions, trade and industrial organisations or public opinion as the case may be". The object of these recommendations is to further the development of rationalisation in the most varied directions, and in particular :

"to give special attention to *measures of a kind calculated to ensure to the individual the best, the healthiest and the most worthy employment, such as vocational selection, guidance and training, the due allotment of time between work and leisure, methods of remuneration giving the worker a fair share in the increase of output, and, generally, conditions of work and life favourable to the development and preservation of his personality."*

Another object of the recommendations is to...

(3) "undertake on an international basis investigations for ascertaining the best methods employed and the most conclusive results obtained in every country in the application of the principles set out above, utilising the investigations already made in certain countries and encouraging the exchange of information among those concerned ;

(4) spread in all quarters a clear realisation of the advantages and the obligations involved in rationalisation and scientific management as well as of the possibility of their gradual achievement."

It cannot be gainsaid that the resolutions of the International Economic Conference on this point have very considerably contributed to the spread of the idea of rationalisation during the past year.

During that year, apart from the International Institute, which was opened in February, and which immediately began to publish its Bulletin and to circulate studies and information on the question, international gatherings of the most varied kind gave their attention to the general problems or some of the special aspects of rationalisation. In May, for example, the 11th Plenary Assembly of the International Federation of League of Nations Societies was held at Berlin. The Assembly noted with satisfaction that the resolution of the Aberystwyth

Assembly in favour of the creation of an Institute of Scientific Management had recently been realised with the collaboration of the International Labour Office, and recommended the national associations to give the utmost publicity to the conclusions of the Economic Conference regarding rationalisation and scientific management.

Again, the 16th Congress of the International Institute of Agriculture met at Rome from 26 May to 1 June 1927, and also came to the conclusion that rationalisation was one of the first necessities of agriculture. The Congress recommended that special institutes for the study of rationalisation in agricultural work should be created in every country, and that Governments and technical societies should collaborate in propaganda in favour of rationalisation.

The Third Administrative Sciences Congress, which met at Paris in June 1927, was also led to consider the problem of scientific management through a communication from M. Jean Lafeuillade, which drew attention to the part to be played by methods of scientific and rational management in securing general administrative reform.

The Third International Scientific Management Congress was held at Rome from 5 to 8 September 1927. One of the resolutions adopted declared that scientific management should be applied only in an atmosphere of goodwill and collaboration on the part of the whole of the staff and that such an atmosphere might be improved in studies on organisation through the impartial enquiries which should be made for these purposes.

In September, again, the 13th International Parliamentary Commercial Conference was held at Rio de Janeiro, where the problem of rationalisation was discussed during the debate on the coal question. It was declared that—

"in all countries the policy adopted in regard to coal should aim—

(1) by means of economic rationalisation in close co-operation with allied industries and by means of technical improvements, at reducing the cost price of coal ;

(2) by initiating scientific research and practical measures with a view to increasing the value in use of coal and improving the uses to which it can be put, as also by exploiting the wider markets due to general progress, at developing the consumption of coal."

At the second General Assembly of the International Association for Social Progress which was held at Vienna from 14-18 September 1927, the question of the social consequences of economic rationalisation was examined, and the Assembly proposed :—

"that rationalisation should be accompanied in Europe, as in America, by a high wages policy such as would permit of increasing the purchasing power of consumers, raising the workers' standard of life and improving their opportunities for acquiring general culture," and "that some agreement is desirable in regard both to the interpretation and the application of rationalisation and with regard to its contingent problems, such

agreement being all the more desirable in view of the fact that individual and collective conceptions of rationalisation are not always in harmony."

The same ideas have been expressed by various measures taken in the different countries.

In Germany, for example, the National Economic Supervisory Council (*Reichskuratorium für Wirtschaftlichkeit*), which is the central body dealing with the study of rationalisation questions, has increased the scope of its activities since August 1927 by publishing a bulletin which is to give a summary of the position of rationalisation in the different fields of activity. The most important fact of the year is the placing on the agenda of the problem of the rationalisation of methods of distribution. The Minister of Economy, Dr. Curtius, speaking on 28 June 1927 at the anniversary celebration of the Institute for the Study of Market Conditions (*Institut für Konjunkturforschung*), expressed the hope that commercial as well as technical rationalisation would be attempted since "in Germany the attitude of undertakings to the market is still prompted by instinct rather than reason".

With a view to complying with this wish, a committee of experts in the management of commercial undertakings has been appointed under the auspices of the National Economic Supervisory Council, the Chairman being Professor Julius Hirsch. It has been pointed out by Professor Hirsch that in Germany retail trade, which amounted to 29 milliard marks, had to meet approximately 8 milliard marks for trading expenses. He proposed that the Committee should adopt the following programme of work:—

- (1) To determine the amount of expenses and additional charges in trade;
- (2) To decide the best way of employing labour in trade;
- (3) To decide the best way of employing capital in trade (amount of stocks, rapidity of circulation);
- (4) To find a means of coping with variations in the amount of retail trade;
- (5) To study the new American commercial methods and the possibility of applying them in Germany.

Further, on the initiative of the Minister for Agriculture and Food Supply, a State Board of Trustees for Agricultural Technique (*Reichskuratorium für Technik in der Landwirtschaft*) has been set up. The new institution will be required to follow and co-ordinate the work of the competent bodies, and in particular to support their work by a judicious distribution of official or private funds available for research on these questions. The rules of the *Reichskuratorium* make it one of this institution's duties to promote "the preparation and spread the general use of all manner of technical appliances, processes or other

means conducive to economic production in agriculture, forestry, market gardening, fruit and vine growing".

In Austria, as a result of action taken by the Federation of Industrial Employees (*Bund der Industrieangestellten in Oesterreich*) supported by the Chamber of Workers and Employees (*Kammer für Arbeiter und Angestellte*), a study group (*Arbeitsgemeinschaft*) has been created in order to study the following questions: vocational selection, posture at work, contentment of the workers, industrial relations, training for production, etc. The group proposes to examine the rationalisation problem from the occupational standpoint. Moreover, at a preliminary meeting of the parties interested convened on 9 December 1927 by the Minister of Commerce and Transport, it was decided to set up an Association for Business Organisation (*Kuratorium für Wirtschaftlichkeit*) with the object of determining and promoting "efficient organisation in all branches of the economic system, having due regard to the interests of all sections of the community".

In Great Britain since 1926 there have been three management research groups investigating questions of scientific management. These groups propose to organise collaboration between a certain number of business men with a view to solving everyday problems of rational management and administration. A headquarters has been established in London with the object of furthering the creation of new groups.

In France, at the beginning of the year, the General Federation of French Manufacturers appointed a general scientific management committee which has its seat at Paris. The object of the Committee is to co-ordinate the hitherto disjointed efforts made in favour of scientific management. And at its meeting at the beginning of March 1927, the National Economic Council decided to open an enquiry into the position in the chief branches of national economy. The programme of the enquiry includes the study of the following measures in each industry under review: "Standardisation or normalisation, technical improvements, occupational instruction, scientific management, improvement in methods of work, etc."

In Belgium, the School of Ergology of Brussels (section of the Post-Graduate Institute of Belgium) started a psycho-technical course and a scientific management and rationalisation course at the beginning of 1927.

In Italy, under Article 8 of the Labour Charter of 21 April 1927, it is laid down that employers' industrial associations shall ensure an increase in output, improvement in the quality of production and a reduction in costs by all means in their power. The interest taken in this country in the question of rationalisation is evidenced by various activities, including a number of lectures.

A group of manufacturers has been formed in Switzerland, modelled on the Manufacturers' Research Association of Massachusetts and other groups which are at present working in England. Its headquarters are at Zurich. Seven non-competitive establishments constitute the foundation members, and it is proposed to study the question of purchases and stock-taking. A committee for scientific management has also been founded at Zurich by the Society of Swiss Friends of the United States of America. It possesses a library and information office and publishes brochures under the general title of *Schweizer Schriften für rationelles Schaffen*.

At Budapest, in Hungary, a Management Institute has been created, and is required to propagate ways and methods of modern management and of scientific study, by means of work in common, of all rationalisation questions.

In Poland, a committee of enquiry of 35 members has been appointed by a Decree of the President of the Republic, and began work on 29 January 1927. It is required to submit proposals to the Government on methods of lowering prices of various commodities through more rational organisation of manufacture and trade. With this object the committee is to (a) determine whether and how waste of time and energy takes place; (b) ascertain whether manufacturing costs are too high and if so, why; (c) decide in what way such drawbacks could be remedied. Further, on the proposal of the Minister of Industry and Commerce, it was decided by the Economic Committee of the Cabinet on 7 September 1927 that priority in the case of Government orders should be given to firms working in close contact with the Polish Normalisation Committee. It was decided at the same time that the expense in connection with the standardisation of production should be met as to half by the State and as to half by the firms concerned.

In Japan it has been decided by eight scientific management societies to found the Japanese Institute of Efficiency. Local societies will form the membership of the Institute, which will publish a monthly review.

The movement in favour of scientific management in Manchuria dates from 1925. It originated in action taken by the managing staff of the railway companies. The Manchurian Institute of Industrial Efficiency has just been created with a view to centralising the movement.

Special interest in rationalisation problems has been taken by the workers in different countries during the year. Some groups have shown themselves hostile, but the more representative organisations have taken up a position which is characterised at the same time by the acceptance of the principle of rationalisation and by a very definite determination that the new methods

should be used in the interests of the community.

In France, the General Confederation of Labour made the following observations in its programme published on 15 November

"While the working community accepts, in the general interest, the idea of rationalisation it desires, at the same time, to be protected against the possible initial consequences of rationalisation. It may be predicted that before the new technical methods produce their full effect they may cause unemployment, and against that danger provision must be contemplated. Such provision must include aid for wage-earners temporarily deprived of their employment, and the undertaking of works of public utility: further, the organisation of facilities for occupational education should be undertaken as a means of assisting the speedy re-employment in other industries of labour which has become superfluous in any given industry."

In Austria an important discussion on the question of rationalisation took place at a meeting of the Vienna Workers' and Employees' Chamber.

In Belgium, the 4th Trade Union Week (August 1927) was entirely devoted to the question of rationalisation, and a number of reports were submitted on the theoretical problems and practical experience of rationalisation in Belgium. The President of the Trade Union Week stated that "trade unionism had emerged from the 'close corporation stage', and, going beyond mere claims in respect of wages and working hours, was now going to the heart of the world's economic problems."

In September 1927 during the Christian Trade Union Week at Xhovémont, Mr. Pauwels stated that the Christian Trade Unions intended that the rules of morality should be respected in the case of rationalisation, which was outwardly purely material.

In this connection may be mentioned the Conference on Elimination of Waste in Industry, which took place at Philadelphia on 10 April 1927 under the auspices of the Central Labor Union of Philadelphia and the Labor College in the same town. The workers' associations which organised this meeting—with which a large number of scientific and technical men were associated—were moved by the idea that the rationalisation of industrial life and economic relations in general should lead both to lower prices, increased wages and stabilisation of employment—unemployment being, as stated at the Conference by Mr. William Green, President of the American Federation of Labor, "the greatest waste in industry".

How will all these ideas and efforts in the direction of organisation be translated into fact? How will the movement, ranging from standardisation and normalisation to cartels and great industrial organisations, lead to the stabilisation of employment so eagerly looked for by the workers? It is as yet scarcely possible for the Office to indicate what results have so far been obtained. This will, however, have to be done in the future, and it may be useful to

draw attention to some of the more significant facts.

At the tenth annual meeting of the German Committee on Standardisation it was stated that the number of standardised products established was as follows :

1919	24
1920	102
1921	242
1922	335
1923	571
1924	748
1925	1,235
1926	1,709
1927	2,129

Similarly, when the Standardisation Department of the Association of Motor Accessory Manufacturers was created, the following round figures were taken from the lists of French standardised articles :

Permanent Committee on Standards	50
Union of Electricity Syndicates . . .	40
Technical and Industrial Department for Aviation	60
Association of Railway and Tramway Builders, Local Railways Union, the Mining Committee of France, etc.	about 200

The total number of French standardised articles would thus be approximately 350.

Development of international trade through lower tariffs—development of industry through industrial agreements and rationalisation in all directions—these are the new guarantees for the future to be noted, guarantees for the prosperity of industry and for raising the workers' standard of living.

It is undeniable, however, and it was pointed out at the International Economic Conference itself, that the work of reforming industry cannot really benefit the workers unless the modern conception apparently underlying the resolutions of the Conference also triumphs. American economic literature lays more and more emphasis on the fact that only through a continual improvement in the standard of living of the working class can the market become adequate for an industry in which production is daily increasing through technical progress. As an instance the following figures are quoted : in the United States, from 1919 to 1925, the amount of goods manufactured per wage-earner increased by 34%. It would obviously be impossible for such an increase in goods to be absorbed unless the workers' buying power was correspondingly increased, since the workers represent a considerable proportion of the population. In an interview published in an important periodical, *The Iron Age*, on 5 January 1928, a specialist in industrial questions, Mr. Arthur H. Young, declared that it was only through the continual development of industries formerly considered as luxury trades that America would be able to pro-

vide work for the labour set free by technical progress in older industries, and he indicated that it was only through the more widespread use of so-called luxury products that this could be done. This theory had already been put forward by the Fords, Filenes and others, who have stated that the duty of industry is not merely to manufacture articles but to create consumers through raising the standard of living of the workers it employs. Besides, in support of this idea it may be observed not only that the newer industries are directly absorbing a large number of workers (in the United States 3,365,000 workers were employed in the manufacture of automobiles in 1928) but also that these industries constitute a market of the first importance for the basic trades. This is shown by the fact that the automobile industry takes 14% of the iron and steel production of the country, 50% of the sheet glass production, 63% of the leather, 11% of the wool, 25% of the aluminium, 12.7% of the copper, 21% of the tin, 13.7% of the lead, 28% of the nickel, etc.

It is recognised in the United States to-day that when industrial activity is sagging it is of supreme importance to resist any reduction in wages in order that such reduction might not aggravate the trouble. As a matter of fact, during the slight depression in the country last year salaries did not diminish by more than 2%.

Every day these ideas gain ground in the leading industrial countries. They were one of the under-currents of the Economic Conference. They regard labour and the conditions of labour as the very centre of economic life and as one of the essential objectives of all economic policy. Such conceptions, which have been enabled to spread by the events of last year, have opened up a prospect for the work of the International Labour Organisation which would have been considered beyond all hope a few years ago.

98. — Meanwhile, an attempt may be made to estimate the results obtained, in spite of all sorts of difficulties, in 1927.

The following table gives these results in the usual condensed form :

	Ratifications.	
	1 April 1927.	15 March 1928.
Ratifications communicated	229 ¹	263 ¹
Ratifications authorised	25	34
Ratifications recommended	147	180

The number of ratifications consequently increased by 34 between 1 April 1927 and 15 March 1928. During the slightly longer period from April 1926 to April 1927 there were 35 ratifications. Regular and steady progress is thus being made.

¹ See note at foot of next page.

It may be thought that this progress might have been accelerated, since the 20 Conventions formerly ratifiable have since been increased by the 3 Conventions adopted by the Conference at the two Sessions in 1926, for which the latest period for submission to the competent authorities expired at the end of 1927.

As a matter of fact, real progress has been effected, but it is to be found rather in the number of ratifications recommended, which increased from 147 on 1 April 1927 to 180 on 15 March 1928. A greater number of Bills for ratification have been laid before the various Parliaments, but the slowness of Parliamentary procedure has hindered positive results in the case of the three 1926 Conventions, for which there have only been 7 ratifications.

Again, if the figures for Bills for ratification under discussion or already adopted by Parliaments in 1927 and 1928 are compared, interesting progress is to be noted.

¹ The figures for ratifications communicated given on the preceding page do not include the ratifications of the Convention adopted at Berne in 1906 on the prohibition of the employment of white (yellow) phosphorus in the match industry which have been received since the Washington Conference. A Recommendation was adopted by that Conference asking that Members which had not already signified their adherence to the Berne Convention should do so. 14 States have announced their adherence to the Convention since that date. Although the Convention was adopted before the International Labour Organisation had been created, and although adherence is not made by a formal communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, but by an instrument addressed to the Swiss Federal Council, these 14 ratifications should be placed to the credit of the Organisation as they are the direct consequence of the Washington Recommendation.

214 Bills for ratification were in hand in March 1928 as compared with 172 only in March 1927. It is permissible to hope that this appreciable increase will have an effect on the number of ratifications registered in 1928, especially when it is remembered that, in the case of the 34 ratifications already authorised by Parliaments, no more remains to be done but the final act by which the executive communicates formal ratifications of each of these Conventions to the Secretary-General. This communication will probably have been made in some cases before the opening of the Eleventh Session of the Conference.

In particular, it is expected that news will shortly be received of the formal ratification by Luxemburg of all the Conventions adopted at the different Sessions of the Conference. This little country, which is highly organised industrially and which possesses a dense working population, has adopted within recent years a body of advanced social legislation which now enables it to adhere unreservedly to the Conventions of the Conference.

This undertaking deserves the special recognition of the Office, even though the formal ratifications have not yet been deposited.

99. — In later chapters more detailed indications will be given of the progress achieved during 1927 on each of the Conventions and Recommendations. Meanwhile the usual general tables are given, completed down to 15 March 1928, to show the total results so far obtained in the adoption and application of international labour legislation.

(A) FIRST SESSION (WASHINGTON, 29 October-29 November 1919).

Conventions.

* - Information received since last Report.

I. Hours of Work. — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intima- tion that they have submitted the Convention to the "compet- ent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially commu- nicated any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Austria ⁽¹⁾ . 12- 6- 24. Belgium. 6- 9- 26. Bulgaria. 14- 2- 22. Chili. 15- 9- 25. Czechoslo- vakia. 24- 8- 21. * France ⁽¹⁾ . 2- 6- 27. Greece. 19- 11- 20. India. 14- 7- 21. Italy ⁽¹⁾ . 6- 10- 24. Latvia ⁽¹⁾ . 15- 8- 25. Rumania. 13- 6- 21.	<i>Approval :</i> <i>Rejection :</i> Sweden. 15-6-21. Switzerland. 1921. <i>Other decisions</i> <i>(adjournm., etc.) :</i> Canada. 28- 5- 21. Finland. 1922. Germany ⁽³⁾ . 5- 10- 22. Great Britain. 1- 7- 21. Hungary. 4- 3- 25. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. Brazil. 1920. Denmark ⁽²⁾ . 1926. Estonia ⁽¹⁾ . 26- 9- 24. Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . Aug. 1922. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Paraguay. 24- 5- 26. Poland ⁽²⁾ . 26- 7- 21. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25. Nether- lands. 21- 7- 21.	Cuba. 11- 6- 23.	Japan. 6- 7- 21. New Zealand. 11- 11- 20. Siam. 9- 9- 20. South Africa. 1921.	Australia. China. Guatemala. Nicaragua. Panama. * Portugal. Salvador. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.	Albania. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Persia. Peru.

II. Unemployment. — (Date of first coming into force : 14 July 1921).

Austria. 12- 6- 24. Bulgaria. 14- 2- 22. Denmark. 13- 10- 21. Estonia. 20- 12- 22. Finland. 19- 10- 21. France. 25- 8- 25. Germany. 6- 6- 25. Great Britain. 14- 7- 21. Greece. 19- 11- 20. * Hungary. 1- 3- 28. India. 14- 7- 21. Irish Free State. 4- 9- 25. Italy. 10- 4- 23. Japan. 23- 11- 22. Norway. 23- 11- 21. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 13- 6- 21. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. South Africa. 20- 2- 24. Spain. 4- 7- 23. Sweden. 27- 9- 21. Switzerland. 9- 10- 22.	<i>Approval :</i> * Netherlands ⁽³⁾ . 30- 4- 27. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions</i> <i>(adjournment,</i> <i>etc.) :</i> Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. Belgium ⁽²⁾ . 16- 3- 21. Brazil. 1920. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Czechoslo- vakia. 22- 12- 20. Latvia. 26- 4- 23. Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . Aug. 1922. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Paraguay. 24- 5- 26. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Cuba. 11- 6- 23.	Canada. 28- 5- 21. New Zealand. 11- 11- 20.	Australia. Guatemala. Nicaragua. Panama. Salvador.	Albania. Bolivia. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Haiti. Honduras. Persia. Peru. Portugal.
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III. Childbirth. — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921).

Bulgaria. 14- 3- 25. Chili. 15- 9- 25. * Germany. 31- 10- 27. Greece. 19- 11- 20. Latvia. 3- 6- 26. Rumania. 13- 6- 21. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Spain. 4- 7- 23.	<i>Approval :</i> Hungary. 4- 3- 25. Italy. 18- 4- 22. <i>Rejection :</i> Great Britain. 1921. Switzerland. 1921. <i>Other decisions</i> <i>(adjournment,</i> <i>etc.) :</i> Finland. 1922. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Sweden. 15- 6- 21. Venezuela. 11- 7- 27.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. Belgium ⁽²⁾ . 16- 3- 21. Brazil. 1920. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Czechoslovakia. 22- 12- 20. Denmark ⁽²⁾ . 3- 12- 24. France. 29- 4- 20. Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . Aug. 22. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Paraguay. 24- 5- 26. Poland. 30- 8- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	* Austria. 1927. Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25. Nether- lands. 21- 7- 21.	Canada. 28- 5- 21. Japan. 6- 7- 21. New Zealand. 11- 11- 20. South Africa. 1921.	Australia. China. Estonia. Guatemala. India. Nicaragua. Panama. Portugal. Salvador.	Albania. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Persia. Peru.
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⁽¹⁾ Conditionally.⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.⁽³⁾ Reichsrat.⁽⁴⁾ Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.

(A) FIRST SESSION (WASHINGTON, 29 October-29 November 1919) (contd.).

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

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

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intima- tion that they have submitted the Convention to the "compe- tent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communica- ted any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Austria. 12- 6- 24. Belgium. 12- 7- 24. Bulgaria. 14- 2- 22. Czechoslo- vakia. 24- 8- 21. Estonia. 20- 12- 22. France. 14- 5- 25. Great Britain. 14- 7- 21. Greece. 19- 11- 20. India. 14- 7- 21. Irish Free State. 4- 9- 25. Italy. 10- 4- 23. Netherlands. 4- 9- 22. Rumania. 13- 6- 21. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. South Africa. 1- 11- 21. Switzerland. 9- 10- 22.	<i>Approval :</i> Hungary. 4- 3- 25. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions</i> (adjournment, etc.) : Finland. 1922. Germany (3). 5- 10- 22. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Sweden. 15- 6- 21. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. Brazil. 1920. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Denmark(1). 3- 12- 24. Latvia. 6- 5- 24. Lithuania (1). Aug. 1922. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Paraguay. 24- 5- 26. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Poland (1). 26- 7- 21.	Cuba. 11- 6- 23.	Canada. 28- 5- 21. Japan. 6- 7- 21. New Zealand. 11- 11- 20.	Australia. Guatemala. Nicaragua. Panama. Portugal. Salvador.	Albania. Bolivia. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Persia. Peru.

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

Belgium. 12- 7- 24. Bulgaria. 14- 2- 22. Chili. 15- 9- 25. Czechoslo- vakia. 24- 8- 21. Denmark. 4- 1- 23. Estonia. 20- 12- 22. Great Britain. 14- 7- 21. Greece. 19- 11- 20. Irish Free State. 4- 9- 25. Japan. 7- 8- 26. Latvia. 3- 6- 26. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 13- 6- 21. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Switzerland. 9- 10- 22.	<i>Approval :</i> Finland. 1922. Italy. 20- 3- 24. Netherlands. 20- 5- 22. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions</i> (adjournment, etc.) : Germany (3). 5- 10- 22. Hungary. 4- 3- 25. India (2). 1921. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Sweden. 15- 6- 21. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. Brazil. 1920. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. France. 29- 4- 20. Lithuania (1). Aug. 1922. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Paraguay. 24- 5- 26. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	* Austria. 1927.	Canada. 28- 5- 21. New Zealand. 11- 11- 20. South Africa. 1921.	Australia. China. Guatemala. Nicaragua. Panama. Portugal. Salvador.	Albania. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Persia. Peru.
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VI. Night Work of Young Persons. — (Date of first coming into force : 13 June 1921).

Austria. 12- 6- 24. Belgium. 12- 7- 24. Bulgaria. 14- 2- 22. Chili. 15- 9- 25. Denmark. 4- 1- 23. Estonia. 20- 12- 22. France. 25- 8- 25. Great Britain. 14- 7- 21. Greece. 19- 11- 20. India. 14- 7- 21. Irish Free State. 4- 9- 25. Italy. 10- 4- 23. Latvia. 3- 6- 26. Nether- lands. 17- 3- 24. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 13- 6- 21. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Switzerland. 9- 10- 22.	<i>Approval :</i> Finland. 1922. Hungary. 4- 3- 25. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions</i> (adjournment, etc.) : Germany (3). 5- 10- 22. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Sweden. 15- 6- 21. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. Brazil. 1920. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Czechoslovakia. 22- 12- 20. Lithuania (1). Aug. 1922. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Paraguay. 24- 5- 26. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.		Canada. 28- 5- 21. Japan. 6- 7- 21. New Zealand. 11- 11- 20. South Africa. 1921.	Australia. China. Guatemala. Nicaragua. Panama. Portugal. Salvador.	Albania. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Persia. Peru.
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(1) Proposal lapsed.

(2) Approved with reservations : see Record of 1921 Session of Conference, p. 1043.

(3) Reichsrat.

(B) SECOND SESSION (GENOA, 15 June-10 July 1920).

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

I. Minimum Age (Sea). — (Date of first coming into force : 27 September 1921).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intim- ation that they have submitted the Convention to the "compe- tent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially commu- nicated any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Belgium. 4- 2- 25. Bulgaria. 16- 3- 23. Canada. 31- 3- 26. Denmark. 12- 5- 24. Estonia. 3- 3- 23. Finland. 10- 10- 25. Great Britain. 14- 7- 21. Greece. 16- 12- 25. * Hungary. 1- 3- 23. Irish Free State. 4- 9- 25. Japan. 7- 6- 24. Latvia. 3- 6- 26. Netherlands. 26- 3- 25. * Norway. 7- 10- 27. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 8- 5- 22. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Spain. 20- 6- 24. Sweden. 27- 9- 21.	<i>Approval:</i> Italy. 20- 3- 24. <i>Rejection:</i> Switzerland. 1922. <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</i> India ⁽¹⁾ . 27- 9- 21. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 16- 3- 23. Lithuania ⁽³⁾ . Aug. 1922. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.		*Austria. 1927.	New Zealand. 1923.	Australia. Czecho-slovakia. France. Haiti. South Africa.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

II. Unemployment Indemnity. — (Date of first coming into force : 16 March 1923).

Belgium. 4- 2- 25. Bulgaria. 16- 3- 23. Canada. 31- 3- 26. Estonia. 3- 3- 23. Great Britain. 12- 3- 26. Greece. 16- 12- 25. Italy. 8- 9- 24. Latvia ⁽³⁾ . 5- 8- 26. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Spain. 20- 6- 24.	<i>Approval:</i> * France. 17-3-28. Netherlands ⁽⁴⁾ . 13- 1- 23. <i>Rejection:</i> India. 27-9-21. Finland. 1921. Switzerland. 1922. <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</i> * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Rumania. 30- 4- 25. Siam. 1922. Sweden. 15- 6- 21. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Denmark ⁽²⁾ . 1926. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 16- 3- 23. Lithuania ⁽³⁾ . Aug. 1922. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25.	*Austria. 1927.	Japan. 6- 1- 22. New Zealand. 1923.	Australia. Czecho-slovakia. Haiti. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. South Africa.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Honduras. Hungary. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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III. Employment for Seamen. — (Date of first coming into force : 23 November 1921).

Australia. 3- 8- 25. Belgium. 4- 2- 25. Bulgaria. 16- 3- 23. Estonia. 3- 3- 23. Finland. 7- 10- 22. * France. 25- 1- 28. Germany. 6- 6- 25. Greece. 16- 12- 25. Italy. 8- 9- 24. Japan. 23- 11- 22. Latvia. 3- 6- 26. Norway. 23- 11- 21. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Sweden. 27- 9- 21.	<i>Approval:</i> Netherlands ⁽⁴⁾ . 13- 1- 23. <i>Rejection:</i> India. 27- 9- 21. Switzerland. 1922. <i>Other decisions (adjournments, etc.):</i> Great Britain. 8- 11- 21. Rumania. 30- 4- 25. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Denmark ⁽²⁾ . 1926. Lithuania ⁽³⁾ . Aug. 1922. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25.	*Austria. 1927.	Canada. 28- 5- 21. New Zealand. 1923.	Czecho-slovakia. Haiti. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. South Africa.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Honduras. Hungary. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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⁽¹⁾ Approved with reservations: see *Official Bulletin* of the International Labour Office, Vol. V, p. 208 and *Final Record of 1922 Session of Conference*, p. 800.

⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.

⁽³⁾ Conditionally.

⁽⁴⁾ Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.

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

Conventions.

* Information received since last Report.

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

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intim- ation that they have submitted the Convention to the "compe- tent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communica- ted any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Austria. 12- 6-24. Bulgaria. 6- 3-25. Czecho- slovakia. 31- 8-23. Estonia. 8- 9-22. Hungary. 2- 2-27. Irish Free State. 26- 5-25. Italy. 8- 9-24. Japan. 19-12-23. Poland. 21- 6-24. Sweden. 27-11-23.	<i>Approval :</i> <i>Rejection :</i> Great Britain. 6- 2- 25. India. 1923. <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> Finland. 20- 2- 23. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Rumania. 30- 4- 25. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. * Belgium. 21- 6- 27. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Denmark (1). 1926. Germany (1). 18- 5- 23. * Greece. 30- 5- 27. Latvia. 18- 5- 24. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	*Nether- lands. 16- 1- 27.		Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. China. 1923. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. New Zealand 1923. South Africa. 1923. Switzerland. 4- 5- 23.	Albania. Australia. France. Lithuania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

II. Rights of Association (Agriculture). — (Date of first coming into force : 11 May 1923).

Austria. 12- 6-24. Belgium. 19- 7-26. Bulgaria. 6- 3-25. Chili. 15- 9-25. Czechoslo- vakia. 31- 8-23. Estonia. 8- 9-22. Finland. 19- 6-23. Germany. 6- 6-25. Great Britain. 6- 8-23. India. 11- 5-23. Irish Free State. 17- 6-24. Italy. 8- 9-24. Latvia. 9- 9-24. Nether- lands. 20- 8-26. Poland. 21- 6-24. Sweden. 27-11-23.	<i>Approval :</i> <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> Hungary. 4- 3- 25. Japan. 27- 6- 23. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Rumania. 30- 4- 25. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. Denmark. 1926. France. 14- 1- 26. * Greece. 1- 6- 27. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Switzerland. 4- 5- 23.	Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. China. 1923. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. New Zealand 1923. South Africa. 1923.	Albania. Australia. Lithuania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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(1) Proposal lapsed.

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

Conventions.

* Information received since last Report.

III. Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture). — (Date of first coming into force : 26 February 1923).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communicated any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Bulgaria. 6- 3- 25. Chili. 15- 9- 25. Denmark. 26- 2- 23. Estonia. 8- 9- 22. Germany. 6- 6- 25. Great Britain. 6- 8- 23. Irish Free State. 17- 6- 24. Netherlands. 20- 8- 26. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Sweden. 27- 11- 23.	<i>Approval :</i> * France. 17- 3- 28. Hungary. 4- 3- 25. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> India. 1923. Japan. 27- 6- 23. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Rumania. 30- 4- 25. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. * Finland. 28- 10- 27. * Greece. 1- 6- 27. Italy. 16- 5- 23. * Latvia. 18- 6- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Spain. 9- 7- 23. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	* Austria. 1927.	Switzerland. 4- 5- 23.	Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. China. 1923. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. New Zealand 1923. South Africa. 1923.	Albania. Australia. Belgium. Czechoslovakia. Lithuania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

IV. White Lead. — (Date of first coming into force : 31 August 1923).

Austria. 12- 6- 24. Belgium. 19- 7- 26. Bulgaria. 6- 3- 25. Chili. 15- 9- 25. Czechoslovakia. 31- 8- 23. Estonia. 8- 9- 22. France. 19- 2- 26. Greece. 22- 12- 26. * Hungary (1) 4- 1- 28. Latvia. 9- 9- 24. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 4- 12- 25. Spain. 20- 6- 24. Sweden. 27- 11- 23.	<i>Approval :</i> Italy. 20- 3- 24. Netherlands (2). 10- 6- 26. <i>Rejection :</i> India. 1924. <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> Japan. 27- 6- 23. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Denmark (3). 3- 12- 24. * Finland. 11- 11- 27. Germany (3). 18- 5- 23. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25. * Switzerland. 2- 3- 28.	Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. China. 1923. New Zealand 1923. South Africa. 1923.	Albania. Australia. Lithuania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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(1) Conditionally.

(2) Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.

(3) Proposal lapsed.

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

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

V. Weekly Rest (Industry). — (Date of first coming into force : 19 June 1923).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intim- ation that they have submitted the Convention to the "compe- tent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially commu- nicated any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Belgium. 19- 7- 26. Bulgaria. 6- 3- 25. Chili. 15- 9- 25. Czechoslo- vakia. 31- 8- 23. Estonia. 29- 11- 23. Finland. 19- 6- 23. France. 3- 9- 26. India. 11- 5- 23. Italy. 8- 9- 24. Latvia. 9- 9- 24. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 18- 8- 23. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Spain. 20- 6- 24.	<i>Approval :</i> Greece. 3- 9- 22. Hungary. 4- 3- 25. Nether- lands ⁽¹⁾ . 10- 6- 26. <i>Rejection :</i> Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> Germany ⁽²⁾ . 1923. Japan. 27-6-23. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Sweden. 16- 5- 23. Switzerland. 1925. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. Denmark ⁽³⁾ . 1926. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Austria ⁽³⁾ . 10- 9- 23. Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25.		Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. China. 1923. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923.	Albania. Australia. Lithuania. * Portugal.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Salvador.

VI. Minimum Age for Trimmers or Stokers. — (Date of first coming into force : 20 November 1922).

Belgium. 19- 7- 26. Bulgaria. 6- 3- 25. Canada. 31- 3- 26. Denmark. 12- 5- 24. Estonia. 8- 9- 22. Finland. 10- 10- 25. * France. 16- 1- 28. Great Britain. 8- 3- 26. * Hungary. 1- 3- 28. India. 20- 11- 22. Italy. 8- 9- 24. Latvia. 9- 9- 24. * Norway. 7- 10- 27. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 18- 8- 23. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Spain. 20- 6- 24. Sweden. 14- 7- 25.	<i>Approval :</i> Netherlands. 10- 6- 26. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> Japan. 27- 6- 23. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Germany ⁽³⁾ . 18- 5- 23. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Austria ⁽³⁾ . 10- 9- 23. Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25.		Brazil. 7- 12- 22. China. 1923. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. New Zealand 1923. South Africa. 1923. Switzerland. 4- 5- 23.	Albania. Australia. Czechoslo- vakia. Lithuania.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Portugal. Salvador.
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⁽¹⁾ Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.⁽²⁾ Decision of the Reichsrat : see Record of 1924 Session of Conference, p. 838.⁽³⁾ Proposal lapsed.

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

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

VII. Medical Examination of Young Persons (Sea). — (Date of first coming into force : 20 November 1922).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intima- tion that they have submitted the Convention to the "compe- tent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communica- ted any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
Belgium. 19- 7- 26. Bulgaria. 6- 3- 25. Canada. 31- 3- 26. Estonia. 8- 9- 22. Finland. 10- 10- 25. * France. 22- 3- 28. Great Britain. 8- 3- 26. * Hungary. 1- 3- 28. India. 20- 11- 22. Italy. 8- 9- 24. Japan. 7- 6- 24. Latvia. 9- 9- 24. * Netherlands. 9- 3- 28. Poland. 21- 6- 24. Rumania. 18- 8- 23. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. Spain. 20- 6- 24. Sweden. 14- 7- 25.	Approval : Rejection : Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) : * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 11- 7- 25.	Argentina. 18- 5- 25. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Cuba. 11- 6- 23. Denmark (1). 1926. Germany (1). 18- 5- 23. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Uruguay. 11- 9- 25.	Austria (1). 10- 9- 23. Irish Free State. 30- 4- 25.		Brazil. 7- 12- 22. China. 1923. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Switzerland. 4- 5- 23.	Albania. Australia. Czechoslovakia. Lithuania.	Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

(1) Proposal lapsed.

(D) SEVENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 19 May-10 June 1925).

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

I. Workmen's compensation for accidents. — (Date of first coming into force : 1 April 1927).

* Belgium. 3- 10- 27. * Netherlands. 13- 9- 27. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1 4- 27. Sweden. 8- 9- 26.	Approval : * Hungary. 1927. * Latvia. 13- 3- 28. Rejection : * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) : * Italy. 12- 12- 27. Venezuela. 4- 6- 26.	Estonia. 4- 11- 25. * Finland. 28- 10- 27. * France (1). 3- 2- 28. * Greece. 9- 5- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Poland. 12- 12- 26. Portugal. 1926.	Austria. 1927. Switzerland. 7- 6- 26.	Great Britain. 1926.	Brazil. 1927. * Canada. 31- 3- 27. Denmark. 1925. Germany. 1926. India. 1926. Irish Free State. 28- 5- 26. New Zealand. 1927. * Rumania. 1927. * Siam. 1927. South Africa. 1925.	Australia (2). Cuba. Czechoslovakia. Japan. Nicaragua. Salvador. Uruguay.	Albania. Argentina. Bolivia. Bulgaria. Chili. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Lithuania. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Spain.
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(1) Proposal lapsed.

(2) All the States except Victoria.

(D) SEVENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 19 May-10 June 1925) (contd).

Conventions.

* Information received since last Report.

II. Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases. — (Date of first coming into force: 1. April 1927).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communicated any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
* Belgium. 3- 10- 27. * Finland. 17- 9- 27. Great Britain. 6- 10- 26. * India. 30- 9- 27. * Irish Free State. 25- 11- 27. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. * Switzerland. 16- 11- 27.	<i>Approval:</i> * Germany ⁽⁴⁾ . 29- 3- 28. * Hungary. 1927. * Netherlands ⁽¹⁾ . 2- 7- 27. <i>Rejections:</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</i> * Italy. 12- 12- 27. Norway. 27- 6- 27. Sweden. 5- 6- 26. Venezuela. 4- 6- 26.	Estonia. 4- 11- 25. * France ⁽²⁾ . 3- 2- 28. * Greece. 9- 5- 27. * Latvia. 24- 5- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Poland. 12- 12- 26. Portugal. 1926.	* Austria. 1927.		Brazil. 1927. * Canada. 31- 3- 27. Denmark. 1925. New Zealand. 1927. * Rumania. 1927. * Siam. 1927. South Africa. 1925.	Australia ⁽³⁾ . Cuba. Czechoslovakia. Japan. Nicaragua. Uruguay.	Albania. Argentina. Bolivia. Bulgaria. Chili. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Lithuania. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Salvador. Spain.

III. Equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmens' compensation for accidents. — (Date of first coming into force: 8 September 1926).

* Belgium. 3- 10- 27. Czechoslovakia. 8- 2- 27. * Finland. 17- 9- 27. Great Britain. 6- 10- 26. * India. 30- 9- 27. * Italy. 15- 3- 28. * Netherlands. 13- 9- 27. * Poland. 28- 2- 28. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. 1- 4- 27. South Africa. 30- 3- 26. Sweden. 8- 9- 26.	<i>Approval:</i> * Denmark. 21- 12- 27. * France. 17-3-28. * Germany ⁽⁴⁾ . 29- 3- 28. * Hungary. 1927. * Latvia. 13- 3- 28. * Switzerland. June 1927. <i>Rejection:</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.):</i> Venezuela. 4- 6- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Estonia. 4- 11- 25. * Greece. 20- 5- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. * Norway. 20- 5- 27. Portugal. 1926.		Brazil. 1927. * Canada. 31- 3- 27. Irish Free State. 1927. New Zealand. 1927. * Rumania. 1927. * Siam. 1927.	Australia ⁽³⁾ . Chili. Cuba. Japan. Nicaragua. Uruguay.	Albania. Argentina. Bolivia. Bulgaria. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Lithuania. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Salvador. Spain.
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IV. Night work in Bakeries.

<i>Approval:</i> Austria ⁽²⁾ . 22- 11- 26. * Czechoslovakia. 21- 1- 27. Estonia. 4- 11- 25. * Finland. 28- 10- 27. * France. 29- 11- 27. * Greece. 20- 5- 27. * Latvia. 26- 5- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28. Poland. 12- 12- 26.	Netherlands. 3- 9- 26. Portugal. 1926.	Great Britain. 1926. * Hungary. 1927. * Switzerland. 20- 5- 27.	Brazil. 1927. * Canada. 31- 3- 27. Denmark. 1925. Germany. 26- 11- 26. India. 1926. Irish Free State. 27- 4- 26. New Zealand. 1927. * Rumania. 1927. * Siam. 1927. South Africa. 1925.	Australia ⁽³⁾ . Belgium. Chili. Cuba. Japan. Nicaragua. Uruguay.	Albania. Argentina. Bolivia. Bulgaria. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Lithuania. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Salvador. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain.
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⁽¹⁾ Act reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.
⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.

⁽³⁾ All the States except Victoria.
⁽⁴⁾ Reichsrat.

(E) EIGHTH SESSION (GENEVA, 26 May-5 June 1926).

Convention.

* = Information received since last Report.

Simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship.— (Date of first coming into force : 29 December 1927).

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intimation that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communicated any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(3) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
* Austria. 29- 12- 27. * Belgium. 15- 2- 28. * Great Britain (1). 16- 9- 27. * India. 14- 1- 28. * Netherlands. 13- 9- 27.	<i>Approval :</i> * Czechoslovakia. 13- 12- 27. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> * Norway. 27- 6- 27. * Sweden. 15- 3- 27.	Cuba. 1927. * Finland. 18- 8- 27. * Latvia. 24- 5- 27. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28.		* Poland. 21- 12- 27.	* Australia. 2- 3- 27. * China. 1927. Denmark. 8- 10- 26. * Irish Free State. 23- 6- 27. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * Siam. 1927. * South Africa. 31- 1- 27. * Switzerland. 1927. * Venezuela. 1927.	* Argentina. * Canada. Chili. * Germany. * Japan.	All the other States Members.

(F) NINTH SESSION (GENEVA, 7-24 June 1926).

Conventions.

* = Information received since last Report.

I. Seamen's articles of agreement.

* Belgium. 3- 10- 27.	<i>Approval :</i> * France. 17- 3- 28. <i>Rejection :</i> <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> * India. 20- 9- 27. * Norway. 27- 6- 27. Sweden. 7- 5- 27.	Cuba. 1927. Denmark (2). 1926. * Finland. 18- 8- 27. * Hungary. 9- 2- 28. * Latvia. 24- 5- 27. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. * Poland. 21- 12- 27.	* Austria. 1927. * Netherlands. 5- 9- 27.	* Australia. 2- 3- 27. * China. 1927. * Irish Free State. 23- 6- 27. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * Siam. 1927. * South Africa. 31- 1- 27. * Switzerland. 1927. * Venezuela. 1927.	* Argentina. * Canada. Chili. * Finland. * Japan.	All the other States Members.
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II. Repatriation of seamen.

* Belgium. 3- 10- 27.	<i>Approval :</i> <i>Rejection :</i> Sweden. 7- 5- 27. <i>Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :</i> * India. 20- 9- 27. * Norway. 27- 6- 27.	Cuba. 1927. Denmark (2). 1926. * Finland. 18- 8- 27. * France. 16- 11- 27. * Hungary. 9- 2- 28. * Latvia. 24- 5- 27. * Luxembourg. 25- 1- 28. * Poland. 21- 12- 27.	* Austria. 1927. * Netherlands. 5- 9- 27.	* Australia. 2- 3- 27. * China. 1927. * Irish Free State. 23- 6- 27. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * Siam. 1927. * South Africa. 31- 1- 27. * Switzerland. 1927. * Venezuela. 1927.	* Argentina. * Canada. Chili. * Japan.	All the other States Members.
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(1) Conditionally.

(2) Proposal lapsed.

(G) TENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 25 May-16 June 1927).

Conventions.

* Information received since last Report.

I. Sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants.

(a) Ratifications communicated and date of registration (para. 7).	(b) Decision of the "competent authority" (para. 7) and date of such decision.	(c) States which have officially declared that they have submitted the Convention to the "competent authority" (para. 5) and date of such submission.				(d) States which without an official intima- tion that they have submitted the Convention to the "compe- tent authority" have supplied information of other measures taken.	(e) States which have not officially communica- ted any information.
		(1) Proposing ratification.	(2) Proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.	(2) Proposing no ratification.	(4) With no proposal.		
* Germany. 23- 1- 28.	Approval : * Hungary. 26- 11- 27. Rejection : Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :	* Latvia. 27- 10- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28.			* Denmark. 1927. * Great Britain. 1927. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * Norway. 27- 2- 28. * South Africa. 1927.	* Argentina. * Cuba. * France. * Salvador.	All the other States Members.

II. Sickness insurance for agricultural workers.

* Germany. 23- 1- 28.	Approval : Rejection : Other decisions (adjournment, etc.) :	* Latvia. 27- 10- 27. * Luxemburg. 25- 1- 28.			* Denmark. 1927. * Great Britain. 1927. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * Norway. 27- 2- 28. South Africa. 1927.	* Argentina. * Cuba. * France. * Salvador.	All the other States Members.
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(A) FIRST SESSION (WASHINGTON, 29 October-29 November 1919).

Recommendations.

I. Unemployment.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 16- 6- 21. Bulgaria. 10- 2- 22. Denmark. 15- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. Finland. 22- 3- 21. France. 25- 1- 21. Germany. 25- 10- 26. Great Britain. 10- 9- 21. India. 12- 7- 21. Italy. 12- 7- 21. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 31- 5- 21. Netherlands. 17- 5- 21. New Zealand. 4- 8- 21. Poland. 26- 7- 21. Rumania. 31- 5- 21. Siam. 10- 5- 22. Spain. 4- 7- 21. Sweden. 3- 6- 21 ; 3- 10- 21. Switzerland. Aug. 1923 ; 16- 1- 26.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. * Austria. 1927. Brazil. 1920. Canada. 28- 5- 21. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Hungary. 13- 3- 24. Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . Aug. 1922. South Africa. 1921. Venezuela. 1920.	Czechoslovakia. Greece. Latvia. Luxemburg. Panama. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Uruguay.	Albania. Bolivia. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Nicaragua. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

II. Reciprocity of Treatment.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 16- 6- 21. Bulgaria. 10- 2- 22. Chili. 1- 7- 21. Denmark. 15- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. Finland. 22- 3- 21. France. 25- 1- 21. Germany. 25- 10- 26. India. 12- 7- 21. Italy. 12- 7- 21. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Netherlands. 17- 5- 21. New Zealand. 4- 8- 21. Norway. 31- 5- 21. Poland. 26- 7- 21. Rumania. 31- 5- 21. Siam. 10- 5- 22. Spain. 4- 7- 21. Sweden. 3- 6- 21 ; 3- 10- 21. Switzerland. Aug. 1923 ; 16- 1- 26.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. * Austria. 1927. Brazil. 1920. Canada. 28- 5- 21. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Great Britain. 1920. Hungary. 13- 3- 24. Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . Aug. 1922. South Africa. 1921. Venezuela. 1920.	Czechoslovakia. Greece. Latvia. Luxemburg. Panama. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Uruguay.	Albania. Bolivia. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Nicaragua. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

III. Anthrax.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 16- 6- 21. Bulgaria. 10- 2- 22. Denmark. 15- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. Finland. 22- 3- 21. France. 25- 1- 21. Great Britain. 11- 1- 21. India. 12- 7- 21. Italy. 12- 7- 21. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Netherlands. 17- 5- 21. New Zealand. 4- 8- 21. Norway. 31- 5- 21. Poland. 26- 7- 21. Rumania. 31- 5- 21. Siam. 10- 5- 22. Spain. 4- 7- 21. Sweden. 3- 6- 21. Switzerland. Aug. 1923 ; 16- 1- 26.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20. * Austria. 1927. Brazil. 1920. Canada. 28- 5- 21. Chili. 7- 8- 24. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 16- 3- 23. Hungary. 13- 3- 24. Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . Aug. 1922. South Africa. 1921. Venezuela. 1920.	Czechoslovakia. Greece. Latvia. Luxemburg. Panama. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Uruguay.	Albania. Bolivia. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Nicaragua. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

⁽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 Oct.-29 Nov. 1919) (contd.).

Recommendations.

IV. Lead Poisonin.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ .	Argentina.	Czechoslovakia.	Albania.
Belgium. 16- 6- 21.	* Austria. 17- 9- 20.	Greece. 1927.	Bolivia.
Bulgaria. 10- 2- 22.	Brazil. 1920.	Latvia. 1920.	China.
Denmark. 15- 7- 21.	Canada. 28- 5- 21.	Luxemburg. 7- 8- 24.	Colombia.
Estonia. 15- 5- 26.	Chili. 17- 1- 22.	Panama. 1921.	Dominican Republic.
France. 25- 1- 21 ; 8- 10- 26.	Cuba. 1921.	Portugal. 16- 3- 23.	Ethiopia.
Great Britain. 11- 1- 21.	Finland. 13- 3- 24.	Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Aug. 1922.	Guatemala.
India. 12- 7- 21.	Germany ⁽²⁾ . 1921.	Uruguay. 1920.	Haiti.
Italy. 12- 7- 21.	Hungary. 1921.		Honduras.
Japan. 4- 8- 26.	Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . 1921.		Irish Free State.
Netherlands. 17- 5- 21.	South Africa. 1920.		Liberia.
New Zealand. 4- 8- 21.	Venezuela. 1920.		Nicaragua.
Norway. 31- 5- 21.			Paraguay.
Poland. 26- 7- 21.			Persia.
Rumania. 31- 5- 21.			Peru.
Siam. 10- 5- 22.			Salvador.
Spain. 4- 7- 21.			
Sweden. 3- 6- 21.			
Switzerland. Aug. 1923 ; 16- 1- 26.			

V. Government Health Services.

Australia ⁽¹⁾ .	Argentina.	17- 9- 20.	Czechoslovakia.	Albania.
Belgium. 16- 6- 21.	* Austria. 1927.		Greece. 1920.	Bolivia.
Bulgaria. 10- 2- 22.	Brazil. 1920.		Latvia. 1920.	China.
Chili. 1- 7- 21.	Canada. 28- 5- 21.		Luxemburg. 7- 8- 24.	Colombia.
Denmark. 15- 7- 21.	Cuba. 17- 1- 22.		Panama. 1921.	Dominican Republic.
Estonia. 15- 5- 26.	Hungary. 13- 3- 24.		Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Aug. 1922.	Ethiopia.
Finland. 22- 3- 21.	Lithuania ⁽²⁾ . 1921.		Uruguay. 1920.	Guatemala.
France. 25- 1- 21.	South Africa. 1920.			Haiti.
Germany. 9- 8- 26.	Venezuela. 1920.			Honduras.
Great Britain. 11- 1- 21.				Irish Free State.
India. 12- 7- 21.				Liberia.
Italy. 12- 7- 21.				Nicaragua.
Japan. 4- 8- 26.				Paraguay.
Netherlands. 17- 5- 21.				Persia.
New Zealand. 4- 8- 21.				Peru.
Norway. 31- 5- 21.				Portugal.
Poland. 26- 7- 21.				Salvador.
Rumania. 31- 5- 21.				
Siam. 10- 5- 22.				
Spain. 4- 7- 21.				
Sweden. 3- 6- 21 ; 3- 10- 21.				
Switzerland. Aug. 1923 ; 16- 1- 26.				

VI. White Phosphorus.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)
Adherence to the Berne Convention (1906) communicated before the Washington Conference.	Date of coming into force of the Convention.	Adherence to the Berne Convention communicated in application of the Washington Recommendation.	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" and date of submission.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Canada. 20- 9- 14.	20- 9- 19.	Australia. 30- 12- 19.	Chili. Aug. 1925.	Argentina. 17- 9- 20.	Guatemala. 1920.	Albania.
Denmark ⁽⁴⁾ . 1- 1- 12.	1- 1- 12.	Austria. 23- 3- 21.	Greece. 1- 11- 20.	Brazil. 1920.	Latvia. 1920.	Bolivia.
France ⁽⁴⁾ . 1- 1- 12.	1- 1- 12.	Belgium. 8- 12- 22.	Siam. 10- 5- 22.	Cuba. 17- 1- 22.	Panama. 1921.	China.
Germany ⁽⁴⁾ . 28- 12- 08.	28- 12- 13.	Bulgaria. 1- 11- 26.		Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Aug. 1922.	Portugal. 1920.	Colombia.
Great Britain. 6- 7- 10.	6- 7- 15.	China. 6- 12- 23.		Venezuela. 1920.		Dominican Republic.
Italy. 6- 7- 10.	6- 7- 15.	Czechoslovakia. 30- 3- 21.				Ethiopia.
Luxemburg ⁽⁴⁾ . 1- 1- 12.	1- 1- 12.	Free City of Danzig ⁽⁴⁾ . 23- 8- 21.				Haiti.
Netherlands ⁽⁴⁾ . 27- 11- 11.	27- 11- 16.	Estonia. 2- 2- 23.				Honduras.
New Zealand. 26- 6- 14.	10- 7- 19.	Finland. 13- 10- 21.				Liberia.
Norway. 6- 12- 10.	3- 5- 14.	Hungary. 19- 11- 25.				Nicaragua.
South Africa ⁽³⁾ . 29- 10- 09.	29- 10- 14.	India. 30- 12- 19.				Paraguay.
Spain. 1- 1- 12.	1- 1- 12.	Irish Free State. 15- 4- 26.				Persia.
Switzerland ⁽⁴⁾ . 1- 1- 12.	1- 1- 12.	Japan. 14- 10- 21.				Peru.
		* Morocco ⁽⁵⁾ . 5- 7- 27.				Portugal.
		Palestine ⁽⁷⁾ . 17- 9- 25.				Salvador.
		Poland. 14- 1- 21.				Uruguay.
		Rumania. 21- 7- 21.				
		Sweden. 10- 4- 20.				

⁽¹⁾ See note 1 on preceding page.⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.⁽³⁾ With retrospective effect from 3 May 1908.⁽⁴⁾ These States were signatories of the Convention and were bound by Article 4 to deposit their ratifications of the Con-

vention by 31 December 1908. The Convention was to come into force three years later.

⁽⁵⁾ Adherence communicated by France.⁽⁶⁾ Adherence communicated by Poland.⁽⁷⁾ Adherence communicated by Great Britain.

(B) SECOND SESSION (GENOA, 15 June-10 July 1920).

Recommendations.

I. Hours of Work (Fishing).

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia. 28- 8- 24. Bulgaria. 10- 3- 23. Canada. 4- 6- 21. Chili. 1- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 2- 4- 24. India. 7- 3- 22. Italy. 5- 1- 22. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Sweden. 5- 7- 21. Switzerland. 2- 3- 22; 16- 1- 26.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. * Austria. 1927. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Denmark. 15- 4- 21. Finland. 9- 12- 21. Germany ⁽¹⁾ . 1921. Great Britain. 8- 11- 21. Lithuania ⁽¹⁾ . Aug. 1922. Netherlands. 14- 2- 22. New Zealand. 1923. Rumania. 1922. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 1922.	Belgium. Czechoslovakia. Greece. Haiti. Latvia. Luxemburg. Poland. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. South Africa. Spain. Uruguay.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Honduras. Hungary. Irish Free State. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

II. Hours of Work (Inland Navigation).

Australia. 28- 8- 24. Bulgaria. 10- 3- 23. Canada. 4- 6- 21. Chili. 1- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 2- 4- 24. India. 17- 11- 22. Italy. 5- 1- 22. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Sweden. 5- 7- 21. Switzerland. 2- 3- 22; 16- 1- 26.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. * Austria. 1927. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Denmark. 15- 4- 21. Finland. 9- 12- 21. Germany ⁽¹⁾ . 1921. Great Britain. 8- 11- 21. Lithuania ⁽¹⁾ . Aug. 1922. Netherlands. 14- 2- 22. New Zealand. 1923. Rumania. 1922. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 1922.	Belgium. Czechoslovakia. Haiti. Latvia. Luxemburg. Poland. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. South Africa. Spain. Uruguay.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Costa Rica. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Honduras. Hungary. Irish Free State. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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III. National Seamen's Codes.

Australia. 28- 8- 24. Bulgaria. 10- 3- 23. Canada. 4- 6- 21. Chili. 1- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 2- 4- 24. Germany. 12- 8- 26. India. 7- 3- 22. Italy. 5- 1- 22. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Sweden. 5- 7- 21. Switzerland. 2- 3- 22.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. * Austria. 1927. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Finland. 9- 12- 21. Great Britain. 8- 11- 21. Lithuania ⁽¹⁾ . Aug. 1922. Netherlands. 14- 2- 22. New Zealand. 1923. Rumania. 1922. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 1922.	Belgium. Czechoslovakia. Denmark. Haiti. Latvia. Luxemburg. Poland. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. South Africa. Spain.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Honduras. Hungary. Irish Free State. Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador. Uruguay.
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⁽¹⁾ Proposal lapsed.

(B) SECOND SESSION (GENOA, 15 June-10 July 1920) (contd.).

Recommendations.

IV. Unemployment Insurance (Seamen). * = Information received since last Report.

(a) Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).	(b) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the "competent authority" (§ 5) and date of submission.	(c) States which have supplied other official information.	(d) States which have supplied no official information.
Australia. 28- 8- 24. Bulgaria. 10- 3- 23. Canada. 4- 6- 21. Chili. 1- 7- 21. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 2- 4- 24. Germany. 12- 8- 26. India. 7- 3- 22. Italy. 5- 1- 22. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Sweden. 5- 7- 21. Switzerland. 2- 3- 22.	Argentina. 8- 9- 21. * Austria. 1927. Cuba. 17- 1- 22. Finland. 9- 12- 21. Great Britain. 8- 11- 21. Lithuania⁽¹⁾. Aug. 1922. Netherlands. 14- 2- 22. New Zealand. 1923. Rumania. 1922. Siam. 1922. Venezuela. 1922.	Belgium. Czechoslovakia. Denmark. Haiti. Latvia. Luxemburg. Poland. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. South Africa. Spain.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Honduras. Hungary. Irish Free State Liberia. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador. Uruguay.

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

Recommendations.

I. Unemployment (Agriculture). * = Information received since last Report.

Australia⁽²⁾. Belgium. 2- 3- 27. Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. Finland. 2- 4- 24. France. 15- 4- 24. * Hungary. 15- 11- 27. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Germany⁽¹⁾. 18- 5- 23. Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Czechoslovakia. Denmark. India. Latvia. Lithuania. Rumania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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⁽¹⁾ Proposal lapsed.⁽²⁾ 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.

(C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 Oct.-19 Nov. 1921) (contd.).

Recommendations.

II. Childbirth (Agriculture).

* Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 15- 4- 24. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23 ; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Finland. 20- 10- 22. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 18- 5- 23. Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. Hungary. 13- 3- 24. India. 1923. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Czechoslovakia. Denmark. Latvia. Lithuania. Rumania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Belgium. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

III. Night Work Women (Agriculture).

Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Czechoslovakia. 24- 10- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 15- 4- 24. Great Britain. 19- 3- 24. * Hungary. 15- 11- 27. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23 ; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Finland. 20- 10- 22. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 18- 5- 23. India. 1923. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Denmark. Latvia. Lithuania. Rumania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Belgium. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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⁽¹⁾ See Note 2 on preceding page.⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.

(C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 Oct.-19 Nov. 1921) (contd.).

Recommendations.

IV. Night Work Young Persons (Agriculture). * = Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Czechoslovakia. 24- 10- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 15- 4- 24. * Hungary. 15- 11- 27. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23 ; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Finland. 20- 10- 22. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 18- 5- 23. Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. India. 1923. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Denmark. Latvia. Lithuania. Rumania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Belgium. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

V. Technical Agricultural Education.

Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 2- 3- 27. Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Czechoslovakia. 24- 10- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. Finland. 2- - 24. France. 15- 4- 24. * Germany. 9- 4- 27. * Hungary. 15- 11- 27. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Rumania. 1- 4- 25. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23 ; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Denmark. India. Latvia. Lithuania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.
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⁽¹⁾ See Note 2 page
⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.

(C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 Oct.-19 Nov. 1921) (contd.).

Recommendations.

VI. Living-in Conditions (Agriculture).

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 2- 3- 27. Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 15- 4- 24. * Hungary. 15- 11- 27. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23 ; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Finland. 20- 10- 22. Germany ⁽²⁾ . 18- 5- 23. Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. India. 1923. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Czechoslovakia. Denmark. Latvia. Lithuania. Rumania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

VII. Social Insurance (Agriculture).

Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 2- 3- 27. Bulgaria. 5- 3- 25. Czechoslovakia. 24- 10- 25. Estonia. 15- 5- 26. France. 15- 4- 24. Germany. 9- 8- 26. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 4- 8- 26. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 7- 6- 23. Siam. 21- 8- 22. Sweden. 13- 11- 23. Switzerland. 22- 5- 23 ; 16- 1- 26.	* Austria. 1927. Brazil. 7- 12- 22. Canada. 23- 3- 23. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1923. Cuba. 31- 8- 22. Finland. 20- 10- 22. Great Britain. 9- 5- 23. Hungary. 13- 3- 24. India. 1923. Netherlands. 22- 6- 23. New Zealand. 1923. South Africa. 1923. Venezuela. 1923.	Albania. Denmark. Latvia. Lithuania. Rumania. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain.	Argentina. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Irish Free State. Liberia. Luxemburg. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador. Uruguay.
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⁽¹⁾ See Note (2) page
⁽²⁾ Proposal lapsed.

(C) THIRD SESSION (GENEVA, 25 Oct.-19 Nov. 1921) (contd.).

Recommendations.

VIII. Weekly Rest in Commerce.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)		(b)		(c)		(d)
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.		States which have supplied other official information.		States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ .		* Austria.	1927.	Albania.		Argentina.
Belgium.	6- 7- 25.	Brazil.	7- 12- 22.	Denmark.		Bolivia.
Bulgaria.	5- 3- 25.	Canada.	23- 3- 23.	Latvia.		Colombia.
Czechoslovakia.	24- 10- 25.	Chili.	7- 8- 24.	Lithuania.		Dominican
Estonia.	15- 5- 26.	China.	1923.	Kingdom of the		Republic.
Finland.	2- 4- 24.	Cuba.	31- 8- 22.	Serbs, Croats		Ethiopia.
France.	15- 4- 24.	Germany ⁽²⁾ .	18- 5- 23.	and Slovenes.		Greece.
India.	30- 10- 22.	Great Britain.	9- 5- 23.	Spain.		Guatemala.
Italy.	16- 1- 26.	Hungary.	13- 3- 24.	Uruguay.		Haiti.
Japan.	4- 8- 26.	Netherlands.	22- 6- 23.			Honduras.
Norway.	1- 12- 26.	New Zealand.	1923.			Irish Free State.
Poland.	7- 6- 23.	South Africa.	1923.			Liberia.
Rumania.	1- 4- 25.	Venezuela.	1923.			Luxemburg.
Siam.	21- 8- 22.					Nicaragua.
Sweden.	13- 11- 23.					Panama.
Switzerland.	22- 5- 23; 16- 1- 26.					Paraguay.
						Persia.
						Peru.
						Portugal.
						Salvador.

(D) FOURTH SESSION (GENEVA, 18 Oct.-3 Nov. 1922).

Recommendation.

Emigration Statistics.

Australia .	2- 6- 25.	Bulgaria.	1924.	Brazil.		Albania.
* Austria.	2- 7- 27.	Chili.	7- 8- 24.	Cuba.		Argentina.
Belgium.	18- 6- 25.	Great Britain.	9- 5- 23.	Denmark.		Bolivia.
Canada.	29- 11- 23.	Latvia.	24- 1- 24.	Germany.		China.
Czechoslovakia.	21- 3- 25.	Netherlands.	24- 10- 23.	Luxemburg.		Colombia.
Estonia.	15- 5- 26.	Venezuela.	30- 6- 24.	New Zealand.		Dominican
Finland.	15- 4- 24.			Kingdom of the		Republic.
France.	26- 4- 24.			Serbs, Croats		Ethiopia.
Hungary.	30- 4- 26.			and Slovenes.		Greece.
India.	20- 11- 23.			Uruguay.		Guatemala.
Italy.	14- 8- 25.					Haiti.
Norway.	1- 12- 26.					Honduras.
Japan.	9- 4- 24.					Irish Free State.
Poland.	25- 7- 23.					Liberia.
Rumania.	1- 4- 25.					Lithuania.
Siam.	2- 4- 23.					Nicaragua.
South Africa.	27- 4- 23.					Panama.
Spain.	15- 4- 25.					Paraguay.
Sweden.	23- 12- 25.					Persia.
Switzerland.	22- 5- 23; 16- 1- 26.					Peru.
						Portugal.
						Salvador.

(¹) See Note (2) page .
(²) Proposal lapsed.

(E) FIFTH SESSION (GENEVA, 22-29 October 1923).

Recommendation.

Organisation of Systems of Inspection.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)
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.	States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ . * Austria. 2- 7- 27. Belgium. 6- 11- 24. Bulgaria. 23- 1- 25. Czechoslovakia. 19- 11- 25. Estonia. 18- 9- 25. Finland. 21- 1- 26. France. 22- 1- 25. Great Britain. 6- 8- 24. India. 20- 3- 24. Irish Free State. 29- 10- 25. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 18- 9- 25. Norway. 1- 12- 26. Poland. 13- 5- 25. Rumania. 1- 4- 25. Siam. 20- 3- 24. South Africa. 24- 4- 24. Sweden. 23- 12- 25. Switzerland. 6 3- 25.	Brazil. Aug. 1924. Canada. 3- 3- 24. Chili. 7- 8- 24. China. 1925. Cuba. 31- 10- 24. Germany. 1925. Hungary. 28- 11- 24. Netherlands. 4- 11- 24. New Zealand. 1925. Venezuela. 19- 4- 24.	Albania. Denmark. Luxemburg. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Uruguay.	Argentina. Bolivia. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Latvia. Liberia. Lithuania. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador.

⁽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. 25; New South Wales, 1. 5. 25; Queensland, 1. 5. 25; Tasmania, 1. 5. 25; Victoria, 1. 5. 25.

(F) SIXTH SESSION (GENEVA, 16 June-5 July 1924).

Recommendation.

Workers' Spare Time.

Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. 5- 11- 26. Canada. 17- 3- 26. Finland. 5- 8- 26. France. 5- 1- 27. Great Britain. 27- 7- 25. Germany. 6- 1- 27. India. 2- 12- 24. Irish Free State. 27- 3- 25. Italy. 16- 1- 26. Japan. 8- 3- 26. Norway. 17- 9- 25. Poland. 1- 3- 26. Siam. 4- 3- 25. South Africa. 2- 6- 25. Spain. 28- 7- 25. Sweden. 20- 10- 25. Switzerland. 26- 8- 25.	* Austria. 1927. Cuba. 3- 11- 25. Denmark. 23- 2- 25. Hungary. 8- 7- 25. Netherlands. 4- 5- 25. Venezuela. 1925.	Argentina. Chili. China. *Czechoslovakia. Estonia. Luxemburg. Rumania. Uruguay.	Albania. Bolivia. Brazil. Bulgaria. Colombia. Czechoslovakia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Greece. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Latvia. Liberia. Lithuania. New Zealand. Nicaragua. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Portugal. Salvador. Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.
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⁽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. 25; South Australia 3. 5. 26; New South Wales, 21. 1. 26; Queensland, 2. 7. 25; * Tasmania, 10. 6. 27; Victoria, 17. 9. 25.

(G) SEVENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 19 May-10 June 1925).

Recommendations.

I. Minimum scale of workmen's compensation.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)		(b)		(c)	(d)
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.		States which have supplied other official information.	States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ .	Sept. 1926.	* Austria.	1927.	Cuba.	Albania.
Belgium.	10- 12- 25.	Brazil.	1927.	Czechoslovakia.	Argentina.
France.	8- 12- 26.	Canada.	31- 3- 27.	Estonia.	Bolivia.
Great Britain.	4- 10- 26.	Denmark.	1925.	Greece.	Bulgaria.
India.	9- 9- 26.	Finland.	13- 3- 26.	Latvia.	Chili.
Japan.	31- 12- 26.	Germany.	1926.	Nicaragua.	China.
Luxemburg.	20- 2- 26.	* Hungary.	1927.	Uruguay.	Colombia.
Netherlands.	12- 2- 27.	Irish Free State.	28- 5- 26.		Dominican Republic.
Norway.	1- 12- 26.	Italy.	15- 12- 26.		Ethiopia.
Poland.	15- 2- 27.	New Zealand.	1927.		Guatemala.
* Siam.	15- 3- 27.	Portugal.	1926.		Haiti.
Sweden.	8- 9- 26.	South Africa.	1925.		Honduras.
		Switzerland.	7- 6- 26.		Liberia.
					Lithuania.
					Panama.
					Paraguay.
					Persia.
					Peru.
					Rumania.
					Salvador.
					Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.
					Spain.
					Venezuela.

II. Jurisdiction in disputes on workmen's compensation.

Australia ⁽¹⁾ .	Sept. 1926.	* Austria.	1927.	Cuba.	Albania.
Belgium.	10- 12- 25.	Brazil.	1927.	Czechoslovakia.	Argentina.
* Finland.	12- 9- 27.	* Canada.	31- 3- 27.	Estonia.	Bolivia.
France.	8- 12- 26.	Denmark.	1925.	Greece.	Bulgaria.
Great Britain.	4- 10- 26.	Germany.	1926.	Latvia.	Chili.
India.	9- 9- 26.	* Hungary.	1927.	Nicaragua.	China.
Japan.	31- 12- 26.	Irish Free State.	28- 5- 26.	Uruguay.	Colombia.
Luxemburg.	20- 2- 26.	Italy.	15- 12- 26.		Dominican Republic.
Netherlands.	12- 2- 27.	New Zealand.	1927.		Ethiopia.
Norway.	1- 12- 26.	Portugal.	1926.		Guatemala.
Poland.	15- 2- 27.	South Africa.	1925.		Haiti.
* Siam.	15- 3- 27.	Switzerland.	7- 6- 26.		Honduras.
Sweden.	8- 9- 26.				Liberia.
					Lithuania.
					Panama.
					Paraguay.
					Persia.
					Peru.
					Rumania.
					Salvador.
					Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.
					Spain.
					Venezuela.

⁽¹⁾ All the States except Victoria.

(G) SEVENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 19 May-10 June 1925) (contd.).

Recommendations.

III. Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a)		(b)		(c)		(d)
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.		States which have supplied other official information.		States which have supplied no official information.
Australia ⁽¹⁾ .	Sept. 1926.	* Austria.	1927.	Cuba.		Albania.
Belgium.	10- 12- 25.	Brazil.	1927.	Czechoslovakia.		Argentina.
* Finland.	12- 9- 27.	* Canada.	31- 3- 27.	Estonia.		Bolivia.
France.	8- 12- 26.	Denmark.	1925.	Greece.		Bulgaria.
Great Britain.	4- 10- 26.	Germany.	1926.	Latvia.		Chili.
India.	9- 9- 26.	* Hungary.	1927.	Nicaragua.		China.
* Irish Free State.	24- 11- 27.	Italy.	15- 12- 26.	Uruguay.		Colombia.
Japan.	31- 12- 26.	New Zealand.	1927.			Dominican
Luxemburg.	20- 2- 26.	Portugal.	1926.			Republic.
Netherlands.	12- 2- 27.	South Africa.	1925.			Ethiopia.
Norway.	1- 12- 26.	Switzerland.	7- 6- 26.			Guatemala.
Poland.	15- 2- 27.					Haiti.
* Siam.	15- 3- 27.					Honduras.
Sweden.	8- 9- 26.					Liberia.
						Lithuania.
						Panama.
						Paraguay.
						Persia.
						Peru.
						Rumania.
						Salvador.
						Kingdom of the
						Serbs, Croats
						and Slovenes.
						Spain.
						Venezuela.

IV. Equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Australia ⁽¹⁾ . Belgium. * Finland. France. Great Britain. India. Japan. Luxemburg. Netherlands. Norway. Poland. * Siam. Sweden.	Sept. 1926. 10- 12- 25. 12- 9- 27. 8- 12- 26. 4- 10- 26. 9- 9- 26. 31- 12- 26. 20- 2- 26. 12- 2- 27. 1- 12- 26. 15- 2- 27. 15- 3- 27. 8- 9- 26.	* Austria. Brazil. * Canada. Czechoslovakia. Denmark. Germany. * Hungary. Irish Free State. Italy. New Zealand. Portugal. South Africa. Switzerland.	1927. 1927. 31- 3- 27. 22- 12- 26. 1925. 1926. 1927. 28- 5- 26. 15- 12- 26. 1927. 1926. 1925. 7- 6- 26.	Cuba. Estonia. Greece. Latvia. Nicaragua. Uruguay.	Albania. Argentina. Bolivia. Bulgaria. Chili. China. Colombia. Dominican Republic. Ethiopia. Guatemala. Haiti. Honduras. Liberia. Lithuania. Panama. Paraguay. Persia. Peru. Rumania. Salvador. Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. Spain. Venezuela.
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⁽¹⁾ All the States except Victoria.

(H) EIGHTH SESSION (GENEVA, 26 May-5 June 1926).

Recommendation.

I. Protection of emigrant women and girls on board ship.

* = Information received since last Report.

(a) Communication of action taken to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations and date of communication (§ 6).	(b) States which have officially intimated that the Recommendation has been submitted to the "competent authority" (§ 5) and date of submission.	(c) States which have supplied other official information.	(d) States which have supplied no official information.
* Belgium. 11- 2- 28. * Great Britain. 14- 9- 27. * India. 12- 1- 28. * Irish Free State. 8- 8- 27. * Japan. 24- 1- 28. * Netherlands. 4- 8- 27. * Norway. 28- 7- 27. * Siam. 15- 3- 27. * Sweden. 19- 4- 27.	* Australia. 2- 3- 27. * China. 1927. Cuba. 1927. * Czechoslovakia. 14- 12- 27. Denmark. 8- 10- 26. * Finland. 18- 8- 27. * Germany. 1927. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * South Africa. 31- 1- 27. * Switzerland. 1927. * Venezuela. 1927.	Argentina.	All the other States Members.

(I) NINTH SESSION (GENEVA, 7-24 June 1926).

Recommendations.

I. Repatriation of masters and apprentices.

* = Information received since last Report.

* France. 5- 12- 27. * India. 10- 11- 27. * Irish Free State. 8- 8- 27. * Japan. 24- 1- 28. * Netherlands. 7- 11- 27. * Norway. 28- 7- 27. * Siam. 15- 3- 27. * Sweden. 13- 7- 27.	* Australia. 2- 3- 27. * Austria. 1927. * China. 1927. Cuba. 1927. Denmark. 8- 10- 26. * Finland. 18- 8- 27. * Germany. 1927. * Hungary. 9- 2- 28. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * South Africa. 31- 1- 27. * Switzerland. 1927. * Venezuela. 1927.	Argentina.	All the other States Members.
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II. General principles for the inspection of the conditions of work of seamen.

* France. 5- 12- 27. * India. 10- 11- 27. * Irish Free State. 8- 8- 27. * Japan. 24- 1- 28. * Netherlands. 7- 11- 27. * Norway. 28- 7- 27. * Siam. 15- 3- 27. * Sweden. 13- 7- 27.	* Australia. 2- 3- 27. * Austria. 1927. * China. 1927. Cuba. 1927. Denmark. 8- 10- 26. * Finland. 18- 8- 27. * Germany. 1927. * Hungary. 9- 2- 28. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * South Africa. 31- 1- 27. * Switzerland. 1927. * Venezuela. 1927.	Argentina.	All the other States Members.
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(J) TENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 25 May-16 June 1927).

Recommendation.

General principles of sickness insurance.

* Denmark. 1927. * Great Britain. 1927. * Germany. 1927. * New Zealand. 5- 12- 27. * Norway. 27- 2- 28. * South Africa. 1927.	* Argentina. 1927. * Cuba. 1927. * Salvador. 1927.	All the other States Members.
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100.—A superficial examination of these tables might lead the reader to suppose that the situation is very satisfactory. With the exception of some 15 States, most of which are situated outside Europe and in which industry is more or less non-existent, the States have as a general rule fulfilled the obligations incumbent upon them under Article 405. In the case of Conventions in respect of which the exceptional time limit of 18 months has been passed, one or more stages in the procedure have, with a few rare exceptions, been accomplished:—submission to the competent authorities, decision by such authorities and, ultimately, ratification.

It is undeniable that the process of ratification is increasingly facilitated as the new procedure becomes more familiar, as constitutional rules or administrative methods are gradually adapted to the system set up by the Peace Treaty, and as the work of the Organisation becomes better known and acquires wider and more active support. The Office is no longer obliged continually to remind States of the double obligation involved in Article 405, and when it intervenes it is for the purpose of suggesting methods of coping rather with fundamental difficulties arising out of the text of Conventions than with questions of a technical legal character.

101.—In 1927, as in previous years, the Office received a number of requests for interpretations of provisions of Conventions or Recommendations. To these requests the Office gladly replies, though it has to point out, of course, that it has no power to interpret the decisions of the Conference and that the information it gives does not commit it in any way. The requests from the Governments and the Office's replies are printed in the *Official Bulletin* of the Office. For present purposes, therefore, a list is simply given of the chief requests received, with references to the numbers of the *Bulletin* in which the exchange of correspondence is contained.

Interpretations.

First Session (Washington, 1919).

Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

Finland. — See *Official Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, pp. 19-21.

Recommendation concerning the protection of women and children against lead poisoning.

Germany. — See *Official Bulletin*, Vol. XII, pp. 158-162.

Third Session (Geneva, 1921).

Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

Switzerland. — See *Official Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, pp. 29-31.

Seventh Session (Geneva, 1925).

Recommendation concerning the minimum scale of workmen's compensation.

Finland. — See *Official Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, pp. 22-23.

Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Czechoslovakia. — See *Official Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, pp. 24-26.

Ninth Session (Geneva, 1926).

Draft Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement.

Finland. — See *Official Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, pp. 26-28.

102.—It must not be supposed, however, that there is no longer any cause for anxiety. In the first place, the Office cannot tamely resign itself to the fact that a number of States Members of the Organisation have so far not thought fit to inform it of the effect which they have given to the decisions of the Conference. The countries to which the above remark applies are the following: Abyssinia, Bolivia, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras, Liberia, Peru, Persia. The Office intends to continue to remind these countries in a friendly way of their obligations and to point out to them to what an extent the absence of any effort on their part to adapt industrial conditions, even where industry is only in its infancy, to the principles to which they have given their solemn adherence weakens the Organisation. It is to be hoped that they will not remain indifferent to the Office's anxiety to make the universal character of the Organisation an effective reality.

But even in States which are willing to collaborate continuously in the Organisation's work the progress of ratification has many obstacles still to overcome. The nature and number of these obstacles can scarcely be judged from dry figures tabularly arranged. One of the subjects which gives the Office most cause for anxiety is the continually growing number of cases in which Bills providing for ratification are allowed to lapse. Attention was already drawn to this danger in last year's Report, but it is necessary once again to allude to it. In some cases the consideration of Bills in committee has proceeded so slowly and so cautiously that they have never reached the point of public discussion. And so, while the Committee is still quietly sleeping on the Bill, either the Parliamentary session comes to an end or the political character of the Parliament or the composition of the Government suddenly changes, and the Bill lapses. If in the next Parliament it

is again brought up as a private member's Bill, it no longer has the force which it possessed when it was originally put forward officially by the Government. Such Bills are still-born. The Government, having submitted the matter to Parliament, is regarded as having fulfilled its obligation under Article 405. Thus, in a number of countries a whole series of Bills for ratification are condemned to oblivion, and to take account of them in the Office's statistics would be to substitute appearance for reality. From the beginning of the present year, therefore, such Bills have no longer been taken into account in compiling the monthly table published in *Industrial and Labour Information*, in order that no one may be led to suppose that there is still any likelihood of their being passed. It cannot be repeated too frequently that the States Members can hardly claim to have fulfilled the spirit, as distinct from the letter, of their obligations so long as Parliament has not had a chance of taking a definite decision.

Moreover, the submission of Draft Conventions to Parliament in strict accordance with the terms of the Treaty is of little or no importance if it represents nothing more than a pure formality. If a Government submits Draft Conventions to Parliament unaccompanied by any concrete proposal (and the cases referred to in the tables include a number of instances of this kind), or if it proposes to reserve the question of ratification until some undertermined date on which certain provisions necessary for the application of the Convention and which have already been under consideration for years past will have been adopted (no attempt being made to provide facilities for the discussion of such provisions), the submission of Draft Conventions to Parliament is to a large extent an empty form. The procedure is of practical utility only if it results in positive action after the various

administrative and parliamentary stages (which it is the business of the Government itself to determine and to expedite) have been passed. Governments are of course free to make reservations as to the utility or the desirability of ratification in any particular case, and to propose that the country shall accept the Convention or not accept it or postpone its acceptance. It may also be that in many cases the legislative effort necessary in order to adapt the national system to the international system in accordance with a Convention may be considerable. But in the case of countries in which Conventions to which Parliament declared its general adherence over five years ago are still waiting, in order to be ratified, for the necessary legislation to be drawn up and adopted, it must be recognised that certain methods of procedure, while not directly contrary to the letter of the Peace Treaty, are nevertheless hardly in accordance with its spirit. The work of the Organisation cannot be serious and effective if it is limited to a formal and empty observance of rules without regard for the positive reforms which it is its aim and purpose to secure.

103.—The tables make it possible to see at a glance how many countries have ratified a particular Convention. They do not, however, allow the reader to reckon with the same rapidity how many Conventions a particular country has ratified. However much the procedure adopted by the different States may vary, what is of essential importance is the effective result. It is thought that it may be of interest to show the results by indicating in summary form for each State Member the number and character of the Conventions of which ratification has been registered. The following table provides such information down to 15 March.

SUMMARY OF RATIFICATIONS.

COUNTRY	Total number of ratifications.	Conventions ratified.
Belgium	18	Hours; Night work (women); Minimum age (industry); Night work (children); Minimum age (sea); Unemployment indemnity; Employment of seamen; Rights of association (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.
Bulgaria	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.
Estonia	14	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.
Poland	14	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.

COUNTRY	Total number of ratifications.	Conventions ratified.
Great Britain	13	Unemployment ; Night work (women) ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Unemployment indemnity ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Workmen's compensation (agriculture) ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination ; Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases ; Equality of treatment ; Simplification of inspection of emigrants. ¹
Italy	12	Hours (1) ; Unemployment ; Night work (women) ; Night work (children) ; Unemployment indemnity ; Employment for seamen ; Minimum age (agriculture) ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination ; Equality of treatment.
Latvia	12	Hours (1) ; Childbirth ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (Children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Unemployment indemnity (1) ; Employment for seamen ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; White lead ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination.
Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slo- venes	12	Unemployment ; Childbirth ; Night work (women) ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination ; Workmen's compensation for accidents ; Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases ; Equality of treatment.
India	11	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.
Rumania	11	Hours ; Unemployment ; Childbirth ; Night work (women) ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; White lead ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination.
Sweden	11	Unemployment ; Minimum age (sea) ; Employment for seamen ; Minimum age (agriculture) ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Workmen's compensation (agriculture) ; White lead ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination ; Workmen's compensation for accidents ; Equality of treatment.
Greece	10	Hours ; Unemployment ; Childbirth ; Night work (women) ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Unemployment indemnity ; Employment for seamen ; White lead.
Finland	9	Unemployment ; Minimum age (sea) ; Employment for seamen ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or Stokers ; Medical examination ; Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases ; Equality of treatment.
Irish Free State..	9	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.
Netherlands	9	Night work (women) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Workmen's compensation (agriculture) ; Medical examination ; Workmen's compensation for accidents ; Equality of treatment ; Simplification of inspection of emigrants.
Austria	8	Hours (1) ; Unemployment ; Night work (women) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (agriculture) ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; White lead ; Simplification of inspection of emigrants.
Chile	8	Hours ; Childbirth ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Workmen's compensation (agriculture) ; White lead ; Weekly rest.
Czechoslovakia ...	8	Hours ; Night work (women) ; Minimum age (industry) ; Minimum age (agriculture) ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; White lead ; Weekly rest ; Equality of treatment.
France	8	Hours (1) ; Unemployment ; Night work (women) ; Night work (children) ; Employment for seamen ; White lead ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or stokers.
Spain	8	Unemployment ; Childbirth ; Minimum age (sea) ; Unemployment indemnity ; White lead ; Weekly rest ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination.
Germany	7	Unemployment ; Childbirth ; Employment for seamen ; Rights of association (agriculture) ; Workmen's compensation (agriculture) ; Sickness insurance (industry, etc.) ; Sickness insurance (agriculture).
Denmark	6	Unemployment ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Workmen's compensation (agriculture) ; Trimmers or Stokers.
Hungary	6	Unemployment ; Minimum age (sea) ; Minimum age (agriculture) ; White lead (1) ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination.

¹ Conditional ratification.

COUNTRY	Total number of ratifications.	Conventions ratified.
Japan	6	Unemployment ; Minimum age (industry) ; Minimum age (sea) ; Employment for seamen ; Minimum age (agriculture) ; Medical examination.
Switzerland	5	Unemployment ; Night work (women) ; Minimum age (industry) ; Night work (children) ; Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.
Canada	4	Minimum age (sea) ; Unemployment indemnity ; Trimmers or stokers ; Medical examination.
Norway	4	Unemployment ; Minimum age (sea) ; Employment for seamen ; Trimmers or stokers.
South Africa.....	3	Unemployment ; Night work (women) ; Equality of treatment.
Australia	1	Employment for seamen.

Although the order in which States figure in the above table is based on the number of ratifications in each case, the table is not intended to constitute a kind of roll of honour. It would certainly be rash to conclude from such an arithmetical summary that the States which have ratified the greatest number of Conventions are those in which social progress has been carried to the greatest lengths. The figures provide a rough indication, but can only assist the reader in forming a definite judgment if he examines them critically and compares them with the living reality of facts. In some cases the quality of ratifications is of more importance than their quantity. One unconditional ratification of the Hours Convention is of greater significance than the ratification of two or three Conventions of far less importance from the point of view of international competition or of working class standards. This was rightly emphasised in a recent speech in the Reichstag by Dr. Brauns, Minister of Labour. Nevertheless, the number of ratifications is a definite indication of the efforts made by a country in the field of labour legislation. Thus, it cannot be gainsaid that Belgium, which has ratified 18 Conventions, including the Hours Convention, occupies a place in the front rank of States which take steps to protect their workers ; nor can it be denied that Bulgaria has since the war pursued with energy and perseverance a policy of reform based on Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, and that she has proved that social progress may contribute to a country's recovery.

104.—But, it may be said, what is the importance of a large number of ratifications if ratification is not followed by effective measures to secure the application of Conventions and supervision of the manner in which their provisions are carried out ? Thus, in regard to the Hours Convention, certain Governments, when confronted with their failure to ratify, reply to the following effect : “ The act of ratification is merely

a scrap of paper. We have not ratified but in fact we are applying the provisions of the Convention to practically the whole of our workers. It is useless to confront us with the example of countries which, notwithstanding the obligations which they undertake in ratifying, take such liberties with the Conventions in practice that the protection actually afforded is a mere caricature of the international rules laid down ”.

Such criticisms contain an element of deliberate exaggeration—if not, why have their authors not set in motion the procedure of complaint provided for in Article 409 and the following articles ? The reason why the Conference decided to set up a Committee to examine reports submitted in virtue of Article 408 was that it was considered possible that certain countries were interpreting or applying the terms of Conventions which they had ratified in too loose a manner. It is therefore of interest to refer to the conclusions of the first report of the Committee of Experts, which are to the following effect :

The examination of the reports leads first of all to a general observation, namely, that while these documents emanate from States differing from each other not only in geographical position, but also in constitutional forms and in social and economic conditions, they have a common character of sincerity which strikes the reader. Those countries, few in number, the legislation of which still shows lacunae, state the position frankly, giving at the same time the reasons for these lacunae and indicating the ways in which it is proposed to deal with this situation within a more or less short period. They thus manifest their desire to fulfil their obligations at the earliest possible moment. The Committee can only take note of this ; the effort which they announce indicates their attitude towards the organisation and the protection of human labour...

As its last word, the Committee would say that the conclusion which it must draw from its study of the reports is that, in spite of the criticisms which it has been compelled to make in a small number of cases, the application of the ratified Conventions appears to it to be proceeding generally in a satisfactory manner and that thus the work of the International Labour Organisation is progressively tending to produce results.

The Office must continually emphasise the fact that ratification and application are two different acts, each equally important for the International Labour Organisation. Without ratification the work of the Organisation would be extremely incomplete if not entirely futile. The ratification of a Convention by a country in which the provisions of the Convention are already, generally, speaking, applied is calculated to remove the hesitation of a number of other countries and to assist the Office considerably in its efforts to persuade the States to ratify.

105. — Moreover, it has to be remembered that if a Convention which has been ratified is not applied there is always the procedure laid down in the Treaty for dealing with complaints which are lodged on these grounds.

During 1927 no change was made in the list of members for the commissions of enquiry provided for under Article 412 of the Treaty.

Similarly, no change was made during the past year in the list of assessors for labour cases from which are to be selected the persons called upon to assist the Permanent Court of International Justice at its full sittings, or its special Chamber for labour questions, when labour cases are brought before it. The special Chamber for labour cases has been renewed for the period 1 January 1928 to 31 December 1930, and is composed of the following judges :

Regular members : Mr. Anzilotti ; Mr. Hü-ber ; Lord Finlay ; Mr. de Bustamante ; Mr. Altamira.

Substitute members : Mr. Nyholm ; Mr. Moore.

As regards assessors for labour cases, mention may be made of a misunderstanding which has been caused in the press of a certain country. Indignation was expressed at the fact that in the annual report of the Permanent Court the list of assessors for labour cases included, as a workers' representative for the country in question, the name of a person who had for the past ten years occupied no representative post among organised workers. The Office can hardly be held responsible for this. It is the Governments who appoint the persons who may be called upon to be members of the commissions of enquiry provided for under Article 412 of the Treaty, and the employers' and workers' representatives who are appointed to these posts by the Governments are included by the Governing Body in the list of assessors for labour cases from which the Permanent Court of International Justice will select the assessors to assist it in particular labour cases. It is hardly, therefore, a function of the Office

to enquire whether for political or other reasons the persons who have been appointed by the Governments have ceased to possess the necessary qualifications for representing the employers or workers. It is for the Governments to take any measures that may be necessary.

106. — Furthermore, there are still certain misconceptions which it is necessary to remove. The Office in the course of its negotiations frequently encounters objections of a two-fold character. In some cases where the divergences between national law and the terms of a Convention are insignificant, the Governments consider it unnecessary to set the whole legislative machinery in motion in order to introduce such unimportant amendments as are considered required to make ratification possible. In other cases where there is no divergence between the Convention and national law or where the rules set up by the Convention refer to conditions of work, classes of workers, or economic situations of which the country concerned has no experience, the Government declares that the Convention is of little or no interest, and that ratification is unnecessary. Such arguments are based solely on the national aspect of ratification. They imply that a Government regards social problems as being matters of internal political interest alone, i.e. they do not fully appreciate the international significance of ratification.

The system set up under Part XIII aims at the establishment of international labour legislation with a view to the general adoption of a certain standard. The international protection of workers naturally assumes a national aspect within each country, inasmuch as every international Convention represents a concrete subject for legislation within each country. In the final analysis, however, the result of international labour legislation is to harmonise conditions of work throughout the territory of all the States Members through the elaboration of a real international labour code. It is therefore true to say that, if ratification loses some of its interest from the national point of view where it is not calculated to result in legislative progress, it nevertheless continues to be of considerable importance from the international point of view.

Moreover, the ratification of a Convention, the provisions of which are designed to deal with industrial conditions which are so far unknown in a particular country, nevertheless is genuinely to the interest of that country, as it is calculated to have a preventive effect by solving problems in advance of their effective appearance. Thus in the case of the white lead Convention, for example, it is to the interest of countries in which at present this commodity is not employed to protect their workers against the dangers involved in

the use of an industrial poison which, although not yet used in the country, may sooner or later be introduced into it. Similarly, in regard to the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship, a country from which no emigration takes place may nevertheless make provision for the protection of its nationals against the day when those nationals begin to emigrate. It is often easier to provide for justice being done before difficulties and resistance are actually encountered.

107. *Conditional ratifications.* — In 1927 only three countries adopted the expedient of conditional ratification, viz. France, which has ratified the Hours Convention on condition that its provisions shall not come into force until the Convention has been ratified by Germany and Great Britain; Great Britain, which has ratified the Convention concerning the simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship on condition that its ratification shall not take effect until the Convention has been ratified by France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway and Spain; and Hungary, which has ratified the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting conditionally on ratification by France, Germany and Great Britain.

There has thus been no noteworthy increase in the number of conditional ratifications. It nevertheless appears necessary to repeat certain observations which have been made on this subject in previous Reports to the Conference. In the Office's view it is to be regretted that resort should be had to the practice of conditional ratification in regard to Conventions which, so far from involving any increase in social charges, tend rather to lessen them, and which involve no question of foreign competition. Whilst conditional ratification may be thought legitimate where questions of economic rivalry come into play, adoption of the procedure in regard to Conventions which raise no problems of competition hardly seems to be justified. The danger is all the more serious in that the example is contagious and States feel encouraged by the isolated action of one or two among them also to ratify conditionally; in which case, if the list of States on whose ratification the entry into force of a Convention is made conditional is not entirely identical in every case, application of the Convention is postponed until the Greek Kalends, since the list of States who have to ratify before the Convention can come into force continues increasing indefinitely.

The above observations appear applicable in particular to the case of the Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship. The

British Government, starting from the premiss that it is desirable to secure uniformity in the methods adopted for simplifying inspection with the greatest possible rapidity, has made the entry into force of the Convention conditional on ratification by six States, in the hope that those States will regard their inclusion in the list as an encouragement to ratify and will consequently take steps to accelerate the ratification procedure. So far, however, from feeling encouraged to ratify unconditionally, some States may regard the decision of the British Government in the light of an invitation to them to ratify conditionally too, and to make the entry into force of the Convention dependent on ratification, not only by the States upon which that of Great Britain already depends, but also by other countries. If such were the case, it might happen that a considerable number of countries will have to ratify the Convention before it can enter into force in Great Britain. The Office may therefore be pardoned for viewing with apprehension the development of a practice which, if it became general, might jeopardise the effectiveness of the International Labour Organisation as a whole.

The above observations illustrate the difficulties of the Office's work. Even when it feels that it is not exposed to the various expedients which disturbed interests may employ to bar the road to ratification of the Conventions, the Office must be continually on the alert if any progress, however slow, is to be made in international labour legislation. No doubt, the greatest difficulties have yet to be encountered—when the procedures of mutual supervision, complaints and representations as to non-application of Conventions are put in motion. But the first stage has already been negotiated, in so far as regular practices have been established for carrying on the work of ratification. Above all, on each topic of social reform national action is closely united and coordinated with the endeavours being made to build up international legislation. These two sets of measures complete and support each other, and the workers of the world are enjoying some of the benefits which Part XIII promised them. This will be clear from the review given in the following pages of the progress which has been achieved on each of the important subjects of social reform which it is the Organisation's function to promote.

Paradoxical as it may seem, this is true of the most famous of these subjects, the eight hour day, which it is proposed to deal with first, as in previous years, under the new arrangement (c.f. Introduction) of the rest of this Section.

I. Working conditions.

Hours of work.

108. — Of all the subjects of social reform the eight hour day is nearest to the hearts of the workers, and inevitably the Washington Convention on this subject is the very corner-stone of the International Labour Organisation. What stage has this Convention now reached? How far has it travelled since last year's Report? And what does the future hold in store for it? The object of the following review is to endeavour to find answers to these questions.

In last year's Report it was pointed out that after the years of inaction and silence which had elapsed up till 1924, the Conferences at Berne (September 1924) and London (March 1926) had opened up possibilities of ratification of the Convention. Satisfaction was expressed at the "limited but certain results" which had been obtained in the spring of 1927. After the London Conference, Belgium had ratified the Convention unconditionally. France was on the point of ratifying it on the single condition that its ratification would take effect when Great Britain and Germany ratified. Germany had prepared its Workers' Protection Bill, and the German Chancellor had announced that the Government was prepared to ratify the Washington Convention if the other States of western Europe did the same. In Great Britain, a debate in the House of Commons had shown that many Conservative members of Parliament were in favour of ratification, and it had been announced in March that a special committee, under the chairmanship of Viscount Cecil, was to be set up by the Cabinet to consider the possibility of ratification. In these circumstances the Office felt justified in stating that in fact "the three important industrial States of Western Europe were bound together and were taking the same road" and that "the result of the Conferences of the last two years had been to have associated them in a common effort for ratification". And the progress made in the actual application of the eight hour day in the various countries, in those represented at London as well as in the others, seemed to justify this confident outlook.

But though these considerations were calculated to inspire confidence, the fact is that the Conference last year opened in a somewhat uncertain atmosphere. The Governing Body, impressed by the hesitation and slowness still displayed by the more important States in ratifying the Convention, had decided in October 1926 to set up a special committee to examine the actual

situation and investigate the difficulties of ratification, and, if possible, to assist the Director in his efforts. The Committee had noted with interest the large amount of documentary information compiled by the Office, but had refrained from examining the substance of the difficulties alleged as reasons for non-ratification, had refrained, in fact, from considering the position on the same lines as were followed at the private conference in London.

As a matter of fact, the employers had not come forward with an official and collective statement of the difficulties which they found in the text of the Convention. Mr. Lambert-Ribot had announced his intention of submitting the problem to the Conference and asking it to give a more or less authoritative interpretation of the Convention.

The dangers of such a procedure were indicated in last year's Report (c. f. p. 113), and it was suggested that endeavours should still be made to secure the ratification of the Convention as it stood, and that an attempt should be made to find in its application by the States which ratified it definite indications as to its actual implications. The opinion was expressed that practical application of the Convention was the only means which would enable the Office, at the end of the ten year period, to prepare with confidence the report provided for in Article 21 of the Convention.¹

The Tenth Session of the Conference did not mark any great progress in the matter. The announcement made to the Conference that France had ratified the Convention did not allay the dissatisfaction of the workers. Once again their delegates to the Conference complained of the situation. Mr. Mertens appealed to the States to face their responsibilities. Mr. Rossoni expressed the opinion that "this situation could not continue", and Mr. Jouhaux stressed the fact that "the British Government was the pivot for future ratifications".

Representatives of the Governments replied. The British Delegate, referring to a statement made on behalf of the Government by Lord Balfour in the House of Lords, said :

It is the object and policy of His Majesty's Government to proceed with the necessary legislation to give effect to the terms of the Hours

¹ Article 21 of the Convention reads as follows :

"At least once in ten years the Governing Body of the International Labour Office shall present to the General Conference a report on the working of this Convention and shall consider the desirability of placing on the agenda of the Conference the question of its revision or modification."

Convention, and once that legislation is passed, to proceed with the policy of ratification.

Mr. Feig, the representative of the German Government, whose attitude had been challenged during the course of the debate, said :—

We have had a change of Government in Germany, but this has in no way modified the attitude adopted towards the Washington Convention. On the contrary, almost as soon as it took office, the Government indicated its intention of hastening the passage of the Workers' Protection Bill, which refers not only to the Washington Convention, but other international Conventions adopted here. On certain points indeed the Bill goes even further since it applies not only to industry but also to commerce.

Mr. Lambert-Ribot did not, however, participate in the discussion. The employers, who might have given the desired information as to the difficulties which held up the Governments, practically took no part in the debate. The Director himself deplored the uncertainty of the situation and pointed out that a determined effort on all sides to make the position clear was the only means of helping the Office in its ratification work, which was always difficult and depended on the decisions of the more important States.

At the end of the discussion, Monsignor Nolens referred to the possibility of the revision of the Convention. He said :

Though it perhaps may not be the moment to consider the possibility of amending the Convention, I imagine it is not out of place that in this Conference the attention of the Governing Body, and the Office should be drawn, cautiously and tentatively but clearly, to this point.

The fact is that the discussions at the Conference, far from giving a new impetus to the Office's work, were calculated rather to embarrass it. Nevertheless, such is the force of the movement in favour of the eight hour day that, during the closing months of 1927, as indeed during the months which preceded the Conference, the work of national legislation and application was still being pushed forward in most parts of the world, and if the actual situation in the various countries is examined the record will be found encouraging and hopeful.

In the *Argentine Republic*, seven provinces out of fourteen have legalised the eight hour day or the 48 hour week since the province of *Santa Fé* passed an Act applying to factories and workshops, transport undertakings, buildings, loading and unloading. Throughout the whole country, in fact, the principle of the eight hour day would not seem to be questioned. The employers' organisation, *L'Asociacion del Trabajo*, for example, replying to a questionnaire on hours of work addressed to it by the Drafting Committee for the Labour Code, recently stated :

Generally speaking, we accept the application of the eight hour day and we recognise the theoret-

tical, legal and social reasons which justify intervention by the State in the regulation of working hours, as well as the scientific, economic and moral reasons which show that this limitation of working hours is the most suitable.

The Association did not, however, feel able to recommend ratification of the Washington Convention so long as the large industrial States had not ratified it.

The general adoption of the eight hour day for all adult manual and non-manual workers is part of the programme adopted at the beginning of the year by the Argentine Socialist Party.

In *Australia*, discussion has centred round a forty-four rather than a forty-eight hour week. In Australia, as in the Argentine, there is no Federal legislation on hours of work. Hours of work in the various States are fixed either by State law or by awards of Arbitration Courts or Wages Boards. Conditions in certain "federal" industries are determined by the Commonwealth Arbitration Court, which has frequently fixed hours at 48 per week.

In 1926, an Act was passed in New South Wales introducing the 44 hour week. An important constitutional problem then arose as to whether workers whose conditions were fixed by Federal awards should work 48 hours or whether the clauses in these awards relating to hours were superseded by the individual State's Act. The unions claimed a working week of 44 hours without any reduction in wages. The question was submitted to the Arbitration Court in New South Wales, which decided in favour of the maintenance of the Commonwealth award. The unions appealed to the High Court, which held that the New South Wales 44 hour week Act was invalid in so far as it conflicted with a Federal award. The unions refusing to accept this decision, disputes occurred in several industries, notably the engineering industry. The Government, considering that such disputes were prejudicial to business and the prosperity of Australia, came to the conclusion that, in order to secure uniform working hours in Australia, the Federal arbitration authorities should be empowered to fix industrial conditions for the whole of the Commonwealth. Since this involved amendment of the Constitution, the Government organised a referendum, but the proposal was rejected by a majority of 350,000 votes in a poll of 2 ½ millions. New South Wales and Queensland recorded a slight majority in favour of the proposed amendment.

The situation thus remains somewhat uncertain. Nevertheless, workers hitherto subject to Federal awards are gradually securing the benefit of the shorter hours in the individual State. Requests for the adoption of the 44 hour week have been granted in the case of engineers, gas-works employees and printing trade employees, while similar requests are at present under

consideration for sawmills, railways and the furniture trade.

In *Austria*, the eight hour day and 48 hour week is solidly established. The only legislative measures taken during the year refer to the renewal of provisional arrangements for florists' shops, and to exceptions for film-lending establishments, which are allowed, without special permission, to work ten hours overtime in a fortnight on inspecting, pasting and despatching films.

In *Canada*, the committee of enquiry (consisting of a chairman, an employers' representative and a workers' representative) set up in Alberta after the passage of the 1926 Act, which introduced provisionally the nine hour day and the 54 hour week, has submitted two reports, the workers' representative having been unable to accept the conclusions of the two other members of the Committee. The majority report recommends that the introduction of the 48-hour week should be delayed till such time as the other provinces have taken similar action. The two members who signed the majority report express the opinion that the suggested limitation of hours of work can only be safely put into effect through the cooperation of all the provinces. In their opinion, in order to be really effective, an Act on hours of work should be national in scope. The minority report disputes the view that a reduction of working hours has adverse effects on the industries concerned and demands the immediate introduction of the eight hour day.

Similarly, the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada, in a memorial submitted to the Government of Ontario, has demanded the enactment of legislation fixing an eight hour day in industrial and commercial establishments.

In *Colombia*, according to a Bill submitted in 1927 on the rights and obligations of commercial employees, hours of work may not exceed eight per day, (four on Saturday) i.e. the normal week is to be 44 hours. It is, however, provided that the contracting parties may agree on longer hours, provided that the extra hours are paid for at double rates.

In *Czechoslovakia*, as was also mentioned in last year's Report, the continuous increase in the amount of overtime had aroused alarm among the workers' organisations. It appears, however, that overtime is now decreasing; thus, whereas in 1925 the average number of hours of overtime worked per worker for the whole year was 59.3, in 1926 the corresponding figure was only 52.1.

In this connection reference may be made to the important declaration made by Dr. L. Winter, ex-Minister of Social Welfare, in the course of an appeal to the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Chamber

of Deputies to ratify all the international Conventions to which the Czechoslovak Republic had not yet given its adherence:—

The fact that the ratification of the important Hours Convention by the Czechoslovak Republic has not been followed by ratification on the part of the important industrial powers has caused a certain disinclination in the Republic to ratify other Conventions so long as it is not certain that the remaining States are equally ready to give effect to the obligations arising out of Part XIII.

In *Greece*, a Decree-Act of 13 November 1927 confirms, with one or two changes, the Decree-Act of 21 September 1926 on hours of work in shops. Every wage-earner is entitled to a continuous rest of at least 9 hours: in towns of more than 10,000 inhabitants shops may only remain open for 9 hours in winter and 9 ½ in summer. A Decree of 22 June 1927 prescribes in principle an eight hour day and forty eight hour week, with various possibilities of extension for butchers' shops, slaughter houses, and skimmers' establishments. Another Decree dated 4 February 1928 restricts hours of work in chemists' and druggists' shops to 10 or 10 ½ per day according to the period of the year.

It may also be noted that a movement is forming for extending the eight hour day to the liberal professions. A delegation from the Athenian Labour Group asked the Minister of National Economy in December last to convene the Advisory Labour Council and submit this question to it.

In *India*, where the national law has been successively adapted to the provisions of the Washington Convention as regards factories and mines respectively, a Bill to amend the Mining Industry Act of 1923 was laid before the Legislative Assembly in March 1927. The 1923 Act limits hours of work to 60 per week at the surface and 54 underground, but prescribes no limit for the hours to be worked per day. The chief object of the Bill is to remedy this omission by prescribing that daily hours of work shall not exceed 12. The weekly maximum of 54 hours for underground workers would of course be maintained. In a statement made in the House of Commons on 5 December 1927, Lord Winterton, Under-Secretary of State for India, stated that there are probably few mines in which average hours of work exceed eight per day.

The United Textile Factory Workers' Association of Great Britain published in 1927 a report on an enquiry which was made in India during 1926. The report states that the hours worked in cotton spinning factories are in accordance with the provisions of the law. The machinery is kept in motion for 10 hours per day, but the individual worker does not work continuously for the whole day, as he is allowed time off for prayers, bathing, smoking, etc. The report adds that it is

doubtful whether more than 8 hours productive labour are performed by the individual worker. Those who conducted the enquiry were struck by the large number of workers who, presumably not being responsible for minding machines, were to be seen squatting in the mill yard or standing about inside the mill.

In *Japan*, the Order of 23 June 1926, which came into force on 1 July, amends the Mines Act of 1916 so as to adapt it to the regulations introduced by the Factories Act of 1923. Under the new Section 6, the maximum hours during which women and young persons under 16 years of age may be present in the mines are fixed at 11. Both these two classes of workers continue to enjoy the rest pause prescribed by the Act of 1916 (30 minutes where hours of work exceed 6, and one hour where they exceed 10).

The close interdependence between conditions of work in *India* and *Japan* is well known, and the complaints of delegates from *India* at recent Sessions of the Conference concerning the competition which cotton industries have to meet from those of *Japan* will be remembered. In pursuance of a report by the Indian Tariff Board to the effect that inferior conditions of work conferred commercial advantage on *Japan* as compared with *India*, the Government of *India* proposed to raise the import duties on cotton goods. The Association of Japanese Cotton Spinners published on 20 August 1927 a statement on this matter in which the following passages occur :—

It is alleged that labour conditions in *India* are superior to those in *Japan*, in that a ten hour day is provided for in the Indian Factory Act. In fact, however, the ten hour day is observed in the Japanese cotton spinning industry.

Though a six hour day is established for juvenile workers according to the Indian Factory Act, its practical value is much to be doubted in view of the difficulty of ascertaining the ages of such workers, and the fact that juvenile workers are working in other employment in addition to the day's work in the cotton spinning industry.

Night work for women is prohibited in *Japan* under the amended Factory Act, its operation being delayed to 30 June 1929 in order to give time to make the necessary arrangement of work. During the intervening period, however, while night work of women is not prohibited in *Japan* by law, *India* is not disadvantageously placed; Indian cotton spinning mills are able to adopt the two-shift system, since in *India* the cotton spinning industry relies chiefly on male workers, and since the Indian factory laws and regulations now in force contain no provisions concerning the limitation of hours of night work for male workers.

The wages of workers are comparatively higher in *Japan* than in *India*. Even those of Japanese female workers are considerably higher on an average than those of Indian male workers.

Japanese employers have provided various facilities for the welfare of workers, and the operation of the amended Factory Act and other laws and regulations for the protection of workers, together with the Health Insurance Act, etc., have considerably improved the living conditions of Japanese workers. On the other hand, Indian labour conditions are poor; this is confirmed by

the speech of Mr. V. V. Giri, Indian workers' delegate at the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference, and by the proposal made by the Indian Commission on Tariff Duties for the introduction of schemes for the improvement of welfare facilities, etc.

The Japanese labour movement is concentrating its energies on the struggle for an eight hour day. At its first annual National Assembly, held at Tokyo in April 1927, the federation of Japanese trade unions adopted a resolution urging that the eight hour day should be generally adopted. As regards underground workers in mines, the federation demanded a six hour day and a 36 hour week, time being reckoned from leaving to regaining the surface. Japanese workers have placed the eight hour day at the head of the demands to be put forward on 1 May.

In *Mexico*, in pursuance of the provisions of the Constitution, the Federal Government on 21 September 1927 issued Regulations concerning daily hours of work in commercial establishments. The maximum hours of work for workers and salaried employees in such establishments are fixed at 8 per day.

In *Poland*, in fulfilment of the declaration of Mr. Bartel, the Vice-President of the Council, on 28 November 1926, according to which "the Polish Government considered it essential to maintain and extend labour legislation", and as a result of the representations made by the workers' councils, the eight hour day has been partially restored in the metallurgical undertakings of Upper Silesia as from 1 January 1928. It will be remembered that hours of work in this part of Poland were increased as a result of an increase which had taken place in Germany. Hours of work were to be restored to 8 per day as soon as the eight hour day was re-established in German Upper Silesia. The Congress of Workers' Councils from the metallurgical works of Upper Silesia demanded on 23 November 1927 that the eight hour day should be restored as from 1 January 1928. The Polish Minister of Labour has issued an Order re-establishing the eight hour day as from the above date in blast furnaces, steel plants, foundries, generating stations, metal scraping undertakings, zinc works, lead foundries, and silver foundries at Friedrichchütte. The managements of the above undertakings were also requested to submit, before 1 February 1928, a programme providing for the progressive extension of the eight hour day to other classes of workers by 1 September 1928, or at the latest by 1 November 1928. The workers' councils demand that the eight hour day should be rapidly extended to all classes of wage-earners in metallurgical works in Upper Silesia.

Spain, on account of the precarious economic situation of its mines, has been obliged, after a study of the situation by a special Committee, to prolong the hours of work of underground workers. A Royal Ordinance of 28 September 1927 laid down that from 1 October the working day would be eight hours, including the time taken for a whole shift to go down and come up the mine. The preamble to this Ordinance recalls the fact that the Decree of 3 April 1919, which instituted the eight hour day for all classes of work, provided that exceptions might be made for industries which found themselves in an unfavourable position with respect to foreign competing industries. After the introduction of the eight hour day for day workers, and as the coal mining industry was not in such an unfavourable position vis-à-vis other coal-producing countries, it had been possible at that time to reduce working hours for underground workers to seven per day; but as, on account of the existing crisis, the Spanish coal-mining industry now found itself in the circumstances referred to in the Decree of 1919, it was necessary to return to the eight hour day for underground workers. Hours of work for surface workers, however, had not been changed.

After a serious dispute, in which the question of hours of work was bound up with the question of wages in the mining basin of Asturia, difficulties arose in regard to the iron and pyrite mines in Biscay, where the employers desired to increase hours of work. According, however, to a communication addressed to the Prime Minister by the National Federation of Spanish Miners, the cause of the crisis in the Biscay mines is to be found in their exhaustion, the uneconomic methods of working due to excessive division of ownership, the increase in the production of ore abroad and the inferiority of Spanish equipment.

The difficulties confronting the Spanish mines are far from being solved, and it is questionable whether the measures taken, however far-reaching, will be able to provide an effective remedy for the crisis in this industry. It appears from the statements of the employers that the margin between the price per ton of foreign coal and the price of Spanish coal is about 10 pesetas.

Certain regulations have been issued during the year with regard to payment for overtime, making up time lost on holidays, and hours of work for the members of the employer's family.

It is clear from the various documents which have come to the knowledge of the Office that Spain is endeavouring to make actual hours of work conform more closely with the legal provisions. In last year's Report reference was made to the steps taken by the Spanish Government, as a result of the International Conference of Labour Statisticians, to compile statistics of wages and hours of work on the bases laid

down by the Conference. The final results of the investigations made for the year 1925 show a marked tendency towards the general adoption of the eight hour day: whereas in 1920 81.73% of the workers were working an eight hour day the percentage was 89.69 in 1925.

In *Switzerland*, permits to extend the working week to 52 hours, in accordance with Section 41 of the Factories Act, have been renewed in certain industries. The Federal Factories Commission on 1 March 1928 recommended to the Department of Public Economy that the 52 hour week should be maintained in sawing mills, timber yards, tile, brick, lime and cement factories, and in undertakings carrying on the impregnation of wood with copper sulphate.

The outstanding event has been the decision adopted in regard to the proposal moved by Mr. Rothpletz and the proposal of the Federal Council mentioned in last year's Report permitting an extension of the hours of work of railway employees under certain circumstances by introducing special provisions in the Civil Service Regulations Act. The Commission of the Council of States which considered the Act, and subsequently the Council of States itself, agreed to the Federal Council's proposal. On the other hand, the Commission of the National Council decided in May 1927, by 16 votes to 7, not to discuss the complementary message of the Federal Council concerning the Bill relating to Civil Service regulations. In view of the new situation created by this vote, the Council of States decided to abandon the idea of inserting the article on hours of work in the Civil Service Regulations Act, and has merely submitted a resolution requesting the Federal Council to continue to apply Section 16 of the Transport Undertakings Act (which permits some extension of hours of work in exceptional circumstances) as long as such continuance may be necessary in order to restore the financial soundness of the Federal Railways, but in any case for not longer than ten years. This proposal was adopted by the National Council on 28 June 1927 by 105 votes to 56, with 34 declared abstentions. Any temporary adaptations which may appear justified will therefore have to be made within the framework of the present law.

It may be added that Mr. Schneider has put a question in the National Council asking whether the National Council was prepared to propose to the Federal Chambers that the Washington Convention should be ratified and to submit to them for this purpose a Bill fixing hours of work for all persons not covered by the normal working week as laid down by the Factories Act.

Lastly, in the *Union of Socialist Soviet Republics*, in connection with the Tenth Anniversary of the Russian Revolution, the Central Executive Committee of the Soviets published on 25 October 1927 a manifesto

to the workers announcing its intention of introducing a seven hours day in industry. It is clearly not intended to proceed to this measure immediately, as is shown by the following passage in the statement :—

As regards industrial workers, it is intended, in the course of the next few years, to reduce daily hours of work from eight to seven, without a reduction of wages. With this purpose in view, the Presidium of the Central Executive Council of the Council of People's Commissars of the U.S.S.R. will, within a maximum period of one year, make preparations for the progressive application of this decision in certain branches of industry. This reform will be introduced simultaneously with the re-conditioning of equipment, rationalisation of production, and increasing of output.

The object of this reduction, according to the declarations of various members of the Central Executive Committee, is to improve the material conditions of life of the workers, to increase the spare time of the working class so as to allow it more opportunities for developing its social and cultural activities, to prevent unemployment, and, from a political point of view, to strengthen the confidence of Russian and foreign workers in the Soviet Government and to attract their sympathy. It is generally recognised, however, that a reduction in hours of work will necessitate an increase in productivity. As Mr. Bukharin has remarked, "Work in Russia still proceeds at a servile pace", and industry retains traditions which are "genuinely Russian". Such an absence of method is felt to be inconsistent with the requirements of modern life.

On 3 November 1927 the representatives of the various trade unions convened by the Central Council of Trade Unions to consider the problems arising out of the introduction of a seven hours day decided that concrete proposals should first be presented in June 1928, in which month it is intended to begin drawing up the economic programme for 1928-1929.

Committees have been set up for the purpose of considering means of introducing the seven hours day experimentally in certain undertakings. On 11 November 1927 the Council of People's Commissars of the U. S. S. R. set up a Government Committee consisting of the Commissar for Labour (Mr. Schmidt), one member of the Central Council of Trade Unions, and one member of the Supreme National Economic Council. About the same time the Labour Commissariat set up a Committee consisting of representatives of its various Departments. Similar steps have been taken by the Central Council of Trade Unions and the Supreme National Economic Council. Moreover, on 19 November the Conference of State Planning Committees (*Gosplan*) of the various Republics decided to place the question on its agenda. The question was also considered on 1 December at a Conference of officials in the economic administrative departments. Still more recently the Council of Industrial and Transport Conferences

received and discussed a report by Mr. Schmidt. Thus, in general, the bodies responsible for directing the national economic system, the managements of undertakings and groups of undertakings, and the trade unions, have been considering the problems arising out of the proposal to introduce a seven hours day. The Supreme National Economic Council has, on several occasions, by circulars and letters, recommended that investigations should be conducted methodically, and that action should only be taken on instructions from the central authorities.

The various investigations which were thus undertaken drew attention to a large number of difficulties which at first had passed unnoticed, and made it possible to lay plans for carrying out experiments in certain undertakings.

On 6 January 1928 the Government Committee finally agreed upon a list of 22 textile factories in which, simultaneously with the introduction of a seven hour day, the number of shifts is to be increased from two to three, work beginning at 3 a.m. and finishing at midnight. This choice appears to be based primarily on the fact that the textile industry is assured of a large market, seeing that the demand for fabrics considerably exceeds the supply. Even if the output of each shift slightly decreases, the total production of the undertakings will increase owing to the fact that they will be working with three shifts instead of two, and thus utilising their equipment more thoroughly than before. The authorities are also counting on an intensification of individual effort.

The investigations so far carried out have, however, shown that the seven hours day is likely to be attended by difficulties. At the outset a reduction in individual output is to be expected. It is therefore intended to proceed by instalments in accordance with the following plan :—

Economic year 1 October to 30 September.	Seven-hours day to be introduced in —
1928-29	25 to 30% of undertakings
1929-30	50 to 60% of undertakings
1930-31	75 to 85% of undertakings
1931-32	All undertakings.

The new system will be applied in the first place, generally speaking, in the best equipped undertakings. In order, however, not to create too great a differentiation between conditions of work for workers in a single branch of industry, a deficit in production in some undertakings less well equipped may be tolerated if compensated by a surplus in others.

In order wholly or partly to compensate losses it is thought that supplementary shifts might be introduced. This course would have the additional advantage of reducing unemployment and permitting better utilisation of existing equipment without increasing overhead expenses proportionately.

Among the problems to which attention has been drawn, the following may also be mentioned: the disposal of goods when the total production is increased in consequence of an increased number of shifts, and in a number of industries—e.g. heavy industry—the provision of raw materials, working capital, and lodgings for additional workers.

Thus a general preliminary programme of industrial organisation is under discussion. In the words of Mr. Rykov, President of the Council of People's Commissars,

the moment at which it will be possible to introduce the reduced working day depends on industrial progress. The Government consider that the rationalisation and mechanisation of industrial production, the construction of new works and factories, whether planned or already begun, the re-equipment and reconstruction of industry, render the introduction of a seven hour day in the near future not only possible but necessary.

In the *United States*, so far as may be judged from the statistics published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the movement for the reduction of working hours, though slow, is continuous. Shorter hours are to be observed in the hosiery and underwear trades, the iron and steel industry, and in foundries and machine shops. For example, in the iron and steel industry average hours were reduced from 55.2 in 1922 to 54.4 in 1926; in the hosiery and underwear trades from 50.7 in 1924 to 50.3 in 1926. Even when, as often happens, the working week is longer than 48 hours the tendency is to approach that figure, while in some important industries the average is considerably below it. Thus for organised workers, who, it is true, constitute a relatively small proportion of the workers of the United States, the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that the average hours of work in 1927 were 45.2 per week.

Interesting information was also furnished by the British and Australian official missions of enquiry which at the end of 1926 went to the United States to study labour conditions there. The report of the British mission, published in March 1927, records that in typical establishments they visited average weekly hours of work were about 50 and that in the Northern States hours of work are considerably shorter than in the Southern States. In large undertakings in the Northern States the hours of work fixed by collective agreement run from 44 to 48 per week, while in some of the Southern States the figures run up to 55 or 60. The Mission noted a growing preference for a 5-day week. Overtime is often paid for at increased rates.

The Australian Mission in its report, published in October 1927, states that average hours of work are slightly above 49 per week. The building and printing trades were found to have a 44 hour week. The report also states that working hours were found to be longer in the Southern States, particularly in the cotton and sugar industries. The Unions were generally

opposed to overtime and many collective agreements contained special provisions for restricting it: in some instances overtime was limited to 3 hours per week, or was only allowed with the previous consent of the Union.

Legislation is slowly following this movement. In the United States it is particularly the working hours of women and children which are limited by law: in almost all the States their hours must be 8 per day or 48 per week. This year New York State, in accordance with the conclusions of the Industrial Survey Commission, has introduced the 8 hour day and the 48 hour week for women and children in factories and commercial establishments (49½ hours if a half-day's holiday is granted). The Act came into force on 1 January 1928. The employers themselves feel the need for legislation of this kind at least so far as children are concerned. The National Association of Manufacturers of the United States, for instance, has asked that the 48 hour week should be adopted for them.

The 8 hour day is now general in the iron industry. The *Iron Trade Review* of 18 August 1927 states that its application has resulted in a decrease in fluctuations of employment and has increased the workers' output.

Thus, in all the above-mentioned countries, except in Spain as regards mines, progress continues towards a fuller introduction of the eight hour day under various forms, and notwithstanding a certain amount of active opposition. Moreover, in a number of countries, notwithstanding doubts or fears to which expression has been given at the Conference, Governments and administrative departments have nevertheless continued to consider the possibility of ratifying the Convention. It is true that in the majority of such countries the conclusion for the present has been to adopt a policy either of refusal or of "wait and see". Nevertheless, the world of labour continues to demand the guarantees which, from its point of view, ratification represents, and in most cases the way to further efforts has been left open. Better still, in one country, as will be seen below, it has been decided to ratify. A rapid summary of the situation in this respect is given below.

By letter dated 9 January 1928, the Minister of Social Affairs of *Finland* informed the Office that there was practically no change in the situation. The letter states that the exemptions granted under the Eight hour Day Act, especially those granted in respect of certain State undertakings, were considerably reduced during the year. Replying to suggestions made by the Office as to means of facilitating application of the Convention in Finland, especially in regard to the lumbering industry, and based on the provisions of Article 5, the Minister pointed out that this industry is not the

only one in which it would be difficult to put the Convention into operation. Relations between employers' and workers' organisations were such that it was impossible, at any rate for the present, to expect agreements between them for applying Article 5. The Minister considered, however, that the divergences between the Convention and the system in force which have come to light are essentially of secondary importance; and if, at the end of the ten years period, the Convention is submitted to a process of revision, such revision should make it possible for countries which have found ratification difficult, but which nevertheless enforce an eight hour day, to ratify the Convention.

In *Norway*, the Storting approved, on 27 June 1927, a report by the Government on the Conventions which have not yet been ratified by that country. According to this report, the provisions of the Act concerning the protection of workers (which dates from before the Washington Conference) dealing with hours of work, are, generally speaking, in harmony with those of the Convention, and, taken as a whole, are even stricter. In order to ratify the Convention, however, it would be necessary considerably to enlarge the scope of the Act. In particular it would be necessary to bring within the Act transport undertakings (State and private railways, automobile services, etc.), small scale industry and building trade undertakings, which at present lie to a large extent outside its scope. To extend the Act in this way, however, would necessitate a strengthening of the factory inspection service, which would add fresh burdens to those already borne by the State or by business. The Minister of Social Affairs therefore expressed the opinion that the time had not yet come to propose the amendments to the existing law required in order to permit ratification.

In the *Netherlands*, when the estimates for 1927-28 of the Department of Labour, Commerce and Industry, were submitted to Parliament, the Minister, in a memorandum submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General, declared that the reasons which had already been given for not ratifying the Convention had lost none of their validity.

During the debate on the budget, however, Mr. R. Stenhuis, President of the Dutch General Confederation of Labour, moved a resolution requesting the Minister of Labour to take such measures as might be necessary to ratify the Convention, to ensure full application of the Labour Act of 1919, and to extend that Act to cover groups of workers and undertakings which at present lie outside its scope. The Minister of Labour stated that, under existing circumstances, it appeared impossible to introduce a general forty-eight hours week, and that the application of the provisions of the 1919

Act at present in force was already a matter of sufficient difficulty. He alluded to the possibility of revising the Convention.

Mgr. Nolens recalled the differences of interpretation of the Convention and the difficulties which might result for the Netherlands if the Convention were ratified.

Mr. Stenhuis's motion was rejected by the Chamber on 23 November 1927 by 52 votes to 21.

The Minister of Labour has laid before the Chamber draft Regulations fixing hours of work for salaried employees at eight per day and forty-eight per week, and an Early Closing Bill which in his opinion is a necessary complement to any legislation on salaried employees' hours of work.

In *Portugal*, preparatory measures have been taken with a view to the ratification of the Convention.

Finally, a new decision to ratify unconditionally has recently been taken, in *Luxemburg*. The Chamber of Deputies on 16 February 1928 decided in favour of ratification of the Convention by 31 votes to 2, with one abstention.

The introductory statement to the Bill for ratification recalls the fact that the eight hour day was introduced by Decree of 14 December 1918, and points out that ratification of the Convention will impose no fresh burden on industry and that the interests of Luxemburg would be better safeguarded if the hours of work at present in force were modified in accordance with the Convention. Ratification will necessitate merely certain adaptations of the present régime.

No doubt Luxemburg is a small country, but in the International Labour Organisation large countries and small countries have the same rights and the same obligations. In any case it cannot be denied that Luxemburg is an industrial country. Its ratification of the Convention at such a moment is highly significant.

The general situation, however, has not changed. The key to the situation is still in Western Europe.

Whatever their value, the reasons given by most States for delaying ratification are still the same: they say—"We cannot ratify unless Belgium, France, Italy, Germany and Great Britain ratify and put the Convention into operation".

There is little to say with regard to *Belgium*. Its ratification is in force. The Belgian Government is simply developing and completing its existing system. The number of Ordinances adopted for carrying out the Convention already amounts to 35. In an endeavour to unify the application of the Act, the Belgian Minister of Labour gave the Central Industrial Committee of Belgium and the Trade Union Committee an opportunity of expressing their opinion,

in particular as to the meaning of "employees whose work is essentially intermittent". The point at issue was to determine how travelling done by the employee on the instructions of the employer should be considered. The two bodies consulted are of opinion that the time occupied in travelling should be paid for, but to the question whether it should be counted in the eight hour day the Central Industrial Committee of Belgium replies in the negative, while the Trade Union Committee states that it is not possible to give a general reply: it is of opinion that the question should be examined for each industry in agreement with the trade unions concerned.

France has ratified the Convention conditionally. She, too, is developing and completing her system of administrative regulations, naturally endeavouring to bring the system more closely into agreement with the clauses of the Washington Convention. The Council of State has rejected an appeal of the employers against the legality of the Regulations of 31 March 1925 on the fixing of hours of work in the marine. This amounts to a confirmation of the present régime, which, it will be remembered, considerably limits the exceptions admitted. During the discussion on the Budget in the Senate, Mr. Gosse asked for a revision of the Regulations in order to render the law more elastic, while other members of Parliament demanded its stricter application.

It would seem that in France the cause of the eight hour day is won. The Bulletin of the Ministry of Labour continues the publication of studies on the adaptation of industrial and labour conditions to the eight hour day Act. The publication of the studies is approved by the employers concerned, who have all revised the text. The results, which are favourable for all the establishments considered, are due, generally speaking, to greater discipline in the factory, a better utilisation of labour, better conditions of work and payment, and improvements in equipment carried out by the employer.

As was mentioned last year, *Le Peuple* applied to various competent individuals—politicians, business men, economists, representatives of trade unions, etc.—asking for their opinions on the results of the application of the eight hour Act. This enquiry, which was concluded in March 1927, shows that, far from having signalised a decrease in production, the Act has marked the beginning of a definite development for those industrial and communal undertakings the management of which has broken with the old order of things by a resolute transformation of out-of-date equipment and methods of production.

The attitude of *Italy* has remained unchanged. Collective agreements have been concluded in accordance with the provisions of the Corporations Act. The first

of these agreements, covering more than 500,000 workers in the iron and steel industry, confirms the application of the eight hour day. Of interest also from this point of view are two enquiries, published in the *Bolletino del Lavoro* in 1927, on hours of work in industry in general in September 1926, and on hours of work in bakeries in 1925. In industries in general, 59.4 per cent. of the workers covered were working 8 hours, 10.9 per cent. less than 8 hours and 27.6 per cent. more than 8 hours, while for the remainder working hours could not be ascertained. In bakeries 52.7 per cent. of the workers were working 8 hours, 28.8 per cent. less than 8 hours and 7.11 per cent. more than 8 hours. The number of workers whose hours were not fixed was insignificant.

As regards *Germany*, reference was made in last year's Report to the passage of the Emergency Act of 14 April 1927 which rendered stricter the conditions on which working hours could be increased. Reference was also made to the three Decrees of 9 February 1927, which, in application of Section 7 of the Ordinance of 21 December 1923, had reduced working hours to 8 per day in gas works, glassworks and for certain classes of workers in the iron and steel trades. Since that time an Ordinance of 16 July 1927 has extended the provisions of Section 7 to further classes of workers in the iron and steel trades. The number of workers enjoying an 8 hour day and of those receiving about 25 per cent. increase for overtime is increasing, as is shown by the latest enquiry carried out by the General Federation of German Trade Unions. This tendency is all the more significant in that the more favourable economic situation might have encouraged overtime. Even the serious events which happened in the iron and steel trades recently when the latest Ordinance came into effect (1 January 1928) have indicated the determination of the Government not to go back on the progress which has been achieved. Despite the fact that the employers in the iron and steel trades opposed the putting into operation of the Ordinance on 1 January 1928 and had announced a general lock-out, the Minister of Labour, while authorising certain exceptions in particular cases, refused to hold up the operation of the new regulations. Similarly, with regard to bakeries, the new law of 16 July 1927 does not embody the proposal that hours of work should be allowed to be increased by collective agreements to 60 per week in cases where the employees are not required to do much more than simply be present in the bakeries. Certain measures for supervising the enforcement of the new regulations were laid down in a special Ordinance of 31 December 1927.

While these facts are in keeping with that "progressive return to the 8 hour day" which the Government promised to carry

out, it is none the less true that actual ratification will only be possible after the adoption of the Workers' Protection Bill. It will be remembered that regulation of hours of work constitutes merely one section of this lengthy Bill, which was submitted to the Social Affairs Committee of the Provisional Economic Council, which has given its opinion on the provisions relating to hours of work. Since it appears that the amendments made do not affect fundamental points, the statements of the Government concerning ratification retain all their importance¹.

The position in *Great Britain* remains to be considered. One really striking fact has been noticeable throughout the year 1927: the continued and vigorous campaign waged by those in favour of ratification and the number of times the question has been raised in Parliament.

On 2 June 1927, while the International Labour Conference was still in session, Sir Arthur Steel-Maitland, Minister of Labour, gave the House of Commons, on the request of a Labour member, Mr. Cecil Wilson, explanations concerning the Convention. He indicated that difficulties still existed as regards immediate ratification. With regard to overtime, for example, the usual view held by lawyers in Great Britain was that under a strict interpretation of the Convention the present overtime system in force in Great Britain would be impossible, whether on the railways, in the engineering trades or in an industry such as ship-repairing. The question was the more important because the interpretation adopted abroad was different. The Ministers of Labour who met in London thought they had reached an agreement regarding overtime which would not upset the system of working agreed between employers and employed on the railways and in the industries referred to. It seemed, however, that the railway companies had doubts on the subject. Moreover, said the Minister, since the London Conference, the question of road transport had arisen. This class of work was dealt with in the German Workers' Protection Bill in a way which, in the opinion of the British Government, seemed difficult to reconcile with the London agreement.

Such was the attitude of the British Government when they were no longer engrossed with the mining crisis and had a little more leisure to examine the situation. It seemed that the Government felt increasing doubts regarding the results of the London Conference. They were seeking a solution which would both lead to an international agreement—the material and moral value of which they particularly appreciate

—and would at the same time allay the susceptibilities or uneasiness of British employers. Meanwhile, the partisans and the adversaries of ratification continued to urge their respective points of view on the Government.

The National Confederation of Employers' Organisations stated in a memorandum that, if the Convention were ratified, the distribution and arrangement of working hours, which at present were elastic enough to meet the complex and technical requirements of industry from day to day would be confined within "the rigid four walls of a few exceptions expressed in ambiguous forms of words, the operation of which would in each country depend upon the sanction of the State and the attitude of its trade unions, and the interpretation of which would likewise vary according to the circumstances controlling that sanction and attitude". It was also remarked in the memorandum that the London Conference did not lay down an international maximum of permissible overtime hours or define the meaning of the phrase "exceptional cases of pressure of work" or draw up a schedule of continuous processes. The final conclusion of the Confederation was that to rely on the machinery of the Treaty of Peace as a justification for proceeding with the ratification of a Convention which no two countries took to mean the same thing was to create an international situation full of danger to the continued peace of the world and threatening the very existence of the Peace Treaties. These arguments are not perhaps unanswerable: they were replied to in detail by the British League of Nations Union.

The British workers, in their national congresses such as the Trades Union Congress, the Congress of the Transport and General Workers' Union, etc., have continued to express their dissatisfaction with the reasons given by the British Government for not ratifying. They have denounced its continual "refusal to honour its signature", and on the Council of the Congress Mr. Poulton secured the adoption of a resolution in the same sense, justifying it by the fact that the chief countries had taken the measures necessary for ratifying the Convention, and that the coming into force of these measures depended solely on a concrete proof of good faith on the part of the British Government.

The Government was once more challenged on 8 November 1927 by Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, former Prime Minister, who said... "The Government ought to tell us quite definitely... are they or are they not going to ratify the Convention? If they are going to ratify it, let them ratify it. If they are not going to ratify it, let them announce the fact to the world and settle the matter once and for all." On 22 December, however, Mr. Betterton, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Labour, confined himself to stating that he

¹ The Workers' Protection Bill was adopted by the Federal Council (Reichsrat). As, however, a new Reichstag has since been elected and a new Government formed, the Bill will have to be submitted again to the Federal Council and will be liable to further amendment.

hoped to be able to make a statement on the subject at the beginning of the next session.

Although the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations has adopted an attitude of categorical opposition to the Convention, some employers in the country have regarded the Convention as a guarantee for British industry. In a speech he made on 29 November at the Forum Club, for example, Mr. L. H. Green, Secretary of the flour milling employers' federation, said that ratification of the Eight Hours Convention would be "of the greatest benefit to British industry". He added "when we remember the grave position in which British industry stands and the fact that Germany is working a fifty and fifty-two hour week in engineering, while we are working a forty-four hour week, it is in our interests that there should be an international standard in these matters".

In order to appreciate properly the exact position of Great Britain regarding ratification at the beginning of 1928, it would be necessary to make almost a historical analysis of the various movements of opinion and their reaction on Government policy. It would be necessary to distinguish the various currents in public opinion, as manifested both in political thought and in the desire for industrial peace revealed by the negotiations which are being conducted between Sir Alfred Mond and those associated with him and the representatives of the Trades Union Congress. Above all, it would be necessary to have a better knowledge than the Office has of the conversations which for some weeks past have been carried on between employers' and workers' representatives and the Ministry of Labour, and to which reference has been made in the discussions in the Governing Body. This would make it possible to understand the full importance and the underlying causes of the proposal which was submitted at the beginning of February by Mr. Betterton, British Government representative on the Governing Body, and which created a considerable sensation.

The circumstances of this proposal may be summarised briefly as follows :— At the October Session of the Governing Body, held in Berlin, Mr. Lambert-Ribot, whose attitude has throughout been entirely consistent, proposed in the course of the discussion on the Agenda of the Conference for 1929 that the Conference in that year should set up a special committee to conduct a preliminary survey of the manner in which the possibility of revising the Hours Convention might be raised at the 1930 or 1931 Session. The Director replied that in his view it would be dangerous to attempt to deal with the question of the revision of the Hours Convention without having previously settled the general procedure for revising or modifying Conventions, and that, moreover, he had already devoted some thought to the

problem and was ready to present a report on the matter to the Governing Body with a view to assisting it to come to a decision.

The Director accordingly submitted a report on the procedure for revising Conventions, and on the interpretation of the articles contained in Conventions concerning the report to be presented at the end of ten years and the possibility of revision, to the January Session of the Governing Body. It was in the course of the discussion on this report, and with reference to Mr. Lambert-Ribot's Berlin proposal, that Mr. Betterton read a considered statement on the general position in regard to ratification of the Hours Convention. He drew special attention to the difficulties which stood in the way of applying the Convention :

"Great efforts", he said, "had been made to arrive at a general ratification by careful study and interpretation of the Convention, and indeed it may be said that interpretation has been stretched to the limit; it may even be thought doubtful whether it has not already encroached upon the domain of revision.

In these circumstances, is not the sensible course to look for a solution in the framing of a new text, rather than in still further attempts to settle this vital question on the basis of the old text overlaid with a mass of glosses and interpretations?"

"On the other hand, we are now face to face with the position that in the course of the next two or three years the Governing Body is bound to review the Convention and to consider the desirability of placing on the agenda of the Conference the question of its revision or modification. The British Government has never wavered in its adherence to the principles enshrined in the Preamble to Part XIII, but it is firmly convinced that the most satisfactory prospect of securing a solid international agreement on this matter will be afforded by placing upon the Members of the Organisation in full Conference the duty of producing a workable Convention free from the difficulties that have been encountered, rather than by leaving it to a restricted number of Powers to grapple with those difficulties in unofficial discussions."

"Our intention is to work towards the framing of a Convention which, while adhering to the principles of the Washington draft, will be free from the difficulties encountered in that draft, and we shall be prepared, if such a satisfactory Convention is obtained, to stand in line with other industrial States by ratifying it and putting it into operation."

Mr. Betterton concluded his statement by making a proposal to the following effect :

"First, that the Governing Body should decide to include the question of the revision of the Hours Convention in the agenda of the ordinary session of the Conference to be held in 1929. Secondly, that the Office should forthwith prepare a draft report upon the working of the Convention to be submitted to the Governing Body at its next session in April. When this report has been adopted by the Governing Body in April it should be issued to all the States Members of the Organisation with a request to them to state their views on the subject and to formulate such proposals for revision as seem to them to be required."

This unexpected proposal created something of a sensation in the Governing Body. It is impossible in this Report to give a full length account of the discussion which ensued, the protests voiced by members of

the workers' group and the observations of various Government representatives, especially the representative of the Belgian Government which had ratified unconditionally. The Governing Body ended by adopting by 13 votes to 7 the following resolution moved by Mr. Picquenard and amended in accordance with a suggestion put forward by Mr. de Michelis :—

"The Governing Body decides to place on the agenda of its next session, after the consideration of the general procedure for revision, the question whether the revision of the Hours Convention proposed by the British Government should be placed on the agenda of the Conference in 1929."

The British Government's proposal and the discussion which took place in the Governing Body immediately attracted considerable attention. As was to be expected, the Communists in France and other countries at once began to raise an outcry about the "hopeless failure", the "bankruptcy" and the "collapse of the International Labour Office". No doubt in contrast with the "magnificent" social progress achieved by the Third International, the efforts of the International Labour Organisation may appear contemptible, but when all is said and done the "hot-air talked at Geneva" has at least led to results which as regards their effectiveness need not fear comparison with the airy resolutions of the Komintern.

Of greater significance, however, are the protests which qualified delegates to the Conference and the Governing Body have raised on behalf of the working-classes in practically every country. The intense feeling of the workers is manifested in the articles of Mr. Jouhaux, the declarations of the Trades Union Congress, the questions asked in the various Parliaments and the decision of the Amsterdam International to concentrate its First of May celebrations on this question.

It was politically impossible for the Governments most directly concerned to remain silent. On 7 February the French Council of Ministers decided "to oppose any proposal to revise the Convention", and on 14 February the Minister of Labour declared in the Chamber of Deputies that "the French delegate at the next Session of the Governing Body will proceed to Geneva with formal instructions on the subject".

In Germany, in the course of the discussion on the Ministry of Labour estimates in the Reichstag on 10 February, Dr. Brauns declared that "the attitude adopted by the British Government should in no way prevent us from proceeding with the drafting of the German Workers' Protection Bill, which is based on the eight hours day, and of which the discussion in the Reichsrat is nearly finished". He reiterated his unaltered conviction of the importance and the necessity of an international agreement in regard to hours of work.

In the British Parliament repeated discussions have taken place in regard to the

Government's proposal. On 7 February Mr. Ramsay MacDonald expressed regret that the speech from the Throne contained no reference to the Hours Convention and that Mr. Betterton should have received instructions to make the proposal for revision. On 13 February the Prime Minister, Mr. Baldwin, upheld the Government's attitude in regard to the Convention and stated that he preferred straightforward revision to a series of conferences on the interpretation of the Convention which might in the end lead to an alteration of its spirit. On 14 February Mr. Tom Shaw replied urging that Great Britain was under an obligation to ratify and reproaching the Government with failing to honour its pledge. And again on 27 February and 8 March fresh discussions took place in the House of Commons in connection with the Ministry of Labour estimates.

The above is a brief statement of the moral position at the time at which these lines are written. The practical situation is as follows: the Standing Orders Committee of the Governing Body meets on 30 and 31 March to consider the procedure to be adopted for the ten-yearly report on the working of the various Conventions and for their possible revision or modification. The Committee's report will be considered by the Governing Body in April. When the Governing Body has decided on the procedure proposed by the Standing Orders Committee, it will have to say, in accordance with Mr. Picquenard's resolution, whether the revision of the Hours Convention proposed by the British Government should be placed on the Agenda of the Conference in 1929. Thus by the time that the Eleventh Session of the Conference opens on 30 May, further developments will have taken place. It is therefore perhaps premature to state the Director's opinion. He ventures, however, to take this opportunity of informing the Conference of the impression which the present situation makes upon him in the light of past experience.

The proposal of the British Government, however surprising it may have appeared, was only the natural and almost inevitable consequence of the policy pursued by the Organisation during the last two years. Once the British Government found that, in consequence of the conditional or unconditional ratifications impending or already decided upon by Belgium, France, Germany and Italy, it might sooner or later have to bear the final responsibility for deciding whether the international agreement was to come into force, it was obliged to find a way out of the difficulty, and if it was unwilling either to exercise its sovereign right to refuse ratification or to ratify the Convention in its present form, it was logically bound to put forward a proposal for revising or modifying the Convention. It is no doubt legitimate to draw attention

to the change of mind which seems to have taken place, after full reflection, in the interval between the end of the London Conference (the results of which were published in official communiqués) and the present time. The Director did not feel he was deluding delegates when, in his Report to the Conference in 1927 and in the course of the discussions which took place at the Conference, he maintained an optimistic attitude. However, every Government has its own difficulties, with which it must deal as it thinks best; and it is not for the Director to deliver judgment either on the intentions or on the decisions of the Governments of the States Members. His only concern is to arrive at a clear understanding of the situation and to endeavour, in face of that situation, to consult the best interests of the Office of which he has been placed in charge.

What, then, is the situation? The proposal of the British Government is a fact which gives concrete form to the doubts and uncertainty which were current at the last Session of the Conference. But now that a definite proposal for revision has been put forward there is reason to fear that the process of ratification of the Convention in its existing form will suffer an immediate paralysis. Even if after the Governing Body has considered the matter it is agreed that the ten-years period begins to run from the entry into force of the Convention, i.e., from 1921, and if the Governing Body decides under Article 21 not to accept the British Government's proposal at the present stage, the Director's report on the working of the Convention must still be submitted to the Governing Body in 1931. Between now and then it is scarcely likely that under the circumstances further ratifications will be forthcoming. On the whole, therefore, the sooner the matter is definitely decided, the better.

The Director has no desire to prejudge the issue. Whether the supporters of the Convention in its original form or those of its revision or modification carry the day, the Office will, in either case, be able immediately to take up its work again on firm ground without having had to wait in suspense for two or three years.

But, whatever the issue may be, the Director has one urgent request to address to all Members of the Organisation and to all their representatives in whatever capacity. As he has lost no opportunity of suggesting in his Reports to the Conference, he is ready to investigate any method whatsoever of transforming the Eight Hours Convention into a genuine international agreement, i.e., an agreement universally put into operation and subjected to full supervision. The various Services of the Office have devoted themselves ungrudgingly to every sort of investigation and enquiry which they have been requested to undertake by the various committees which

have considered the matter. The Office has done its very best to understand fully and clearly the difficulties with which Governments might find themselves faced; and it has collaborated in the conferences which the Governments most immediately concerned have held for the purpose of discussing the interpretation of the Convention, while insisting on the strict legal limitations on the competence of such conferences. The Office was entitled to consider that the interpretations given by different States which have either ratified the Convention or are taking steps to ratify it provided a guarantee, sufficient to dispel the doubts and the fears of those Governments which still felt some hesitation. It appears that new difficulties have been found, and that doubts as to the old difficulties have not been completely dispelled. The time has now come, then, for plain speaking. The interminable game of hide-and-seek, the constant refusal to explain the circumstances on which objections or opposition to ratification are founded should now cease. Never either in the Governing Body committees or at the Conference has a clear explanation been given of the difficulties which stand in the way of Governments, which still proclaim with a united voice (and the Director unhesitatingly accepts their assurances) that there is no intention of undermining the principles of the Washington Convention. Even those Governments which favour revision declare that all the essential provisions of the Convention should remain intact.

But surely the Governments must realise the grave danger of re-opening the discussion on the whole text of the Convention without previously supplying full explanations, and of thus giving the impression that the reform as a whole may in the course of the discussions be called in question! Certain moral factors exist which must be taken into account. The faith of the world of labour in the Washington Convention, drafted in circumstances which are too familiar to need recalling, and subsequently the rallying point of so many struggles and such ardent efforts, cannot be either forgotten or undervalued. If difficulties exist which cannot be overcome by interpreting the existing text, those difficulties should be explained. No one is likely to oppose any modification or attempts to render the text clearer which may be necessary, but the Office cannot resign itself to being placed in a position of impotence as between an unchangeable and unratified Convention on the one hand and the threat of serious ampering with the system which has already been established by common consent, on the other.

It is therefore necessary not only clearly to define the manner in which Article 21 of the Hours Convention is to be applied and the legal scope of its provisions, but also to take proper care in formulating any pro-

posals which may be put forward, so as to obtain the agreement of all men of goodwill for the attainment of the common purpose. Suppose by way of illustration that it were possible for Great Britain, for instance, to adopt a procedure analagous to that followed by Germany—to bring forward immediately a Bill for the national regulation of hours of work. Such a step would enormously facilitate the work of the Organisation. The road still to be traversed would no doubt remain difficult and strewn with obstacles, but at least the problems to be faced would be definitely known.

At the moment of compiling this Report, the Director does not wish to prejudge the issue; he wishes merely to proclaim his unshaken belief in the certainty of ultimate success. Mr. Baldwin said in one of his speeches that if it were possible in ten years to give practical shape to an international agreement like that on hours of work, that would be a real cause for congratulation. The Director shares this belief. He knows well enough how difficult it is for internationalism to take form and living shape.

Whatever may be the immensity of the undertaking to establish this reform, whatever its trials and disappointments, the Office would regard it as a dereliction of its duty if it failed to explore every possible means of overcoming and circumventing any obstacles that stand in the way. Though eight years have already passed, the Office is by no means discouraged, but now feels that the goal is within sight. To reach it will require one last united effort by all who think the goal worth winning. To promote this effort will be the Office's most cherished object.

Weekly rest.

109. — Like hours of work, the problem of the weekly rest is a measure to which considerable attention is still being given, though for other reasons. It closely affects numerous classes of workers and their families. For economic, but especially for family and religious reasons, the scope of this measure is being continually extended and adapted, as will be seen by the notes given below on the progress made during 1927 in ratifying and applying the decisions of the Conference on the weekly rest in industrial and commercial undertakings..

110. *Weekly rest in industrial undertakings.* — The following measures were taken during 1927 on the 1921 Convention on this subject:

(a) Ratification measures.

Hungary: Bill to embody the Convention in Hungarian legislation adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 10 November 1927.

Luxemburg: Bill to authorise the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 25 January 1928.

Norway: Government report approved by the Storting on 27 June 1927; ratification of the Convention depends upon the amendment of the workers' protection legislation and must therefore be left in suspense.

(b) Application measures.

Chili: Decree of 26 August 1927 providing that the Act of 5 November 1917 concerning the weekly rest shall apply to persons employed in public slaughter-houses for the period between 1 April and 1 October.

Colombia: Decree of 19 January 1927 to regulate the application of the Act of 16 November 1926 concerning Sunday rest.

Denmark: Notifications of 28 July 1927 and 1 September 1927 concerning exceptions to the prohibitions of employment in factories, etc. on the feast days of the National Church (packing and preservation of eggs).

Germany: Act of 16 July 1927 amending the Decree respecting hours of work in bakeries and making of pastry of 23 November 1918.

Hungary: Order of 29 April 1927 provisionally suspending (from May to September) the weekly rest in the manufacture of mineral waters.

Italy: Labour Charter of 21 April 1927 (§ 15).

Spain: Royal Order of 3 January 1927 concerning the application of Sunday rest in press undertakings and agencies.

Order of 23 February 1927 respecting the requests of the joint committees of the press undertakings and agencies of Madrid and Barcelona concerning the application of the weekly rest.

Switzerland (Canton of Geneva): Decree of 27 May 1927 concerning weekly rest in bakeries.

It will be seen that, except for the general Regulations on the weekly rest in Colombia, which were issued to apply the Act of 16 November 1926, the measures which were taken in 1927 were intended chiefly to apply the principle of the weekly rest to special cases—in Chile, Denmark, Germany, Hungary, Spain and the Canton of Geneva.

In *Colombia*, it had been made compulsory by an Act of 27 April 1905, which was based on religious considerations, to observe religious and civil holidays. Recently, an Act dated 16 November 1926 and Regulations issued on 19 January 1927 to apply this Act, have laid down new provisions on the Sunday rest. The new rules provide that manual and non-manual workers employed in any industrial or commercial undertaking are to be entitled, after six days' work, to a rest of at least twenty-four hours, and this rest is to be granted from Saturday midnight to Sunday midnight. Manual or non-manual workers who are employed in establishments which are authorised to work on Sunday are to be entitled to a twenty-four hours rest at some other time, in place of the Sunday rest. If in exceptional cases they work on the rest day, they can either have another rest day or claim extra wages at double rates. Special provisions are laid down for water transport and domestic service.

In *Germany*, it was originally proposed in a Bill on work in bakers' and confectioners'

shops, which had been submitted to the Reichstag by the Government majority parties, to allow work on Sunday for two hours in the manufacture of perishable goods, and the Social Affairs Commission of the Reichstag had approved this proposal. However, when the Bill was discussed in the Reichstag, this proposal was rejected by a small majority, and the Act passed on 16 July 1927 to modify the Regulations on bakeries prohibits any work on Sunday and holidays in bakeries and confectioners' establishments. Only such preparatory work as is necessary for resuming full work on the following working day is authorised for one hour after 6 p. m. The central authorities in the different States can allow, within their jurisdiction, delivery of perishable products during three hours. The factory inspectors, after consultation with the workers, are empowered to grant exceptions in special cases, such as urgency, public necessity, repairs, etc.

Regulations have been issued under this Act in Saxony. They provide that work on the preparation of perishable goods can only be authorised on Sundays and holidays if the factory inspector considers it necessary in the public interest. Such authorisation is to be restricted to holiday resorts, and only during the summer. Not more than two hours' work is allowed, between 9 a.m. and noon. The workers are only to be employed for one Sunday in every two, and are to be entitled to a compensatory rest as from noon on a working day.

Apprehensions have been expressed by the workers' trade union organisations and the German Evangelical Synod at these attempts at a partial restoration of Sunday work in bakers' and confectioners' establishments. In regard to the weekly rest provisions in the Workers' Protection Bill, too, these organisations have expressed the opinion that it was desirable to reduce Sunday work to the barest minimum, in order to maintain and respect the sanctity of the Sabbath.

In Greece, the Minister of National Economy referred to the competent parliamentary commission on 7 October 1927 a draft Decree-Act to extend the benefit of the Decree of 5 April 1914 on the Sunday rest to towns of less than 10,000 inhabitants where working hours are fixed at six on Sunday, and to towns of less than 2,000 inhabitants where work can be carried on during the whole day from 9 a.m. in winter and 8 a.m. in summer.

In Italy the weekly rest is regulated by an Act of 7 July 1905, and a series of subsequent Decrees. The Labour Charter published on 21 April 1927 lays down the principle of the Sunday rest in a new and solemn form. Section 15 of the Charter says —

"The wage-earner is entitled to a weekly rest on Sunday. This principle is to be applied in collective agreements, having regard to existing laws and the technical requirements of the undertaking. Collective agreements are to see, within the limits of these requirements, that civil and religious holidays are respected according to local traditions. The working time-table is to be scrupulously and constantly observed by the worker."

Before the Labour Charter was published, the Central Committee of the Italian Catholic Social Institute undertook an active campaign in favour of a weekly rest on Sunday. The principal manifestation of this campaign was the organisation of days "for the Sunday rest" on 27 March 1927 and 4 March 1928.

A memorandum on the necessity of observing the Sunday rest was addressed by the above Committee to the Minister of Corporations and to the Presidents of the General Fascist Traders' Confederation, and the General Fascist Confederation of Italian Industry. The Minister replied that he had never failed, and would never fail, in exercising his supervisory functions over the activities of the trade union associations, to see that the stipulations in collective agreements on the weekly rest referred to Sunday in the largest possible number of cases. The General Fascist Traders' Confederation has also stated that it is fully in favour of applying the principle of a rest on holidays, and that this principle must be applied absolutely and extended to its widest scope. The Confederation added that it intended to take any steps it could in favour of having shops closed on Sundays and holidays, and to limit the exceptions to the barest minimum, in order that there should be no unfair competition against shops which complied with the law. Lastly, the General Confederation of Italian Industry has given an assurance that the principle enunciated in Section 15 of the Labour Charter has already been applied in the collective agreements in force as regards industrial undertakings, except where the special requirements of manufacture call for the exceptions provided for by law.

In Poland, the Jewish organisations have claimed for some years that Jewish commercial and industrial undertakings should be allowed to open on Sunday, seeing that they close on Saturday. In view of this demand, a committee of experts on national minorities which assists the President of the Council decided in April 1927 to submit to the Government a number of proposals for prohibiting the employment of manual workers on Sunday and at the same time for giving facilities to small traders and artisans irrespective of their religious denomination to open their establishments for some hours on Sunday outside the hours of religious service.

Further, when the Polish Traders' Association has asked the Government to repeal

the Act of 5 February 1919, which lays down the Sunday rest for commercial employees, the employees' organisations in Polish Upper Silesia adopted in a joint meeting a protest against this proposal. They pointed out that the work of employees in commerce is both intellectual and manual and is very fatiguing, and that, in any case, it is not necessary to abolish the Sunday rest for safeguarding the consumers' interests.

In *Spain*, a request was addressed to the Government by the staff in press undertakings and agencies, to the effect that the application of the special provisions on the weekly rest in such undertakings and agencies should be suspended (these provisions were laid down by Regulations issued on 17 December 1926), and that the previous conditions should be maintained, as based on the Royal Decrees of 22 January and 14 February 1920, until joint committees of the press had been formed in accordance with the Decree-Act on the organisation of the corporations.

This request was favourably received by the Government, which considered that the conditions laid down in 1920 were in conformity with the principles of the new Regulations on the Sunday rest, and that the joint committees of the press would, once they were constituted, be the most competent bodies for adapting the methods of applying the weekly rest to the requirements of their undertakings. The Government accordingly prescribed by Order dated 3 January 1927 that the existing conditions should be provisionally maintained.

As soon as the joint press committees in Madrid and Barcelona were constituted, they asked the Government to continue to maintain the 1920 conditions. The result was that a Royal Decree was issued on 23 February 1927 providing that the 1920 conditions should remain in force as long as the parties concerned were in agreement.

In *Switzerland*, Regulations of the Department of Commerce and Industry in the Canton of Geneva, dated 27 May 1927, published on 1 June 1927 and made operative on 15 June 1927, have laid down new rules on the weekly rest in the baking industry. Master bakers are required to grant a weekly rest in rotation on the following lines: the workers are to be entitled to a whole day's rest per week (twenty-four consecutive hours), this day to be Sunday at least once a month, and master bakers are required to inform the Department of Commerce and Industry how they organise the rest by rotation for each of their workers.

111. *Weekly rest in commercial establishments.* — The following measures were taken in 1927 on the 1921 Recommendation on this subject:—

(a) *Miscellaneous information.*

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted in 1927 to the National Council (third legislature); the subject is dealt with in Austria in accordance with the principles of the Recommendation, which does not require the adoption of any legislation.

(b) *Application measures.*

The information already given for Colombia, Greece, Italy and Poland also applies to weekly rest in commercial establishments.

Austria: Order of the Federal Government of 18 November 1927 extending to the province of the Burgenland the provisions of §§ 3 and 4 of the Act of 15 May 1919 respecting the minimum rest at night, the closing of shops and Sunday rest in commercial and other undertakings.

Belgium: Act of 24 July 1927 amending §§ 2 and 14 of the Act of 18 July 1905 concerning Sunday rest.

France (Tunisia): Decree of the Director-General of Agriculture, Commerce and Colonisation of 30 June 1927 requiring the Sunday closing of European and native chemists' shops in the town of Tunis.

Decree of the Director-General of Agriculture, Commerce and Colonisation of 13 July 1927 requiring the Sunday closing of hairdressers' shops in the European quarter exclusively engaged in women's hairdressing.

Hungary: (1) Decree of 4 March 1927 concerning the sale of newspapers, etc., in kiosks in the streets and public places and in railway stations and at landing stages.

(2) Order of 14 April 1927 concerning the despatch of newspapers and periodicals on Sundays and on St. Stephen's Day.

(3) Order of 20 July 1927 amending the regulations concerning the sale of tobacco on Sundays and holidays in places devoted exclusively to the sale of tobacco.

Salvador: Act of 31 May 1927 concerning the protection of commercial employees.

Spain: Royal Order of 25 February 1927 amending certain articles of the Decree of 17 December 1926 concerning the application of the Legislative Decree of 8 June 1925 concerning Sunday rest as regards lotteries.

(2) Royal Order of 14 March 1927 concerning the application to tobacco shops in railway stations of the Regulation of 17 December 1926 concerning weekly rest.

(3) Royal Order of 14 March 1927 concerning the Sunday opening of tobacco shops.

(4) Royal Order of 24 March 1927 concerning the application of § 12 (1) of the Regulation of 17 December 1926 concerning Sunday rest as regards markets, fairs and traditional Saints' days.

It will be noted, as in the previous case, that the legislation enacted during 1927 on the commercial establishments covered by the 1921 Recommendation only includes, with the exception of the legislation in Colombia, measures for applying the weekly rest to particular cases. The most important of these measures are analysed below.

In *Belgium*, some commercial undertakings had placed in charge of their branches, which were really retail shops, employees whom they called managers. Consequently, these employees were on the same footing as "heads of undertakings", who, under Section 2 of the Act of 17 July 1905, were

entitled to work on Sunday with members of their family who live with them and their domestic servants. To check this abuse, an Act passed on 24 July 1927 has amended Section 2 of the old Act to the following effect :

"Employers covered by the present Act may not employ on Sunday work for carrying on their undertakings persons other than the members of their families, i.e. relations not beyond the third degree, who live with them. This provision applies to work done under the authority, direction or supervision of the head of the undertaking. It applies also :

- (1) to work done by any person who manages a retail shop on another's account, in so far as this person takes part in sales ;
- (2) to the work of all members of the family of a manager of a retail shop of any kind."

The exceptions and exemptions allowed under the 1905 Act are maintained.

Further, amendments to Section 14 increase the penalties for infringements.

A new Bill was introduced on 7 April 1927 into the Chamber of Representatives to make closing compulsory, subject to certain exceptions, for shops, stalls and markets as from midday on Sundays and on certain legal holidays. This Bill has evoked considerable protest among the middle classes : meetings have been held, and a permanent protest committee has been formed representing fifty-one groups, which include the Federation of Chambers of Commerce. It appears from an enquiry undertaken by the Supreme Council of Crafts and Trades that eight out of eleven federations are hostile to the Bill. The Supreme Council has, nevertheless, considered the Bill, and, after taking note of the arguments put forward by its adversaries, has decided to continue its investigations into the question independently of the proposals made in the Bill.

In *Czechoslovakia*, the general Sunday rest in commerce was again extended last year by Regulations to several districts. In its Report for 1926, the Union of Commercial Employees and Assistants notes with satisfaction the extension of an absolute rest day on Sunday, in view of the strong opposition manifested by artisans and retailers, who desire to have repealed, or at any rate revised, the Regulations concerning the Sunday rest in certain districts.

In *France*, the question of weekly rest for employees of the public officers who conduct public auction sales has not yet been completely solved to the satisfaction of the persons concerned. The Act of 24 April 1924 simply provides for a compensatory rest for such employees if they have to work at auctions on Sunday. In 1925 a Bill to prohibit auctions of goods on Sunday was introduced into the Chamber of Deputies. A supplementary report submitted on 9 June 1927 on behalf of the Labour Commission of the Chamber confirms for all practical purposes the Report of 6 August 1926, and

proposes that auctions on Sundays should be abolished, unless the Sunday coincides with a fête day in the Commune.

In the Seine Department public opinion is still interested in the question of weekly rest for chemists' shops, to which its attention has been drawn by various manifestations and certain somewhat amusing incidents. The Hygiene Commission of the Chamber of Deputies has recommended that chemists' shops should be excluded from the Sunday Closing Act of 29 December 1923. This recommendation has caused some dissatisfaction among those concerned.

In the food and drink trades, and in particular in the grocery trade, the trade union organisations are conducting a vigorous campaign for having retail shops closed one day per week. They consider that the Act of 13 July 1906 cannot really be complied with in these classes of establishments, unless the measure which they have in view is adopted.

In *Germany*, in Berlin, an Order of the Prefect of Police dated 8 February 1928 lays down new provisions on the subject.

In particular, the result of negotiations with the non-manual workers' unions has been that it is no longer generally permitted for grocers and similar shops to open for two hours on Sunday, but that they have to have special authorisation to do so, and a list of the cases in which and the extent to which such authorisation may be granted is given in the Regulations. Authorisation can only be given to dairy produce shops, bakers' shops and confectioners, greengrocers and fruiterers, florists, news-agents, theatre, concert, etc., agencies. The hours for which these different classes of shops can be open are not uniform, and vary in some cases as between summer and winter. For example, greengrocers' shops may only open on Sunday in summer.

An application has been made to the Reichstag by the retail dealers' association for including in the Workers' Protection Bill a clause allowing retail shops to work for two hours on ten Sundays in the year (and on thirty Sundays where the agricultural population has to be supplied). This application has been the subject of strong protest in the labour press.

In Westphalia, the application of the Sunday rest in commerce has formed the subject of an application to the Landtag by the Social-Democrat Party, which has made some complaints on this matter. The competent Minister has accordingly been asked to lay down uniform methods for applying the Sunday rest in commerce, and to limit exceptions strictly to the cases provided for in the law.

In *Great Britain*, the employers' federation of grocers' associations, in agreement with other commercial organisations, is

preparing a Bill for limiting Sunday work in commerce. The terms of this Bill are not yet settled, but its object is to lay down that with certain exceptions "it shall not be lawful for any person to carry on any trade or business on the Lord's day, and no person shall hawk, exhibit for sale, or otherwise sell or endeavour to sell on the Lord's day any wares, merchandise, fruit, herbs, produce or goods of any kind or description either by wholesale or retail, or open any shop for the service of customers". Provision is made for partial exemptions and total exceptions for certain trades.

Further, a number of organisations have started a campaign against Sunday work, especially as regards selling meat and window dressing and stock-taking in shops.

In *Greece*, the Bill to which reference has already been made in connection with the weekly rest in industrial undertakings also alters Sunday opening hours for establishments selling wines and other drinks, tobacco shops and butchers' shops, in order to give greater facilities to the proprietors of these establishments.

In *Salvador*, an Act on commercial employees dated 31 May 1927, which superseded with some amendments the Act of 29 May 1926, provides, like the previous Act, for a Sunday rest for commercial employees. It also allows for certain exceptions from the provisions on the closing of commercial establishments on Sunday, and provides for compensatory rests for employees who have to work on that day.

In *Switzerland*, the Federal Labour Office has discussed a proposal made by the Helvetia Union, which is an association of hotel employees, to the effect that the Sunday rest should be introduced in the hotel industry. Further, the employees' organisations are continuing their campaign for regulating the weekly rest by a Federal Act. In this connection, it was noted in last year's Report that the Federal Department of Public Economy had been instructed to consider whether it was not desirable to prepare a Federal Act, which would regulate uniformly the weekly rest in all industrial and commercial undertakings in the country, by providing for one day's rest per week. In 1921 the Swiss Government stated that it would have preferred to wait before giving a decision on the principle of an international regulation of the weekly rest until the weekly rest rules prescribed by the different cantons had been unified in their scope by federal legislation.

Further progress has also been made on the weekly rest outside the field of application of the Convention and Recommendation. For example, legislative measures have been taken, or are being considered, for personal servants and for ships' crews.

In *Colombia*, the Sunday rest Act of 1926, with its Regulations of 1927, confers a weekly rest of one day on domestic servants. The same day cannot be simultaneously claimed by all the servants in one house, but is to be taken in rotation.

In *France*, the trade union associations of personal servants, in particular the Society of French Chauffeurs, have protested against the provisions of the Act of 13 July 1906, which excludes domestic servants from the weekly rest. Although they do not ask for the same rules to be applied to their case, these organisations would wish to see the Bill which was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies on 24 May 1927 adopted. This Bill provides for 36 rest days per year for personal servants of both sexes, and fixes the methods of its application. The statement accompanying the Bill endeavours to show that it is at least illogical that the caretaker of a factory, chauffeurs for industrial vehicles or servants who have to look after travellers in a hotel should be covered by the existing Act, whereas a manager's caretaker, the chauffeur of his own car, or servants who look after travellers in a furnished apartment leased by them should not be covered.

It is hardly necessary to emphasise the importance, from the moral and social standpoint, of extending the weekly rest to domestic servants, who, in many other respects, cannot be given the benefit of regulations applying to other classes of wage-earners.

In *Uruguay*, similar measures have been taken to those in Colombia. A Decree dated 25 February 1927 requires every owner of a motor-car or carriage for his personal use to give the driver in his service one day's complete rest per week.

In *Spain*, a Royal Decree dated 28 January 1927 provides that, in the case of the crews of fishing boats, the weekly rest may be suspended for longer periods than those provided for in the Regulations of 17 December 1926, but that in any case the crews are to have 13 days' rest in every three months, without reduction of wages. If for any cause the boat is immobilised, the days on which its crew is not working may be counted as rest days, provided that the crew are given twenty-four hours' previous notice. The maritime authorities are required to refuse to allow any fishing boat to leave port for which it cannot be proved that the crew has had its 13 days rest for the previous three months.

As regards shipping, the *Colombian* Act of 1926, to which reference has already been made, provides that crews of boats which navigate in inland waters or at sea are to be allowed to accumulate their holidays, and may either take them *en bloc* at the end of the voyage, or claim an indemnity instead.

There have not been during the past year any new legislative measures of great importance on the weekly rest in industrial and commercial undertakings, but the question is still occupying the attention of employers' and workers' organisations, Governments and public opinion. The principle of a weekly rest is now firmly secured, but it is continually calling for new methods of application to conciliate the different interests which are affected. Gradually the advantages of a weekly rest are being extended to numerous classes of workers who were previously outside its scope, and are so becoming more universal. Apart from workers in industry, commerce, agriculture or the mercantile marine and domestic service, there are other classes of workers who it was once considered needed no such protection, e.g. journalists, intellectual workers, musicians, etc. but who are now claiming that the weekly rest should be applied to them also. That the weekly rest is still a living question is shown by the constant evolution which it is undergoing and the increased social benefits it is producing. Exceptions, rests by rotation and the transference of the weekly rest to other days than Sunday are gradually disappearing from national legislation, and Sunday is becoming more and more the weekly rest day for the whole population. As Jaurès said one day, "not to have the weekly rest on Sunday means splitting up and dissipating the workers' rest indefinitely, and separating it from all the joys of communal life and the means of easily supervising its application".

Night work in bakeries.

112. — Last year's Report indicated the extent to which the attention of public opinion had been drawn to this question of night work in bakeries. The notes given below show that in fact there has not been any abatement of interest in the question, and that in a large number of countries action was taken during 1927, as during 1926, towards ratifying the Draft Convention on the subject or putting the reform into operation.

Draft Convention concerning night work in bakeries (1925).

(a) Ratification measures.

Canada: Convention laid on the Table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927 together with an Order-in-Council deciding whether the subject matter of the Convention is within the competence of the Dominion Parliament or the provincial legislatures. The provincial Parliaments are exclusively competent to give effect to the Convention in the provinces, the Dominion Parliament is alone competent to legislate for those territories which are not within the limits of any province. Copies of this Order-in-Council and of the Convention have been officially communicated to the provincial Governments.

Finland: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 28 October 1927.

France: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Senate on 29 November 1927.

Greece: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 20 May 1927.

Hungary: With the consent of the Council of Ministers and H. H. The Regent, the Minister of Commerce submitted the Convention to Parliament with the request that it should be declared inapplicable to Hungary. The conditions of life among the rural population render the ratification of the Convention difficult.

Italy: Government Report recommending adjournment of ratification (technical transformation of the baking industry) approved by the Chamber of Deputies on 31 March 1927 and by the Senate on 12 December 1927.

Latvia: On 24 May 1927 the Council of Ministers submitted to the Saeima a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Luxemburg: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 25 January 1928.

Netherlands: Government Report communicated in June 1927 to the competent Committee of the Second Chamber of the States General requesting adjournment of the discussion of the Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention, introduced on 3 September 1926. The Government is to carry out a supplementary enquiry into the proposed amendment of the Labour Act of 1919.

Norway: The Storting approved on 27 June 1927 the Government Report referring to its previous proposals and expressing the opinion that the Convention could not be ratified by Norway.

Rumania: Submitted to the officers of the Senate (1927).

Sam: Submitted to the competent authorities (1927). H. M. Government does not consider it desirable to adopt legislation carrying out the provisions of the Convention.

Switzerland: Report of the Federal Council submitted to the Federal Assembly on 20 May 1927 explaining that the views of the employers and workers could not be reconciled and that therefore ratification of the Convention should not be proposed. Decision of the Council of States of 20 September 1927 approving the Federal Council's report and declaring that national regulation of night work in bakeries was desirable. Proceedings of the competent Commission of the National Council (November 1927) postponing any decision upon the subject of ratification until the Bill concerning night work in bakeries has been adopted¹.

(b) Application measures.

Argentina: Regulations in application of the Federal Act of 9 September 1926 for the provinces of Corrientes, Buenos-Aires and Santiago del Estero.

Austria: Bill to amend the Act of 3 April 1919 concerning work in bakeries submitted to the National Council.

Czechoslovakia: Order of 7 May 1927 authorising the beginning of effective work at 4 a. m.

Finland: Act amending the Act of 1908 concerning work in bakeries promulgated on 20 January 1928.

Italy: Transformation into an Act of the Legislative Decree of 17 March 1927 authorising night work in large bakeries scientifically organised and possessing ovens in continuous use; approved by the Chamber of Deputies; favourable report by the Senate.

¹ On 21 March 1928 the National Council adopted a resolution inviting the Federal Council to submit a Bill which would regulate night work in bakeries and postponing any decision as to ratification of the Convention until this Bill is considered.

Lithuania : Act of 20 November 1926.

Poland : Bill submitted to the organisations concerned for their opinion.

Switzerland : Bill concerning night work in bakeries (in preparation).

The general impression which the above notes give is confirmed by the following more detailed information.

In the *Argentine Republic*, Regulations have been issued to apply the Federal Act of 9 September 1926, which came into force on 28 February 1927, in the Provinces of Corrientes, Buenos Aires and Santiago del Estero. The bakers' operatives are asking that the law should be strictly applied : in the Province of Tucuman they went on strike in order to secure its observance.

In *Australia*, the Legislative Assembly of the *State of Victoria* rejected on 20 October 1927 a Bill to authorise bread-baking between 10 a.m. and 7 p.m., when supplies must be furnished for one day only, between 9 a.m. and 10 p.m., when two days' supplies have to be furnished, and between 9 a.m. and midnight, when supplies have to be furnished for more than two days. A similar Bill had been adopted by the Legislative Assembly the previous year, but had been rejected by a small majority in the Legislative Council. The proposal for the third reading of the Bill was rejected by one vote (23 votes to 22).

In *Chile*, the Decree of 1 October 1924, which forbids night work in bakeries between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m., has encountered serious difficulties in its application. The bakers' operatives on several occasions complained to the Government of the non-observance of the Decree. On the employers' request and in agreement with the workers, the time for starting work was then advanced by one hour and fixed at 4 a.m. instead of 5 a.m. It will be remembered that one of the provisions of the Convention allows for a settlement of this kind if the employers' and workers' organisations concerned agree. The workers still complained that the law was not carried out and asked the General Labour Directorate to tighten up inspection of bakeries. The result of this complaint has been that the employers' association has stated that it is prepared to carry out the terms of the agreement.

As regards *Czechoslovakia*, reference was made in last year's Report to the campaign conducted by the employers' groups with a view to having work begin at 3 a. m. The master bakers' federation also proposed that bakeries should be allowed to remain open until 10 p. m. A conference of the parties chiefly concerned in the question of night work was convened on 18 November 1926 by the Minister of Social Affairs, and a special sub-committee was appointed composed of employers' and

workers' representatives. On 28 April 1927 the Minister convened the members of the sub-committee in order to endeavour to reach an agreement. The employers' representatives, however, maintained their proposal that work should be allowed to begin at 3 a. m., while the workers' delegates proposed that the present system should be maintained (work begins at 5 a. m.). As it was impossible to arrive at a solution, the Minister issued on 7 May 1927 an Order making it legal for actual work to begin in bakeries at 4 a. m., this to take effect without any such agreement between the employers and workers concerned as is provided for in Article 2 of the Convention. This Order, which came immediately into force, was the subject of considerable protest in the Socialist press, which fears that the preparatory work in bakeries will in fact commence shortly after midnight. The organised bakers' operatives went on strike as a protest on 13 May in Prague and Brno, and unanimously adopted a resolution inviting the trade unions and the Parliamentary Clubs of the socialist deputies to take action with a view to re-establishing the previous legal position.

On 8 July 1927 the Parliamentary Club of the socialist-democratic deputies presented in the Chamber a protest against the Order issued by the Minister of Social Affairs on 7 May 1927, authorising actual work to begin in bakeries at 4 a. m., which they considered to be a violation of the law. The Minister of Social Affairs replied that the Order had been issued in accordance with the Act of 19 December 1918, which gave him power, in agreement with the other Ministers concerned, to issue special regulations for authorising night work in undertakings other than continuous process undertakings. Consequently, the Order which he had issued was not a Government Order which, by the terms of the provisional Constitution, had to be signed by the President and at least nine Ministers. The measures he had taken were therefore perfectly regular.

At their meeting on 29 November 1927 the representatives of the master bakers' associations which are affiliated to the Federation of Master Bakers' Unions adopted a resolution asking the Government majority parties not to ratify the Convention. This resolution has been attacked in the trade unionist press.

In last year's Report it was indicated that in *Finland* a Bill to put the national law in agreement with the Convention had been voted by the Chamber in March 1927, and that, on the request of a strong minority, the final vote had been postponed, as the Finnish Constitution allows, until the assembly of the new Chamber in July 1927. On 11 October 1927 the new Parliament decided to adopt finally the Bill in question, and the Act was promulgated on 20 January 1928 and will come into force on 1 March.

In *France*, the main point of interest is the prohibition of the night work of the master baker. It will be recalled that the Bill adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 12 July 1925 proposed to forbid night work in bakeries not only for the workers but also for the master baker. When this Bill came before the Senate in 1926 an unfavourable report was made on it by the Trade Commission which had been asked to consider it. However, the advisory opinion of the Hague Court, which has recognised that the master baker should not be allowed to work at night if the regulations are to be made effective, has been treated by the Commission as a new development; and the Commission has altered its decision. On 16 March 1927, accordingly, the Commission decided in favour of the Bill, which the workers have asked should now be rapidly passed. On 8 December 1927, for example, the General Labour Confederation and the General United Labour Confederation organised a "national day" on which the organised workers in all towns led a procession to the competent Prefect, Sub-Prefect or Mayor to emphasise their desire to see the Act prohibiting night work enforced and its provisions rapidly extended to the master baker, in order to ensure its effective application.

In *Hungary*, an Act of 1923 prohibits work in bakeries in the capital and some other towns between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m., and in the rest of the country between 9 p.m. and 4 a.m. Preparation of the yeast may begin one hour earlier. The employers' and workers' organisations are not agreed even on these arrangements. The employers claim that the preparation of the yeast should not be specially dealt with and that work should begin at 4 a.m. in Budapest and the towns, and at 3 a.m. in the country. Recently the Minister of Commerce, replying on 23 February 1928 to a question put by the employers on the point in the Chamber, stated that he would get into touch with the two parties concerned with a view to reaching an agreement which would satisfy them both.

In *Italy*, since the Minister of National Economy made a proposal to the Chamber that a Decree-Act should be passed authorising, under certain conditions, night work in bakeries where production is technically organised by means of continuously-working ovens, the Chamber approved this proposal on 1 December 1927, and the Rapporteur of the competent section of the Senate recently reported in favour of this measure. This report explains that "the making of bread as carried on in these bakeries cannot be compared with bread making in smaller ovens; for this reason the Government considers it desirable to ask the large-scale baking establishments which offer sufficient guarantees only to observe the hygiene provisions of the law".

It is difficult to say how far the provisions of the Decree-Act of 17 March have in fact changed the system previously applied. It may, however, be considered that the application of this Decree-Act, which refers to large scale establishments, will be considerably restricted if regard is had to the situation referred to by Mr. Mario Baratelli in an article in the *Tribuna* of 4 January 1928 on the bread problem: this article shows that, from the point of view of organisation, the bread making industry is more allied to a craft industry than to the modern type of industry.

In *Lithuania*, an Act on hours of work in bakeries in *Memel*, dated 20 November 1926, limits the working day of workers in bakeries and confectioners' establishments to 8 hours, and specifies that all work is to be prohibited in these undertakings between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m.

In *New Zealand*, opinion in favour of prohibiting night work in bakeries has been steadily growing for the last few years. In 1921 a Bill was submitted to Parliament on the subject. Last year a new private member's Bill introduced by Mr. McCombs was given its first reading. By the provisions of this Bill work in bakeries is only to be allowed during the day between 8 a.m. and 5 p.m., when supplies have to be furnished for one day, between 8 a. m. and 6 p. m., when supplies have to be furnished for two days or more, and between 8 a.m. and 12 noon on the weekly half-holiday. This Bill, like the Bill submitted to the Parliament of Victoria in Australia, makes the length of the working day depend on the demands which the individual establishment has to meet. Consequently, the longest prohibition period should apply to establishments which only turn out one day's supply at a time, and the shortest prohibition period to establishments which turn out two or more days' supplies at a time. This method of dealing with the problem is not found in European legislation.

After discussions in September 1927 in which the Minister of Labour and the Prime Minister took part, it was decided that the Bill should be read a second time and it was referred to the Labour Bills Committee. The arguments used in the discussions were in part based on the results of the investigations undertaken by the International Labour Office on the prohibition of night work in bakeries.

In *Poland*, the decision of the Labour Commission of the Diet against ratification of the Convention caused considerable feeling among the bakers' operatives. On 27 March 1927 the Executive Committee of the socialist union of workers in the food and drink trades adopted a resolution emphasising the necessity of ratifying the Convention and of issuing a Decree prohibit-

ing night work, and stated its decision to take all necessary measures to secure these objects.

With this resolution, no doubt, in mind, the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs sent in June last to the employers' and workers' organisations a draft of a Bill to prohibit night work in bakeries for bakers' operatives and master bakers between 9 p.m. and 4 a.m., or between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. So far only the master bakers' organisations have expressed their opinion on the draft, and they are definitely against prohibition. A detailed memorandum prepared by the Executive Committee of the Polish Master Bakers' Congress contains the following passage

In Polish bakeries work is generally organised on two shifts of eight hours each, with one hour's break, so that the two shifts are present in the work places for eighteen hours altogether. As work has to be interrupted for two or three hours to heat the ovens, etc., the full working period lasts about 21 hours per day. This shows that it is absolutely impossible to prohibit night work in the larger bakeries, which are the only ones to comply with the legal provisions on hygiene. To prohibit night work would mean that the larger establishments would be ruined for the benefit of the small home working establishments, where hygienic conditions are deplorable: it would thus increase the cost of production and the price of bread; it would, moreover, condemn a considerable number of workers to unemployment.

The Central Polish Union of Industry, Mines, Commerce and Finance has also pronounced against the Bill, considering that:

Polish bakeries are for the most part small undertakings, where practically only manual work is employed, and, as they cannot be prevented from working at night, the prohibition of night work would only affect the larger establishments which would no longer be able to meet the competition of the smaller undertakings: and the adoption of the Bill would hold up the modernisation of the bread making industry.

In *Switzerland*, serious consideration has been given to the whole problem for the purpose of determining the attitude to be adopted towards the Convention. Public opinion was not indifferent to these discussions, and a suggestion was made that a Bill should be drawn up to prohibit night work. On 20 May 1927 the Federal Council stated in a special message to the Federal Assembly that it was not in a position to propose ratification for the following reasons. To make work begin at 5 a. m. as the Convention provides would raise such difficulties and such strong opposition in Switzerland that this provision could not be accepted. As a matter of fact, an enquiry carried out by the Federal Labour Office before the Convention was adopted had seemed to show that it was possible, both for bakeries with electric ovens and for others, to begin work at 4 a. m. without any economic disadvantage. However, the Convention provided that work should only begin at 4 a. m. when this "is required by the climate or season, or when

it is agreed between the employers' and workers' organisations concerned". But these conditions were not to be met with in Switzerland, or could not be fulfilled. The negotiations on this point which had been undertaken by the Federal Labour Office with the Swiss Trade Union Federation and the Swiss Arts and Crafts Union had failed. For the time being the master bakers were opposed to any legal regulation of the question, and their opinion was also that of the artisans and employers. As regards the workers, some of them would accept the Government's proposals, while others went much further and asked that work should only begin at 6 a. m. Moreover, the consumers' cooperative societies which were interested in the question as employers and consumers, and which had behind them among the workers affiliated to them a very considerable membership, took up a special standpoint and asked that their big baking establishments should not be brought within the night work prohibition. Consequently, the Federal Council saw no possibility of arriving at a solution at present.

The Federal Council pointed out that the negative conclusion to which it had arrived was not the last word on the matter, which would still be considered by the parties concerned: it might be desirable that these parties should agree to adopt the solution which the Council recommended rather than refuse categorically to make any concession.

The present situation is so confused, states the Federal Council, that there is no possibility of introducing a Bill to put into practice the solution which it recommends.

The Commission of the Council of States which was instructed to study this question expressed its agreement with the Government's opinion at its meeting on 20 September 1927, and recommended the adoption of national regulations as soon as the employers and workers concerned expressed a desire for them.

On 11 November 1927 the competent Commission of the National Council expressed an opinion which would not preclude the possibility of ratification of the Convention at a later stage. The Commission consulted the parties concerned, and in a resolution invited the Federal Council to draw up a Bill to prohibit night work in bakeries between 8 p. m. and 4 a. m. For the time being, however, the Commission proposed not to make any pronouncement on the question of ratification¹.

In a petition addressed in the beginning of March 1928 to the members of the National Council the master bakers propose that the *status quo* should be maintained. The bakers' operatives' organisations, although they desire that work should begin at 6 a. m., have proposed that the Conven-

¹ Cf. footnote to page 133, second column.

tion should be ratified, stating that they accepted 5 a.m. as a temporary measure. This proposal has been defended by the Socialist group in the Federal Chambers.

It had been thought in various quarters that the fact that the action taken during the last two years to hasten ratification of the Convention had not so far been successful was due to the uncertainty which existed with regard to the Convention before the Hague Court gave its opinion on the dispute referred to it. The Hague's decision, however, has now been known for more than a year, and yet no ratification has been registered. It is true that a number of Governments or employers have pointed out that the opposition to the Convention arises specially from the fact that the time fixed for commencing work, i.e. 5 a.m., is too late, and that if it could have been agreed to fix the hour at 4 a.m. a considerable number of difficulties would have been avoided. To this the reply is that the Conference took two years to deal with the question, and with the different suggestions which were made, including a suggestion on the above lines, and that it did not think fit to adopt these suggestions. The Office must accordingly keep strictly to the terms of the Convention in endeavouring to secure its ratification. As a matter of fact, this is all the more reason why the Office should insist, if the real value of the Convention is to be emphasised, that States in which legislation is nearest to the provisions of the Convention should ratify it.

Holidays with pay.

113. — The movement in favour of holidays with pay continues to develop. Non-manual workers have such holidays in many countries, but manual workers do not yet obtain them as a general rule. The latter use the treatment of non-manual workers as a basis for claiming similar treatment for themselves, and nowadays holidays with pay, which were scarcely spoken of before the war, are being claimed in all countries as one of those higher needs which are a feature of working class progress since the war.

There is some new legislation, or amendments to legislation, on the subject to be recorded for 1927.

In *France*, a Bill introduced in 1925 by Mr. Durafour, Minister of Labour, was referred to the Labour Commission for the opinion of the employers' and workers' organisations. In the light of the observations made by these organisations, Mr. Ponnard, the rapporteur of the Commission, submitted a supplementary report to the Chamber on 7 May 1927, which was in favour of the adoption of the Government's Bill without amendments. Protests are still

being made against the Bill by a considerable number of Chambers of Commerce, which think that the economic position of France is incompatible with its adoption. On the other hand, trade union congresses have expressed themselves in favour of the Bill, in particular, the National Congresses of the General Confederation of Labour, and the General Confederation of United Labour, which are asking that the Bill should be rapidly passed.

In *Greece*, a Decree dated 21 September 1926 limiting hours of work in commercial undertakings, which was issued during the Dictatorship, provides that all non-manual workers in shops employing more than two assistants in towns with more than 15,000 inhabitants are to be entitled to 15 days' annual holiday on full pay after one year's continuous service. The holiday is to be allowed within three months from the day when application for it is made by the worker concerned. These provisions may be extended to the staff of shops in towns with less than 15,000 inhabitants by Decree issued within two years after the coming into force of the above Decree, on the recommendation of the Advisory Labour Council. The Decree was confirmed, subject to some minor modifications, by a Decree dated 13 November 1927.

In *Luxemburg*, the Act which came into force in December 1926 has given rise to difficulties in application. To remove these difficulties, the Director-General of Labour issued instructions on 21 May 1927 for the purpose of ensuring a more uniform interpretation of the legal provisions. Under these instructions, workers, in order to be entitled to holidays, must be able to prove a minimum number of days worked per year (270 days for miners and 280 days for other wage-earners). Some seasonal industries and trades are excluded from the application of the Act, provided, however, that these industries are regularly subject to periods of complete unemployment for a total length of at least two months per year.

In *Salvador*, the 1926 Act on the protection of commercial employees has been re-enacted in its essential parts in an Act dated 31 May 1927. One of the amendments made by the new Act introduces a new system which is not to be found in other legislation. The 1926 Act accorded annual paid holidays for 15 days. The new Act gives the employee the choice between taking this holiday each year or accumulating his holidays for three successive years at most, and taking them all at one time. If he does not immediately take the accumulated leave at the end of three years, he still has the right to take them at any time, provided that until he does take them he loses his right to any further paid annual leave.

To show the considerable progress which has been made during the last few years it may be mentioned that seven other European countries now have legislation applicable to all wage-earners:— *Austria, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Latvia, Luxemburg, Poland* and the *U. S. S. R.*

Another country, *Italy*, has taken steps in this direction, by inserting a special clause in the Labour Charter issued in April 1927. Section 16 of this Charter recognises that every worker is entitled to an annual holiday with pay after one year's continuous service in an undertaking which works the whole year through. As a matter of fact, it has been the custom for a number of years to stipulate for annual holidays with pay in most collective agreements, and this practice will no doubt become the rule now that the Government has affirmed the principle.

It should be noted, moreover, that the practice of securing paid holidays by collective agreements in countries where there is no law on the subject has been very greatly extended. The following notes in this connection may be given on one or two European countries.

In *Germany*, official statistics show that on 1 January 1926 89 per cent (86.6 per cent in 1925) of the total number of collective agreements contained provisions concerning holidays with pay varying from 3 to 18 days. These agreements applied to 94.7 per cent (in 1925, 93.5 per cent) of all the workers covered by collective agreement, i. e. 10,549,754 workers.

In *Norway*, according to a report of the Trade Union Confederation, holidays with pay were provided for in collective agreements in 1926 for 90,405 workers (the number of members of the Confederation being 93,134). 39,405 of them were entitled to 8 days leave at least, and 47,604 to 10 to 12 days. The average leave period per worker was 10 days per year.

In *the Netherlands*, official figures for 1 June 1927 show that holidays were stipulated for 109,302 (41 per cent) workers, the holiday period varying from 6 to 11 days.

In *Sweden*, too, at the end of 1926, collective agreements provided for holidays for 464,503 workers, the holiday period varying from 2 or 3 days to 15 days.

Industrial hygiene.

114. — Industrial hygiene work must always be followed with very great interest. Certain problems are in course of being solved, and action has to be continually

taken to expedite their effective solution. And new problems are constantly being created by the developments of industry, the emergence of new dangers, and the application of new technical methods. The need for protecting the workers' health is thus ever increasing, and to supply this need calls for organised help from all those who are interested in the problems to be faced. It will be seen in the following review that some contribution was made in 1927 towards meeting this need, at any rate as regards many of the industrial hygiene problems which have been dealt with by the Conference.

115. *Anthrax*. — The following measure was taken during 1927 on the *Recommendation concerning the prevention of anthrax (1919)*:—

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Australia: Tasmania: The Prime Minister of the Commonwealth communicated to the Secretary-General information supplied by the Government of Tasmania concerning the situation in that State. Anthrax is a notifiable disease, but extremely rare, and no legislation is considered necessary beyond that in force dealing with contagious diseases in cattle (10 June 1927).

It may also be noted that during 1927 further investigations, which constitute in fact a continuation of the investigations undertaken in preceding years and referred to in last year's Report, were made on the disinfection of hides and skins. For example, Mr. Ottolenghi, technical expert on the Mixed Sub-Committee on Anthrax, has informed the Office that in Italy laboratory research has been continued into the disinfecting action of alkaline sulphides, though the practical application of the methods investigated has not so far given any substantial results. Nor would it seem that certain modifications which have been made in the methods previously applied, in pursuance of Professor Casaburi's suggestions, with a view to increasing the disinfecting power of the substances employed, are likely to lead to more satisfactory results. In Belgium, similar work is being done, though there too the stage of positive results has not yet been reached and the question is being asked whether it would not be best to follow another method by which the spores would be made to germinate and so could be more easily destroyed. But it remains to be seen whether this method would not be difficult to carry out in industrial practice. The Conference is aware that the above investigations have to some extent been made possible thanks to small contributions from the Health Services of the League of Nations and of the International Labour Office. In Germany, the Federal Office of Public Health has tested the experiments above referred to and proposes to continue the investigations which it has been carrying

out for some years. In Great Britain, the British Leather Manufacturers' Research Association is also continuing its investigations, to which reference was made in last year's Report.

116. *Lead poisoning.* — No new measures were taken during 1927 on the *Recommendation concerning the protection of women and children against lead poisoning (1919)*.

117. *White lead.* — The following measures are to be reported for 1927 in connection with the *Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting (1921)*.

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Finland: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 11 November 1927.

Hungary: Ratification registered on 4 January 1928. The instrument of ratification provides that the Convention shall not come into force in Hungary until it has been ratified by France, Germany and Great Britain.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Switzerland: Report of the Federal Council submitted to the Federal Assembly on 2 March 1928 recommending that the question of ratification should stay open and that the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund should continue its study of the problem.

(b) *Application measures.*

Finland: Bill concerning the use of white lead in painting submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 11 November 1927.

Poland: Presidential Decree concerning the production, import and use of white lead, sulphate of lead and other lead salts, promulgated on 30 June 1927.

Switzerland: Order on accident insurance (protection against lead poisoning of employees and workmen engaged in painting undertakings) adopted by the Federal Council on 2 March 1928.

The above notes show that ratification of the Convention on the use of white lead in painting is slowly making progress. In some countries, such as *Great Britain*, action has been confined to measures of regulation rather than prohibition. The future will show whether this solution is the best calculated to assure the protection of the workers exposed to this risk. Preliminary enquiries have been carried out or are in progress in other countries, e. g., *Germany, Italy*. Their object is to assemble all complementary data concerning the possible effects of a system of prohibition or one of regulation on the industries of the country. In *Switzerland*, the Federal Council has decided to make all painting establishments compulsorily insurable against accidents so as to place all workshops under the control of the Swiss National Insurance Fund at Lucerne.

Another system somewhat on the same lines but which the Office considers more effective in practice has been adopted by the *Belgian* Government. It appears to work very well at least for small countries,

though it might not be adapted to larger countries. It consists in supervising producers, salesmen and consumers in a way which renders it practically impossible for them to evade the law. The methods followed would at first sight appear to be complicated, but in practice they are extremely simple and require only a limited number of officials to carry them into effect.

The Conference is aware that the Office has published in a large volume an objective and scientific summary of the white lead problem. No doubt partisans of substitutes for lead compounds may have found there the material they require for continuing their campaign, but it must also be emphasised that partisans of white lead have used the report to prove that white lead is still the best white pigment available. Some partisans of white lead too have regarded the publication as an attack against this product, but other experts have been the first to admit that the information given has been impartially presented, though prepared by the International Labour Office which supported prohibition and which is obliged to promote ratification of the Convention. These facts show that the data has really been presented with that scientific impartiality which the Office must always maintain. None the less the Office considers that prohibition is becoming a more and more urgent matter with the growing application of spray painting to small objects in the factory or to large surfaces in the open air such as buildings or parts of constructions. The danger is one which has already been realised by legislative authorities which are interested in the protection of the workers.

118. *Creation of Government health services.* — No new measures were taken in 1927 on the *Recommendation on this subject (1919)*.

119. *Use of white phosphorus.* — The following measure is to be recorded for 1927 on the *Recommendation concerning the application of the Berne Convention of 1906 on the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches (1919)*.

Adherence.

Morocco: The French Embassy in Berne on 5 July 1927 notified the Swiss Federal Council of the adherence of the Government of Morocco (French Zone) to the Convention.

120. *Compensation for occupational diseases.* — On this subject the Office is glad to be able to report very considerable progress in 1927. The following measures were taken during the year on the *Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (1925)*.

(a) *Ratification measures.*

- Austria*: submitted to the National Council.
Belgium: ratification registered on 3 October 1927.
Canada: laid on the table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927.
Finland: ratification registered on 17 September 1927.
France: bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 24 June 1927.
Greece: Bill for ratification introduced in the Chamber of Deputies on 9 May 1927.
Hungary: Bill for ratification adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 27-28 October 1927 and by the Upper Chamber on 28 November 1927.
India: ratification registered on 30 September 1927.
Irish Free State: ratification registered on 25 November 1927.
Latvia: Bill for ratification approved by the Cabinet of Ministers on 24 May 1927.
Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).
Netherlands: Act of 2 July 1927, reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.
Rumania: Bill for ratification submitted to the Legislative Council.
Siam: submitted to the competent authority.
Switzerland: ratification registered on 16 November 1927.

(b) *Application measures.*

- Belgium*: Act of 24 July 1927.
Finland: Bill in preparation to amend the Act of 17 July 1925 concerning workmen's accident insurance (in preparation).
Greece: Bill to amend the Workmen's Compensation Act adopted by the Chamber of Deputies.
Switzerland: Decree of 8 November 1927, extending the list of occupational diseases.

Recommendation concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (1925).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

- Finland*: Applied by the Act of 17 July 1925 concerning workmen's accident insurance and the Act of 17 July 1925 concerning the Insurance Council (12 September 1927).
Irish Free State: adoption approved by Parliament, April 1927 (24 November 1927).
Siam: submitted to the competent authority (15 March 1927).

Other information.

- Austria*: submitted to the National Council.
Canada: laid on the table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927.
Hungary: submitted to Parliament, November 1927; adoption recommended.
Rumania: submitted to the Officers of the Senate.

(b) *Application measures.*

- Belgium*: Act of 2 August 1927.

The work begun in 1926 is thus being continued and expanded. To complete the above list of ratification or application measures, attention may be drawn to a number of legislative measures which have been or are being taken, and which are

calculated to apply the Convention in some countries which have ratified it or to facilitate its ratification in others.

In *Australia*, the legal definition of the term "accident" has been modified in the State of *New South Wales*, so that all occupational diseases are included in it and the schedule of special occupational diseases for which compensation is payable has consequently been abolished.

In *Belgium*, compensation for occupational diseases has been dealt with in an Act which was promulgated on 24 July 1927. This Act lays down the principles on which compensation is to be based. The Act will affect manual workers or apprentices as well as those artisans and non-manual workers who are exposed to the same risks as manual workers and whose salaries do not exceed 18,000 francs per annum. The benefits, notably higher than those accorded for industrial accidents, are to be provided by means of a special fund raised by an initial Government grant, contributions from employers and, if necessary in the case of a deficit, by a special grant from the State. The administration of the fund is to be entrusted to a committee of five members, two of whom are to be elected by the most representative organisations of employers and workers affected. Royal Decrees are to establish the list of occupational diseases entitling the worker to compensation, the rate of contributions and the various application measures necessary to put the Act into operation.

In *Canada*, ankylostomiasis has been added to the list of occupational diseases.

In *Chile*, the Regulations of 21 April 1927 issued to apply the Industrial Accidents Act provide that any scheduled diseases contracted in the exercise of any occupation are to be considered as industrial accidents under the name of occupational diseases, and that consequently compensation is to be paid for total or partial incapacity caused by them.

In *Ecuador*, a prevention of industrial accidents and occupational diseases Bill was published on 14 February 1927, but at the time of writing the Office is not in possession of any further information as to its details.

In *France*, a Decree dated 22 February 1927 regarding the notification of occupational diseases has been issued.

In *Germany*, the question is being considered whether it is advisable to extend accident insurance to a certain number of occupational diseases other than those already provided for in the Order of 12 May 1925.

In *Poland*, a Decree-Act dated 8 September 1927 provides measures for combating occupational disease: definition, compulsory notification, prohibition or regulation of the use of raw materials, tools or machinery injurious to the workers' health, enquiry into cases notified, etc.

Lastly, in the *United States*, the list of occupational diseases contained in the legislation of the *State of New Jersey* has been modified. Similarly, in *Porto Rico* the 1918 Act, which was amended in 1925, was again amended in 1927.

The possibility of extending the list of occupational diseases entitling workers to compensation and appended to the 1925 Convention was discussed at length in last year's Report. The Conference will recall that the question had been investigated by the Office's Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene and Safety at its meeting at Dusseldorf in September 1926. When the Conference meets this year the question will have been examined once again by this Committee at its meeting to be held in April.

Amongst diseases which might be added to the list there is one to which reference was made last year—*silicosis*. The Office's attention was drawn to this disease some time ago by the International Federation of Stone Workers, which asked that silicosis should be included in the list of occupational diseases for which compensation should be paid. The problems of silicosis are very delicate, considered from the medical point of view. Moreover, this disease affects workers in a number of other industries besides stone-workers. The Office has therefore given close attention to the enquiry undertaken by the Miners' Plthisis Bureau of South Africa and to the investigations being carried out in Great Britain in the refractory industries. Members of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene have also been consulted, as well as certain experts on diseases of the respiratory system and certain specialists in radiology whose names were suggested by the members of the Committee.

Research into the problem of silicosis has recently developed considerably, especially in Germany: one of the members of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, Dr. Koelsch, has undertaken in that country a clinical and radiological enquiry covering over 500 workers. Reports, too, have been placed before various scientific associations by specialists on the subject. All these have emphasised the difficulty of the problem and the necessity of thorough ex-Ray examination by trained specialists. The problem will be discussed at the next Congress on Occupational Diseases to be held at Lyons in 1929.

121. — The question of *periodical medical examination* referred to in last year's Re-

port is closely bound up with protection against occupational disease. As is well known, periodical medical examination is only compulsory in a limited number of cases, and then only for workers engaged in unhealthy or dangerous industries. As regards these particular industries at any rate it is interesting to note that the suggestions formulated by the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene referred to in last year's Report have been followed in a number of countries, notably in *Poland*.

The mere fact of the results produced by the Conference's Conventions and Recommendations on industrial hygiene acts as a continual inspiration to the Office to go into new problems in this vast field, which is so full of possibilities but in which unfortunately there is still so much to be done. Amongst these new problems there are some which urgently call for solution and seem practically ripe for such action, and which should be mentioned here.

122. *Limitation of loads and weights.* — To take first the question of the *loads to be lifted and carried by workers*. It will be recalled that the results of the investigations on this question undertaken by the Industrial Fatigue Research Board of London and by two members of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene were expected to be published in 1927.

As stated in last year's Report, the London Board had first directed its investigations to the question of the limitation of weights to be carried by women. It has now published a report the conclusions of which are as follows:

(1) For women laboratory research into the physiological cost of carrying weights and observations made at the actual working centres both lead to the conclusion that the most economic load from a physiological point of view would appear to be 35 per cent. of the weight of the body, the actual percentage utilised depending however on the manner in which the weights in question are carried. In practice it is agreed that 40 per cent. of the weight of the body is permissible for continuous work and 50 per cent. for casual work, i. e. an average load of 20 or 25 kilos. General data further indicate that whilst a load of 20 kilos. would appear to be the maximum admissible for continuous work, it may be raised to 25 kilos. without causing exhaustion with an additional weight of 20 per cent. if the load is compact, easy to manipulate, and such that it does not hinder the woman's movements in walking or interfere with her normal position.

(2) For adolescent females account has to be taken of the physical condition of the body and the risk of deformation. Consequently, in place of the foregoing standards, a limit of 12.5 to 15 kilos. is suggested

for young women from 14 to 16 years of age and 20 kilos. for those from 16 to 18 years. These figures, moreover, could not constitute an absolute standard for all industries; they might cause overstrain in some industries, while in others they might be below the individual worker's capacity.

These investigations will be continued with a view to arriving at statistical data as to the height, weight and muscular energy of women in different occupations, and to checking the conclusions already formed on methods of weight carrying.

The two members of the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene, Prof. Patrizi of Bologna, and Prof. Atzler of Berlin, have also continued their investigations on the subject. Prof. Patrizi has drawn up a preliminary report in which he deals with signs of fatigue in the circulatory and respiratory systems. He prefers this method to that which tries to find in the muscular system a physiological criterion for determining weight limits. His preliminary investigations are such that interesting results may be anticipated in a short time, for simple reactions may be observed even with loads weighing as little as 22 kilos. It may thus be stated even at this stage that from the scientific point of view it is now established that a reasonable limit economically and physiologically for loads for carrying should be under 75 kilos., the maximum load suggested by the International Transport Federation. The Federation has doubtless based this standard not only on scientific data but also on tradition and economic requirements: but these latter considerations are not taken into account by those solely interested in hygiene as such.

Prof. Atzler has published in various articles and in his work "*Körper und Arbeit*" the results of his investigations into the optimum weight for lifting from a given height and the cost in calories to the organism.

Reference may also be made to Prof. Atzler's investigations into the carrying of weights by hand. Experiments were made with weights carried by one hand and both hands, with the arm swinging at full length and half-bent in both cases. The results confirm the findings of other experts, for the optimum weight, irrespective of the speed at which it is carried, was found to be 43 per cent. of the weight of the body. Besides, carrying bulky articles with the arms half-bent was found less economic than with the arms at full length, an economy of 17 per cent. being effected by the latter operation.

The importance of these results, though still fragmentary and provisional, should be emphasised, particularly as the Conference is about to enter on its first discussion of the question of the prevention of industrial accidents and is to be asked to consider

in this connection the problem of fixing the limit of weights to be carried by workers.

123. *Fatigue.* — In 1926 a copious amount of material was collected on fatigue tests based on chemical, physiological and psychological methods. A list of these tests was sent to specialists on the Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene. Many of them were good enough to undertake to revise this material, but their criticisms have not so far been communicated to the Office.

124. *Cataract.* — The German Glass Workers' Association has undertaken an extensive enquiry amongst its members into the incidence (or frequency) of cataract amongst workers in this branch of production. Requests have also been made to have this disease included in the international list of occupational diseases for which compensation should be paid. On several occasions a wish has been expressed that the International Labour Office should undertake an enquiry into the frequency of cataract not only amongst glass workers but amongst all workers exposed to heat and light radiations. It would appear just as logical to proceed in this way on cataract as on silicosis, and the Office would therefore be glad to see investigations carried out, and will endeavour to have the question taken up on this basis by its Correspondence Committee at its forthcoming meeting which is to take place in April, before the opening of the Conference.

125. *The question of lead tetra-ethyl.* — In 1925 the problem of the use of lead tetra-ethyl as an anti-detonating agent in petrol for motor cars, etc. was placed before the medical specialists present at the Seventh Session of the Conference. Apart from information from American sources which the Office possessed at that time, very little data has since been collected. The question is both serious and urgent, for lead tetra-ethyl is being more and more sold on the world markets, and so far no other anti-detonating agent of a less injurious character capable of replacing it has been discovered.

126. — Such are the special questions which, amongst many others, would appear to merit the particular attention of the Organisation in its efforts to improve the health of the workers. But, however effective special measures on particular problems may be, what is more important for improving the workers' health is to apply systematically general measures which are beneficial to all workers whatever industry they may be engaged in or wherever they may be employed. It is accordingly proposed to add some short notes on some of these general measures before concluding the present sub-section.

Hygiene in workshops is one of those problems to which the Office must give its attention, because the Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty makes it one of its duties to promote the protection of the workers against disease either of a general or occupational nature. The development of all adequate measures for the protection of workers exposed to specific risks (poisoning, infection, etc.) are certainly of importance, but it is just as important to establish fundamental principles for hygienic conditions of work, since this is a matter of safeguarding the life and health not of limited categories of workers but of all the millions of workers who are employed in workshops or factories. It has accordingly been considered useful to proceed at once to extract from the legislation in the most advanced countries the general provisions on industrial hygiene, so that other countries which may desire to organise sanitation and hygiene in their industries may have the advantage of them. A beginning was made in this direction last year by collecting the principles which might be used in framing a sort of standard set of regulations on industrial hygiene, which would lay down the minimum protective measures which should be adopted in an undertaking. The sources for this work have not been very numerous. Out of 55 States Members of the Organisation very few have taken general measures of importance on this subject. In the majority of cases legislation has been confined to dealing in a summary manner with the hygiene of the workshop, and has left the competent authority to settle questions of detail in the special regulations it issues for certain particular cases. The Office has not, of course, neglected such special regulations in so far as they contained what seemed to be agreed measures on the general hygiene of workshops. But the basis of the Office's work has been a quantity of material on eight countries in which industrial hygiene is regulated, which are of first-rate industrial importance, and in which the legal protection of the workers is most highly advanced — Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Italy and Switzerland; and the laws, decrees, regulations and orders in these countries which lay down health rules for factories and workshops have been very carefully analysed.

Medical examination on entering industry is another measure calculated to protect workers against general and occupational diseases and to assure them of working conditions compatible with their state of health. It may be noted in passing that this measure also protects the consumer against the harmful action of products manufactured by workers in bad health. But, to deal only with the worker's own protection, health control prior to admission to employment has a twofold object, to detect in him affections which might be dan-

gerous to his fellow workers and to safeguard him once he is unfit from the aggravation of his condition which certain kinds of work might cause. The Office's Industrial Hygiene Service undertook in 1927 certain investigations into the legal provisions which make such examination compulsory and into the results obtained in practice by the application of this measure. These investigations have had to be limited to the health supervision of children and young persons of both sexes and, in some cases, of adult women; for no law provides for compulsory medical examination for adult men except in the case of a dangerous or unhealthy trade or of an establishment in which the health of the workers is really a matter of public health or safety (bakery trade, transport industry, etc.).

The problem of medical examination implicitly raises the question of the *factory doctor*. So far there are only a small number of countries in which employers are required to employ a duly qualified doctor to supervise their workers' health, and even in the majority of these cases the requirement only applies to unhealthy or dangerous trades. The Industrial Hygiene Service has had occasion in the course of the past year to go into this question, in connection with the question of the co-operation of the doctor in vocational guidance and selection. The Office has noted with satisfaction that, in spite of the absence of legal provisions on the point, heads of large establishments not infrequently employ a doctor's services. Further, the cost of employing a doctor is very largely compensated by the services rendered: if a factory's medical service is intelligently directed, it should be treated as an asset and not a liability in the factory's running expenses. The results of its investigations into the position of the factory doctor have been compiled by the Office in a small report which has been prepared for the *Encyclopaedia of Industrial Hygiene*.

In conclusion, there is one last question which would appear likely to give fruitful results in the course of the next few years—the *employment of abnormal or defective persons*. The Office has begun its study of this problem by going into one of its most frequent aspects, the employment of epileptics, and it is proposed to collaborate on this special question with the international association which deals with epilepsy.

The impression which the Office has formed, and which no doubt members of the Conference who read this section of the Report will also form, from the above review is that, however much has been done during the last few years on industrial hygiene matters, there is still much more left to do. This statement is certainly not meant to imply the slightest expression of disillusionment or scepticism; it simply ex-

presses the Office's opinion that it must continue and intensify its work to the best of its ability and that, if this work is to succeed, this result can only be achieved if the Office can have the assistance of public opinion, of all those, whether employers or workers, whom the problems affect, scientific bodies, etc. The Office will use its best endeavours to facilitate co-operation in all directions and to promote mutual interchanges of the individual country's special experience of industrial hygiene matters, so that all such experience may be given the widest publicity and so better serve the welfare of the working classes throughout the world.

Prevention of accidents.

127. — There hardly seems any need to re-emphasise the seriousness of the problem of industrial accidents and their prevention. The Office has, however, been once more impressed by this problem in preparing its Grey Report on the prevention of industrial accidents, the second item on the Agenda of this year's Session of the Conference. A few facts will demonstrate abundantly that the question is urgent and can be solved if the means are found to put existing solutions into operation.

There are a few figures quoted in the Grey Report to which the Office ventures to draw the attention of the members of the Conference. In 1923 there were 2,082 fatal industrial accidents in France and 3,303 in England. In 1925 there were 5,285 in Germany, and in the United States the average annual number is between 20,000 and 25,000. If news were suddenly to be published that a town of 2,000, 5,000 or 20,000 inhabitants had been destroyed, the whole world would be stirred. But the number of fatal industrial accidents each year exceeds these hypothetical figures, though public opinion is not very much moved by them! And besides fatal accidents it has to be remembered that hundreds of thousands of accidents take place every year of which a considerable proportion involve loss of limb or other serious injury and cause a permanent diminution of working capacity.

The last few years have furnished abundant examples of the extent to which a methodical policy for the prevention of industrial accidents can reduce the irreparable damage done by them. In the United States, for instance, it was calculated that during the period 1910-14 more than four days' work for every 1,000 hours of actual work were lost through accidents in the American Steel Trust, while in 1925 only 2.9 days were lost. During the years 1910-14 there were more than 11 fatal accidents per 10,000 workers, while in 1925-26 the proportion, though still too high, was reduced to 6. What has proved possible in

this case and in many others should be possible everywhere. No one who is capable of contributing even in the smallest degree to promoting the prevention of accidents is entitled to refrain from doing what he can.

As for the action which has been taken to prevent accidents in 1927, it cannot be said that national legislation has produced any general regulations on the subject or introduced any fundamental innovations. Nevertheless, there are some substantial results to record in certain particular directions. In fact, it would seem that action for the moment is being particularly directed towards the prevention of accidents in special branches of industry where such action is considered to be particularly necessary.

New regulations have been issued in a number of countries on *steam boilers*. For example, an Act dated 7 February 1927 passed in the Canadian Province of *Saskatchewan* lays down certain rules on steam boilers in mechanically propelled vehicles. In *Denmark*, an Order was issued on 26 February making it unnecessary to inspect small boilers with a heating surface of less than 1/10 of a square meter. In *Italy*, two Decrees were passed on 12 May and 20 May 1927 respectively laying down regulations on steam boilers, steam containers and cylinders for transporting compressed liquified or dissolved gas. These Decrees also deal in detail with the safety of the workers who have to handle these boilers, etc. In *Austria*, again, an Order dated 15 July 1927 issued by the Federal Ministry of Commerce and Communications, the Federal Chancellor's Office and the other Ministries concerned deals further with the question of steam boilers, pressure chests and combustion engines.

There have also been a comparatively large number of Acts and regulations to deal with the dangers of *electric lines or conductors*. As an example of these developments reference may be made to two Decrees issued in *France* on 3 February and 10 March 1927. The first makes it compulsory to display posters indicating the first aid to be given to persons who are injured by accidental contact with electric lines or conductors. The second deals with the protective and health measures to be taken in the undertakings where electricity is distributed. It may also be mentioned that in *New South Wales* an Act dated 29 January 1927 has made it compulsory for electricians to be registered.

As regards *safety in the erection of scaffolding*, an Act of 1924 which dealt with the supervision of such scaffolding in *Western Australia* was amended on 9 February 1927. The amendment provides that scaffolding is not to be erected in the vicinity of electric lines or conductors except with the previous permission of the inspector, and is not to be put up or used in such a way that it could come into direct or indirect contact with the current.

Measures affecting other aspects of the prevention of accidents have been taken in various other countries. Among such measures may be mentioned the following: an amendment in *Western Australia* of the Factory Act of 17 February 1927 which contains provisions for protection against fires in industrial undertakings; Regulations issued on 9 December 1926 in the *Dutch Indies* prohibiting entry into places where there may be noxious gases; a Decree issued on 26 February 1927 in *Uruguay* which lays down detailed safety provisions for the employment of wood-cutting machinery; Orders issued on 24 March and 28 April 1927 in *Queensland* which deal with the protection of the workers in stone quarries; safety regulations for cinemas in *Germany* and *Rumania*; a Royal Decree issued in *Italy* on 19 January 1927 on the use of poisonous gases, which enumerates the gases in question, prescribes measures by which the dangers of their handling may be avoided and strictly defines the qualifications which must be possessed by persons who are to handle them; and, lastly, regulations issued in *South Africa* on 25 March 1927 containing provisions on the handling of tankers transporting inflammable liquids.

The various measures which have been referred to above should not of course be under-estimated, but, however effective they may be, they rather leave the impression that the action being at present taken is too sporadic, and that one country may know nothing of what is being done in another and so be unable to benefit by its example. This only confirms the Office's conviction of the utility of an organisation capable of furnishing the different countries with information on the measures taken in each of them, and of coordinating and strengthening the work which each country is doing. This of course is one of the main functions of the International Labour Organisation, and the Office does its best to discharge it.

As examples of the work which is being done by the Office it may be mentioned that the Office's Safety Sub-Committee which met in November last considered two monographs prepared by two of its members, Mr. Deladrière, Director of the Belgian Employers' Association for the prevention of industrial accidents, and Mr. Massarelli, General Director of the Italian Association for the prevention of industrial accidents. The first of these monographs deals with safety in the use of chains, and the other with the protection of extractors. Further, the Sub-Committee gave the Office many valuable suggestions for its *Industrial Safety Survey*. It took a decision on the delicate question as to how far the Office can go in referring to new safeguards without exposing itself to the criticism that it is even involuntarily advertising any particular manufacturer's goods, and it asked the Office when it described methods and

means of preventing accidents not to give the manufacturers' names. The Sub-Committee also considered a proposal made by one of its members, Mr. Van de Weyer, Belgian Inspector-General of Factories, which was to the effect that the Sub-Committee should hold more frequent meetings, so that its work might be more actively and, so to speak, more continuously pursued. Slightly different proposals in the same sense were made by Mr. Morley, General Director of associations for the prevention of accidents in Ontario.

The chief subject of the Sub-Committee's consideration, however, was the Office's Grey Report, on the preparation of which the Safety Service of the Office had concentrated its energies during the past year, and which report is in the hands of members of the Conference. It deals with the subject covered from three angles—the legal provisions for the prevention of industrial accidents and official supervision of their enforcement, the action taken by institutions and associations for the prevention of accidents, and the scientific methods which might be followed for the same object. Besides these general investigations into the problem and the proposals for Recommendations based on them, the Report also deals with a number of special problems to which the Office's attention had been drawn either by Governments or by the suggestions made by certain organisations, e. g. the prevention of accidents due to coupling on railways, limiting the weight of sacks to be carried, the protection of workers employed in the loading or unloading of ships. The Report thus contains a very extensive programme for the Conference's consideration.

But, even if this programme succeeds in its entirety, it is clear that the Office will by no means have completed its work on the prevention of accidents. No attempt has been made, for example, in the Grey Report to deal with the prevention of industrial accidents in mines, and the prevention of industrial accidents on railways has only been treated from a special angle, viz. the coupling of wagons. Moreover, the Office's attention is continually being drawn by some institution or other to new and interesting subjects for investigation. To mention a few instances: the British Government has asked the Office for information on the putting into force of regulations on the treating of belts with glycerine in order to prevent the formation of static electrical charges, regulations of this kind having been issued by the Hungarian Government; the Norwegian Government asked the Office to draw up a list of the regulations in force in the different countries applicable to stokers on boilers; the Polish Government has asked for information on measures for preventing accidents in artificial silk factories; the Belgian Transport Workers' Association has asked advice on the arrangement of a special

"safety corner" in a newspaper which it issues in French and Flemish; and one of the workers' representatives on the Governing Body has asked to be supplied with a collection of safety posters which specially deal with the transport industry.

The Office will continue to do its best to follow up all these questions, more particularly through the medium of its *Industrial Safety Survey* which it created a few years ago and which appears to have produced excellent results. The Office can say that this *Survey* has been most favourably received by those concerned with safety questions. No doubt there is still room for improvement in it, but it already provides the means for exchanging ideas which the Office must have if it is to do what it ought for preventing industrial accidents. Without this *Survey* it is possible that the Office would not have been able to carry its investigations as far as it has done, and the extent of which will be clearly seen from the substantial summary given in the Grey Report submitted to the Conference.

In spite of the difficulties in the Office's work on the prevention of industrial accidents, this work is being carried on with enthusiasm. And the Office is convinced that its work will receive a fresh stimulus from the discussions and decisions of the present Session of the Conference on this item on its Agenda, and from the increased attention which these proceedings will certainly draw to this most important subject.

Protection of women.

128. *Night work of women.* — Laws to protect women and children having been the origin of protective labour legislation, the employment of women at night has long been forbidden in nearly all countries. This being so, it did not seem unreasonable to look for a rapid and general ratification of the Washington Draft Convention prohibiting night work. These hopes have not yet been fully satisfied, though the need for such legislation can hardly be seriously questioned. The Office still hopes, however, that such prohibition will be the rule everywhere in the not distant future.

There seems to be some ground for this hope when it is observed that, in those parts of the world where protective laws have not yet reached European level, workers' organisations are unceasing in their endeavours for better conditions in respect of the employment of women at night. Thus, the Pan-Pacific Trade Union Conference, held at Hankow in May 1927, agreed to organise an energetic campaign in all the Pacific States, including colonies and Dominions, with a view to the prohibition of the employment of women at night.

The following notes show the progress made in 1927 in the ratification and appli-

cation of the *1919 Convention concerning employment of women during the night*.

(a) Ratification measures.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

(b) Application measures.

Finland: Bill concerning the night work of women submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 11 November 1927.

France: Decree of 20 February 1927 promulgating the Convention signed between France and Belgium on the night work of women and the Convention on the night work of young persons in industry, and the protocol appended to these Conventions.

Morocco: Adherence of Morocco (French zone) to the Berne Convention of 1906 concerning the night work of women communicated to the Swiss Federal Council on 5 July 1927 by the French Ambassador in Berne.

New Caledonia: Decree of 5 October 1927 applying Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare to New Caledonia in the form of a general regulation of conditions of labour.

Germany: Workers' Protection Bill, which contains provisions concerning night work of women, adopted by the Federal Council¹.

Hungary: Bill adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 17-18 November 1927 and by the Senate in January 1928.

Portugal: Legislative Decree of 29 October 1927 concerning the protection of women and children.

Salvador: Legislative Decree of 9 June 1927 concerning the protection of commercial employees.

Spain: Decree-Act of 15 August 1927 concerning night rest for women approved by Royal Decree of 13 September 1927.

The long-standing struggle between the two tendencies in women's organisations is still being waged. Last year the organised women workers who are in favour of protective laws for women put forward their views in a memorandum. The manifesto came from the Standing Joint Committee of Industrial Women's Organisations, representing over a million organised women in Great Britain belonging to the labour, trade union and co-operative movements; it summed up the arguments in favour of protective legislation as follows: night work injures the health, as the want of rest upsets household routine and is bad for the children; women are unable to resist industrial fatigue in the same way as men, since they cannot be freed from their household duties; and the prohibition of night work, so far from prejudicing the situation of women, would tend to hasten its abolition for all classes of workers.

The working women's organisations maintain that ratification of the Draft Convention would be the best way to bring about the definite abolition of night work for women. Thus resolutions for the ratification of the Draft Convention were adopted last year by the International Congress of Women Workers affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions whose meeting in Paris on 29-30 July 1927

¹ Cf. footnote to page 124.

was attended by representatives of 14 different countries, and by the Congress of the International Federation of Trade Unions.

Certain new enactments were also added last year to the numerous laws already existing.

In *Canada*, the Minimum Wage Board of the Province of Manitoba issued Regulation on the work of women employed in the making of hoods for motor cars, trunks, gloves, hosiery, leather articles, awnings and covers for wagons. The Regulations forbid any woman to work between 10 p.m. and 7. a.m. A break of 11 hours must be allowed between stopping work on one day and starting on the next.

In *Japan*, the International Labour Legislation Association, at its third annual general assembly held at Tokyo on 10 December 1927, asked the Government and the Committee of enquiry into working conditions in mines to take urgent measures to prohibit night work for women in the mining industry.

In *New Caledonia*, a Decree of 5 October 1927, regulating conditions of work, forbids women to be employed at night, any work between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. being regarded as night work. The night interval must not be less than 11 consecutive hours.

In *Portugal*, a Decree of 29 October 1927 forbids women to be employed in night work except when required by *vis major*. By "night" is meant the interval between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m. from May to October inclusive, and from 8 p.m. to 7 a.m. during the rest of the year.

In *Salvador*, a Decree-Act of 9 June 1927 for the protection of commercial employees forbids women of any age to carry on their occupation between 7 p.m. and 5 a.m.

In *Spain*, an Act of 11 July 1912 provided that the night interval should not be less than 11 consecutive hours. This Act was repealed by a Decree-Act of 15 August 1927, which requires a minimum rest of 12 consecutive hours between two succeeding work days for all women, irrespective of age, employed in factories, workshops and the like, as well as in industrial and commercial undertakings. The rest period must include the interval between 9 p.m. and 5 a.m.

129. *Employment of women before and after childbirth.* — Whether the employment of married women should be absolutely prohibited or not, the need of protecting motherhood is probably one of those questions on which everyone should easily agree. It would appear that this end could not be better served than by a Convention prohibiting work before

and after childbirth, providing medical treatment and benefits sufficient to ensure freedom from anxiety, and giving working mothers the chance to feed and nurse their children themselves. That this is the case can be seen from the following notes on the measures which have been adopted or proposed in the various countries for ratifying and applying the *Washington (1919) Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.*

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Germany: Ratification registered on 31 October 1927.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

(b) *Application measures.*

Austria: Employees' Insurance Act of 26 December 1926 and Workers' Insurance Act of 1 April 1927.

Finland: Bill concerning compulsory sickness insurance.

France: Act of 4 January 1928, amending the Code of Labour and Social Welfare (Book I, § 29).

Social insurance Act of 15 March 1928.

Germany: Acts of 16 July and 29 October 1927.

Hungary: Bill concerning the protection of children, young persons and women, adopted by the Chamber of Deputies (November 1927) and by the Upper Chamber (January 1928).

Poland: Order of 30 August 1927 concerning the setting up of crèches in factories.

Portugal: Decree of 29 October 1927 concerning the protection of women and children.

Rumania: Bill to regulate the conditions of labour of women and children.

Salvador: Decree of 9 June 1927 concerning the protection of commercial employees.

Spain: Bills concerning maternity insurance.

Sweden: Bill to amend the Workers' Protection Act of 1912.

It will thus be seen that legislative measures providing for rest periods or benefits for women in childbirth were adopted by seven countries—Austria, France, Germany, the French Colony of New Caledonia, Poland, Portugal and Salvador—and that in five other countries—Finland, Hungary, Rumania, Spain and Sweden—Bills for the same objects have been submitted to Parliament.

Germany was the first important industrial country to ratify the Convention, on 16 July 1927. By an Act of 6 July 1926 cash benefits had already been provided for, but this Act has been completed by the Act of 16 July in such a way as to make ratification of the Convention possible, and the present law fully corresponds with the provisions of the Convention and in some respects even goes beyond them.

For economic reasons *Austria* has stated that it is not in a position for the present to ratify the Convention, but the Manual Workers' Insurance Act of 1 April 1927 and the Employees' Insurance Act of 29 De-

cember 1926, while they do not completely conform with the terms of the Convention, nevertheless provide for maternity benefits. The first of these Acts, which applies to manual workers, provides for working abstain from work a daily cash benefit payable for a period of 6 weeks before, and after, childbirth, and these benefits are also paid to the wives of insured workers. Nursing mothers are also entitled to a special benefit for 12 weeks. The second Act, which deals specially with non-manual workers, provides insured persons or the wives of insured persons with benefits amounting to 120 *schillings* for each child and daily benefits equal to half the sickness benefit during 6 weeks after childbirth and for 12 weeks if the mother nurses her child herself.

In *France*, an Act of 4 January 1928, which modifies the Labour Code, prohibits the dismissal by her employer of a pregnant woman during 12 consecutive weeks before and after childbirth, and this period may be prolonged to 15 weeks on presentation of a medical certificate.

In *New Caledonia*, the Decree of 5 October 1927, which adapts to the Colony certain provisions of the French Labour Code, forbids employment of pregnant women in industrial undertakings for a period of 4 weeks after childbirth. Nursing mothers are to be allowed two daily intervals of 30 minutes each in which to nurse their children, and accommodation must be provided which will satisfy the conditions laid down in a special Decree.

In *Poland*, an Order promulgated on 30 August 1927 requires crèches for nursing mothers to be established in certain workshops. 21 establishments are affected, 12 of them being State tobacco factories. Although the Convention does not require the establishment of crèches, there can be no doubt but that this facilitates the application of the provision relating to nursing intervals and is advantageous to employers and workers alike.

In *Portugal*, a Decree dated 29 October 1927 prohibits certain kinds of work for pregnant women or imposes certain conditions. Such women must follow the advice of the medical inspector in all matters relating to their condition. Nursing mothers are allowed half an hour in the morning and half an hour in the afternoon in order to nurse their children, and no reduction of wages may be made on that account. While nursing their children women may not be employed at night.

In *Salvador*, a Decree for the protection of commercial employees dated 9 June 1927 grants women employees of one year's standing the right to three months' leave in case of childbirth, two months being allowed before the birth. Nursing mothers must be

allowed daily breaks for the purpose of nursing their children.

The *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom*, as was mentioned last year, has formally ratified the Convention. No new legislation has been needed for its application, which was already ensured by provisions dating from some years back.

Apart from the legislative enactments referred to above, Bills are being considered in a number of countries.

In *Finland*, Parliament has before it a Bill on compulsory sickness insurance which applies to manual and intellectual workers whose wages are below a certain amount. The Bill provides for medical assistance in maternity cases and a cash benefit equal to the benefit paid in case of sickness. These benefits would be paid for 6 weeks before, and after, childbirth as the Convention requires. Where the mother is treated in a maternity home any persons who may be dependent on her are entitled to an allowance equal to a certain percentage of the sickness benefit.

In *France*, the Social Insurance Bill has been finally passed by the Chamber of Deputies. The Bill applies to wage-earners whose wages fall below a certain limit. It provides for the payment of medical assistance to insured persons or the wives of insured persons, with certain benefits during pregnancy and for 6 months after childbirth. A cash benefit is payable for 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after provided that the woman does no work during the period. Benefits extending over a period of 12 months in all are granted to mothers nursing their own children.

In *Hungary*, the Office has been informed that the Chamber has adopted a Bill for the protection of women and children which provides for ratification of the Convention.

In *Rumania*, the Government has submitted to the industrial organisations concerned the first draft of a Bill to regulate the work of women and children. It grants expectant mothers a rest period before childbirth in accordance with the recommendation of the competent medical officer. Women may not work for 6 weeks after childbirth or for such longer period as may be prescribed by medical advice. The Bill provides for allowances and free medical assistance during absence from work, and gives nursing mothers a half hour's rest during working hours without any reduction in wages.

In *Spain*, the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry stated some time ago that certain reforms in social legislation were projected and that they would include a system of compulsory insurance, with maternity benefits, to which the State, the

employers and the workers would contribute. The scheme would be completed by a system of medical assistance and cash benefits. Rest periods would be provided, and the free use of dispensaries, clinics and child welfare institutions.

In *Sweden*, a Bill is being drafted to amend the Workers' Protection Act of 1912 and it is hoped that this will result in further progress towards ratification. The introduction of a maternity insurance scheme was recommended in a report presented by a Committee representing employers, workers and insurance experts, and a Government Bill introduced in March 1927 has embodied the suggestions made, with a provision as to the manner in which the cost of medical assistance should be paid.

The foregoing notes will show that the maternity Convention is receiving increasing attention in the different States. In the first few years immediately after Washington it seemed that the Convention would impose too heavy a burden, and it was wondered whether it would ever be possible to obtain an extensive application of it, especially in the more important industrial countries. Events which have taken place since then indicate that these apprehensions had no basis. Perhaps the further action which is now being taken is the result of the consideration which is being given to population questions. It may also be the result of the evolution of ideas on the protection of mothers. But whatever be the reasons for it, it is satisfactory to note that very considerable progress is being made.

Protection of children and young persons.

130. — Measures for the protection of children and young persons are becoming more and more numerous. The idea nowadays is less to defend children against the old forms of exploitation, which as a matter of fact are disappearing. The object rather is, by means of suitable protective measures, to promote their intellectual development and to prevent their education as citizens being prejudiced by premature or excessive work.

131. *Age of admission to employment in industry.* — The scope of legislation or regulations on this subject tends to be enlarged. It is now recognised that 14 years is the minimum age for admission to employment, but legislation does not only lay down this limit, but also deals with the education, health and moral training of children and, generally speaking, with all their working conditions. These ideas were expressed in the resolution voted by the 1927 Session of the Conference, in which the Office was asked to prepare a report on the general conditions for the admission of young persons to employment,

and the same tendency is to be seen in the legislation which was adopted or proposed in 1927, as well as in the measures taken to ratify or apply the Convention.

The following measures were taken on the *Washington (1919) Convention* on this subject :—

(a) Ratification measures.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

(b) Application measures.

Belgium: Decree of 27 April 1927 concerning the employment of children in theatres, music-halls, bars and dancing establishments.

Colombia: Bill concerning contracts of employment.

Finland: Bill concerning the employment of children and young persons submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 11 November 1927.

France: Act of 7 December 1926 prohibiting the employment of women and young persons on certain work; Bill to amend the Labour Code.

France (New Caledonia): Decree of 5 October 1927 laying down the conditions for the application in New Caledonia of certain provisions of the French Labour Code.

Germany: Workers' Protection Bill, which contains provisions concerning the minimum age for admission to employment, adopted by the Federal Council¹.

Hungary: Bill concerning the protection of women and children.

Portugal: Decree of 29 October 1927 concerning the protection of women and children.

The following notes give further information on the above measures, the enactments being dealt with first, and then the Bills which are still under consideration.

In *Belgium*, a Royal Decree of 27 April 1927 forbids the employment of children under 16 years old in theatres, music-halls, dancing saloons, night bars and similar establishments. Nor may they be employed to offer articles for sale in such places, or in any public establishment, or in the streets. In special cases an exemption will be granted to enable children to take part in theatrical performances in the interests of art.

In *France*, the Bill referred to in last year's Report to raise to 18 years the age for the employment of children in inns, hotels and other forms of work involving physical or moral risks, became law on 7 December 1927.

In the French Colony of *New Caledonia*, a Decree of 5 October 1927 forbids the employment of children who have not completed their thirteenth year, in factories, workshops, mines etc., not being family undertakings. An exception is permitted in the case of children over 12 years old who have completed the prescribed educational course, provided that the child be pronounced physically fitted by the competent

¹ Cf. footnote to page 124.

medical officer. Children under 12 may not be employed as actors etc. in theatres or café-concerts without the express permission of the Governor of the Colony, which will only be given by way of exception and for special pieces.

In *Portugal*, a Decree of 29 October 1927 forbids the employment of children in industrial establishments unless they have completed 12 years and are pronounced to be medically and educationally fitted for employment. For certain dangerous occupations the age is raised to 14 years, while underground work in mines is forbidden altogether for boys who have not completed 16 years and girls or women of any age.

Bills are under consideration in *Colombia*, *France* and *Hungary*.

In *Colombia*, a Bill concerning labour contracts has been introduced into the Senate. It would forbid the employment of children under 10 years old in factories, workshops, foundries and mines. No young person under 18 would have the right to enter into a labour contract without parental consent.

In *France*, a Government Bill was laid before the Chamber of Deputies in November 1927 to modify the Labour Code in accordance with certain recommendations made by the Superior Labour Council. The Bill requires every industrial or commercial establishment employing women, or young persons of less than 18 years, to make a declaration to that effect to the labour inspector. It further extends to commercial undertakings, and all other undertakings outside agriculture, the provisions of the Labour Code regulating the admission of children to industrial employment.

In *Hungary*, the Chamber of Deputies has adopted a Bill for the protection of women and children in industry. While the passing of this Bill would not bring the law up to Convention standards it would result in an improvement, since it forbids work in principle for children under 14 years old but, as an exception, and pending the raising of the compulsory school age from 12 to 14, allows children over 12 to be employed in so far as their school attendance is not interfered with, and provided the work is not prejudicial to health, physical development or morals.

If it is apparent from this enumeration of Acts and Bills that some progress has been made in 1927 towards postponing the admission of children to industry, it is clear that this progress is still too slow. There still remain countries where the age for admission is 13 years and may be 12. In *France*, for example, there are those who regret that the age of admission remains at 13 years, one year below that of the

Washington Convention, and the same may be said of other countries.

The difficulty of adapting school laws to those regulating industrial employment is not to be denied. In *Italy*, *France* and even in *Germany* any extension of the school age may involve heavy expenditure. But civilisation demands the effort. The International Association for Social Progress had this in mind when it appealed at its meeting in *Vienna* in September 1927 for the application of the International Labour Conventions in their letter and in their spirit. In *France*, too, appeals are being made to raise the school age so that the Washington Convention can be applied.

When the Washington Session of the Conference decided that 14 was the minimum age at which children ought to be allowed to enter industry, it acted with prudence and moderation; but it is now time that this decision was universally applied. It is to be regretted that there are still many forms of employment in which children and young persons are prematurely employed, and it is to be hoped that this social evil will disappear at the earliest possible moment.

132. Night work of young persons in industry. — The following notes show the measures taken in 1927 to give effect to the *Washington (1919) Convention* on this subject :—

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

(b) *Application measures.*

Finland: Bill concerning the employment of children and young persons, submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 11 November 1927.

France: Decree of 20 February 1927 promulgating the Convention signed by *France* and *Belgium* on the night work of women and the Convention concerning the night work of young persons in industry, and the protocols appended to these Conventions.

France (New Caledonia): Decree of 5 October 1927 applying Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare in the form of a general regulation of conditions of labour.

Germany: Workers' Protection Bill, which contains provisions concerning the night work of young persons in industry, adopted by the Federal Council¹.

Great Britain: Bill passed by the House of Commons prohibiting the night work of young persons underground in coal-mines.

Hungary: Bill concerning the protection of children, young persons and women, adopted by the Chamber of Deputies (November 1927) and by the Upper Chamber (January 1928).

Portugal: Legislative Decree of 29 October 1927 concerning the protection of women and children.

Salvador: Legislative Decree of 9 June 1927, concerning the protection of commercial employees.

This Convention, like that prohibiting the employment of women at night, is one of

¹ Cf. footnote to page 124.

those which have received the largest number of ratifications. At the same time, the Office's hopes in this respect are not yet satisfied. Just as in the case of women, it should be repeated that ratification should be practically universal. For it is by means of laws protecting both women and children that the latter most frequently benefit. Only a few new measures were passed in 1927.

In *New Caledonia*, the Decree of 5 October 1927 (already referred to) provides that young persons under 18 years old and women may not be employed in any form of night work. By "night" is meant the period between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m.; a minimum of 11 consecutive hours rest must be allowed.

In *Portugal*, the Decree of 29 October 1927 forbids the employment at night of young persons under 18 years; an exception is allowed for *vis major* on the same conditions as those applicable to women.

In the same manner the *Salvador* Decree-Act of 9 June 1927 concerning the protection of commercial employees forbids young persons under 15 years old, or women of any age, to carry on their occupations between 7 p.m. and 5 a.m.

In the *United States*, a *North Carolina* Act concerning the night work of children which was passed in 1913 was amended in 1927. As it stands it prohibits the employment of children under 16 years old after 7 p.m., instead of after 9 p.m. as was formerly the case.

Finally, in the *United States*, where labour laws are in the hands of the separate States, the Committee on Junior Education and Employment of the National Association of Manufacturers of the *United States of America* have drafted a programme which they recommend for the adoption of State Legislatures, forbidding, among other matters, the employment of children under 16 years old in industry or commerce before 7 a.m. or after 9 p.m.

Factory inspection.

133. — The Office's Grey Report on the prevention of industrial accidents has once more shown that factory inspection is and will always be the most important instrument for securing the protection of the workers; and that for promoting industrial safety the first thing is to develop a factory inspectorate. The Grey Report accordingly contains in its draft Questionnaire suggestions as to the powers and the organisation of factory inspection services.

The progress which has to be recorded for 1927 in connection with factory inspection is not very considerable. The following measures were taken on the *Recom-*

mendation concerning general principles for the organisation of systems of inspection (1923):—

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

Austria: The 1923 Recommendation is applied by existing legislation. Supplementary measures will be taken if the economic progress of the country so allows (2 July 1927).

(b) *Application measures.*

Uruguay: Bill on factory inspection submitted to Parliament (1927).

Other measures, however, were taken by a number of States *dehors* the Recommendation.

China passed on 1 April 1927 for Hong Kong an Order on the prevention of accidents in factories, the main part of which is devoted to the organisation of factory inspection. The provisions of the Order conform with the Conference's Recommendation on factory inspection: in particular, they empower the Governor-General to issue regulations for the prevention of accidents and to confer on the inspectors the necessary powers to enforce such regulations.

In *Finland*, the Regulations governing the factory inspectorate were remodelled by an Act of 4 March 1927 which is largely based on the 1923 Recommendation. Inspectors are empowered to demand admittance to the undertakings covered, which are to be visited as far as possible at least once a year. Workers are to be allowed to have private conversations with the inspector, who is also empowered to visit any dwellings put at the disposal of the workers by the employer. The inspector can give orders which must be complied with, subject to appeal to the Ministry of Social Affairs. When the workers are in obvious danger the inspector may prohibit the continuation of the work until the cause of the danger has been removed or a decision taken in the matter by the Ministry.

In *New South Wales*, the amendments of 17 February 1927 to the Factories and Workshops Act contain in § 4 a new provision affecting factory inspectors; on their proposal the Minister can in special cases give the necessary instructions for preventing accidents and these instructions have legal effect.

In *Poland*, a Decree dated 30 July 1927 concerning the uniform organisation of factory inspection throughout the whole territory of the Republic provides for a chief inspector to assist the Minister of Labour, divisional inspectors, district inspectors, and special inspectors for certain industrial centres as well as for different classes of assistant inspectors. Candidates for positions as inspectors must have had a

thorough training, more particularly in technical questions, and practical experience. Assistant inspectors can be recruited from among the workers. In particular cases the inspectors issue orders against which an appeal can only be made administratively. When the Courts have to decide on requests made by inspectors for the infliction of fines the inspectors appear as representatives of the Public Prosecutor. In some cases they can impose fines themselves. The Polish regulations are thus in accordance with the spirit of the 1923 Recommendation: they even go further than the Recommendation on the question of the inspectors' powers.

As stated in last year's Report, *Rumania* was organising an inspection service in conformity with the spirit of the 1923 Recommendation. An Act finally adopted on the subject on 11 April 1927 provides for an inspectorate which is not only intended to enforce the provisions of labour legislation

but also to watch and promote the industrial development of the country. The influence of the 1923 Recommendation is specially visible in the provisions relating to inspectors' powers. Inspectors are empowered to issue compulsory orders in cases of immediate danger and to transmit requests for the imposition of fines to the competent judicial authorities.

The above few notes once more show the real influence exercised by the decisions of the Conference, even when they are taken by way of a Recommendation, on the development of national legislation.

Unfortunately, the Office is obliged this year, like last year, to plead the important urgent work which has been imposed on it by the Conference and the Governing Body, more particularly in the preparation of its Grey Report, as its reason for not having prepared a comparative summary of the annual factory inspection reports of the different countries.

II. Social Insurance.

134. — The year 1927 has produced important results both by way of international action and in the development of national legislation on social insurance. The following notes show in the usual way the action taken during the year on the decisions of the Conference.

Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents (1925).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Austria: submitted to the National Council.

Belgium: ratification registered on 3 October 1927.

Canada: laid on the table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927.

Finland: Bill for ratification submitted on 28 October 1927 to the Chamber of Deputies.

France: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 3 February 1928.

Greece: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 9 May 1927.

Hungary: Bill for ratification adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 27 and 28 October 1927 and by the Upper Chamber on 26 November 1927.

Latvia: Act for ratification adopted by the Saeima on 13 March 1928.

Luxembourg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Netherlands: ratification registered on 13 September 1927.

Rumania: Bill for ratification submitted to the Legislative Council.

Siam: submitted to the competent authority.

(b) *Application measures.*

Austria: Workmen's Insurance Act of 1 April 1927.

Belgium: Bill concerning workmen's accident compensation submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 14 February 1928.

Finland: Bill to amend the Workmen's Insurance Act submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 28 October 1927.

France: Bill concerning workmen's accident compensation adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 22 December 1927 and now submitted to the Senate.

Greece: Bill to amend the Act concerning workmen's compensation for accidents, adopted by the Chamber of Deputies.

Latvia: Act of 1 June 1927 concerning insurance against accidents and occupational diseases.

Recommendation concerning the minimum scale of workmen's compensation (1925).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

Siam: submitted to the competent authority (15 March 1927).

Other information.

Austria: submitted to the National Council.

Canada: laid on the table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927.

Hungary: submitted to Parliament, November 1927.

Rumania: submitted to the Officers of the Senate.

(b) *Application measures.*

Finland: amendment of the Act of 17 July 1925 concerning workmen's compensation for accidents (in preparation).

Recommendation concerning jurisdiction in disputes on workmen's compensation (1925).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

Finland: applied by Act of 17 July 1925 concerning workmen's compensation for accidents and Act of 17 July 1925 concerning the Insurance Council (12 September 1927).

Siam: submitted to the competent authority (15 March 1927).

Other information.

Austria: submitted to the National Council.

Canada: laid on the table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927.

Hungary: submitted to Parliament, November 1927.

Rumania: submitted to the Officers of the Senate.

Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants (1927).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Argentina: submitted to the competent national organisations.

Cuba: the Secretariat of Agriculture, Commerce and Labour communicated its approval of the Convention to the Secretariat of State on 26 September 1927.

Denmark: report of the Danish Delegation to the Tenth Session of the Conference officially communicated to the Rigsdag.

France: the Minister of Labour stated in the Senate on 8 December 1927 that ratification would be proposed when the Social Insurance Bill had been passed.

Germany: Ratification registered on 23 January 1928.

Great Britain: The text of the Draft Convention has been issued in a White Paper.

Hungary: Bill for ratification adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 October 1927 and by the Upper Chamber on 26 November 1927.

Latvia: Bill for ratification submitted to Parliament on 27 October 1927.

Luxemburg: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (January 1928).

New Zealand: submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: submitted to the Storting on 27 February 1928.

Salvador: referred to the competent Government authorities (22 October 1927).

South Africa: submitted to both Houses of Parliament.

(b) *Application measures.*

Finland: Sickness Insurance Bill, submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 27 July 1927.

France: Act concerning social insurance of 15 March 1928.

Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for agricultural workers (1927).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Argentina: submitted to the competent national organisations.

Cuba: the Secretariat of Agriculture, Commerce and Labour communicated its approval of the Convention to the Secretariat of State on 26 September 1927.

Denmark: report of the Danish Delegation to the Tenth Session of the Conference officially communicated to the Rigsdag.

France: the Minister of Labour stated in the Senate on 8 December 1927 that ratification would be proposed when the Social Insurance Bill had been passed.

Germany: ratification registered on 23 January 1928.

Great Britain: the text of the Draft Convention has been issued in a White Paper.

Latvia: Bill for ratification submitted to Parliament on 27 October 1927.

Luxemburg: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (January 1928).

New Zealand: submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: submitted to the Storting on 27 February 1928.

Salvador: referred to the competent Government authorities (22 October 1927).

South Africa: submitted to both Houses of Parliament.

(b) *Application measures.*

France: Act concerning social insurance of 15 March 1928.

Recommendation concerning the general principles of social insurance (1927).

Other information.

Argentina: submitted to the competent national organisations.

Cuba: the Secretariat of Agriculture, Commerce and Labour communicated its approval of the Recommendation to the Secretariat of State on 26 September 1927.

Denmark: report of the Danish Delegation to the Tenth Session of the Conference officially communicated to the Rigsdag.

Great Britain: the text of the Recommendation has been issued in a White Paper.

New Zealand: submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: submitted to the Storting on 27 February 1928.

Salvador: referred to the competent Government authorities (22 October 1927).

South Africa: submitted to both Houses of Parliament.

I.

135. — The above notes show that the two Draft Conventions adopted in 1927 are already going through the procedure for ratification in a considerable number of countries, and that one ratification has in fact been registered. The adoption by the Tenth Session of the Conference of these two Draft Conventions and a Recommendation on compulsory sickness insurance was an important stage in the international regulation of social insurance. Signs of further international developments are also to be found in the action which is being taken to create and promote international relations between national federations of sickness insurance funds, national federations of disabled workmen, and medical associations: these developments cannot but help to further the cause of international legislation.

136. *The Tenth Session of the Conference and sickness insurance.* — The Tenth Session of the Conference was attended by about 100 delegates or advisers specially nominated to take part in the Conference's work on sickness insurance. These representatives included not only persons representing Government departments dealing with sickness insurance and the employers' and workers' organisations, but also a number of experts selected from national federations of insurance institutions and from medical associations. The result was that the committee on sickness insurance appointed by the Conference was composed of 63 members.

The two Draft Conventions and the Recommendation drawn up by this Committee were adopted by very strong majorities in the Conference, the Draft Convention on sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce being adopted by 97 votes to 9, the Draft Convention on sickness insurance for workers in agriculture by 85 votes to 9, and the Recommendation on the general principles of sickness insurance by 99 votes *nem. con.*

Under the first Article of the two Draft Conventions the States which ratify them undertake to institute a system of compulsory insurance. The principle of compulsory insurance was the centre of a keen discussion which lasted over three sittings of the Conference. No new arguments were put forward, but it is interesting to note that the adversaries of the compulsory principle abandoned the old arguments of the educative value of the voluntary principle and the demoralisation caused by compulsion. Facts and figures were discussed rather than theories. The great majority of the Conference recognised that, except in very rare cases, voluntary insurance systems, in spite of their half century of experience, only covered a very small proportion of the working population, that many workers did not insure themselves either because they were naturally improvident or had not sufficient means, that voluntary insurance institutions had not succeeded in equipping themselves with sufficient resources to cover their risks adequately, and that, in short, compulsion was a necessity. The principle of compulsory social insurance has thus definitely found a place in the international regulation of labour, and it may be considered that in the future this principle will be applied by the Conference to insurance against maternity, old age, invalidity or death, and that there will be no further necessity to discuss it on theoretical grounds.

The second Article in the two Draft Conventions lays down the principle of the universality of compulsory sickness insurance, which should cover the whole body of the workers and become a normal element of the labour system. The Conference also affirmed the right of agricultural

workers to the same protection as workers in industry and commerce. Agriculture was only dealt with in a separate Convention in order to facilitate ratification.

The Conference also considered all the essential problems of sickness insurance, on which it adopted general principles and rules or indicated new tendencies in the two Draft Conventions or in the Recommendation. Thus the Conference advocated an increase in benefits and their individualisation; affirmed the increasing predominance of benefits in kind which tend to include the insured person's family; proposed that energetic and systematic action was necessary to organise the prevention of sickness; affirmed the principles that the workers and employers should contribute, that these contributions might usefully be supplemented by financial help from the State and that the insurance system should be managed by self-governing institutions in which the insured persons should be fully represented; emphasised the superiority of territorial funds more especially for securing better results from the medical service and organising a complete medical equipment in each territorial area; suggested that disputes on benefits should be settled by special tribunals, etc.

It is true that the two Draft Conventions only impose relatively small obligations on the States which ratify them, and the standards they lay down do not in fact go so far as existing legislation in many European countries. It must be recognised, moreover, that a number of points were not dealt with in the Draft Conventions. For example, there is no definite obligation as to minimum cash benefit. On a number of such points it was impossible to lay down any uniform international rule, because of the wide divergences between existing national systems and more particularly between the British system and those in most continental countries. The Conference therefore considered it preferable frankly to refrain from dealing with these aspects of social insurance in the Draft Conventions rather than to arrive at doubtful compromises and formulae which would open the door to widely different solutions and would, in effect, leave absolute discretion to the individual country.

The Recommendation goes more into detail than the Draft Conventions and really gives expression, in the form of general principles, to the results of international experience and the tendencies of modern sickness insurance. Its contents go beyond the average standards of national legislation and indicate for the different countries the lines along which further action should be taken.

The decisions adopted by the Conference are now about to be compared in each country with the national legislation, and in this process Governments and Parliaments will have to take account of the informed and strongly organised opinion

expressed not only by employers' and workers' organisations but also by federations of insurance institutions and medical associations. Special interest and importance will attach to these proceedings in countries which are considering the introduction of a compulsory sickness insurance system, e.g. Australia, Belgium, Brazil, Finland, France, Italy, South Africa, Sweden, etc., and in those others which are preparing to reform their existing systems, e.g. Austria, Chile, Germany, Great Britain, Rumania, etc.

Discussion on the action which might be taken in the different countries was started by the publication of the Office's Questionnaire in 1926, and was further promoted by the consultations which took place in preparing the Governments' replies and nominating the delegations to the Conference. But discussion has been much more active since the Conference came to an end, and an imposing number of studies and articles have already been published during the last few months.

It would be interesting to speculate as to what will become of the ideas which have thus been stirred up on this question of sickness insurance and as to how far the Conference's decisions will be translated into actual fact. The development of national social insurance systems is too much subject to political and economic influences for the Office to attempt to make any definite prophecies as to the possible or probable effects which will be produced in any individual country. However, without being guilty of any excessive optimism, the Office considers it may safely be said that a considerable number of countries will ratify the Draft Conventions. As has been already been noted, Germany registered its ratifications within a few months after the closing of the Conference, and the Office hopes that this example will soon be followed by other countries.

But, apart from the decisions it adopted, the points on which it secured agreement and the differences of opinion which still exist on particular problems of organisation, the Tenth Session of the Conference was noteworthy for its international endorsement of the principle of social insurance, and its full recognition of the function of social insurance, by way of the collective management of a considerable proportion of the national income, and of its increasing power as a means of giving the workers security and promoting the health of the people. In the Office's opinion this is the most significant aspect of the Conference's work and the surest guarantee of its influence for good on the progress of national legislation.

137. *Creation of an International Organisation of Sickness Insurance Funds.* — The Tenth Session of the Conference, if it did not cause, at any rate facilitated and accelerated, the creation of an international

organisation of sickness insurance funds and mutual aid societies. The representatives of national federations of sickness insurance funds who were included in the delegations from a dozen countries unofficially discussed during the Conference the question of establishing regular international relations between national associations of mutual aid societies or sickness insurance funds. The idea of international co-operation on these lines had already been suggested from different countries some time before the Conference, and when it was discussed during the Conference as above indicated it immediately won general approval. It was recognised that the institutions referred to have to discharge the same functions and to deal with a considerable number of identical problems in the different countries, and it was considered that it would clearly be of considerable value to devise methods for comparing the experience of the individual countries especially in matters of practical management. The representatives who discussed the question therefore agreed, with a view to expediting the formation of regular international relations, to form themselves into an organising committee and convene an international conference.

A first international conference was accordingly held at Brussels on 4 and 5 October 1927, and was attended by representatives from seventeen national federations of sickness insurance funds or mutual aid societies belonging to nine countries and responsible collectively for more than 20 000 000 insured persons.

After a short discussion, it was unanimously decided to create an international organisation, and a constitution was adopted. This constitution provides for a general meeting of delegates, an international committee and a permanent secretariat with its seat at Geneva. Since its creation the new organisation has given expression in a general statement of its policy to the two principles which are to guide its work—the principle of compulsory insurance, which it considers to be the most effective form of social insurance, and the principle of self-governing management of insurance funds by the parties concerned.

The second international conference will take place in September this year in Vienna, and will consider, *inter alia*, the following problems—sickness insurance and the worker's family, application of compulsory sickness insurance to agricultural workers, the position of sickness insurance funds in regard to the Conventions on sickness insurance adopted at Geneva in 1927.

The managing committee of the new international organisation has since its inception established regular and friendly relations with the Office which the latter will endeavour to develop. The Office will follow with special interest the work of the Vienna conference. It is noteworthy that

the first decisions of the Brussels conference on the principles of compulsory insurance and self-governing management of the funds by the parties concerned are in full accord with the conclusions of the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference, and the Office therefore hopes that the new organisation and the national federations affiliated to it will effectively help the Office to secure ratifications for its Conventions and to promote the development of social insurance.

138. *International Medical Association.* — Some reference has already been made in an earlier part of this Report to the creation of the International Medical Association. The object of this Association is to investigate the numerous problems affecting doctors and their position in the community, and in particular the relations between them and the State or the large institutions which have to deal with medical organisation for the people—sickness and invalidity insurance, medicine in mines and on railways, in factories and the big establishments in industry, commerce and agriculture. It has already been seen¹ that since its inception the new Association has taken a considerable interest in the work of the International Labour Office, an interest which has manifested itself more especially in the problems of social insurance. In March 1927 an agreement was come to between the Association and the Office for a permanent exchange of information. The Association regularly communicates to the Office the results of its investigations into medical associations and their relations with social insurance institutions, and the Office communicates to the Association its publications on social insurance and hygiene and furnishes information in reply to the requests addressed to it on national legislation and the results of its application.

The chief subject to which national medical associations and their international federation have been devoting their attention is the problem of sickness insurance. In 1927 the International Association organised two enquiries in this connection which arose out of the inclusion of sickness insurance in the Agenda of the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference. In the first enquiry national medical associations were asked to inform the Association of the replies which they had given (or would have given if the Governments had consulted them) to the Office's Questionnaire on sickness insurance. The second enquiry bore on the situation of doctors under national compulsory insurance systems. The two reports published on the results of these enquiries were discussed at some length at the second meeting of the General Council of the Association which was held at Paris at the

end of September 1927. The result of the discussion was that the General Council adopted a resolution to the effect that sickness insurance laws should expressly empower insured persons to call in any doctor they choose, and that the views of medical associations should be taken when labour laws were being prepared, especially on insurance questions.

These results of enquiries which lasted more than six months may appear somewhat slender in view of the considerable number, the importance and complexity of the problems raised by the organisation of the medical service of insurance systems. The fact is that it is difficult to secure agreement between doctors in countries in which compulsory insurance has been at work for the last 20, 30 or 40 years and doctors in other countries where the compulsory principle is still under consideration. But it can hardly be made a ground of complaint that the International Medical Association has not yet succeeded in formulating a complete programme after one year's existence. The whole situation will no doubt be further gone into at future international congresses, and the Office hopes that the medical profession will define its attitude towards the more important problems of sickness insurance.

139. *International Federation of Disabled Workers' Associations.* — The International Federation of Disabled Workers' Associations, which was founded in September 1924, held its 4th international congress at Brussels in October 1927. The Congress clearly defined the programme of the Federation, viz. to secure the re-assessment of pensions payable for industrial accidents in the light of the increase in wages and the cost of living, and the extension to the whole body of workers of legislation on workmen's compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases and of social insurance laws in general, in accordance with the provisions of existing international labour Conventions.

The resolutions adopted at the Brussels Congress are evidence of an interesting evolution in the national associations of disabled workers, which in several countries, e.g., in Germany, are tending to develop into associations of "labour pensioners", including beneficiaries of pensions payable by invalidity and old age insurance as well as by accident insurance. If this new development continues, the national associations of "labour pensioners" will become powerful associations for influencing social policy, and will have a membership of hundreds of thousands of persons, and even of millions in some countries.

In addition to the organisations whose aims and work have been referred to above, there exist of course other international associations for social affairs which are com-

¹ C.f. § 94. — Relations with intellectual workers.

posed of persons versed in the theories of labour legislation, economists and jurists: but the particular associations which have been mentioned represent above all practical experience. They include administrators of institutions which are deeply rooted in national life, representatives of insured persons, employers, "labour pensioners" and doctors, all of whom are acquainted with the workers' needs and means. These organisations are thus in an excellent position for making known the workers' aspirations and appreciating the difficulties and possibilities of carrying them out. They give expression to organised public opinion in social insurance matters, and for this reason their cooperation will be valuable to the Office, which endeavours to build up its international labour legislation on the basis of practical experience. The Office accordingly wishes success to these international associations and will endeavour to maintain and develop the good relations which it has already established with them.

II.

Development of national legislation.

140. — This increased development in international life has been accompanied by considerable improvement in national legislation and the growth of social insurance institutions. As in previous Reports, an account will be given, country by country, of the new measures which have been adopted and the various proposals under consideration, and an attempt will be made to indicate the significance of the more important events and the direction in which national action is being taken.

In the *Argentine Republic*, in spite of the decision suddenly taken in December 1926 to abolish the system of old age pensions instituted by the Act of 11 January 1924, the movement in favour of social insurance continues to be very pronounced amongst the workers. The Congress of the Argentine Socialist Party held from 9 to 12 October 1927 decided to maintain the question of social insurance on its programme, and to promote the re-establishment of the protective measures required.

The withdrawal of the general old age pensions system, though serious, has fortunately not had any ill effects on the development of the special systems of social insurance set up in favour of railway workers, bank officials and manual and non-manual workers in the public services.

In *Australia*, the Commonwealth Government is engaged in preparing a Bill to institute a vast scheme of social insurance. It will be remembered that in 1923 a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into "national insurance as a means of making provision for casual sickness, permanent

disability and unemployment." It has now concluded its labours with the publication of a final report.

The main lines of the national scheme are clearly laid down: every employed person of the age of 16 and upwards should be compulsorily insured in a single national fund, financed by a flat tripartite contribution from insured, employer and Government, and providing flat cash benefits in case of sickness, invalidity and old age (but not unemployment); medical benefit should be provided by a distinct national health scheme, no plan of which however has been yet put forward.

Regarding the class of persons to be insured, the risks to be covered and the benefits to be granted, no important controversy has arisen, but the proposals for the administration of the scheme on the contrary have excited the liveliest apprehensions of the friendly societies.

The legislator in Australia, as in many European countries, has to face the problem of the relationship between a national compulsory insurance scheme and the already existing friendly societies, i.e. between a rational system of administration designed according to theoretical considerations of material efficiency and a group of institutions which prize above all the maintenance of their independence and traditional forms (serving to arouse the loyalty of their members and render mutual aid a work of genuine comradeship), but which nevertheless present organisational defects for the purposes of compulsory insurance.

The Royal Commission, having studied the working of friendly societies in Australia and of National Health Insurance in Great Britain, was impressed by the inconvenience and expense of administration through friendly and other approved societies (for they found that in many localities several societies were operating competitively and in others none), and by the inequality of benefits from one society to another arising out of segregation of good from bad lives. Moreover, although plans for the introduction of medical benefit are not yet forthcoming, the Commission had to bear in mind the declaration of the doctors' trade union that it would have nothing to do with any scheme controlled by friendly societies: it appears that in Australia, as in Great Britain, doctors prefer to deal with the Government. Again, a national scheme could hardly be administered by friendly societies, seeing that their supervision is entrusted by the Constitution not to the Commonwealth but to the several States. The Royal Commission therefore prefer a national scheme having a single insurance fund with local branches and administered principally by civil servants: the friendly societies would be concerned only in the capacity of intermediaries between their members and the local offices, without any power of decision.

The friendly societies, to which perhaps one-third of the population to be covered by the national scheme already belong, are moving to reverse the apportionment of responsibility between them and the Government, so that they would constitute the essential machinery of administration. They contend that, as in Great Britain, all persons subject to compulsory insurance should be required to join a friendly society, for otherwise the voluntary insurance business of the societies would decay and they would perish of inanition, in spite of the expressed desire of the Government to avoid injuring them.

At the close of the year the problem had not been solved nor had the Government brought before Parliament a Bill embodying the Commission's proposals.

In the matter of workmen's compensation, Acts effecting minor amendments were passed in several of the States.

Special interest, however, attaches to a movement to set up State insurance offices. The process of evolution of Australian workmen's compensation legislation seems to follow these lines. The first Act is copied from the British Act of 1906, and so leaves insurance to the discretion of the employer. Successive amendments are made for the purpose of increasing the rate of compensation. The liabilities imposed on the employer become so heavy that insurance becomes indispensable, in the interest of both the employer and the workmen, and consequently it has been rendered compulsory since 1915 in one State after another throughout the Continent. The insurance companies are obliged to charge higher rates of premium corresponding to increased compensation rates; moreover, they hesitate to accept bad risks. It is then that the establishment of a State fund is advocated in order to provide insurance at the lowest cost and so mitigate the burden on employers and to secure that the most hazardous trades can obtain protection. In 1927 an Act was passed to enable the New South Wales Government to undertake workmen's compensation insurance, and State insurance offices have already been established for several years in Victoria and in Queensland. This movement, however, is still meeting with opposition in Western Australia, where in 1926 and 1927 Bills to institute State insurance were rejected.

In *Austria*, as was pointed out last year, the general scheme drawn up some time ago aims at the establishment of two insurance systems, each of which is to cover sickness, invalidity, old age, death, accident and unemployment but the one of which is to apply to manual workers and the other to non-manual workers.

Insurance for non-manual workers has been in operation since 1 July 1927, under an Act of 29 December 1926. All employees without distinction are protected

during the whole of their career against the different professional and social risks. The total contribution, half of it being met by the insured and half by the employer, is fixed at 13.7 per cent. of the salary for the first year, but it will require to be increased slightly in the future if the finances are to be kept on a sound basis without changes being made in the arrangements regarding benefits. The system is now organised, but is continually evolving. Already Parliament has had submitted to it numerous amendments intended to simplify in certain respects the 1926 Act without affecting its principles.

Insurance for manual workers is less advanced. It will be remembered¹ that an Act of 1 April 1927 laid down the general lines of insurance for workers in industry and commerce and in domestic service against all risks, by adding to the existing branches (sickness, maternity, accident, unemployment) provisions for insurance against invalidity, old age and death. The Act itself did not fix the date at which these latter provisions should come into force, but empowered the Government to apply them "when the number of unemployed shall have diminished to about 5 per cent. of the total number of workers, and when the development of external trade, internal transport and agricultural production shall indicate an improvement in the general situation such that the economic life of the State can bear an increase in the charges imposed by the introduction of the pensions scheme." Meanwhile, two important sections of the Act of 1927 are in full force. The reorganisation of the sickness insurance funds, which, in addition to their own activities, will be responsible for the local administration of workers' pensions, is practically finished. In Vienna—to quote only one example of the concentration voluntarily accepted by those concerned—this has resulted in the creation of a general sickness insurance fund which will cover about 500,000 insured persons, besides the members of their families. The other section of the Act at present in force deals with the grant of pensions to insured persons who are over 60 years of age and fulfil certain other conditions laid down by the Act.

The Federal Parliament will soon have to undertake the big task of completing the system of insurance for agricultural workers. It will be necessary to unify the system of maternity and sickness insurance, hitherto dealt with differently by provincial laws, and to incorporate it in the pensions scheme for agricultural workers. The Bill introduced for this purpose by the Government follows the principles on which industrial workers' insurance is based to the extent that conditions of agricultural labour and country life permit. The system of

¹ C.f. 1927 Report, p. 169.

cash benefits which is proposed does not seem sufficiently generous and is not accepted by organised agricultural workers, but the broad outlines of the scheme, it would seem, might be approved by Parliament.

In *Belgium*, the object has been both to adapt benefits to the decrease in the purchasing power of money and to develop or improve the existing systems. While various legislative measures have provided a partial remedy for the decline in the value of pensions for accidents and old age, and a special Act has provided for workmen's compensation for occupational diseases, the remodelling of the legislation concerning accidents and the amendment of the special insurance scheme for non-manual workers remain under consideration. Public attention is concentrated largely on the extension of the legal obligation to insure so as to cover the risks of sickness, maternity and invalidity. The movement in favour of compulsory insurance, strengthened by the decisions of the Tenth Session of the Conference, has led to the introduction of a Bill on which discussion is at present concentrated, and which it may be hoped will be considered by Parliament at an early date.

With regard to industrial accidents, the grants made to the holders of pensions which have decreased in value have been replaced by an indemnity the effect of which is that compensation is now calculated on a presumed wage of 6,000 Belgian francs. The law also awards an indemnity based on a fixed wage of 4,500 francs to persons receiving no compensation for accidents which occurred prior to 1 July 1905, the date of the promulgation of the Act on liability for industrial accidents. The expenditure which the Act of 28 December 1926 will involve is estimated at ten or eleven million francs per year. It is offset to the extent of 40 per cent. by a State subsidy, while the rest is covered by a tax on accident insurance premiums or on the amount of the contributions to the common bankruptcy guarantee fund.

The public authorities have also continued their efforts to improve and complete the means of covering the occupational risks to which the workers are exposed. The Government has announced its intention of urging Parliament to pass as soon as possible the Bill introduced on 14 February 1928 by the Minister of Labour and Industry.

The old age and death insurance systems have been amended by an Act of 20 July 1927 on the increase of pensions. By this Act a free increase is made in the pension over and above the benefits available under the general system of old age insurance and the special system applicable to miners. It also increases the scale of benefits fixed under these systems and modifies the con-

ditions on which they are granted. The increase in the pension is not intended to restore automatically the original purchasing power of the pension. It is limited in amount, may not exceed 720 Belgian francs per year, and is only granted to pensioners who are actually in need of it. The object of the measure, the cost of which is borne entirely by the State, is simply to make the contribution of the public authorities proportionate to the decrease in the value of money, at least in the case of those insured persons whose situation is specially precarious. The position is the same with the Act of 1927 which places on the State an increase of 50 per cent. in survivors' and orphans' pensions.

In view of the opposition displayed to the application of the non-manual workers' old age and death insurance Act, the Government set up, as explained in last year's Report, a commission to consider whether certain provisions of this Act should be modified or repealed. The commission has collected the opinions of those concerned, and, as the enquiry is now finished, the Government hopes to be able to ask Parliament to decide on the new system to be applied to non-manual workers at a sufficiently early date for it to come into force on 1 January 1929. Until that date the application of the Act is suspended: but the obligation to pay contributions remains in force, and the provisional rules guaranteeing to non-manual workers the benefit of the general system of insurance against old age and death during the transitory period have been extended to 31 December 1928.

Amongst the important proposals under consideration those concerning sickness insurance deserve special mention. Whereas hitherto measures for covering sickness, maternity and invalidity risks were based principally on the development of mutual aid societies, they are now to be directed towards the organisation of compulsory insurance, the institution of which was made the object of a vigorous campaign in 1927.

Basing its case on the fact that the principle of compulsory insurance against sickness was approved by the Chamber of Representatives before the war, the Socialist Party, after the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference, conducted a strong publicity campaign for obtaining the immediate passage of legislation on compulsory sickness insurance at any rate. There existed at the time only one Bill on compulsory insurance, which had been submitted in 1922 and had been re-introduced in 1925 by Mr. Pécher, Liberal member of Parliament. This Bill was in agreement with the findings of the committee set up in 1919, on the initiative of Mr. Wauters, then Minister of Labour, to consider the organisation of social insurance. New proposals were put forward on 12 July 1927 by Mr. Heyman, then a member of the Catholic parliamentary party, who has since

become Minister of Labour in the ministry formed by Mr. Jaspas at the end of 1927. These proposals are to the effect that the application of an Act setting up compulsory insurance should be entrusted to the existing mutual aid societies on the condition that they have at least 200 members and that at least 75 per cent. of their expenditure is covered by the contributions of the members.

Although the Socialist Party and the Socialist mutual aid societies consider that the only rational basis of insurance is to be found in the organisation of territorial funds, they have nevertheless accepted Mr. Heyman's proposals in order to expedite the adoption of a system making it legally compulsory to insure. Accordingly, the National Union of Socialist Mutual Aid Societies has decided to develop its action in favour of social insurance, and to levy a special contribution for this purpose. Mr. Heyman's proposals having been accepted by the Catholic social insurance groups, the mutual aid societies set up by the Christian-democrat and Socialist parties, which are much the strongest of such societies, have jointly requested the Minister of Labour to press for the immediate adoption of the proposals which he put forward some months before joining the ministry. These proposals are strongly attacked by all those who fear that the conditions with which mutual aid societies will have to comply in order to be allowed to share in the working of the scheme—minimum number of members and 75 per cent. cover for their expenditure—will mean the disappearance of the factory funds which have developed to a considerable extent during the past two years. But it seems to be recognised that compulsion is necessary in order to guarantee the covering of risks which voluntary insurance, if left to its own resources, could not accept. It is therefore permissible to hope that a Bill will soon be drawn up to organise compulsory sickness, invalidity and maternity insurance.

In *Brazil* no decision has been taken on the Bill for the establishment of a labour and social insurance code. The members of the Legislation Committee, having regard to a motion submitted to the Chamber on 9 August 1927 by a number of members of the Reform Party, considered it more expedient to deal separately with the different branches of social insurance. During 1927 Parliament was asked to examine various Bills concerning workmen's compensation, sickness insurance and old age pensions.

With regard to workmen's compensation, a Bill prepared by the Legislation Committee is at present under consideration, and it would appear that the discussion should soon be concluded. In July and August 1927 important amendments were proposed, notably to assimilate occupational diseases

to accidents, and to provide for the settlement of disputes by simplifying procedure and extending the benefit of free legal aid to all workers injured by industrial accidents.

On 11 September 1927 there was submitted to the Chamber a sickness insurance Bill laying down that the employer must insure his staff, whatever the nature of their employment—industrial, commercial or domestic. The Bill would guarantee the medical and pharmaceutical treatment required by the assured's state of health, as well as a daily payment to make up in part for the wages lost during his illness. The application of the scheme would be entrusted to the existing friendly societies, on condition that they had at least 200 members, and to the local or factory funds which would have to be created. The expenditure would be met by contributions of the insured persons, compulsory levies on employers and fresh taxation.

As soon as its contents became known, this Bill was strongly opposed by industrialists, who maintained that those responsible for the Bill had based it exclusively on European legislation and had not taken sufficient account of the special conditions existing in the country. In a protest to the Chamber of Deputies, the Brazilian employers urged that the social legislation already in force, which had been drawn up in abstract and often impracticable terms, had been a failure, and declared that the adoption of the Bill would involve a considerable increase in the cost of living without any compensating advantage.

The operation of the railway workers' old age pension Act was extended by a Decree dated 20 December 1926 to cover dockers and manual and non-manual workers in sea and river shipping undertakings. The Act came into force on 12 October 1927. Subsequently two further Bills were submitted to the Chamber of Deputies to extend the Act to cover persons engaged in the following services: tramways, power and lighting, telephone, telegraph, wireless telegraphy.

In *Bulgaria*, the period during which the operation of the 1924 pension insurance Act was postponed expired in July 1927, so that the three branches of insurance set up by the Act (sickness, accidents, invalidity and old age) are now in force. The system of the free choice of doctor by the insured person seems to present certain dangers for the financial stability of the sickness insurance scheme. A committee of experts has been appointed to consider the means of remedying this defect, and to draw up a uniform plan for the medical treatment of insured persons. The administration of the insurance scheme and the funds is undertaken by the State without any direct participation of the parties concerned. Except in the case of accident insurance, the cost

of which is met by the employers, the State meets a third of the cost of insurance. The fact that the State both finds and administers the funds may create some delicate situations. For example, the tendency to retain the State's quota of the total contribution, with a view to long term investments for purposes not directly connected with insurance, might, when the number of pensioners increases, restrict the amount of ready money available for social insurance purposes. A greater measure of financial autonomy might perhaps be calculated to make better provision for the essential requirements of social insurance.

In *Canada* an important step forward has been achieved in 1927 by the adoption of an old-age pensions Act, but the introduction of reformed workmen's compensation legislation in the province of Quebec has had to be delayed on account of excessive insurance costs.

As suggested in last year's Report, the defeat in the Senate of the old-age pensions Bill did not mark the end of this measure. The Liberal victory at the General Election in the autumn of 1926 was interpreted by the Senate as an endorsement of the Bill, and it was accordingly re-introduced and passed early in 1927. A non-contributory pension of \$240 a year, reducible by the amount of the pensioner's income in excess of \$125, is payable at the age of 70. The operation of the measure depends on its acceptance by the provinces individually; provinces which agree to grant pensions are reimbursed for half their expenditure by the Dominion Government. So far only British Columbia and the Yukon Territory have taken the legislative action necessary to bring the measure into effect, but there is a growing movement in the other provinces to follow suit.

The new Workmen's Compensation Act of Quebec, passed in 1926, which was designed to bring the legislation of Quebec more or less on a level with that of the other provinces, should have come into force on 1 April 1927. The date however has been delayed for a year, owing to the fact that the premiums demanded by the insurance companies for underwriting the risks created by the new Act were so high as to threaten the existence of the smaller industries. The larger industries have formed a mutual insurance association, and the Quebec Government is investigating means of solving the problem and will perhaps set up its own insurance fund like the other provinces.

In *Chile*, the initial stages of establishing the compulsory sickness and old age insurance system have been uphill work. Reference was made in last year's Report to the nature of the difficulties encountered in the application of the Act on the subject, —lack of sound technical bases for the

system, opposition of the employers, distrust on the part of the wage-earners.

The public authorities, however, were determined to maintain in operation a piece of social legislation which in the short space of two years has given manifest proof of its utility and asked the Austrian Government to lend them the services of social insurance experts: and Dr. Karl Mumelter and Dr. Hans Voglsang accordingly went to Chile.

Dr. Mumelter has endeavoured to bring home to the public the necessity of maintaining by compulsory insurance the protection of the workers, whose living conditions are difficult and whose wages are so low that they can take no steps to provide for themselves.

The experts have specially emphasised the necessity of unifying at an early date the various branches of insurance, of placing employers and workers on a footing of equality and of freeing the responsible bodies from political influence and entrusting their administration to a properly trained staff.

It would appear that the proposals of the Austrian experts are likely to exercise a considerable influence on the development of Chilean legislation.

In *Cuba*, an Act on old age pensions for seamen was passed during 1927.

The Act covers persons of both sexes employed in maritime and river shipping undertakings, in export houses, shipyards, docks, and State shipping services.

The benefits paid are invalidity and old age pensions. They are proportionate to the average wage earned by the insured person during the two years preceding his request for a pension. The proportion is 75 per cent. when the average monthly wage is less than 100 pesos, and 65 per cent. when the wage is greater than that sum. The old age pension is granted after the assured has had twenty years' service and has reached the age of 50.

The financial resources are provided by a regular contribution from the insured (3 per cent. of the wage), and by a single contribution equal to one month's wages payable in twenty-four monthly instalments. The employers are obliged to make a regular payment equal to 1.5 per cent. of the total wages paid. The ordinary resources of the scheme are supplemented by various contributions, including a share in the proceeds from the sale of wrecks and the transference of fines imposed on the staff of establishments covered by the Act.

The administration of the scheme is in the hands of the public autonomous seamen's pensions fund at Havana.

In *Czechoslovakia*, the political situation is dominated by the question of social insurance. The Government scheme, which had been announced a considerable time

ago and which was to modify the manual workers' insurance scheme of 1924, was laid before the Chamber in October 1927. The Government proposes that the following classes of persons should be exempted from the obligation to insure—home workers, seasonal workers whose work does not last more than ninety days per year, and persons below 16 years of age: this means that a considerable proportion of the total number of insured persons is to be struck out. Another means by which the Government proposes to effect an economy is by reducing by about one-fifth the cost of invalidity and old age insurance, this reduction to be effected by cutting down contributions and working on the basis of a 4 ½% permanent interest instead of the 4% average basis under the original Act.

Other proposals deal with sickness insurance, in particular the joint representation of insured persons and their employers on the managing bodies of the sickness funds and the abolition of the unions of sickness funds.

As soon as these proposals were known they became the subject of keen discussion. The economic and political groups which had suggested that the Government should revise the workers' insurance scheme approve the objects of the proposals, although they criticise them on some points and ask that they should be completed on others. On the other hand, the workers' industrial organisations, with the exception of the Christian-Socialist Unions, demand that the proposals should be withdrawn *in toto*, and reject both the proposed restriction of the scope of application of insurance and the proposed reduction in the scale of contributions.

It has not been possible in 1927 to complete the reform of the non-manual workers' insurance scheme. Meanwhile the sickness risk of non-manual workers is covered by the general 1924 scheme, and the invalidity, old age and death risks come under the special 1906 system. The question now is to combine the two separate branches of insurance into one single system by adapting the benefits of sickness insurance to the special needs of non-manual workers and eliminating the last vestiges of the war from the pension insurance scheme. If the Bill prepared by a committee of experts appointed by the Government is adopted, about 250,000 non-manual workers are likely to be protected on a much wider scale than in the past. For example, non-manual workers who become insured for the first time would receive an increase of about one-fifth in their pensions. The proposals of the committee of experts should shortly be laid before Parliament.

The miners' insurance scheme, which it would not yet seem certain will be maintained as an independent system, suffers from a disproportion between the number of pensioners who in all probability will

rapidly increase and the number of active insured members. The insured persons' contributions and the employers' contributions do not completely cover the pensions at present being paid and are still more inadequate for providing the necessary reserve funds for pensions which are falling due. Steps will very soon have to be taken by the legislature to put the miners' insurance scheme on a stable financial basis.

The collective insurance scheme against industrial accidents which was introduced forty years ago is distinct from the manual workers' insurance system of 1924. It does not at present protect either the staff of small industrial or commercial undertakings or agricultural workers (except in Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia) other than those who are employed on mechanically driven machinery. The Ministry of Social Affairs is preparing a Bill which would extend accident insurance to all industrial undertakings as well as to workers in agriculture and forestry.

In *Denmark*, it has been necessary to revise the social insurance legislation in order to adjust expenditure to the present value of the Danish crown, and four Acts have been passed reducing contributions and lowering the scale of benefits.

In regard to accident insurance the premiums paid by the employers have been lowered and the cost of all benefits has been reduced by 15%.

As regards sickness insurance, a considerable reduction in expenditure has been effected by reducing the public subsidies, abolishing the repayment of part of the expenditure on medicaments, authorising insurance institutions to refrain from granting entirely free medical treatment in future, and tightening up supervision.

Similar amendments have been introduced in the system of invalidity insurance—reduction in the employers' and workers' contributions, cutting down the scale of pensions, and simplification in administration.

Lastly, a considerable decrease in expenditure has been effected by amending the old age pensions Act. These amendments have lowered the annual income limit below which pensions are payable, thus shutting out all persons whose income is above the new figures.

The saving effected by the above measures is estimated at about 22 million crowns per year (on 141.7 millions spent in 1924).

In *Finland*, public opinion is still occupied with the question of compulsory sickness insurance. In September 1927 the Bill which was summarised in last year's Report was submitted to Parliament by the Government. In the statement issued by the new Cabinet on taking office in December

it was stated that the Government desired to continue the work of its predecessors, and that it was intended to complete the system of sickness insurance by a system of old age pensions.

In *France*, an event of outstanding importance has taken place—the compulsory social insurance Bill, which has been before Parliament since 1921, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 14 March 1928, after seven years of technical investigations and consultations with employers' and workers' and doctors' associations. The new Act, which has a wide scope, establishes compulsory insurance against sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age and death for 8 ½ million workers, confers rights to benefits on 13 million beneficiaries, and will require annual resources up to 5 milliard francs. This measure will fill a most serious gap in French legislation, which has hitherto protected the workers very inadequately, as voluntary sickness insurance has been little developed and the 1910 workers' and peasants' old age and invalidity pensions Act has hardly been applied.

At the same time work on improving the existing systems has been continued:—revalorisation of pensions for industrial accidents and general remodelling of the workmen's compensation Act, increasing miners' pensions and unifying the railway workers' pensions systems.

The position of workers injured by accidents whose allowances had been fixed prior to the monetary devalorisation was remedied by an Act of 19 July 1927, which increased the compensation payable to disabled persons whose degree of disablement is greater than 40 per cent. The method by which the cost of compensation is met remains unchanged by this Act. It is still met by the payment of a contribution by the employers, based either on the insurance premiums, or, should the employer not be insured, on the capitalised value of the compensation for which he is responsible. Further, in the opinion of the Social Insurance and Welfare Committee of the Chamber of Deputies, the Act of 19 July 1927 merely marks a stage on the way to a further re-adjustment of devalorised pensions in regard to the cost of living. On 20 December 1927 a further Bill supported by more than 200 members belonging to all shades of opinion was introduced, the object of which is to effect an improvement in the present system of increasing pensions, and to extend it to the victims of accidents whose degree of disablement is lower than 40 per cent, to agricultural workers, to domestic servants and to Algerian workers who are injured by accidents.

Particular interest was aroused by the Bill on compensation for accidents, which was one of the the most important Bills passed by the Chamber of Deputies in 1927 and the beginning of 1928. Although the necessity of improving the system of com-

pensation under the Act of 1898 was unanimously recognised, the proposals of the Social Insurance and Welfare Committee of the Chamber gave rise to vigorous objection. Certain economic groups saw in the increase of benefits contemplated in the Bill not merely an excessive increase in the burdens on French industry, but also a disregard of the principle of occupational risk, which lies at the foundation of the right to compensation for industrial accidents. The Bill as a whole, strongly supported by the workers' organisations and the Federation of disabled workers, was nevertheless adopted by a very large majority in the Chamber of Deputies, without any opposition to its essential provisions.

The Bill as passed by the Chamber gives legal protection to all workers under a contract of labour, abolishes the waiting period for pensions for temporary disablement, increases the amount of the pension to 75 per cent of the wage, raises the basic wage standards, increases the pensions in case of permanent disablement or death, and sanctions the right of the insured person to occupational re-training and prosthetic and orthopaedic appliances. The coming into force of the Bill, which is at present before the Senate, would represent a considerable advance on the present state of things.

Under the Act of 17 July 1927 an allowance originally limited to the year 1927 was granted to pensioners of the Miners' Provident Fund. This allowance has been extended and consolidated by the Act of 29 February 1928, which has incorporated it in the pension itself. The extra expenditure is met out of the common or "solidarity" fund, which will now play a predominant part in the payment of pensions. Under the original system of the 1894 Act the contributions of the miners and their employers were capitalised in individual accounts, and in 1914 the common fund which had just been created absorbed approximately 40 per cent of the money required for the payment of pensions. At the present time, the services which this fund is required to perform are so great that very nearly 75 per cent of the contributions, including the State contribution, have to be earmarked. The important rôle thus assigned to the common ("solidarity") fund is obviously due, in part, to the obligation of the fund to make up the devalorisation which affected the capital out of which pensions were to be paid, but it also arises from the development of the objects of insurance. Originally limited to far-off risks, particularly old age, the insurance system of to-day guarantees the payment of minimum benefits much above, in the case of invalidity or premature decease, the value of the contributions paid. The common fund distributes among the insured persons not in receipt of benefit the expenditure arising from the payment

of the guaranteed minimum to workers whose risks materialise prematurely, and this is the explanation of the predominant part which it is now called upon to play.

Further, the Chamber of Deputies was required to take a decision on the staff pensions system of the great railway companies. Under the Bill which was unanimously adopted on 31 January 1927 and referred to the Senate, provision is made for the fusion, as from 1 January 1933, of all the existing funds, which are to be replaced by a single organisation administered by a tripartite commission. This Bill, therefore, will at the same time unify the various systems under which the railwaymen's funds are at present constituted, and will provide for the co-operation of the insured persons in the management of the fund in one of the rare cases where this principle had hitherto been applied in a very piecemeal and sporadic fashion.

Germany completed the classic branches of its system of social insurance in 1927.

Sickness insurance for seamen was introduced. The shipowner's obligation towards seamen who fall sick or are injured existed in Germany, as in other maritime countries, before the introduction of social insurance for industrial workers. When sickness insurance became compulsory seamen were excluded from the operation of the system, as the shipowner's obligations were considered to guarantee benefits equivalent to those provided by the insurance system. Subsequently, however, sickness insurance developed considerably, by increasing benefits in kind, emphasising preventive measures, and extending medical assistance to the insured persons' families, and the total benefits available through insurance became considerably greater than those which the shipowners had to provide. An Act of 16 December 1927 therefore placed seamen on a footing of equality with other wage-earners. Members of the crew of German sea-going vessels remain, as in the past, covered by insurance against accidents, invalidity, old age and death, and will now, whatever be their wages, have to belong to the maritime sickness insurance fund. The benefits to be paid to seamen under the new scheme are practically the same as those provided under the general scheme.

The most notable innovation is the transformation effected in medical assistance for the family of the insured person. This benefit is optional in the case of workers in industry, commerce and agriculture, but it is compulsory for seamen. The total contribution is fixed at 2.25 per cent. of wages, two-fifths being met by the shipowner and three-fifths by the seamen. The maritime sickness insurance fund is organised with the institution which administers workmen's compensation for seamen, which is itself connected with the seamen's invalidity fund, so that the various bodies

which cover seamen's risks are grouped together, though the autonomy of each of them is safeguarded. The sickness insurance fund will not create a branch in each port. The seaman, in whatever part of the country he may be located, will apply to the local fund, which will procure for him the benefits of the maritime insurance scheme. The shipowners' obligations continue in force, but they cease the moment the seaman leaves his vessel to disembark on national territory. The risk of sickness is thus incorporated in the collective insurance system and will now be its fundamental element.

The three branches of the social insurance code seem now to be stabilised.

In 1926 the period for which maternity benefits are to be paid under the sickness insurance scheme was brought into line with the Convention for the protection of women before and after childbirth, the ratification of which by Germany was registered during 1927. An Act of 15 July of the same year raised to 3,600 *Reichsmarks* the annual salary limit above which non-manual workers are exempt from compulsory insurance, and laid down that in calculating benefits and contributions account must be taken of the salary up to 10 *Reichsmarks* per day. The cost of sickness insurance is estimated at 1,600 million for 1927, an increase of 160 per cent. as compared with the 1913; contributions have followed the movements of wages; and the number of persons receiving benefits under the sickness insurance scheme has increased by about 13 millions since the war, of whom 10 million represent the families of insured persons. During the period of 40 years which has elapsed since the introduction of sickness insurance, the expenditure on cash benefits has trebled, while expenditure on medical treatment is seven times greater than in 1885.

In the case of accident insurance, the return to a system of pensions fixed on the basis of the individual wages of the injured persons is now an established fact, and the increased development of payments in kind represents a considerable improvement as compared with the pre-war scale. The scope of the accident insurance system is still not so extensive as under the Convention on workmen's compensation. In a Government report called for by the *Reichstag* in December 1927 it will be considered how the staff of small industrial and commercial establishments may be enabled to benefit by collective insurance without new insurance institutions having to be created. The expenditure on accident insurance has increased from 227 millions in 1913 to 323 millions in 1927: the increase is merely nominal, since the average charge for industry as a whole was in 1913 1.45 per cent and in 1926 1.44 per cent. of the total wages paid.

The number of persons receiving pensions under the invalidity, old age and

death insurance scheme has increased threefold since 1913, although the scope of the scheme has not been enlarged. This increase is due partly to the effects of the war and partly to the rationalisation of industry and the difficulty which workers over a certain age experience in finding employment. Despite the increase in the cost of this branch of insurance, which has also trebled since 1913, the equilibrium between receipts and expenditure is merely temporary, and to maintain it in the future increased contributions will be required.

In all branches of insurance the benefits are now once more on the pre-war scale. The next objective appears to be the simplification and rationalisation of management. The past year has not witnessed any fundamental change in the existing organisation, but increased cohesion has been secured by the establishment of fresh connecting links between the various branches.

An Act of 8 April 1927 unified the system of election of representatives of the insured and of employees on the insurance institutions and controlling authorities. All the primary elections, i.e. those of delegates to general meetings of the insurance funds and the trade accident associations, and those of authorised representatives for the salaried employees' insurance branch, were held with few exceptions before the end of 1927. All the other elections, e.g. those for members of the committees of the sickness insurance funds, the invalidity insurance institutions, the employees' insurance fund, take place immediately after the other elections, and in both cases those elected will remain in office for five years. The position is thus considerably simplified; as in both cases the elections take place at the same time, all branches of insurance will be free from all electoral preoccupations for several years.

Other steps are, however, being taken with a view to the co-ordination of social insurance. Instructions given by the Federal Minister of Labour on the work of social insurance in the sphere of public health are aimed at organising collaboration between all the branches of social insurance. A joint campaign against such social plagues as tuberculosis and venereal disease is to be conducted by all social insurance institutions. In each region these institutions, in agreement with the other institutions working for the improvement of public health, are to draw up a health programme and contribute materially and morally to its execution. The co-ordination of this department of the work of insurance appears to reveal two tendencies which are becoming increasingly evident in German social insurance,—the determination to direct insurance efforts more towards the prevention of illness and the desire to promote the rationalisation of insurance, not by the abolition of existing institutions but by their methodical adaptation to fresh responsibilities freely assumed.

In *Great Britain* there has been no legislation on social insurance since the passing of the Contributory Pensions Act in 1925, but the subsequent years have been occupied with bringing that Act into operation. No Bill has yet been introduced to carry out the recommendations of the Royal Commission on National Health Insurance, and meanwhile opposition to the proposed changes is being raised by the interests threatened.

The Contributory Pensions Act insures 16,500,000 workers and their wives for a pension in old age and also provides pensions for the widows and orphans of deceased workers. Between January 1926, when the Act came into force, and 30 September 1927, pensions have been awarded to 230,000 widows, 335,000 children of widows and orphans, and 225,000 insured persons and their wives aged 70 and upwards. In January 1928 the final stage in the application of the Act was reached, when about 450,000 pensions at age 65 became due to persons who had paid a prescribed number of contributions and to their wives.

The Government is preparing a Bill to give effect to some of the recommendations made early in 1926 by the Royal Commission on National Health Insurance, but has already announced that neither of the fundamental changes recommended by the Commission, viz. the abolition of insurance committees, and the formation of a national pool to pay for specialist medical treatment out of a portion of the surplus funds of approved societies, will be carried into effect, so that the Bill will deal only with administrative questions of relatively minor importance.

The proposal to abolish insurance committees endangers the right of insured persons to govern themselves. Medical benefit is now financed entirely by insurance funds and should be administered by representatives of the insured. The majority of the members of insurance committees are at least in theory, representatives of the insured, but if the administration of medical benefit were entrusted to a committee of the local authority, the representatives of the insured might be in the minority. The insurance committees have not willingly accepted abolition, and perhaps the Government has been the more ready to spare them, at least temporarily, because it is not yet ready to re-organise local government and create new machinery for administering medical benefit.

The approved societies strongly oppose the pooling of their surplus, which threatens the principle adopted when national health insurance was established, viz. that any group of persons might associate for the purpose of insurance and might secure for themselves whatever surplus of income over expenditure they could from good management and careful selection of risks.

Early in the year the results of the second quinquennial valuation of the assets and liabilities of approved societies was announced. A surplus of £ 42,000,000 was disclosed, of which £ 27,000,000 was made available for the provision of additional benefits during the next five years. 97 per cent. of the insured population belong to societies having a disposable surplus. The remaining 3 per cent. are in societies found to be in deficiency or to have a surplus too small to provide additional benefits; the deficiencies were made good out of reserves. The societies with the least favourable experience were generally those in whose membership persons engaged in heavy manual labour predominated. The trade union approved societies, many of whose members are engaged in exacting or unhealthy industries, are opposed to such inequality; they consider that equal contributions should provide equal benefits for all insured persons.

It is not likely that the next valuation will yield so large a surplus, for not only was the rate of contribution reduced in 1926, but the loss of contributions due to the continuance of unemployment coupled with extra expenditure entailed by the free prolongation of insurance for the unemployed militates against saving. The coal stoppage of 1926 caused an increase of 9 per cent. in the cost of sickness benefit; the increase was as much as 20 per cent. in a certain group of societies. Many of those thrown out of work by the stoppage being unable to obtain unemployment benefit or outdoor poor relief, naturally endeavoured to draw sickness benefit. The societies tried to cope with the situation by sending members suspected of malingering before medical referees: between 400,000 and 500,000 were so referred, only 40 per cent. being found incapable of work. After this experience the Ministry of Health took steps in 1927 to prevent its recurrence. Hitherto an insured person has been entirely free to change from one doctor to another without notice as often as he likes; thus, if a certificate of incapacity cannot be obtained from one doctor it is possible to change to another doctor in the hope that he may be more lenient. The new regulations, however, oblige the insured person to obtain the consent of the old and new doctors or to give a fortnight's notice before changing, and it is expected that this formality will hinder persons from changing without sufficient motive.

In *Greece*, several measures have been taken chiefly to consolidate some of the existing institutions.

By Decrees dated 6 September and 15 October 1927, the various welfare measures in favour of officials and vehicle drivers respectively have been confirmed and codified. A few days later, on 25 October 1927, a Decree-Act was adopted by

Parliament, which confirmed, with slight modifications, the Act of 11 July 1925 on conditions of work in the tobacco industry and the insurance of the workers therein. In the part of the Act relating to insurance provision is made for the creation of a central fund for the insurance of workers against sickness, accident, invalidity, old age, death and unemployment. The resources are constituted by a three-fold contribution from the insured persons, their employers and the State.

In a memorandum communicated on 11 December 1927 to the Government, the employers in the tobacco industry drew the attention of the authorities to the fresh burdens which the application of the new measures would throw on the tobacco industry. The greater number of the large employers also thought that they had taken on their own initiative adequate steps to protect their workers, and they disputed the efficacy of compulsory measures. In their opinion, compulsory insurance ought to be limited to small establishments which are unable to afford sufficient guarantees for the payment of compensation in the case of accidents which happen to their employees.

In order to appreciate, with all the impartiality desirable, the weight of the criticisms directed against social insurance by the manufacturers, it would be necessary to be acquainted in detail with the number and extent of the welfare measures due to the initiative of the employers. The latter, however, to judge by the admittedly somewhat fragmentary information in the possession of the Office, scarcely goes beyond accident compensation through private insurance companies. There would appear to be few establishments which assist their workers in case of sickness, while the wages earned by the great majority of unskilled workers are scarcely sufficient to enable them to make individual provision for themselves.

In *Hungary* measures for reforming the sickness and accident insurance systems were taken in 1927, with effect from 1 January 1928. Under the new Act the extension of sickness insurance to domestic workers, which was decreed in 1919, is confirmed. There is no wage limit for manual workers, but non-manual workers whose annual salaries are more than 3,600 *pengos* are not covered. There is no restriction on benefits in kind, which are also granted to members of the insured person's family. On the other hand, sick pay, which had formerly been 3/4ths of the basic salary, is reduced to 3/5ths payable after five weeks of loss of earning capacity. The distribution of the contributions as between employer and insured person remains unaltered. The contribution is not to exceed 6 or 7 per cent of the basic salary, according as the system of wage groups or the actual wage is taken as basis.

Pensions for the workers injured by industrial accidents and for their survivors are considerably increased, the pension for total loss of earning capacity being 2,400 pengos a year.

Sickness insurance continues to be organised in principle on the territorial system, the district funds being placed under the national fund, which is responsible for accident insurance. Important limitations are placed on the autonomy of the national fund and its local organisations. The staff of the insurance institutions is appointed by the Government, and State supervision applies both to the legality and the expediency of the decisions of the autonomous bodies, so that very little initiative is left to the persons concerned. At the time of the adoption of the reform of the sickness and accident insurance systems, the Government informed Parliament that a Bill on invalidity insurance and old age pensions for industrial and commercial wage-earners was being prepared.

In *India*, the Workmen's Compensation Act, which came into force in July 1924, has been working satisfactorily. Doubts had been entertained whether legislation of this kind, originally intended for Western countries, could be successfully adapted to meet the conditions of a land where the workers are migratory and generally illiterate and doctors are few. The results of the first eighteen months' working, however, show that little difficulty has arisen in the administration of the Act and that it is meeting the needs for which it was designed. It is true that only 20,000 applications were dealt with, but the number was increasing rapidly in the latter part of the period, as the workmen became aware of the existence of the Act. It was found that many of the applicants were low-paid workmen, and that their poverty was not a serious obstacle in the way of securing their rights. Nevertheless, it is considered that the trade unions, by assisting members with their claims, might find a valuable opportunity of demonstrating the advantages of organisation.

In the *Irish Free State*, the enquiry into the health insurance system, which was begun in 1924, has now been completed, but it is still too early to expect legislative action to give effect to the proposals for amendment.

It will be remembered that the Committee of Enquiry, in an interim report, recommended the unification of all approved societies into a single national society. The final report deals with the subject of medical benefit. It is perhaps surprising that health insurance in Ireland provides cash benefits only, but the absence of medical benefit is explained by the fact that there is a free public medical service not only for the destitute but for those who cannot afford to pay for medical treatment,

which group, of course, includes a considerable proportion of insured persons.

The Committee were divided in their views on the subject of medical benefit. The majority proposed to provide medical treatment as an insurance benefit and to raise the rate of contribution to cover the increased cost; at the same time they advocated the improvement of the public medical service. These recommendations would result in the existence of two medical aid services: the insurance service consisting of treatment by a general practitioner and the provision of drugs, and the public service, which is of a complete and unlimited character. It is evidently an anomaly that the uninsured should receive gratuitously greater benefits than the insured obtain in virtue of contributions; moreover, in the case of insured persons already entitled to public medical aid, the two services overlap. It is clear that the Committee regards this rather as a provisional solution: it looks forward to a comprehensive public medical service available to the entire working-class and their dependants, to be established when financial considerations permit.

In *Italy*, the Labour Charter of 21 April 1927 laid down a broad programme of insurance and welfare measures, the main lines of which it is thought necessary to reproduce.¹

Welfare is an important manifestation of the principle of collaboration. The employer and the worker must contribute proportionately to their means to welfare charges. The State, through the medium of the corporate organisations and the occupational associations, will, so far as possible, co-ordinate and standardise the system and the various welfare institutions.

The Fascist State proposes:

- (1) to perfect the system of accident insurance;
- (2) to improve and extend maternity insurance;
- (3) to set up a system of insurance against occupational diseases and tuberculosis, as a first step towards a general system of insurance against all diseases;
- (4) to perfect the system of insurance against involuntary unemployment;
- (5) to adopt a special insurance system for endowing young workers.

It is for the workers' associations to protect the interests of their members in administrative and judicial matters connected with accident insurance and social insurance in general. In collective agreements, whenever technically possible, mutual benefit funds for sickness will be set up, fed by contributions from employers and workers, and administered by representatives of both, under the control of the corporate organisations.

The above provisions constitute the foundation of the various reforms which are to complete the system of accident insurance and establish sickness insurance in the near future.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the reform made in the administration

¹ Arts. 26, 27 and 28 of the Labour Charter of 21 April, 1927.

of the accident insurance system by the Act of 5 December 1926 which came into force in 1927. The withdrawal of the concession granted to insurance companies and private funds was not effected without keen protest in financial and industrial circles. The work of reorganisation was nevertheless continued in 1927. It only dealt with the administrative side, but it is believed that the work of improving the accident insurance system will not stop there. There is scope for improvement through the extension of the Act to cover certain kinds of establishments which do not come under the compulsory system, as well as through an increase in benefits. In particular, technical experts call for the substitution of pensions for a single capital payment. Their researches will undoubtedly help to bring about this essential reform.

During the period under review the Italian Government has been chiefly concerned with the question of establishing a firm basis on which a system of sickness insurance could be founded. The high rates of sickness and death from tuberculosis and the numerous occasions on which public opinion has been stirred by the extent and gravity of this disease have had the natural effect of causing the Government's first efforts to be directed towards an improvement in this sphere, and compulsory insurance against tuberculosis was in fact instituted by a Decree-Act dated 27 October 1927.

Some surprise was at first felt that compulsory insurance should be limited to a single disease. It was thought to be out of harmony with the idea of general sickness insurance on which are founded the principal systems in force in the various European States as well as those in the new Italian provinces. The preface to the Act is, however, reassuring. It is made clear that the Italian system differs from a general sickness insurance system merely in outward characteristics. Compulsory insurance against tuberculosis is to serve primarily as a basis for preparing a system of general sickness insurance.

Part of the funds required is to be advanced by welfare institutions and in particular by the national social insurance fund. The annual cost of compulsory tuberculosis insurance, which is to be covered by contributions from the insured persons and their employers, will amount to approximately 304,000,000 *lire*, of which 216 million *lire* will be absorbed by medical services.

Immediately after the Tuberculosis Decree was promulgated, the Government decided to appoint in the near future a mixed commission to examine the question of general insurance against all forms of illness.

In *Japan*, the process of bringing the Health Insurance Act into operation has not gone forward without friction and protest.

This resistance, however, was to be expected; for the introduction of a first measure of compulsory insurance usually arouses great opposition.

Though the Japanese Health Insurance Act was passed in 1922, earthquakes have delayed the putting of it into force. Benefits began to be granted on 1 January 1927. The first few months' working revealed a number of defects in the Act, and aroused discontent—for opposite reasons—among workers and employers in general; the workers wanted a larger scope and larger benefits for a smaller contribution or none at all, and the employers suggested increasing the State subsidy, and excluding non-manual workers, some even proposing the abolition of the Act. The doctors complain that the amount of work entailed has greatly exceeded expectations.

The Government appointed a committee, representative of the interests concerned, to investigate the various complaints. The committee's report issued in October did not recommend any fundamental changes. It did, however, propose that part of the cost of medical aid should be borne by the individual patient, that non-manual workers earning over 1,200 *yen* a year should be excluded only at their own request, and that each health insurance society should be allowed to fix its own rate of cash benefit.

In *Latvia*, the most important event of the year was the complete remodelling of the accident insurance legislation. The Act formerly in force dated from the time when the country formed part of the former Russian Empire. It excluded agricultural workers, withheld compensation for occupational diseases and, in the event of total loss of earning capacity, merely provided for pensions equivalent to two-thirds of the wages formerly earned.

Considerable improvements have been made by the new Act. It applies to all workers with the exception of certain kinds of intermittent workers. Not only is the risk of accident covered, but also the occupational diseases enumerated in the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference and ratified by Latvia. Benefits include, in addition to the necessary medical aid, a cash allowance amounting to 70 % of the insured person's average daily wage, and even 75 % in the case of railwaymen. In the case of invalidity a pension is paid amounting to 70 % of the daily wage in the case of total loss of earning capacity (80 % in the case of railwaymen) or the total wage if the injured person requires the constant attendance of a third person. The total cash benefits paid to survivors must not exceed the sum payable for total incapacity.

Insurance administration is completely altered. Instead of a single occupational group of employers two corporations are

constituted, one for agriculture and river fisheries and the other for industry, commerce, transport and maritime fisheries. The constitution of the Pensions Committee, which has to fix pensions in all cases of loss of earning capacity above 10 %, is particularly noteworthy. The Pensions Committee, which consists of a representative of the Ministry of Social Welfare, a member of the managing committee of the corporation and a doctor chosen by the managing committee, is completed by a delegate from the Central Trade Union Office and a doctor appointed by the Sickness Funds Union.

The decisions of the International Labour Conference in 1925 have not been without effect in this forward step taken by the Latvian Government.

In *Luxemburg*, the year 1927 was marked by the publication of various regulations on points of detail in connection with the Act of 17 December 1925, which constitutes the social insurance charter. Further, an Act was passed on 21 July 1927 to mitigate the effects of the fall in the purchasing power of the currency on accident pensioners. According to this Act pensions for an accident which occurred prior to 1 January 1927 cannot be based on a wage lower than 6000, 7000 or 8000 francs according to the consequences of the accident. The extra cost involved is to be met as to two-fifths by the State and as to the remainder by the accident insurance association.

In *Mexico*, insurance and welfare legislation has so far been confined to the provisions enacted by the various Federated States for accident compensation, the Federal Act of 17 August 1925 on civil pensions, and measures for supervising private insurance institutions and mutual aid societies (Act of 27 May, 1926). In 1927 there was a noticeable movement in favour of organising social insurance. A request was made to Parliament by the Federal Council of the Trade Union Federation to the effect that attention should be given to the inadequacy of the laws in force, which offered no real guarantee to the workers in the case of sickness, invalidity, old age or unemployment, and a Bill on sickness, invalidity, old age and unemployment insurance has since been laid before Parliament.

In the *Netherlands*, attention has been concentrated on modifying the existing legislation and especially on the compulsory sickness insurance Bill. The most important modifications contemplated for improving the accident insurance system are to make compensation payable for occupational diseases as well as for industrial accidents and to regulate the work of the factory doctors. The Government also has the intention of making certain

changes in the old age and invalidity insurance systems with a view to raising the wages figure below which insurance is compulsory. The compulsory sickness insurance Bill agrees in its main lines with the draft which was summarised in last year's Report and will shortly be discussed. It may be added that during the debate on the 1927-28 budget the Minister announced that the question of unifying the different forms of insurance would be discussed in Parliament as soon as the States-General had had the opportunity to decide on the above Bill.

In *New Zealand*, during the year under review, no event of importance took place in the social insurance world. Nevertheless, signs are not wanting that the Government has in mind a reform of its present legislation on pensions with a view to converting them to a contributory basis—a movement similar to that which is occurring in Australia.

In *Norway*, the Government has appointed a committee of experts to investigate the means of reducing the cost of sickness insurance. The committee has abstained from making any recommendation as to whether existing legislation should be remodelled, but has pointed out that an economy of about 10 000 000 crowns could be made by amending the provisions on the classes of insured persons, contributions and benefits. The committee has suggested, *inter alia*, the following changes—that the wages limit should be reduced for non-manual workers from 6,000 to 4,000 crowns or that the contributions of such workers earning high salaries should be increased, the effect of which would be to free the communes from having to contribute to their insurance; that the number of insured persons who can receive the maximum benefits should be reduced; that benefits should be decreased for insured persons without dependants; that the rate of benefit should be cut down for the first few weeks of illness and in cases of slight illness; that all dental benefits should be abolished; and that maternity benefit and funeral benefit should be reduced. It is considered that, if these economies were effected, in addition to the economies made by the new scales for the repayment of medical expenses and travelling expenses, the cost of sickness insurance would be reduced by about one third.

Poland gave last year a further proof of its preference for compulsory insurance. In 1920 a sickness insurance Act was put into force which was uniform for the whole territory of the Republic and applicable to the whole wage-earning population. Free medical assistance is henceforward guaranteed to 4 ½ million insured persons and members of their families. The constitution of the sickness funds on a territorial and

inter-occupational basis has been completed, except in the rural districts in the East where the organisation of the medical service encounters special difficulties. In the case of industrial accidents insurance it was pointed out in previous Reports that a considerable measure of uniformity had been effected by extending to the old Russian territory the system in force in the old Austrian districts: this measure, except for certain classes of agricultural undertakings, has abolished the system of the employer's individual responsibility for the consequences of industrial accidents.

Poland's new and important contribution to social insurance is its scheme of invalidity and old age insurance. In 1926 two insurance schemes, the one dealing with manual workers and the other with non-manual workers, were drawn up by the Minister of Labour and Social Affairs. While the manual workers' insurance scheme is still being considered, the scheme for non-manual workers has been sanctioned by the President of the Republic and is being applied throughout the whole of Poland as from the beginning of 1928. The scheme covers wage-earning persons who are intellectual workers, for invalidity, old age and involuntary unemployment, and provides benefits to their survivors. Sickness and accident risks continue to be covered by the general insurance scheme against sickness and industrial accidents, which applies both to manual and non-manual workers. The obligation to insure is imposed on all non-manual workers between 16 and 60 years of age, irrespective of their sex, nationality or the amount of their salaries. For the first five years the invalidity and old age insurance scheme will draw its resources from an 8 % deduction from the insured persons' salaries. The assured's contribution will vary, according to the amount of his salary, between 40 % and 60 % of the total contribution, the employer's contribution varying inversely to the same extent. Subsidies from public funds are not provided for. Insured persons who become incapable of carrying on their occupation and have contributed for at least 60 months to the funds will receive an invalidity pension. The pension age is 65 years: however, pensions may be paid to men as from their sixtieth year and to women as from their fifty-fifth year if they have paid 480 or 420 monthly contributions respectively. The amount of the pension is two-fifths of the pensioner's salary, and is increased by a supplement for each month's contribution after the first 120 months and for each child below 18 years of age whom the pensioner has to maintain. The other benefits provided for are—widows' pensions, orphans' pensions, medical assistance to insured persons, lump sum indemnity to insured persons and their survivors. The insurance scheme is worked by four territorial institutions which are required to belong to the Union of Non-

manual Workers' Insurance Institutions which has its headquarters at Warsaw. The putting into force of this non-manual workers' insurance scheme represents a most important stage in the generalisation and unification of social insurance in Poland.

In *Rumania*, the Committee which was to draw up a draft social insurance scheme met at the end of 1927. The work of this Committee is very difficult, because at present different social insurance systems are at work in the different provinces. The 1912 Act, for example, with the several amendments which have since been made to it, is in force in the old Kingdom and in Bessarabia, while the Hungarian Act of 1907, with the changes made in it subsequently to the Union, governs social insurance in Transylvania and Banat, and still other provisions apply in the Bukovine. The terms of reference of the Committee accordingly are to unify the social insurance scheme for the whole country. The other instructions given to the Committee by competent representatives of the Government are—that the obligation to insure should be extended to the whole body of wage-earners in industry and commerce—that agricultural workers, independent workers and persons in the liberal professions should also be brought within the scheme—that strict and special principles should be laid down for each branch of insurance as to the manner in which its funds are to be provided, the funds for accident insurance to be provided solely by employers, while in sickness and maternity insurance the employers and insured persons should contribute equally, and in invalidity and old age insurance equal contributions should be paid by employers, insured persons and the State—and that the medical service of the scheme should be improved, and be based on a proper selection and adequate remuneration of the doctors to be employed.

In *Russia*, the insurance institutions have succeeded in including almost all the whole body of persons to whom insurance applies and have made a big effort to collect from the employers the contributions owing to them. A number of legislative measures taken towards the end of 1927 have prepared the way for the introduction of compulsory insurance in rural undertakings of an industrial type and the institutions which the U.S.S.R. maintains abroad.

The financial position of the funds is still somewhat straitened, chiefly owing to the considerable increase in expenditure, the continual lowering of the average scale of contributions and administrative difficulties. In order to put the finances on a sound basis, Soviet legislation has been amended so as to bring more uniformity and strictness into the methods of the institutions' expenditure and to give the

funds a means of closer control over insured persons. For securing the first of these objects the law has divided the funds into six classes based on the average wages of the workers and the degree of industrialisation in the different districts. For each of these classes maximum scales have been fixed for cash benefits in cases of temporary incapacity and invalidity and fixed scales have been laid down for unemployment benefit and extra benefits (funeral expenses, allowance for baby linen and nursing bonus). Moreover, the conditions on which relief is to be given for temporary incapacity and unemployment have been more clearly defined, and the rules governing the insurance of seasonal and temporary workers have been made more strict.

For effecting a closer control of insured persons and preventing malingering the law has changed the mode of according sick leave, which was previously granted by the public health authorities. Effect has been given to the numerous complaints of the funds that the right to accord sick leave was exercised without regard to the financial requirements of the insurance system. Towards the middle of last year the funds began to collaborate in the control of sick leave themselves.

These various measures, combined with a reduction of about 20 per cent. in costs of administration anticipated for the current year, will still leave a deficit of about 25 million roubles on the budget proposals of 946 millions for 1927-28. In spite of these financial difficulties the managing bodies of the insurance system have nevertheless decided to increase by about 80 per cent. the sums appropriated to unemployment insurance. They consider that, if the qualifying period is shortened and the period during which benefits are payable is increased, the number of unemployed persons to whom relief is given can be raised from 500,000 to 725,000.

In the *Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes*, social insurance has not yet made much headway, but it is steadily if slowly being developed. The Central Workers' Insurance Institute is endeavouring to co-ordinate the work of the district institutions and to develop convalescent homes for the treatment of frequent cases of long illness. The fact that contributions are much in arrears has particularly hampered the activities of the sickness insurance scheme. There are still two stages to be negotiated before the 1922 Act has produced its full results—to extend sickness insurance to agricultural workers and to put into force invalidity and old age insurance for all wage-earners.

In *South Africa*, a Commission has been sitting since the beginning of 1926 to examine and report upon non-contributory old-age pensions and upon a system of

compulsory insurance against sickness, accident, death, invalidity, old age, unemployment and maternity. The first report of the Commission, issued in 1927, dealt with the first item only. It was found that there was very great need of State assistance for the aged and invalids. The Commission has consequently recommended that non-contributory pensions should be instituted without delay.

South Africa is faced with peculiar difficulties in setting up social insurance schemes, on account of the different standards of living of the variety of races composing its population. In the case of non-contributory pensions, the recommendation is that not only Europeans but Asiatics and persons of mixed origin should be eligible; negroes, however, should all be excluded, for, although a section of the native population live in the towns under conditions very similar to those of Asiatic workers, yet the vast majority live under a tribal organisation, and it is not practicable to establish a statutory distinction between the two groups.

In *Spain*, the enquiry into voluntary sickness insurance made by the National Welfare Institute has enabled the progress of the mutual insurance movement, which is most marked in the Catalonian industrial centres, to be clearly seen. It would appear that the future development of insurance in Spain is likely to be centred on the question of the medical assistance to be furnished to insured persons. This would also appear to be the direction in which the activities of the National Welfare Institute, which supervises and encourages sickness insurance institutions, are moving.

Particular attention was devoted by the Institute in 1927 to the problem of child upbringing, which is of such importance for Spain. The researches of the Institute into the question of medical care of mothers led to the drafting of a compulsory insurance scheme, largely based on the provisions of the Washington Convention. Keen interest was aroused by the scheme among those interested in social questions in Spain, this being due to the anxiety caused by the extremely high rates of infantile sickness and mortality. Among other provisions, the scheme provides for compulsory insurance, irrespective of age, nationality or family responsibilities, for all female manual and non-manual workers who come under the Act of 10 March 1919 on workers' pensions. The object of the scheme is to provide the necessary medical care, and to guarantee the payment of an allowance during the rest periods preceding and following childbirth. The cost of maternity insurance would be covered by a three-fold contribution from the insured persons, their employers and the State. The application of the system would be entrusted to the provincial funds set up under the Act of 10 March 1919.

In *Sweden*, the revision of the legislation on voluntary sickness insurance has been checked by the rejection by the Chamber of Deputies of the Government proposals for re-organising the insurance system in force. This event marks the last of the endeavours which have been made to maintain the principle of voluntary insurance and at the same time harmonise the law and practice of voluntary insurance with the demands and needs of the working classes. During the debate in the Chamber of Deputies the Minister for Social Affairs made it clear that if the Government's proposals were rejected it was to be anticipated that future proposals for reform would be in the direction of compulsory insurance.

Two years ago *Switzerland* revised its Federal Charter and created a constitutional basis for compulsory insurance for old people and orphans. In last year's Report reference was made to the work being done by the Federal Social Insurance Office for drawing up the Act which was to apply the new schemes and to the political difficulties which would be encountered in any endeavour to impose new taxation for the purpose of providing the State contributions to them. The Office understands that the preliminary investigations, and in particular the investigations into the private insurance and relief institutions for invalidity, old age and death, are now completed and will shortly be made public. The same difficulties remain in regard to financial organisation. The impossibility of securing by popular vote confirmation of the measures contemplated by the public authorities will probably delay for a number of years a definite solution of this important social problem.

Considerable progress has been made with sickness insurance. Reference was made in last year's Report to the decisions taken by the Cantons of Schaffhausen, Thurgau and Zurich to introduce compulsory sickness insurance or to empower their communes to do so. In pursuance of a decision taken to this effect Zurich Town issued on 5 October 1927 an Order making sickness insurance compulsory as from 1 January 1928 for a very considerable proportion of the population. The significant thing in this reform is that its primary object is to protect the public health. Not only is treatment by doctors, surgeons and dentists provided for, but the benefits include free supply of medicines and drugs. Moreover, mothers who nurse their children themselves for 15 weeks are not only provided with medical treatment but are entitled to a special allowance. The compulsory insurance scheme is worked by the local sickness funds, which, in addition to their new duties, may continue to carry on insurance for cash benefits. The costs of the scheme are covered by contributions from the insured persons (without any com-

pulsory contributions from their employers) and by considerable subsidies from public funds.

Compulsory insurance is thus gradually becoming general in German Switzerland. In point of fact, the principle of compulsory sickness insurance is at present adopted by the Cantons of Appenzell, Basle Town, St. Gall, Schaffhausen and Thurgau, and in a very considerable number of suburban or rural communes and industrial or commercial centres belonging to the Cantons of Berne, Grisons, Lucerne, Schwyz, Ticino, Uri, Zurich and Zug.

In the *United States* some progress in the extension of workmen's compensation is to be observed. Determined efforts are being made to introduce non-contributory old-age pensions; of compulsory insurance little is heard. The trade unions, following the same tendency as was manifest in the creation of labour banks, are beginning to enter the field of commercial life insurance.

The movement to increase workmen's compensation so as to bring it more nearly abreast of the cost of living resulted in the amendment of legislation in many States. Workmen's compensation laws now exist in 43 States and three Territories; there are still five States (Arkansas, Mississippi, N. and S. Carolina, Florida) without such laws, but Bills will be brought forward in early sessions.

The Federal Bill to provide injured harbour workers with compensation, which was passed into law in March, came into operation on 1 July 1927. Prepared by the trade union concerned in close collaboration with the American Association for Labour Legislation, this law embodies the high standard of benefits set by that of New York State, providing two-thirds of wages in case of total incapacity or death, full medical aid and artificial limbs, and vocational rehabilitation; insurance is compulsory with any company or institution authorised to undertake insurance in the United States. The central administration of the Act is entrusted to the Commission which already administers compensation for employees of the Federal Government; local administration is in the hands of 14 deputy commissioners who have charge of as many districts, having power to investigate accidents and settle claims.

Measures to provide non-contributory old-age pensions—always the next piece of social insurance legislation, at least in English-speaking countries, to be introduced after workmen's compensation—are slowly but surely winning their way through the legislatures and round the constitutions of States in all parts of the country. In 1927 two more States, Colorado and Maryland, enacted such laws. Since the American Association for Labour Legislation drew it up in 1922, the Standard Bill on non-contributory old-age pensions has been passed

by 11 legislatures, vetoed by the Governor in three States, and found unconstitutional in one, so that it became law in six States and one Territory (Colorado, Maryland, Montana, Nevada, Wisconsin, Kentucky, Alaska). Moreover, in three States commissions appointed to study the question have reported favourably to the institution of pensions, and four more have just appointed commissions.

The American Federation of Labor has established a life insurance company with a capital of \$700,000 subscribed by trade unions and their members. It is organised on commercial lines, and will sell both individual and group insurance. It began operations early in 1927. The Electrical Workers have established a similar company.

In *Uruguay*, the workmen's compensation and old age pensions Acts are working normally. In 1927 the financial position was so favourable under the latter Act that it was possible to increase the pensions very considerably.

The above short review would appear to show that social insurance has never been in a more flourishing position. Insurance institutions suffered from the effects of the war and the post-war economic crises, but they are now gradually re-establishing their financial position as exchange and economic conditions are improving. The difficult years in which all efforts had to be concentrated on avoiding bankruptcy are being followed by a period of vigorous development.

The positive results secured in 1927 are considerable. The more important of them may be briefly summarised as follows:—establishment of compulsory sickness insurance for seamen in *Germany*; institution of compulsory insurance against tuberculosis in *Italy*; creation of a system of insurance against invalidity, old age, death and unemployment for non-manual workers and intellectual workers in *Poland*; adoption of a general system of non-contributory old age pensions in *Canada*; extension of the principle of compensation at the employer's expense to occupational diseases in *Belgium*; organisation of a general sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age and death insurance system for the whole body of workers in *France*; complete re-modelling of the accident insurance system in *Latvia*; and in *Hungary* re-organisation of sickness and accident insurance.

But more numerous and important still are the projects which are being prepared or have already been submitted to Parliament. Reference will only be made here to those initiated by Governments. In *Australia*, the Royal Commission set up in 1923 has published its final report which is in favour of compulsory insurance against all risks. The *Austrian Government* has sub-

mitted to Parliament a draft federal insurance scheme for agricultural workers. In *Belgium*, Parliament has before it, with a view to the institution of compulsory sickness and invalidity insurance, several Bills which will no doubt soon be added to by a Government Bill. In *Czechoslovakia*, compulsory accident insurance will probably be extended to small industries and agricultural undertakings. In *Finland*, the Chamber is being asked to take a decision on a draft compulsory sickness insurance scheme. In *Italy*, the Government has recently appointed a commission to lay down the main lines for a general compulsory sickness insurance scheme. The *Hungarian Government* is preparing a Bill on compulsory sickness, invalidity and old age insurance for workers in industry and commerce. The *Polish Ministry of Labour* is considering a project for compulsory invalidity and old age insurance. *Rumania* will probably soon set up a single system of compulsory sickness, invalidity and old age insurance in place of the existing system. In *Spain*, the National Welfare Institute has completed a draft for compulsory maternity insurance. And in *South Africa*, a committee is investigating the possibility of establishing a national compulsory insurance system against sickness, accidents, invalidity, old age, premature death and unemployment.

It will be seen that the words "compulsory insurance" figure in all the references made to the above countries: it is significant that the recent Acts and the Bills which are being discussed or prepared are based on the compulsory principle, which is winning ground in all continents and was laid down internationally at the last Session of the Conference. There are hardly any adversaries of compulsory social insurance left, or, at any rate, the superiority of the results of this system is now practically undisputed. The compulsory principle is no longer opposed on grounds of principle or theory, but only by arguments of practical expediency based on financial or economic difficulties of the moment. The principle, in fact, is accepted, only endeavours are being made to postpone its application for some further time. Moreover, any resistance which is being made to the principle is almost everywhere collapsing, and at present there are 200 systems of compulsory insurance in operation in the world—general systems and special systems for seamen, miners, agricultural and non-manual workers, not including unemployment insurance legislation and special systems for officials.

Compulsory insurance, too, is widening its circle of insured persons and gradually covering the whole body of workers. National legislation no longer specifies particular branches of economic activity or classes of workers, but is more and more defining its field of application in simple formu-

lae which impose the obligation to insure on the generality of workers.

In spite of this tendency to extend its scope, however, insurance is making slow progress in agriculture, and there are comparatively few countries which have compulsory insurance legislation for agricultural workers. The Office hopes that further action will be stimulated by the Draft Convention on sickness insurance in agriculture adopted at the last Session of the Conference, and that there will be further progress to record in this direction in the next few years.

Besides widening its scope social insurance is improving its internal organisation, which is everywhere being coordinated or, to employ a current word, "rationalised". But the action being taken in this direction varies according as it is an old system which is being improved or a new one which is being created.

The old systems which were built up gradually carry the stamp of the economic, political and social conceptions prevailing at the times they were introduced or amended, and reflect the strength of the employers' and workers' organisations and political parties which assisted in their construction. Such a mass of additions and amendments have been made to them by legislation and administrative rules that their machinery has become cumbersome and extremely complicated, composed of disparate elements without any coordination between them and difficult and costly to operate. To reconstruct them requires both care and perseverance on the part of the Governments, who find it difficult to alter long established customs and practice.

The task is no less delicate and the difficulties just as great in instituting new compulsory insurance systems. The voluntary insurance funds defend themselves and claim that their organisation and sometimes their privileges should be maintained. Often the only course open is to give them satisfaction, at any rate partial satisfaction, in order not to raise a host of formidable adversaries against the principle of compulsion or expose the enforcement of new legislation to defeat.

A great deal, however, has been done, and the Office is glad to note that the compulsory insurance systems created since 1920 in Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Russia and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom or recently prepared in such countries as Australia, France and South Africa, give evidence of a real desire for rationalisation. These different systems are largely comprehensive, and either bring all insured persons and all the different risks under the same institutions or, if they still divide insurance into separate branches, establish organic connection between them so as to coordinate their action and obtain the maximum result at the minimum cost.

Rationalisation, coordination or unification do not mean, as it has too often been wrongly claimed, interference by the State or the development of bureaucracy, the diminution of responsibility or the weakening of initiative. All this internal reconstruction of insurance has been accomplished, or will be accomplished, without diminishing (except in Hungary) the autonomy of the insurance institutions and the participation of the parties concerned in their management, two principles which were unanimously confirmed at the last Session of the Conference.

The evolution of benefits in sickness insurance is noteworthy for the predominance being given to benefits in kind, the development of the medical service, which is employed not only for the benefit of the insured person but also for the members of his family, and the greater efforts to organise the prevention of sickness. There are still difficulties and sometimes clashes in the relations between the sickness insurance funds and the doctors, and in some countries, especially those where compulsory sickness insurance dates from recent times, the doctors are only adapting themselves very slowly to the practice of concluding collective agreements and sometimes vigorously insist on the maintenance of their individualistic traditions.

The benefits in pension insurance, whether accident or old age insurance, have been seriously affected by the financial crises in many countries. The institutions' reserve funds have been almost annihilated by inflation, and insured persons who have paid contributions throughout the whole of their active lives have found that the pensions they obtained, either before or during the inflation period, on reaching the age limit or becoming incapable of work have depreciated in purchasing power to such an extent as to be almost valueless. The only course is to re-assess these pensions, but it is difficult to decide how the considerable resources which would be required for the purpose are to be obtained. If it is suggested that they should be carried on the country's budget, the tax-payers immediately protest that taxation is already heavy enough. If it is suggested that the money should be provided by the active members of the insurance fund and their employers, the workers reply that their wages are inadequate and that they are opposed to increasing their contributions, while the employers affirm that their expenditure for social services has reached, and even exceeded, the maximum of what is possible. In the end there must be a compromise: subsidies have to be provided from public funds and an increase has to be made in the contributions from insured persons and their employers, if even a gradual and inadequate re-assessment is to be effected. There is much more to be done on this point: the consequences of inflation will have to be borne by the

present generations of pensioners, insured persons, employers and tax-payers.

There are few, if any, new ideas for the distribution of the cost of sickness insurance. The principle of contributions by the worker and by the employer fixed in relation to wages is practically universally and definitely accepted. But the question whether the State should also contribute has been dealt with in different ways, both as regards the principle itself, the form of its application and the proportion of the State's contribution, and it is hardly possible to discern any special tendency in present developments in the different countries.

Considerable discussion continues on the burden on industry of social insurance charges in countries where employers consider that such charges are excessive. The protests which are raised seldom result in any reactionary changes in existing legislation. But big economies have been effected in Denmark and are proposed in Norway by decreasing the scale of benefits.

The Office will take its share in assessing the charges imposed by social services. Its investigations, the origins and developments of which were described in last year's Report, are being pursued, and the preparatory work so far done has been submitted to the national departments concerned for their observations, and the Office hopes to be able to publish in 1928 a first volume of statistics on the charges imposed by social insurance and relief in Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain and Poland.

The total figures will perhaps be considered enormous by some readers. On the whole the resources necessary for operating a complete insurance system against all the different risks represent an increase of from 15 to 20 per cent. in the wages actually paid to the workers, according to the standard of the legislation in the particular country. This no doubt is a big proportion of the total remuneration of labour, but it is by no means excessive, in fact is indispensable and perhaps in all the circumstances inadequate in many cases.

Consideration of national legislation in the different countries shows that the compensation for the loss suffered is always only partial and often very small, and that insured persons are frequently obliged to rely on public relief. In these circumstances action should be taken to increase rather than diminish the scale of benefits. Moreover, no other system can, with the same resources, offer benefits equivalent to those furnished by social insurance. Commercial insurance is not open to the great majority of workers, whose wages are too low to enable them to pay the high premiums required by private companies.

The Office considers that the superiority of the results secured by collective management of the portion of wages employed for covering the risks concerned is beyond any question. In view, therefore, of the record of 1927's achievements, the Office can contemplate the future of social insurance with confidence, in the knowledge that the Conference and the Office will have taken an important part in the creation of that future.

III. Wages.

141. — As the Conference is aware, the Office has constantly devoted attention to the essential problem of wages. It is, however, also aware that detailed studies of wages based on international comparisons are exceedingly difficult, because the statistical methods used in the calculation of wages vary greatly, not merely from one country to another, but frequently within a single country. The Office took a first step towards arriving at international standardisation of such methods at the Conferences of Labour Statisticians held in 1923, 1925 and 1926. With a view to obtaining regular and comparable information, it also undertook a monthly enquiry into the wages paid to workers in certain industries in various capitals, and on the basis of that enquiry it has made certain comparisons of real wages. The Office fully realises that the method adopted is, in some respects, open to criticism. The number

of occupations dealt with is somewhat small, and only occupations where time-rates are paid are included. The choice of the "basket of provisions" as the measure of the purchasing power of wages involves neglecting other elements of consumption, the cost of which does not always and in all countries vary at the same rate as the price of foodstuffs. Moreover, the "basket of provisions" can only contain articles of regular consumption in all capitals, and thus does not provide a satisfactory standard for those countries where the staple foods of the working classes are largely different from those in most other countries. Even after making all the necessary allowances, however, it can be claimed that the level of real wages in the various countries is not inadequately reflected by the enquiry. The method has been recognised by experts as the best hitherto devised. This view is confirmed by the study of the question

of the international comparison of real wages which the International Institute of Statistics undertook at its last meeting at Cairo. The resolutions adopted after consideration of a report submitted by Mr. Michel Huber, Director of the General Statistical Department of France, approve the methods used by the Office, both as regards the comparability of the wage statistics, and as regards the use of only a part of the total expenditure in order to measure the purchasing power of wages. The Office will, however, in collaboration with experts of the national statistical departments, continue to study how the system adopted for the enquiry can be improved.

Experience acquired in the study of real wages has shown that for certain industries at any rate it is impossible to arrive at a satisfactory international comparison of wages without going into the details of their composition. This was one of the principal conclusions arrived at by the enquiry into the conditions of work in coal mines. Miner's wages are composed of widely different elements, the relative importance of which varies from one country to another. This applies more particularly to allowances in kind, such as coal supplied free and housing accommodation provided by the management, and also the benefits of social insurance. All these elements must be taken into account if an accurate comparison is desired. This also applies to other industries and particularly to agriculture. The resolution of the International Institute of Statistics rightly emphasises how necessary it is to take actual earnings as a basis in international comparisons of real wages regarded as a measure of the standard of life of the workers.

The importance of wage statistics was fully recognised by the International Economic Conference. The Office drew up for submission to the Conference a report on the standard of life of workers in the various countries, which was mainly based on the results of its monthly enquiry. The report proved to be of great interest. The Conference found that, whatever might be the special questions which it was asked to consider, it could not leave out of account the problem of wages, which is closely bound up not only with the problem of the workers' standard of life but also with the problems of costs of production and the distribution of national income. The effect of industrial combinations, trusts and cartels on wages, for example, requires close study. Again, scientific management cannot be considered without regard to the proper adjustment of wages to changes in industrial organisation and methods of production. Changes of this kind cannot produce the desired results unless, as the resolution of the Conference puts it, care is taken "not to injure the legitimate interests of the workers". The resolutions adopted by the Economic Conference lay

stress upon the value of all up-to-date wage statistics for effective and co-ordinated production. The Conference accordingly asked the International Labour Office to continue to collect information on wages.

The movement in favour of the fixing of wages by collective agreement has attained considerable success, especially since the war. As the currency has been stabilised in the various countries, the sliding scales previously used to adapt wages to fluctuations in currency value have lost their importance. In most countries it is now desired to fix, for as long a period as possible, wages corresponding on the one hand to the workers' needs and on the other to what the various industries can bear.

The problem of establishing a new equilibrium between prices and wages in a new stabilised currency is engaging the attention of a number of countries. Italy, for example, has created special machinery to effect the necessary adjustment—inter-trade union committees in each province composed of representatives of the industrial organisations and placed under the direction of a central committee. The work of these committees is to adjust prices to the new value of the *lire*. Retail prices were first brought into line and other measures, e.g. rent control, were taken, and then workers' wages were adjusted to the new cost of living up to a maximum reduction of 20 %.

The problem is made still more difficult by the fact that the economic upheaval which occurred as a consequence of the war, and the events which followed it, has radically altered the respective levels of wages in different occupations. The labour disputes which have continued to prevail in a number of countries bear witness to the instability of wages. Attention may be drawn in this connection to the controversies which have taken place on the wage policy of the trade unions. The trade unions have been accused, especially in the case of industries working for a protected market, of having forced wages up beyond the limit which allows of a satisfactory level of employment and the fixing of prices corresponding to the general interests of economic life. It would be desirable to investigate carefully, country by country and industry by industry, whether this view is correct. It is contradicted by the experience of the United States, where those most competent to judge attach much importance to high wages as the primary condition of increased prosperity and more intensive economic activity. If this question were carefully studied, and if an attempt were made to determine the underlying causes of wage fluctuations, it might be possible to lay down principles which could be used as a practical guide for the policy of industrial organisations in the fixing of wages. It would be of special importance to co-ordinate the fixing of wages in the various

industries, as any increase in wages in an important industry is liable to influence the price of the goods produced, and may thus decrease the purchasing power of wages.

Public opinion continues to be greatly interested in proposals for radically changing the system of fixing wages by the introduction of family allowances. Side by side with the theoretical discussions, the practical means of applying the system are being studied. Systems of family allowances have been established by law in Australia and New Zealand. In New Zealand the Family Allowances Act, which came into force in April 1927, lays down that such allowances are to be paid from the ordinary revenues of the State. In Australia an Act was passed in March 1927 in New South Wales laying down that a special fund is to be established by contributions from employers at the rate of three per cent of their total wage bill. This is an application of the principle of the living wage. A Royal Commission appointed in September 1927 carefully studied the question of establishing uniform legislation on family allowances throughout Australia. Enquiries were undertaken in various districts of Australia to provide a basis for the report. The Office assisted the Commission by supplying it with information on the various systems of family allowances in use in the principal European countries. The Office, moreover, has closely followed all the discussions on the question, and has continued to collaborate on the subject with the Secretariat of the League of Nations, particularly on the question of the relation between family allowances and child welfare. It has drawn up a report for the Advisory Commission of the League of Nations for the protection of children and young persons, in which the development of the family allowance system in recent years is examined country by country. It has also followed up this Report with a study on the methods adopted by the French equalisation funds.

Although collective agreements have been greatly developed in recent years, there are still industries in many countries in which, owing to lack of organisation among employers and workers, wages are fixed by individual agreements, and consequently are often lower than the normal wage level of the country. In many countries, protective legislation has been passed to deal with exceptionally low wages of this kind. The Governing Body of the International Labour Office thought that it would be desirable for such legislation to be adopted in the international field, and therefore placed the question of minimum wage fixing machinery on the Agenda of the 1927 Session of the International Labour Conference. The Conference was asked at that Session to consider the Questionnaire to be sent to the Governments.

The discussions turned principally on the question whether wage fixing machinery should be applied in general to all trades where there are no effective arrangements for regulating wages, and where wages are exceptionally low, or whether its application was to be limited to home work, in which the nature of the industry frequently appears to make regulation by collective agreement impossible. It may, however, be doubted whether the fundamental problem to be solved is properly realised when the idea of limiting the fixing of minimum wages to homework and that of extending it to all branches of industry are opposed to one another. The true reasons for these two points of view are rather to be found in the different character of legislation in different countries and of the tendencies which govern the fixing of conditions of work. The prevailing tendencies can be ascertained from the legal position of collective agreements and their influence on labour conditions. There are some countries in which there is no general tendency to prefer collective agreements to official intervention in all cases as the method of fixing labour conditions. On the other hand, there is another group of countries in which the legislature deliberately attempts, in harmony with the aims of the trade unions and in agreement with them, to give employers and workers freedom to determine conditions of labour of all kinds simply by the decision of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. It therefore appears reasonable to frame the Draft Convention concerning minimum wage fixing machinery in such a way that the obligations which it lays down can be undertaken by all countries, whatever may be their special tendency as regards the regulation of labour conditions. The Blue Report containing the Governments' replies to the Questionnaire and the proposals of the Office will prepare the ground for a decision on these lines.

The Office is convinced that the Conference will draw from the above remarks the conclusion that it is absolutely necessary, and indeed urgent, for the Office to make wider and more detailed studies of wages if it desires to arrive at an accurate and comprehensive international comparison of real wages. Comparisons of this kind are required as a basis for international action affecting the well-being of the workers, and, it may be added, affecting international industrial agreements. It is considered that the studies which the Office undertakes with a view to such comparisons should rest on a much wider basis, both as regards the number of occupations dealt with and the number of articles of consumption taken into account in calculating the purchasing power of wages within a country. The Office is anxious to begin negotiations with the various Governments in order to arrive at an agreed plan of work for this purpose.

Another study which it would be desirable to undertake is that of wage changes in the various countries, with a view to determining their causes and their effects on economic life. A study of this kind might throw light upon many elements of economic and social life, such as the effect of customs tariffs on wages, the part played by workers' organisations in fixing the level of wages, and the influence which a change in wages in one industry produces on wages in other industries.

It is not considered that the programme of work outlined above is excessive. Studies of this kind and the solutions which are found for the questions which they involve may perhaps determine the general direction of future economic development. It is, however, obvious that the Office cannot successfully complete such a task, or even make a serious attempt at it, without the full, sympathetic and active collaboration of the Governments.

IV. Possibilities of employment.

Vocational education.

142. — On the subject of vocational education the following remark was made in last year's Report: "Action is being increasingly taken in the different countries and thus slowly preparing the way for the opportunity of dealing with the problem internationally".

The progress made in 1927 shows that such action is still being continued. In all directions interest in questions concerning vocational education has not only been maintained but has grown. Abundant evidence is already available to show what is being done to co-ordinate the action being taken and to secure collaboration not only between those interested in individual countries but also between the different countries. For instance, at the International Psycho-Technical Congress which met at Paris in October and the International Congress of Domestic Economy which met at Rome also in the month of October, a considerable portion of the discussions was devoted to vocational guidance and education in domestic careers. A resolution containing a real programme of vocational instruction in hotel employment was also adopted at the Twelfth Assembly of the Genevese International Association of Hotel and Restaurant Employees which met in October at Geneva. Another international development is shown by the enquiries undertaken and carried on by certain occupational groups, such as, for instance, the enquiry of the International Federation of Christian Employees' Trade Unions. The reconstitution of the International Society for Commercial Instruction, whose activities had been interrupted since 1914, should also be mentioned.

In conformity with the resolution of the Conference in 1927, the Office itself has begun a general study of the present state of vocational education in the arts and crafts, industry and technical callings in the countries belonging to the International

Labour Organisation. The first part of the study, dealing with vocational guidance, will be finished in the form of a preliminary report by the time the Conference meets.

In the individual countries further action has also been taken during 1927 to develop vocational guidance. In some cases new vocational guidance offices have been created, in others the methods of psycho-technical investigation into aptitude have been improved, and in almost all countries attention has been given to the training of guidance experts and the improvement of their preparation for their work.

In *France*, the object and extent of the medical history sheet has been studied by the scientific section of the National Vocational Guidance Commission. The attention of the educational profession has been drawn to the importance of the question and to the assistance which the primary schools may lend the vocational guidance experts.

In *Great Britain*, the Committee on Education and Industry, appointed to enquire into and advise upon the system of public education in relation to the requirements of commerce and industry, published at the end of December 1926 Part I of its report, which gives an account of the official steps taken in England and Wales to advise youths on the choice of a trade and to find them employment.

In *Japan*, a meeting of the Social Affairs Bureau of the Ministry of the Interior was held on 30 March to prepare legislative and financial proposals to be submitted to the 1928 Diet. One of the main items in the programme provides for the establishment of an inspection office to draw up tests of the capabilities of school children with a view to simplifying the work of employment offices for young persons. A national vocational guidance office of this kind is considered to be a means of coping more

effectively with unemployment. At Tokyo courses of instruction have been organised for future vocational guidance officers.

In *Poland*, a psycho-technical office was created at the end of 1927 for the Warsaw railways, and the creation of similar offices on other railway systems is contemplated.

In *South Africa*, it has been proposed to extend the general intelligence and manual ability tests for young persons before they take up a career (which have for some time been applied by the psychological faculties in certain universities) to all youths as they finish their last year at school. At the same time, a scientific study of certain trades is to be made by the universities with a view to determining as far as possible the qualifications required for them.

In *Switzerland*, the National Council has referred for further enquiry the question of granting subsidies by the Federal authorities to vocational guidance offices.

Industrial education as a whole and vocational education have also been the subject of important discussions and decisions by the public authorities in several countries.

An Act was published in *Brazil* on 26 August 1927 by virtue of which vocational guidance is made compulsory in subsidised primary schools and in other establishments. The same Act provides for the creation of occupational schools, agricultural apprenticeship institutes and technical establishments according as the need for such institutions becomes felt.

In *Italy*, the Supreme Council of Industrial Education convened in October for the first time representatives of the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions and the Fascist Industrial Confederation to discuss questions of vocational education.

Apprenticeship, too, has benefited by the attention given in all industrial countries to the training of skilled labour. Occupational courses and instruction are in general developing and multiplying. Schools and workshops are being set up for apprentices, and an attempt is being made to increase their general and theoretical knowledge.

In *Canada*, the question of apprenticeship reform has been to the fore in various Provinces.

In *France*, questions relating to the organisation of apprenticeship and the apprenticeship age limit have been discussed on various occasions in the Chamber and Senate. Serious attention continues to be given to the apprenticeship tax. Meetings of enquiry have been held in various occupational

groups. One such meeting, i. e., of the Union of the Metallurgical and Mining Industries, held on 7 and 8 November, emphasised the importance of thorough and well-planned primary education for training apprentices and the necessity of further developing the general education of young persons before becoming apprentices.

In *Germany*, a Bill published on April 1 on the reorganisation of vocational education which is at present being studied was submitted to the Reichstag by the Cabinet.

In June an Apprenticeship Act was adopted in *Iceland*. This Act, which came into force on 1 January 1928, and of which the principal object is to protect apprentices from being exploited, lays down, *inter alia*, that the age of entering upon apprenticeship shall be 15 years.

In *Poland*, Chapter VI of the draft Decree-Act published on 7 June is devoted to the question of apprenticeship organisation in industry.

In *South Africa*, a general conference of apprenticeship councils met in September for the first time at Johannesburg. At this meeting decisions were taken with the object of developing the training of labour on rational and methodical lines. In particular, some of the apprenticeship councils have decided to pay stricter attention to the observance of the contract of apprenticeship.

Technical education is also making progress.

In *Belgium*, the principle of compulsory vocational education has been adopted by the Labour party, which has also passed resolutions dealing with technical education.

The Supreme Council of Technical Education in *France* has actively continued its work.

On all sides it is being advocated that technical education must be more strictly adapted to the requirements of increased production. Waste must be avoided, and every possible economy effected without, however, hindering the development of technical education. This opinion, already expressed in 1926, has been frequently re-expressed since. In face of the necessity of producing more and cheaper goods, employers are deciding to develop technical education and to group manufacturers and technical experts. This movement is becoming more and more general, and its development is shown by discussions such as those which took place in 1927 at the new Belgian Technical Union, the Bordeaux and South-Western Employers' Inter-Occupational Apprenticeship Commit-

tee and the Association of technical institutions of Great Britain and Ireland.

Occupational and technical schools are being opened in all directions. To mention only a few instances—in *Bulgaria*, the number of technical schools reached the figure of 114 in 1927, without counting schools of agriculture; in *China*, apprenticeship schools have been set up in two large carpet factories; in *France* the Employers' Chamber has opened a locksmiths' workshop school in Paris, the Foundry Workers' Union opened an advanced foundry work school in September, and the Nord Railway Company alone has now nine technical schools for boys, and 17 schools of domestic economy for girls; a school for bank clerks has been opened in *Germany*; and *Spain* has opened an industrial university.

Some countries, such as *Bulgaria*, *Czechoslovakia* and others, have continued to endeavour to consolidate and broaden the field of technical education. Elsewhere, the reorganisation of curricula in technical schools has been studied with a view to giving the pupils more practical work.

Emphasis is everywhere being laid on the desirability of co-ordinating the programmes of compulsory school education, the practical training of the future workman, and theoretical trade instruction, and on the necessity of raising the intellectual level of compulsory education. This is the general tendency which it is desired to note in concluding the present section. The idea which seems to underlie the movement in favour of vocational education in 1927, and which was very well expressed at the prize-giving of the trade courses organised by the Labour Exchange of the French General Confederation, may be summarised as follows:—It is realised that knowledge is indispensable in following even the most modest occupation, and the necessity for knowledge increases with the complexity of the industrial world. It is impossible to separate general education from vocational education. Education should be adapted to the necessities of modern life by raising the compulsory school age and by organising continuation schools and apprenticeship.

Unemployment.

143. — In comparison with 1926, unemployment remained during 1927 at a high level. In certain countries the position improved, but in others it grew definitely worse.

Unemployment became less severe in *Czechoslovakia*, *Germany*, *Great Britain*, *Hungary*, *Ireland*, *Poland* and *Switzerland*, as is shown by the following figures:

<i>Czechoslovakia</i>	1926	1927
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the first 10 months)	3.1	1.7

	1926	1927
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of October)	3.1	0.8
<i>Germany</i>		
Unemployed in receipt of assistance (average for the year)	1,693,000	837,000
Unemployed in receipt of assistance (end of the year)	1,749,000	1,188,000
<i>Great Britain and Northern Ireland</i>		
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	12.6	9.8
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)	11.9	10.0
<i>Hungary</i>		
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)	15.9	9.2
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)	13.0	8.6
<i>Irish Free State</i>		
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	13.3	10.5
<i>Poland</i>		
Unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (average for the year)	277,000	169,000
Unemployed on the registers of the public employment exchanges (end of the year)	236,000	165,000
<i>Switzerland</i>		
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	7.3	4.6
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)	10.2	6.2

In spite of the improvement which has taken place, unemployment is still severe in most of these countries. Such is the case also in *Austria*, *Norway*, and *Sweden*, where unemployment continued during 1927 at approximately the same level as in 1926.

<i>Austria</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed in receipt of unemployment allowance (average for the year)	177,000	172,000
Unemployment in receipt of unemployment allowance (end of the year)	205,000	207,000
<i>Norway</i>		
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	24.3	25.4
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)	29.6	28
<i>Sweden</i>		
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)	12.2	12.0
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)	19.1	18.6

In Finland also the position remained unchanged, but with unemployment at a very low level.

<i>Finland</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (average for the year)	2,000	1,900
Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (end of the year)	2,200	2,200

In Denmark and France the average for the year was worse in 1927 than in 1926, but at the end of the year the position again improved.

<i>Denmark</i>	1926	1927
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	20.7	22.3
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)	32.2	30.5

<i>France</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed in receipt of assistance (average for the year)	2,000	34,000
Unemployed in receipt of assistance (end of the year)	17,000	13,000

In New Zealand and the U. S. S. R. the course of events during the year was somewhat similar.

<i>New Zealand</i>	1926	1927
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)	6.6	9.3
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)	6.7	6.7

<i>U.S.S.R.</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (average of the first eight months)	1,044,000	1,287,000
Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (end of August)	1,024,000	1,025,000

In other countries, even where the average for the year was not higher in 1927 than in 1926, the rate of unemployment at the end of the year was higher than at the end of the previous period.

<i>Australia</i>	1926	1927
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)	7.0	7.0
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)	5.7	8.9

<i>Belgium</i>	1926	1927
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	4.2	5.5
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)	5.6	9.2

<i>Canada</i>	1926	1927
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (average for the year)	5.1	4.9
Percentage unemployed among trade union members (end of the year)	5.9	6.6

<i>Estonia</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed on the registers of the employment exchanges (average for the year)	2,100	3,000
Unemployed on the registers of the employment exchanges (end of the year)	3,800	4,400

<i>Italy</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed on the register (average for the year)	126,000	373,000
Unemployed on the register (end of the year)	191,000	554,000

<i>Latvia</i>	1926	1927
Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (average for the year)	2,800	3,100
Unemployed on the registers of employment exchanges (end of the year)	5,200	6,400

<i>Netherlands</i>	1926	1927
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (average for the year)	8.7	10.0
Percentage of insured workers unemployed (end of the year)	12.1	19.3

<i>United States of America</i>	1926	1927
Index of employment (average for the year)	91.9	88.5
Index of employment (end of the year)	90.9	85.1

144. — To indicate the action taken during 1927 to relieve and reduce unemployment, reference will first be made to the measures taken during the year to ratify and apply the Convention adopted by the Conference or to give effect to the Recommendation on unemployment. These measures are summarised in the usual way below.

Convention concerning unemployment (1919).

(a) Ratification measures.

Hungary : Ratification registered on 1 March 1928.

Luxemburg : Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Netherlands : Act of 30 April 1927 reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention.

(b) Application measures.

Denmark : Act of 1 July 1927 relating to public employment exchanges and unemployment insurance.

Germany : Act of 16 July 1927 relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance.

Germany-Switzerland : Agreement of February 1928 concerning the insurance against unemployment of workers in the neighbourhood of the frontier.

Germany-Poland : Agreement of 14 July 1927 concerning unemployment insurance.

Greece : Bill (Decree of 12 November 1927) relating to the establishment of employment exchanges and the insurance against unemployment of employees, manual workers and domestic servants.

Italy : Regulations issued 17 February 1927 in application of the declaration concerning reciprocity of treatment with Switzerland in matters connected with unemployment insurance.

Articles XXII and XXIII of the Labour Charter (promulgated 21 April 1927).

Decisions of the Fascist Grand Council (11-15 November 1927) relating to the organisation of employment exchanges.

Netherlands : Bill relating to employment exchanges submitted to the Superior Labour Council.

Poland : Decree of 4 June 1927 concerning the protection of the labour market.

Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom : Order of 10 December 1927, setting out regulations relating to the organisation of public employment exchanges, the payment of unemployment allowances and the power to make advances for the construction of workers' dwellings.

Recommendation concerning unemployment (1919).

(a) Miscellaneous information.

Austria : Report of the Federal Government submitted in 1927 to the National Council (Third Chamber) ; existing legislation takes into account the principles laid down by the Recommendation.

(b) Application measures.

Australia : *Queensland* : Unemployed Workers Insurance Act Amendment Act, 1927.

Victoria : Bill introduced in the State Parliament providing for a system of compulsory unemployment insurance.

Austria : Acts of 22 November 1927 and 17 December 1927. (XX li and XXIst amendments to the Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Act).

Belgium : Royal Decree of 21 March 1927 concerning unemployment insurance.

Czechoslovakia : Bill relating to unemployment insurance introduced 26 October 1927.

Denmark : Act of 1 July 1927 relating to public employment exchanges and unemployment insurance.

Notice of 22 October 1927 relating to the re-opening of unemployment funds in case of a strike or lock-out.

Notice of 28 October 1927 issued in application of the Act of 1 July 1927 setting out rules with regard to employers' contributions to the unemployment fund.

Finland : Decision of the Government of 1 February 1927 relating to the long range planning of public works.

France : Act of 19 July 1927 making provisions for supplementary credits in the budget of the Ministry of Labour (advances to the National Unemployment Funds and subsidies to the trade union unemployment funds).

Decrees of 3 February, 16 April and 18 December 1927 relating to subsidies to trade union unemployment funds.

Decrees of 15 February, 29 April and 18 August 1927 relating to subsidies to departmental and municipal unemployment funds.

Decree of 17 March 1928 promulgating the Labour Treaty of 24 December 1924 between France and Belgium.

Bill modifying articles 79, 81, 82, 83, 88 and 102 of Book I of the Labour Code (supervision of employment exchanges) passed by the Chamber of Deputies 22 February 1928.

Bill relating to the placement of theatrical artists, passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 20 January 1928.

Germany : Act of 16 July 1927, relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance.

Great Britain : Unemployment Insurance Act of 22 December 1927.

Greece : Bill (Decree of 12 November 1927) relating to the establishment of employment exchanges and compulsory unemployment insurance for employees, manual workers and domestic servants.

Hungary : Unemployment Insurance Act in preparation.

Latvia : Bill providing for compulsory unemployment insurance submitted to Parliament.

Luxembourg : Decree of 9 February 1927 modifying the Decree of 6 August 1921, setting out regulations with regard to unemployment allowances.

Poland : Decree of 25 February 1927 relating to the extension of the benefit period provided for by article 5 of the Unemployment Insurance Act of 18 July 1924.

Orders of 30 March, 28 April, 29 April, 31 May, 9 June, 15 June, 16 July, 15 August, 29 August, 26 September, 14 October, 18 October and 28 October 1927 relating to the extension of unemployment insurance benefit period.

Order of 1 April 1927, setting out rules with regard to the granting of loans to provide employment for unemployed workers who are receiving allowances from State funds.

Decree of 17 May 1927 in application of the Unemployment Insurance Act extending the powers of the Ministry of Labour and Social Assistance.

Decree of 24 November 1927 concerning insurance for intellectual workers.

Order of 6 December 1927 concerning the scope of unemployment insurance.

Order of 19 December 1927 concerning the right of seasonal workers to insurance benefit during the dead season.

Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom : Order of 13 May 1927 relating to the establishment of a Central Committee to be concerned notably with the planning of public works.

Order of 10 December 1927 relating to the organisation of public employment exchanges, the payment of unemployment allowances and the power to make advances for the construction of workers' dwellings.

Spain : Royal Decree of 14 February 1927 concerning the preparation of involuntary unemployment statistics.

Switzerland : *Grisons* : Order of 27 May 1927 providing for subsidies to the unemployment funds.

Neuchâtel : Decree of 10 January 1927 setting out the regulations for the Cantonal Unemployment Insurance Fund.

Zoug : Act of 13 October 1927 establishing a system of compulsory unemployment insurance.

Reference will now be made to the further measures taken in 1927 in the different countries to remedy unemployment. As in past years, unemployment insurance will be dealt with first.

145. *Unemployment insurance.* — One of the most outstanding examples of the progress made during the year in the field of social legislation was the *German Act* of 16 July 1927 relating to unemployment insurance and employment exchanges. Under the provisions of this Act, which came into force on 1 October, the provisional system of assistance which was formerly in operation has been replaced by a system of compulsory unemployment insurance covering 16 ½ million workers.

In other countries where systems of compulsory unemployment insurance or State subsidised voluntary insurance were already in operation, fresh extensions have taken place, as may be seen from the following figures :

Number of workers insured against unemployment

	1925	1926	1927
Australia			
(Queensland)	120,000	150,000	?
Austria.....	1,000,000	?	?
Belgium.....	600,000	607,000	612,000
Bulgaria.....	?	?	?
Czechoslovakia..	?	1,026,000	1,100,000
Denmark.....	265,000	270,000	275,000
Finland.....	39,000	49,000	57,000
France.....	?	?	164,000
Great Britain and			
North. Ireland	11,892,000	12,041,000	12,131,000
Germany.....	—	—	16,500,000
Irish Free State	240,000	246,000	246,000
Italy.....	?	?	3,500,000
Netherlands....	275,000	278,000	280,000
Norway.....	41,000	41,000	?
Poland.....	?	?	899,000
Russia.....	?	?	8,500,000
Switzerland....	?	178,000	247,000

It should be added that in *Greece*, 40,000 tobacco workers have been brought under a special insurance and relief fund which provides certain allowances in cases of unemployment. This scheme is in operation pending the introduction of the general system of compulsory unemployment insurance for all workers provided for in a Bill which has been submitted to Parliament by the Government. Bills with similar provisions have been brought forward by the Government in *Latvia*, and in *Australia* by the Government of the State of *Victoria*. In *Sweden*, a Parliamentary Commission, which has made an exhaustive enquiry into the working of unemployment insurance in various countries, is understood to be about to submit to the Government a plan for the organisation of a system either of compulsory insurance or of subsidised voluntary insurance. In *Switzerland*, the movement in favour of compulsory unemployment insurance organised on a cantonal basis, which had already resulted in the passing of the Basle-Ville, Glarus, Neuchâtel and Solothurn Acts, has further manifested itself in the adoption of a similar system by the Canton of Zoug (Act of 13 October 1927). In the *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom*, a scheme of assistance for the unemployed, instituted by an Order of 10 December 1927, seems capable of interpretation as a step in the direction of insurance, since the resources of the fund from which assistance is to be provided are to be derived from compulsory contributions from employers and wage-earners. In *France*, the State subsidised unemployment insurance funds, in spite of the appreciable extensions which have been made in recent years, still cover only a small proportion of the workers who are liable to the risk of unemployment. When severe unemployment is experienced, as was the case during 1927, the responsibility of providing assistance for the un-

employed falls chiefly on the Municipal and Departmental funds, which are financed exclusively by the public authorities. 145 Municipal and 14 Departmental funds were in operation on 17 March 1927, at the time when the depression was most severe. In the *United States*, Bills providing for systems of compulsory insurance are at present under discussion in half a dozen States. At the same time the private unemployment insurance funds, established by collective agreement in various clothing industries, continue in operation; and an important organisation, Industrial Relations Counselors, is making an extensive investigation into the possibilities of unemployment insurance.

The *German Act* of 16 July 1927 is notable not only on account of the fact that the number of workers covered is greater than in any other country, but also because it includes within its scope certain categories of workers who had hitherto almost invariably been excluded from compulsory unemployment insurance. The workers so included in the new scheme are, on the one hand, domestic servants and, on the other hand, workers in agriculture who do not possess or work a certain area of land sufficient to allow them to supply the essential requirements of their family, who are not employed under a written labour contract running for at least one year and requiring six months notice from the employer before dismissal, and who are provided with neither board nor lodging by their employer.

In *Austria*, an Act of 22 November 1927 has also extended the scope of the compulsory insurance system to agriculture by providing that workers on sawmills, whether in industry or in an agricultural or forestry undertaking, are to be insured.

With regard to more highly paid non-manual workers, it may be noted that the *German Act*, while limiting the scope of the compulsory system to non-manual workers earning less than 6000 marks per year, permits insured persons whose earnings exceed this limit to remain members of the unemployment insurance fund if they so desire.

The need of unemployment insurance is being increasingly felt by intellectual workers. In this connection it is interesting to note that in *Czechoslovakia* a special unemployment insurance fund has been established for theatrical artistes. The benefits paid from this fund are subsidised, as is the case with other recognised unemployment funds, by the State, under the provisions of the Act of 19 July 1921.

The International Association for Social Progress, at its meeting at Vienna in September 1927, declared itself in favour of the progressive extension of compulsory unemployment insurance to "all employed

persons, including intellectual, agricultural, domestic and home workers, and workers in small establishments." It further emphasised the desirability "that an investigation should be undertaken into the possibility of extending unemployment insurance to workers on their own account", and expressed the opinion that in the meantime "public subsidies should be granted to voluntary insurance funds established by workers who are not yet covered by the compulsory system."

As to the general principles of unemployment insurance, it may be noted that the *German* Act of 16 July 1927—like the laws in force in every other country, except one, where unemployment insurance is compulsory—groups together all industries and occupations, without distinction as to risk of unemployment, into one scheme, with standard rates of contributions and benefits. One minor exception to this rule has been admitted in Germany: workers belonging to the undertakings of Messrs. Zeiss and Schott, of Jena, which have their own special schemes for dealing with unemployment, are exempt from the provisions of the general scheme so long as the benefits provided by these special schemes remain at least as high as those provided for by the Unemployment Insurance Act. The only country where the unemployment insurance system departs from the principle of the pooling of the risks of unemployment in all industries is *Switzerland*, in which the various cantons which have so far adopted compulsory insurance leave the worker free to choose which fund he shall join. As a result there are still in operation a number of private funds the membership of which is recruited on an occupational or industrial basis. The official funds, which all workers not otherwise insured are obliged to join, embrace, however, a variety of occupations. A point worthy of note in connection with the Swiss system is the extensive development of the joint funds. In March 1926 there were only 5 of these funds, with 3400 members; in September 1927 they numbered 55, with 44,700 members. The trade union funds remain, however, the largest, with 150,700 members. The membership of the official funds totals 43,600.

In *Great Britain* the new Act, which comes into force on 19 April 1928, while maintaining the two special schemes established for the banking and insurance industries, repeals the provision of the 1924 Act which permitted the Minister to authorise special schemes for other trades. The principle of the general system of insurance, embracing all industries and occupations, has thus been confirmed. As Mr. Betterton, Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Labour, pointed out in the House of Commons, although everybody had started with the idea that special

schemes were desirable and should be encouraged, all those who had had any experience of administration had come to the conclusion that in a universal contributory insurance scheme the principle of special schemes was unacceptable; the stronger industries must be made to carry the weaker ones.

The question of the length of the maximum benefit period has been dealt with differently in different countries. The new *British* Act abolishes extended benefit, and makes all benefits statutory: after a transitional period, the payment of 30 contributions during the two years preceding application will be one of the statutory conditions for receipt of benefit. A worker who has paid 30 consecutive contributions will thus have the right to draw benefit for a maximum period of 74 consecutive weeks. The *German* Act limits the benefit period to 26 weeks, or, in exceptional circumstances, 39 weeks, in any period of 12 months; the Minister of Labour may, at his discretion, provide extended benefit (*Krisenfürsorge*) for indigent workers. In *Czechoslovakia*, the Act of 19 July, which provides for a State subsidy varying according to the personal status of the unemployed worker from 100 to 150 per cent on the benefits paid by recognised unemployment insurance funds, limits the period of subsidy to three consecutive months or four months not in succession. A Bill was introduced by the Minister of Social Welfare on 26 October 1927 to provide for the extension of this period to six months in case of exceptional unemployment in certain industries. This extension would be accompanied by a reduction of one-third in the rate of benefit paid by the insurance funds and an increase of 100 per cent. in the State subsidy.

On the other hand, in *Denmark*, an Act of 1 July 1927 relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance has abolished the special allowances which were formerly available in case of exceptional unemployment. The State subsidised unemployment funds are, however, authorised to set up reserve funds, into which are to be paid at least 20 per cent. of the contributions, with subsidies from the State and communes corresponding to those paid into the ordinary funds, and in addition a subsidy from the Central Unemployment Fund. The latter fund, to which contributions are paid by employers, is maintained, but the amount of these contributions has been reduced from 5 to 3 *kroner* per worker per annum, and provision is made for their total suppression when the reserves of the Central Fund reach a total of 12 million *kroner*. In *Poland*, where the payment of benefit by the insurance funds is extended in case of continued unemployment by means of a system of public relief, a Decree of the Minister of Labour has limited the period during which this ex-

ceptional relief may be paid to 26 weeks for unmarried workers and 52 weeks for married workers without children.

Rates of unemployment benefit vary greatly from one country to another. In *Germany*, benefits are proportional to wages, which are grouped for this purpose in eleven categories. In the lowest category (wages not exceeding 10 marks per week) the rate of benefit is fixed at 75 per cent. of wages, or 80 per cent. if allowances for dependants are included; in the highest category (wages exceeding 60 marks per week) the rate is fixed at not more than 35 per cent. in the case of unmarried workers, and not more than 60 per cent. for workers with dependants. In *Great Britain*, the new Act maintains the principle of flat rates of benefit, i.e. regardless of variations in wages; the rate for an unmarried adult worker has been reduced from 18/— to 17/— per week, but the allowance for an adult dependant has been increased from 5/— to 7/—. The extra allowance for a dependent child remains fixed at 2/— per week. A married worker with three dependent children may thus receive 30/— per week as unemployment benefit. For purpose of comparison it may be noted that in *Germany* an unemployed worker with dependants to support may, if he belongs to the highest wage category, be entitled to a benefit of 36 marks per week. The new British Act maintains the principle of differentiation according to age and sex. Female adult workers continue to receive unemployment benefit at the rate of 15/— per week. But for both sexes the adult age has been fixed at 21 years instead of 18. From 18 to 21 years the rates of benefit vary from 10/— to 14/— for young men and 8/— to 12/— for young women. Boys of 16 to 18 years receive 6/— per week, and girls of 16 to 18, 5/—.

In the *Union of Russian Socialist Soviet Republics*, the Social Insurance Council issued new Regulations on 14 December 1927 fixing the monthly rates of unemployment benefit. Workers are divided into three classes, with benefits varying in each class according to the region in which the worker is located. The monthly rates vary from 11 to 26 roubles for highly skilled intellectual workers, technicians, skilled workers in industry, and soldiers on furlough or who have completed their term of service; from 8 to 19 roubles for teachers in elementary or secondary schools, doctors with ordinary qualifications and the staff of health services, officials of the railway, river, transport and postal services, shop workers, intellectual workers of average qualifications, and semi-skilled industrial workers; and from 6 to 15 roubles for all other unemployed persons, including intellectual workers of less than average qualifications, subordinate salaried employees, unskilled workers, and domestic servants. Sup-

plementary allowances are available to the extent of 15 per cent. of the basic benefit for one dependant, 25 per cent. for two, and 35 per cent. for three or more. In no case may the total benefit exceed 50 per cent. of wages. The benefit period is limited to 9 months per year.

In *France*, two Decrees, the first dated 3 February 1927 and the second 7 February 1928, have raised from 5 francs to 6, and then from 6 to 8 francs, the maximum daily unemployment benefit which will be subsidised by the State. Similarly, a Decree of 15 February 1927 relating to the Municipal and Departmental unemployment funds fixed the maximum allowances for which the State subsidies would be available for these institutions at 6 francs per day for an unemployed worker with a dependent family, 1.50 to 3 francs for each dependant, and 16 francs per day as the maximum for a single family.

In *Belgium*, a Royal Decree of 21 March 1927 fixed the amount of the daily allowance payable from the emergency fund at 8 francs for an unmarried or married worker over 25 years of age and 6 francs for an unmarried worker under 25 years of age. Supplementary dependants' allowances may bring the total benefit paid up to two-thirds of wages, or three-quarters in cases where there are four or more children.

In view of this diversity of measures in the different countries, the following statement of general principles enunciated at the Vienna Congress of the International Association for Social Progress in September last is not without interest:

"In fixing the different rates of benefit account should be taken of the normal earnings of the workers. No distinction should be made between the two sexes.

The rate of benefit should be such as to enable the unemployed worker to maintain a decent minimum standard of living in a civilised society. Supplementary benefit should be payable to workers with families.

At the same time, in order to preserve the incentive to seek employment, a sufficient divergence should be maintained between the rate of benefit and normal earnings."

Another important question which arises in connection with unemployment insurance is the way in which the cost of the system is to be shared. Developments in this connection during 1927 can hardly be considered satisfactory, since they have consisted mainly in a tendency to reduce the share borne by the State—i.e. the whole body of taxpayers—and increase correspondingly the share borne by those engaged in production.

In *Germany*, as has already been the case for some time in *Italy*, the financial resources of the unemployment insurance fund are derived from equal contributions,

which together may amount to as such as 3 per cent. of wages, from employers and workers. The contributions are paid into regional funds which, at the end of each month, transfer to a central equalisation fund the half of any surplus of receipts over payments. The central fund in turn makes up any deficit which may occur in any of the regional funds. The rates of contributions may not be lowered until such time as the resources of the central fund are sufficient to provide for the payment of benefit to 600,000 unemployed workers for a period of three months. Public subsidies are available only for the special allowances (*Krisenfürsorge*), the cost of which is borne exclusively by the public authorities (4/5 by the State and 1/5 by the Communes), and in the case of the central insurance fund becoming insolvent, when the State may, as under the British system, make loans.

In the case of the system of unemployment relief established in the *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom*, the resources of the funds are also, as has been indicated above, derived exclusively from workers' and employers' contributions.

In *Denmark*, the Act of 1 July 1927 has reduced the rate of contributions paid by the State by making such contributions vary according to the average annual earnings of the insured workers. The State contributions had previously amounted to 65 per cent. of the workers' contributions. This rate has been maintained in the case of insured workers whose annual earnings are from 1500 to 2000 *kroner*, and it has been raised to 70 per cent. for workers earning less than 1500 *kroner*, but in respect of workers earning more than 2000 *kroner* it has been reduced on a graduated scale to a minimum of 15 per cent. where earnings exceed 4000 *kroner* per annum.

As against this tendency, however, it should be noted that in *Belgium* a Royal Decree of 21 March 1927 increased the rate of State subsidy from one-half to two-thirds of the contributions paid by insured workers. Similarly, in *France*, a Decree of 7 February 1928 increased the rates of State subsidy to local and federal insurance funds from 20 per cent. to 33 per cent., and from 30 per cent. to 35 per cent., respectively, of the amount of benefits paid. The same Decree extended from 60 to 120 days the maximum period of unemployment for which benefit carrying State subsidy might be paid.

In general the various systems of unemployment insurance cover foreign workers resident in the country concerned as well as nationals of the country. Such reservations as exist with regard to foreign workers—e.g., those depending on reciprocity of treatment in the worker's own country—

usually come into operation only in connection with relief measures supplementary to the general insurance scheme. Thus Article 101 of the *German Act of 16 July 1927* provides that special allowances in times of exceptional unemployment are payable to foreign workers only when the States to which such workers belong have undertaken to grant similar treatment to German workers within their territory. At the present time such special allowances are granted only to *Polish* workers under the terms of an agreement of 14 July 1927, and, with certain restrictions, to *Austrian* workers.

The *Swiss* Government has stated that the fact of its having ratified the Convention concerning unemployment would place it under the obligation to treat on an equal footing with Swiss citizens all workers belonging to other States which had ratified this Convention and established a system of unemployment insurance. As, however, this reciprocity of treatment may be made subject to certain conditions, the Swiss Government has communicated with other Governments concerned with a view to ascertaining whether they accord full reciprocity. Definite agreements have thus been entered into by means of an exchange of notes with *Germany*, *Poland* and *Denmark*. It may be recalled also that in 1926 a mutual declaration was made with this end in view by the *Swiss* and *Italian* Governments: in *Italy* this declaration has been formally made operative by Decree of 17 February 1927. A special agreement was also concluded on 4 February 1928 between *Germany* and *Switzerland*, in order to provide for the case of Swiss workers employed in German territory near the frontier but continuing to reside in their own country. Under the terms of this agreement such workers will no longer be required to contribute to the German compulsory insurance fund, and it was agreed that the responsibility of providing unemployment insurance for workers in frontier districts should devolve upon the State in which the workers reside.

146. *Employment exchanges.*—Employment exchanges are closely connected in most countries with the organisation of unemployment insurance; in no case, however, is this connection so close as in *Germany*, under the Act of 16 July 1927. The Federal Employment Exchange and Unemployment Insurance Institute established by this Act is linked up with a nation-wide network of regional and local offices responsible for both employment exchange work and the administration of unemployment insurance. This system of organisation resembles the system already in operation in *Great Britain*. There are, however, two principal points of difference: first, the German system involves a larger measure of administrative autonomy and inde-

pendence of Government control (the Central Institute is endowed with legal personality), and a greater share of control in the hands of committees on which the public authorities, employers and workers enjoy equal representation: and second, the cost of the employment exchanges in Germany is borne entirely by the income of the insurance fund, an arrangement which reduces still further the burden borne by the general taxpayer, whereas in Great Britain and in most other countries the cost of the employment exchanges is a charge on the general revenue of the State or local authorities, no special contributions being paid by employers or workers.

Similar methods of finance have been adopted in the case of the *Serb, Croat and Slovene Kingdom*, in which the Order of 10 December 1927, establishing public employment exchanges in all towns where there are chambers of labour, as well as a central office at Belgrade, provides that the expenses of these institutions shall be defrayed by a fund into which shall be paid a proportion of the contribution of 3 % of wages and salaries levied for the purpose of unemployment relief.

In *Italy*, the organisation of employment exchanges was remodelled by the Labour Charter promulgated on 21 April 1927. In accordance with Sections 22 and 23 of this Charter, the Fascist Grand Council took various decisions on 11 and 15 November concerning the joint character of employment exchanges, their situation on the premises of workers' trade unions, the choice of their staff from among the officials of these unions, and the requirement that employers must engage workers only through the medium of an employment exchange (the right being reserved to the employer to choose freely, from the list of the unemployed, the workers he requires). It must be emphasised that at the present time Italy is the only country in which this principle of compulsion is applied. With regard to the freedom to choose from among the unemployed registered at the public employment exchanges it will be noticed that, although the decisions of the Fascist Grand Council do not seem to include any reference to the matter, Section 23 of the Labour Charter gives preference to members of the Fascist Party or of Fascist trade unions. Here also it will be noticed that a new principle has been introduced with regard to the functions of employment exchanges.

In *Denmark*, the Act of 1 July 1927, which has already been mentioned in connection with unemployment insurance, also effected a reorganisation of the system of public employment exchanges, the principal end in view being the reduction of the cost of the system. The system as now organised includes a central exchange in

Copenhagen, and a separate exchange in each province. In each case the cost of the administration of the exchange is shared equally by the State, the province and the town in which it is situated. The Act also makes provision for the establishment of an exchange in each commune with a population of over 10,000, on condition that two-thirds of the cost must be borne by the State.

In *Greece*, the Bill providing for the establishment of a system of unemployment insurance makes provision also for the institution of public employment exchanges.

It has been observed that in several countries one of the factors contributing to the success of the public employment exchanges in their relations both with the employers and workers has been the specialisation of such exchanges, at any rate in the larger centres, along the lines of separate occupations. This has been the case notably in *Germany* and in *France*. It will be noticed that a similar tendency is shown in the case of the new *Italian* system.

As regards exchanges for seamen, it may be noted that a new system of free exchanges, administered jointly by shipowners and seamen, came into operation in *Japan* on 1 April 1927. This system applies to officers as well as to other members of ships' crews. At the same time the employment departments of the Japan Seamen's Relief Association were closed. In addition fee-charging employment agencies were prohibited. A special maritime labour office, administered by a mixed committee of representatives of shipowners and seamen, has also been established in *Greece* by Decree of 28 June 1927.

In connection with the finding of employment for theatrical artistes, it may be recalled that the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers set up by the Governing Body has been invited to consider the question and will proceed to discuss it at its next meeting. The various professional associations concerned have also been approached with a view to collecting whatever information may be available on the subject.

The advantages gained from the specialisation of employment exchanges along the lines of separate occupations are enhanced where the exchanges are at the same time responsible for vocational guidance of juveniles and the retraining of unemployed adults who can find employment only by learning some fresh trade. In this connection it will be noted that the *German* Act of 16 July 1927 has linked up all vocational guidance services with the general system of employment exchanges. Moreover, in several countries the employment exchanges are responsible for the retraining of young

workers, and in some cases of adults. A notable step in this direction has been taken in *Great Britain*, where several occupational training centres have been set up with a view to training unemployed workers for employment in agriculture in the Dominions and colonies, or for employment as domestic servants, notably in Australia. The number in attendance at these centres at any one time is not more than a few hundred, but steps were taken during 1927 to increase their capacity. By the end of November 1927, 4,658 men had completed the course of training for employment in agriculture overseas. Training centres have also been opened for unemployed juveniles, who number about 50,000. The number of such centres in operation in 1926 was 126 and 77 in 1927. The purpose of these juvenile training centres is less to provide training for special vocations than to keep unemployed juveniles fit and interested and to avoid that demoralisation which may result from prolonged idleness. The average weekly attendance at these centres reaches a total of about 4,700. In the *Union of South Africa*, where the problem of extending the avenues of employment for the white races constitutes one of the principal issues raised by the existence of unemployment, the Government has also undertaken an extensive scheme of agricultural training.

Public employment exchanges, in addition to organising vocational training for unemployed workers, frequently endeavour to bring about a better distribution of the available supply of labour within a country. Mention may be made in this connection of the work done in *Italy* to transfer surplus labour from the northern to the southern provinces. The measures taken to bring about in this way a better adaptation of the supply of labour to the demand for it were accompanied by measures intended to ensure that new enterprises should be established in those districts where they might prove most advantageous to the national economy as a whole. Thus, the Decree of 18 August 1927, designed to prevent any excessive development of the towns, prohibited the establishment of industrial enterprises employing more than 100 workers in any of the provincial capitals except in case of special authorisation by the Government. In *Great Britain*, the Government set up at the beginning of 1928 an Industrial Transference Board for the purpose of stimulating and facilitating the transfer of workers from areas particularly affected by unemployment to openings in other industries both at home and overseas. The National Advisory Council for Juvenile Employment has similar functions to perform in connection with juvenile labour. It has been calculated that in *Great Britain*, as the result of the fall in the birthrate during the war, there will be about 20 per cent. fewer juveniles available for employment in 1933 than in 1927. Attempts will be made to overcome

the resulting shortage of juvenile labour in certain industries by means of a carefully planned re-distribution of such labour as may be available.

The cost of travel is often an obstacle to the migration of labour from one part of a country to another. Employment exchanges are consequently authorised in some cases to supply unemployed workers with railway tickets either free of charge or at reduced rates. The *German Act* of 16 July 1927 makes provision for payment, at the discretion of the official in charge of the employment exchange, of the full expenses of the journey of a worker for whom employment is found away from his home: such expenses may in certain cases include the cost of the journey of the worker's family, and may also cover the cost of a transfer to one of the neighbouring countries. The *French Government* also, in 1927, made provision for railway journeys at half price for unemployed workers for whom employment is found away from their homes: the Government has succeeded in obtaining from the railway companies a remission of one-quarter of the ordinary fare and has itself arranged to pay the remaining quarter. As a result of these measures, the number of such transfers effected in France during the first six months of 1927 reached the relatively high figure of 95,000—out of a total of 320,000 workers placed in employment. Similar measures have also been taken in *Rumania* and in the *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom*.

The finding of employment for workers is a task not merely national, but also international in scope: consequently it is of immediate interest not only to the various States concerned, but also to the International Labour Office. Mention is made elsewhere of the special and temporary responsibilities of the Office in connection with refugee settlement work. The Office has also, however, in its capacity as an international administration, certain responsibilities of a permanent nature, as set out in the Convention concerning unemployment, in connection with the placing of workers. Article 2 of the Convention provides in this connection 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". To fulfil this obligation, the Office has put itself at the disposal of the 21 States which have up to the present ratified the Convention, offering to transmit from time to time to each Government such information as might be supplied by the various States concerned with regard to the classes of unemployed workers disposed to seek employment abroad, and the industries or occupations in which employment might be available for foreign workers. Such information has so far been received from only

two States, namely *Austria* and *Switzerland*. The Office remains at the disposal of the nineteen other States, and has communicated to them regularly the information supplied for this purpose by the Austrian and Swiss Governments. It cannot be too strongly emphasised that there is no desire to make of the Office a sort of international employment exchange. The work of the Office is simply to act as a centre for the exchange and distribution of information with regard to the international position of the labour market. Once in possession of such information, it is for the States themselves to proceed as they may think fit with the actual work of recruiting or placing labour. The function of the Office in this connection is thus a limited one: but it is believed that within these limits the Office will be able, in proportion as the number of States availing themselves of these facilities increases, to render valuable service in facilitating that organised recruiting of labour which has been recommended by the Conference.

With regard to such organised recruiting of labour, it must be recorded that no progress has been made in this direction during 1927. Mention must be made, on the contrary, of the denunciation of the agreement on this matter which was formerly in operation between the *Union of South Africa* and *Mozambique*. Moreover, in *France*, the situation of the labour market was such that the Government was obliged to discontinue for the time being its system of recruiting workers from abroad, and adopt the opposite policy of encouraging an exodus of such foreign workers as had already come to the country. During 1927, only 40,000 foreign workers, mainly agriculturalists, were allowed to enter, while about 90,000 were registered by the foreign labour service as having left the country (in addition, no doubt, to many others not so registered). A more strict check is at the same time being kept on foreign workers under the provisions of the Decree of 20 January 1927 relating to the keeping by every employer of the special register required by the Act of 11 August 1926. The desire to protect the national market against an excessive influx of foreign labour has also manifested itself during 1927 in several countries in the form of fresh restrictive measures, such as the *Polish* Decree of 4 June, the *Estonian* Act of 17 May, the *Norwegian* Act of 22 April, the *Swedish* Act of 2 August and the *Dutch* Act of 31 May.

Various steps have also been taken during 1927 in the direction of either suppressing fee-charging employment agencies or establishing a more strict control over them. The most far-reaching measure is that embodied in the *Italian* Labour Charter, which prohibits the engagement of workers for any trade or profession otherwise than through the medium of the official employment exchanges. In *Germany*, Section 55 of the Compulsory Unemployment Insur-

ance and Employment Exchanges Act provides for the suppression of fee-charging agencies as from 1 January 1931; moreover, no licenses to conduct such agencies may be issued or renewed from now on. In *France*, the Chamber of Deputies adopted on 21 January 1928 a Bill designed to repeal the provision of the Labour Code which exempts fee-charging employment agencies for theatrical artistes from the general regulations regarding such agencies, and in particular, from the prohibition to accept any remuneration from workers in search of employment.

147. *The prevention of unemployment.* — Unemployment is essentially the outcome of disequilibrium in the economic organisation, due to seasonal or other fluctuations of a more or less rhythmical kind, or to occasional and irregular disturbances.

The organisation of special relief works, or, for preference, the expedition of public works programmes ordinarily intended to be undertaken at a later date, continues to be regarded in most countries as one of the most ready methods of reducing unemployment. In 1927, as in previous years, recourse was frequently had to this method. No new principles have, however, been elaborated in this connection, and it should merely be pointed out that the Office recognises fully the importance attached by the Conference to the general question of long range planning of public works as a means of reducing unemployment. It will be recalled that the Conference adopted in 1926 a resolution requesting the International Labour Office to consult the Mixed Committee on Economic Crises on the subject of the financial and monetary difficulties involved in such a policy of long range planning. This request was complied with, and with the aid of the Mixed Committee a list has been drawn up of the points in connection with which it would be useful to collate information on experience gained in postponing or advancing the expenditure of money on public works or supplies. Various Governments have accordingly been asked to supply information with regard to the experience they have gained in this connection. Several replies have already come to hand, and it is hoped that it will be possible in the near future to prepare a useful summary of the information received.

Public works and supplies ordered by Government departments are not, however, the only things to be considered. The economic activities of local authorities and large public companies may also be so organised as to contribute to quite an appreciable extent to the regularisation of general economic development. With regard to local bodies, it is satisfactory to note that as a result, apparently, of the work done by the International Labour Office and the Mixed Committee on Economic Crises in indicating the lines along which information

might be collected, the International Union of Local Authorities has, in preparation for a congress to be held at Seville in October 1928, undertaken an enquiry along these lines. The Union has asked its members to indicate whether, as a general rule, they endeavour to regularise their public works programmes, or whether on the contrary they restrict the extent of such work in times of general economic activity, in order to be able to expand it when unemployment is severe. Where the latter plan is followed, information is requested with regard to the method of financing the work in question.

Clearly, if public works are useful for compensating, at any rate to some extent, irregular fluctuations in economic activity, they can be much more useful in this connection in the case of those regular fluctuations which are more or less capable of being forecasted. The latter class includes notably the regular seasonal movements in economic activity, to which the Office was asked by the Conference some years ago to devote special attention. The research undertaken in this connection has been continued during 1927, and the first results will be published during this year in the form of a series of articles in the *International Labour Review* dealing in a general way with the whole field of industry, and more particularly with the clothing and building industries.

In addition, the research which has been going on for some years past into the connection between fluctuations in economic activity and movements in the general prices level has been continued, and the official in charge of this work was able to publish in the November number of the *Review* an article on "Money and Unemployment" which has attracted considerable attention, particularly in the United States. The conclusions reached in this article coincide with a movement of opinion, apparently of increasing strength and importance, in favour of monetary stabilisation. By the latter term is meant not only stabilisation of the exchanges, but also stabilisation of the purchasing power of money, a principle recommended by the Genoa Conference in 1922. In order to achieve this end, it would be necessary to resort to a policy of credit control with a view to ensuring that the supply of monetary media in circulation should correspond exactly to the developing needs of the productive organisation for such instruments of payment. In this way it would be possible to eliminate the alternate expansion and contraction which are responsible for waves of unemployment. Conclusions of some interest in this connection were reached by the International Association for Social Progress at its Assembly at Vienna in September 1927.

Another valuable document on this subject has recently been made available by the United States Congress in the form of a verbatim report of the proceedings of the Banking and Currency Committee of the

House of Representatives. This Committee was concerned during 1926 and 1927 with the examination of a Bill requiring the Federal Reserve Banks to use all the powers at their disposal to ensure stability of the general level of prices. A considerable number of experts appeared before the Committee, and the record of their evidence, which is given in the verbatim report referred to above, is particularly interesting and instructive.

It is, of course, recognised that a policy of monetary stabilisation can eliminate only those fluctuations in employment which result from monetary instability. There are, however, other fluctuations equally important, which are caused notably by a lack of equilibrium, either between national production and the requirements of international trade or among the various lines of production within a country. These two aspects of the problem were dealt with by the Economic Conference of 1927 in its resolutions referring to international exchanges, rationalisation and industrial agreements. While it is true that no final solution has yet been discovered, it is encouraging to note that at any rate an indication has been given of the general lines along which progress may be made towards a better economic organisation, in which unemployment, which has hitherto been such a terrible cause of poverty and economic waste, will be reduced to more manageable proportions.

Migration.

148. — In spite of an appreciable falling off in migratory movements since the war they are still of considerable importance in the economic system of the world. The last statistical report published by the International Labour Office dealt with the years 1920 to 1924¹. The report for 1925 and 1926 which is at present being prepared will enable the present importance of the principal movements to be appreciated.

Generally speaking, the information received in the Office from Governments shows that international migratory movements continue to feel the effects of the post-war economic crises and of the various restrictions enforced by countries of emigration and immigration, and are consequently far from approaching the magnitude of the pre-war period.

149. *Overseas migration.* — All the official statistics for over-seas migration (emigration and immigration) in 1925 and 1926 have not yet been received by the International Labour Office, but the following provisional figures may be given:—

¹ Migration movements 1920-1924 (Studies and Reports—Series O, No. 2).

	1920-24 annual average	1925	1926
Emigrants	835,839	598,780	707,931
Immigrants	1,031,325	728,351	766,846

In spite of the provisional and incomplete nature of this table it is sufficient to show the changes in the total amount of over-seas migration.

If the figures available for individual countries are examined, they show that during 1924 to 1926 there was a continual decrease in over-seas emigration in Austria, where the figures were as follows :

(Annual average for 1920-24)	total 1925	1926
7,820 emigrants.	4,627	3,895.

This was also the case in Spain :

Annual average for 1920-24	1925	1926
91,476	55,544	45,299

On the other hand, the number of over-seas emigrants from other countries showed a considerable falling off in 1925 but increased more or less appreciably in 1926, as the following figures show :

	Annual average for 1920-24	1925	1926
Czechoslovakia . . .	13,104	7,379	12,063
Great Britain	214,067	140,594	166,601
Italy	172,471	114,000	128,000
Poland	55,577	38,649	49,983

In the case of Hungary and Portugal the increase in 1926 was still greater :

	1920-24	1925	1926
Hungary	3,869	3,519	5,856
Portugal	29,287	19,188	34,132

For several other countries a considerable and continuous increase in over-seas emigration is to be noticed in both years, 1925 and 1926 :

	1920-24 average	1925	1926
Germany	48,205	62,202	64,320
Irish Free State . . .	16,236	30,180	30,041
Serb, Croat, Slovene Kingdom	10,329	15,005	15,726

In all the great emigration countries of Europe the volume of over-seas emigration is at present much reduced in comparison with the period before the war. In Italy, in particular, the diminution amounted to more than two-thirds in 1924 and 1925 in comparison with the average for the years 1909-1913. The only exception to this rule is Germany, where the total number of over-seas emigrants trebled during the same period.

A very appreciable decrease in 1925, followed by a considerable increase in 1926, is also shown by the figures received concerning *over-seas immigration*. Mexico is the only country in which over-seas immigration has continuously diminished during the two years under consideration, while in the case of Brazil, on the other hand, the

number of immigrants from over-seas has been continually increasing (74,049 on the average in 1920-1924, 81,656 in 1925 and 117,691 in 1926). In Cuba, Hawaii and Palestine, moreover, over-seas immigration increased in 1925 but more or less slackened during the following year, while the contrary phenomenon is observable in the majority of the other immigration countries, as the following examples will show :

	1920-24	1925	1926
Argentina	132,325	125,366	133,497
Canada	85,658	67,190	115,040
United States	394,144	171,233	182,293

Furthermore, statistics show to what extent over-seas immigration still falls below the pre-war level. The difference is considerable, particularly in the case of countries which have enforced rigorous restrictions on the admission of immigrants.

Such was the case in 1925-1926 with the movement of migrants on the outward journey, i.e., during the period between leaving the emigration country until entry into the country of destination. Regard must also be had, however, to the reverse movement of migrants on the return journey or "repatriated". It is only by deducting the number of the latter from the total number of emigrants who have left the countries of origin and arrived in the countries of destination that it is possible to appreciate the extent to which the population and the labour supply of emigration countries have actually diminished and those of immigration countries have actually increased through migration. With the statistics already received it is possible at this stage to work out preliminary results for 11 European countries (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, Spain and Sweden) in 1925 and 1926.

	1920-24 (annual average)	1925	1926
Emigrants on the outward journey (11 European countries).	620,325	436,166	502,345
Emigrants on the return journey ("repatriated") (same countries)	253,796	199,701	205,139
Net emigration (ex- cess of departures over returns)	366,529	236,465	297,206

These figures show very clearly the close relation existing between emigration properly so-called (emigrants on the outward journey) and repatriation, fluctuations in the former occurring regularly also in the latter.

150. *Continental migration.* — Statistics relating to Continental movements are much less abundant and less complete. It is possible to see, however, that these move-

ments have become very important during recent years not only in Europe but also in America and in Asia.

In the United States the total number of Canadian and Mexican immigrants, which was 157,747 on the average during the period 1920-1924, dropped to 119,492 in 1925 and rose to 154,002 in 1926, but there is no doubt but that these figures are far below the actual numbers. According to official estimates taken from the most authoritative sources the number of clandestine immigrants who come into the United States each year almost exclusively across its land frontiers is not less than 200,000.

In France the total number of Continental immigrants rose from 164,427 (average for 1920-1924) to 176,261 in 1925 and 170,366 in 1926. In Belgium the figures were 24,195, 34,734, and 32,944, and in Germany 27,591, 47,998, and 55,157. It should not be overlooked, however, that, while these figures indicate a very considerable increase in the post-war volume of immigration in Belgium and particularly in France, they show an equally considerable falling off for Germany, where before the war there were on the average 700,000 Continental immigrants annually.

The foregoing figures indicate a somewhat important development which may be attributed to various causes, but it is still to be seen to what extent Continental migration will increase or be maintained in the future. As will be seen later, steps have already been taken in a number of European countries to protect their national labour market, and the economic circumstances prevalent in 1927 have had the effect of restricting the employment of foreign workers in several countries.

151. — The migratory movements of recent years and the possibility of fresh movements make the work of protection undertaken by the International Labour Organisation every day of greater value. During 1927 the Conventions and Recommendations on migration questions continued to receive the attention of the Governments, as the following notes on the action taken on them during the year will show.

Recommendation concerning reciprocity of treatment of foreign workers (1919).

Miscellaneous information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (third legislature) in 1927; existing legislation takes into account the principles laid down by the Recommendation.

(b) Application measures.

Denmark-Switzerland: Agreement of 13 December 1927 concerning reciprocity of treatment in unemployment insurance.

France: Decree of 17 March 1928 promulgating the Labour Treaty signed at Brussels on 24 December 1924 between France and Belgium.

Recommendation concerning communication to the International Labour Office of statistical and other information regarding emigration, immigration and the repatriation and transit of emigrants (1922).

(a) Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Austria: Adopted by the Federal Government (2 July 1927).

Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (1925).

(a) Ratification measures.

Austria: Government report submitted in 1927 to the National Council (Third Legislature) recommending ratification of the Convention; the legislation concerning insurance for workers in industry and commerce contains provisions corresponding to those of the Convention.

Canada: Convention laid on the Table of the House of Commons on 31 March 1927 together with an Order-in-Council deciding whether the subject-matter of the Convention was within the competence of the Dominion Parliament or the provincial legislatures. The provincial Parliaments are competent with certain reservations to give effect to the provisions of the Convention. Copies of this Order-in-Council and of the Convention have been officially communicated to the provincial Governments.

Belgium: Ratification registered on 3 October 1927.

Denmark: Bill for ratification of the Convention approved on 21 December 1927 by the Rigsdag.

Finland: Ratification registered on 17 September 1927.

France: Act of 30 March 1928 for the ratification of the Convention.

Greece: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 20 May 1927.

Hungary: Bill for the ratification of the Convention adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 27 and 28 October 1927 and by the Upper Chamber on 26 November 1927.

India: Ratification registered on 30 September 1927.

Italy: Ratification registered on 15 March 1928.

Latvia: Bill for ratification adopted by the Saeima on 13 March 1928.

Luxemburg: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 25 January 1928.

Netherlands: Ratification registered on 13 September 1927.

Norway: The Storting approved on 27 June 1927 a Government report stating that it is in favour of ratification and proposing to submit to the Storting a Bill to amend existing legislation.

Poland: Ratification registered on 28 February 1928.

Rumania: Submitted to the officers of the Senate (1927).

Siam: Submitted to the competent authorities (1927). H. M. Government does not consider it desirable to adopt legislation giving effect to the provisions of the Convention.

Switzerland: The Federal Assembly in June 1927 authorised the Federal Council to ratify the Convention.

(b) Application measures.

Norway: Bill to amend existing legislation (in preparation).

Recommendation concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (1925).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

Finland: The measures required by the Recommendation were taken by the Act of 17 July 1925 concerning workers' accident insurance and the Act of 17 July 1925 concerning the insurance council (12 September 1927).

Siam: Submitted to the competent authorities; H.M. Government does not think it desirable to adopt legislation giving effect to the Recommendation (15 March 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Government Report submitted in 1927 to the National Council (Third Legislature) proposing approval of the Recommendation. Legislation concerning insurance for workers in industry and commerce contains corresponding provisions.

Canada: Submitted to the House of Commons on 31 March 1927 together with an Order-in-Council deciding whether the subject-matter of the Recommendation was within the competence of the Dominion Parliament or the provincial legislatures. With certain reservations the provincial Parliaments are competent to give effect to these provisions. Copies of the Order-in-Council and of the Recommendation have been officially communicated to the provincial Governments.

Hungary: Government Report upon the Recommendation submitted to Parliament and approved by the Chamber of Deputies in October 1927 and by the Upper Chamber on 26 November 1927.

Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship (1926).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Australia: Submitted to Parliament on 2 March 1928.

Austria: Ratification registered on 29 December 1927.

Belgium: Ratification registered on 15 February 1928.

China: Submitted to the competent authorities (1927).

Czechoslovakia: Submitted to the Council of Ministers and to the central authorities in order to begin the procedure of ratification. Czechoslovak legislation (Act of 15 February 1922 concerning emigration and Decree of 8 June 1922) is in agreement with the Convention.

Finland: Proposal to ratify the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 18 August 1927.

Germany: Bill for conditional ratification of the Convention submitted to the Reichsrat (1927); this ratification will be effective only when the Convention comes into force in Great Britain, France, Belgium, Italy, Norway, Spain and Portugal.

Great Britain: Conditional ratification registered on 16 September 1927; the Convention will come into force in Great Britain when it has been ratified by France, Germany, Netherlands, Italy, Norway and Spain.

India: Ratification registered on 14 January 1928.

Irish Free State: Submitted to Dail Eireann and to the Senate on 23 June 1927.

Japan: Submitted to the Privy Council for ratification on 29 November 1927.

Latvia: On 24 May 1927 the Cabinet of Ministers decided to submit to the Saeima a Bill to ratify the Convention.

Luxemburg: Bill to authorise ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 25 January 1928.

Netherlands: Ratification registered on 13 September 1927.

New Zealand: Submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: Government Report approved by the Storting on 27 June 1927; the need of new regulations concerning the inspection of emigrants on board ship has not been felt and there is no reason for the moment to recommend ratification.

Siam: Submitted to the competent authorities (1927). H.M. Government does not consider it desirable to adopt legislation on this subject.

South Africa: Submitted to the Union Parliament on 31 January 1927. Also examined by the Departments concerned. Has not at the moment any practical interest for the Union.

Sweden: Government proposal submitted to the Riksdag (1927) stating that it is not at present desirable to ratify the Convention. The Minister for Social Affairs is making a fresh examination of the Convention.

Switzerland: In its report for 1926 submitted to the Federal Assembly the Federal Council stated that the need had not been felt in Switzerland up to the present to amend existing regulations (Federal Act of 22 March 1888 concerning the operation of emigration agencies). A final decision will be taken upon this Convention when the maritime States and especially those States with which Switzerland is most concerned, have made their attitude known.

Venezuela: Submitted to the National Congress (1927).

(b) *Application measures.*

India: Amendment of the Indian Emigration (Amendment) Act, 1922, submitted to the Legislative Assembly on 6 September 1927.

Recommendation concerning the protection of emigrant women and girls on board ship (1926).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

Belgium: Approved by the Government (11 February 1928).

Great Britain: Approved by H.M. Government; considered to be in agreement with existing practice (14 September 1927).

India: Resolution for the approval of the Recommendation adopted by the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State on 6 and 15 September 1927. The Indian Legislature has passed an Act giving to the Governor-General in Council power to take the necessary steps to give effect to the Recommendation (12 January 1928).

Irish Free State: Submitted to Dail Eireann and to the Senate on 23 June 1927 (8 August 1927).

Japan: Adopted by the Cabinet on 26 November 1927 (24 January 1928).

Netherlands: New legislation upon the transport of emigrants is in preparation; the Navigation Act is also to be amended. Steps will be taken to see how far effect can be given to the Recommendation (4 August 1927).

Norway: No new legislation is required to apply the Recommendation (28 July 1927).

Siam: Submitted to the competent authorities. H.M. Government does not consider it desirable to adopt legislation on this subject (15 March 1927).

Other information.

- Australia*: Submitted to Parliament on 2 March 1928.
- China*: Submitted to the competent authorities (1927).
- Czechoslovakia*: Submitted to the Council of Ministers and to the central authorities to open the procedure of adherence (1927). Existing legislation is in agreement with the terms of the Recommendation.
- Finland*: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (18 August 1927). No special action is necessary.
- Japan*: Approved by the Cabinet on 26 November 1927.
- New Zealand*: Submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.
- South Africa*: Submitted to the Union Parliament on 31 January 1927. Has no practical interest for the Union at present.
- Sweden*: Government proposal submitted to the Riksdag (1927); the Recommendation requires no special measures on the part of the authorities. Its principles will be taken into account in the revision now proceeding of emigration legislation. Confirmed by Government decision of 1 April 1927.
- Switzerland*: Submitted to the Federal Assembly in the Federal Council's report for 1926. A final examination of the Recommendation will be made when the maritime States, and especially those States with which Switzerland is most concerned, have made their attitude known.
- Venezuela*: Submitted to the National Congress (1927).

(b) Application measures.

- Belgium*: Royal Decree of 15 December 1927 amending the regulations concerning the transport of emigrants.
- India*: Amendment of the Indian Emigration (Amendment) Act, 1922, submitted to the Legislative Assembly on 6 September 1927.
- Netherlands*: Bill concerning the transport of emigrants (in preparation); amendment of the Navigation Act (in preparation).

152. *Bilateral agreements.* — In connection with the measures taken in the various countries to give effect to the Conventions and Recommendations of the Conference mention should be made of the bilateral agreements which regulate migration problems between States:— questions of labour supply, recruitment, employment, treatment of foreign workers, colonisation, etc. These agreements generally form a useful complement to the protective measures enumerated above.

A number of agreements of this kind have been recently concluded, some between countries on the same continent and others between countries on different continents.

Among those which fall within the first category the most important would appear to be the agreement between *Poland* and *Germany* which was concluded on 24 November 1927, after lengthy negotiations, to regulate seasonal agricultural migration from the former to the latter. The chief result of this agreement is to re-establish the seasonal nature of Polish agricultural emigration into the Reich. But the agreement also deals with other questions, such as the status of Polish agricultural emi-

grants, their recruitment and transport, standard contracts on their conditions of work, etc. In a general way it may be said that Polish immigrants are to enjoy equality of treatment with German workers as regards labour legislation. When communicating the text of the agreement to the Office Mr. F. Sokal, Polish Government delegate, drew attention to the fact that the provisions of the agreement were based on the principles recommended by the International Labour Organisation. A previous Convention between the two countries had already provided for equality of treatment as regards unemployment insurance on a reciprocity basis.

An agreement between *Czechoslovakia* and *Austria*, at first limited to the year 1927, was concluded in November 1926 with a view to regulating agricultural emigration from the former into the latter country. In this agreement the seasonal character of the immigration was recognised and the working conditions of the agricultural workers in question were defined. In execution of the agreement a standard labour contract has been drawn up, and a joint arbitration tribunal has been appointed to decide wage disputes between Austrian agricultural employers and Czechoslovakian seasonal workers.

Administrative arrangements were made in March 1927 between *Germany* and *Austria* for co-ordinating the activity of the official services in the two countries which supply emigrants with information and help to find them employment.

No important labour treaty has been concluded in Europe since the Franco-Belgian treaty which was signed in 1924, but a number of technical and administrative agreements have been entered into by *France*, chiefly with *Belgium*, *Italy*, *Poland* and *Czechoslovakia*, on various questions relating to social insurance, relief and establishment, etc. At the beginning of 1927 the French Government was induced by an unemployment crisis to suspend immigration to a large extent. The French authorities informed various European Governments of this decision, and the latter in turn warned their nationals of the situation in France or even went so far as to restrict temporarily emigration to that country. A declaration on reciprocity of treatment as regards unemployment insurance was signed on 9 February between *Italy* and *Switzerland*. When communicating this declaration to the Office, Mr. G. de Michelis, on behalf of the Italian Government, stated that the agreement arose out of Article 3 of the Unemployment Convention adopted by the Conference in 1919.

During 1927 negotiations relating to emigration questions were entered into by the *United States* with foreign countries, and

particularly with their neighbours. The new regulations for immigration by land formed the subject of correspondence between the United States and *Canadian* Foreign Ministers last year. No information has been published as to direct negotiations between the United States and *Mexican* Governments. But it is noteworthy that the American Federation of Labor approached the Mexican trade unions and the Mexican Government on several occasions during 1927 with a view to the enforcement by Mexico of restrictions on overseas immigration into that country and emigration to the United States.

One of the most noteworthy agreements concluded in 1927 between countries on different continents was that signed on 19 February 1927 between *Poland* and the State of *Sao Paulo (Brazil)* on the subject of Polish emigration to that State. This arrangement settles the procedure to be followed in the recruitment and selection of emigrants in Poland, and provides for the appointment of a delegate of the Sao Paulo Government at Warsaw and a delegate of the Polish Government at Sao Paulo, the former to supervise recruitment operations, and the latter to remain in contact with the immigrants, in agreement with employers and the immigration authorities, and to facilitate generally the application of the agreement and the immigrants' labour contracts. Other clauses ensure that Polish workers shall enjoy the widest equality of treatment with Brazilian workers, and provide for various measures of moral and material assistance for Polish workers in Sao Paulo. There are also clauses dealing with facilities for colonisation which may be extended to the latter. A procedure has also been instituted for fixing the maximum annual contingent of Polish immigrants to come under the agreement, but the Government of Sao Paulo has suspended as from October 1927 the payment of the advances it used to make for the immigrants' travelling expenses.

Negotiations have taken place between *Brazil* and *Italy*, but no new agreement on the subject of migration was concluded in 1927.

On 16 November 1927 a Convention was signed between the *Argentine Republic* and *Denmark*, which provides for unrestricted equality of treatment as regards workmen's compensation for accidents. Four other Conventions had already been concluded on the same subject by the Argentine with *Austria*, *Belgium*, *Italy* and *Spain*.

Following upon an administrative arrangement entered into in March 1927 between *Canada* and *Italy*, a Canadian Government Office has been opened in Italy for the inspection of Italian emigrants wishing to proceed to the Dominion.

Further, the *South African* Government has dropped its Bill for the segregation of Indians in that country, and various advantages have been granted to the latter, including the benefit of South African legislation on labour disputes and on wages. On the other hand, recognition has been given to the right of South Africa to take all steps considered indispensable to maintain the standard of life of the population at a sufficiently high level, and the Union Government is to carry out a scheme for encouraging, by means of subsidies and other advantages, Indians residing in South Africa to leave the country.

153. *Tendencies of national regulations.*— It would be difficult to separate entirely the work of protection from the general policy of the States in the matter of migration, for the former is still to a large extent affected by questions of policy. In this respect the year 1927 and the beginning of 1928 have been characterised by several changes of considerable importance in the systems adopted by the States to regulate, for their own purposes, international migration.

One of the principal facts to be noted is the inclination of the chief emigration countries, at least in Europe, to tighten up the restrictions in force. In *Italy*, far-reaching changes in emigration policy have been made since last year's Report. Under the Public safety Act, promulgated on 6 November 1926, control of emigration and immigration was made stricter, and provision was made for sternly repressing clandestine migration. Italy is endeavouring, as far as possible, to retain her population for her own home land and colonies. The Fascist Government has laid down the principle that emigration is a source of impoverishment for Italy, and that the problems connected with that subject must be considered as above all political questions. Hence the various efforts made to find outlets for national labour in Italy and the Italian colonies. Hence, moreover, a number of decisions requiring all Italians who desire to emigrate to produce either a regular employment contract or a request from a near relative, as well as various documents on which the Italian authorities decide whether leave to quit the country is to be given or not.

The policy of *Spain* and of *Poland* has undergone a change in 1927 which is similar in many respects to the change in Italy. In *Spain* the official emigration services were reorganised in September 1927. In December a number of restrictions were placed on the emigration of women, young persons, and unskilled workers, with a view to avoiding the risk that they might fall into distress abroad. On various occasions the Spanish Government has asserted its intention to keep the active population as far as possible within the Kingdom, and

to stimulate the development of the agricultural and industrial resources of the country. In *Poland* the Decree-Act of 11 October 1927 forms what is the most recent, and probably the most complete, set of regulations which have been issued on emigration. Under the new regulations, all activities relating to emigration, engagement of labour for abroad, and colonisation outside the country, are placed under State supervision. Various clauses restrict the emigration of young men and women, while the right to an emigrant's passport is restricted to those whose admission into the country of destination, as well as their employment or maintenance, is assured in advance.

Outside Europe, *Mexico* is also endeavouring to prevent the exodus of Mexicans to the United States.

While not adopting so restrictive an attitude, the Governments of various other emigration countries have definitely affirmed their intention to supervise closely the development of this phenomenon in their territory. Some States—e.g. *Denmark*, *Estonia*, *Lithuania* and *Sweden*—have taken measures to ensure that emigrants shall receive information under official supervision, in the hope of thus reducing the volume of emigration or with the intention of forewarning emigrants of the risks to which, in their ignorance, they might be exposed. In *Czechoslovakia* the Inter-Ministerial Advisory Committee for Emigration and Colonisation has on several occasions recommended preventive measures for diminishing emigration and an improved organisation of the efforts to protect national emigrants and the economic and other interests of the country. In *Germany* a considerable amount of liberty is left, but the Federal Home Minister insisted, in March 1927, on the political importance of this phenomenon for Germany and the desirability of taking economic measures to prevent the exodus of skilled workers, and agricultural workers in particular.

In other countries, again, measures have been taken by the authorities in which the desire of stimulating and facilitating emigration is more or less clearly asserted. In the *Netherlands* efforts have been made to find employment for emigrants and settlers abroad, and in certain cases the authorities make advances to the emigrants. In *Austria* also, following a decision of the Unemployment Insurance Commission in March 1927, Austrian unemployed, who are assured of employment abroad, are authorised to receive an allowance in certain circumstances to cover part of their travelling expenses. In *Japan*, however, the Government appears to be the most interested in the emigration problem considered as a means of remedying the economic and demographic situation. In 1927 the Government's policy of encouraging emigration,

particularly to South American countries, was accentuated, and an effort was made to awaken the interest of the population in emigration, to select and prepare the future emigrants, to assist financially in their transport and settlement in the country of destination, as well as to facilitate their assimilation in that country. Under an Act adopted on 29 March 1927, "emigration societies" have been created: these are co-operative groups of future emigrants who collaborate in carrying out the above programme under strict official supervision.

The tendency towards restriction has been no less marked in 1927 in immigration than in emigration countries.

This is particularly evident in European immigration countries, almost all of which have put into force or maintain measures limiting the right of foreigners to enter their territory to work, or even to accept a situation after having stayed in the country. For instance, in *Finland*, *Hungary* and *Norway*, a foreign worker is not allowed to enter the country or to work there unless he is in possession of a work permit. In *France*, foreign workers are required to produce an employment contract countersigned by the competent Minister at the frontier, while an identity card, supplied on payment, has also to be produced. Although the unemployment crisis became less acute towards the middle of 1927, most of the measures limiting the immigration of further foreign workers have remained in force. At the same time there is a system of sanitary control for immigrants before leaving the country of origin, and progress has been made in the administrative organisation of immigration. In *Rumania* a tax, variable in amount, has been placed on immigrants, while in *Greece* permission to practise a certain number of trades has been reserved under a recent circular for natives of the country and foreigners who have resided there for a long period, and in *Iceland* a number of restrictions have been placed on the employment of foreign workers.

Every year the contingents of immigrants to the *United States* are much larger than in the case of other overseas immigration countries: but it would appear that, generally speaking, public opinion in the United States is in favour of maintaining or even tightening up the restrictions on immigration. Migration across the land frontiers of Europeans who have immigrated to *Mexico* or *Canada* and who go to work daily in the United States was subjected to regulations in 1927 similar to those applying to immigrants arriving directly from Europe. It is not possible at the moment to foretell what may be the contingents of foreigners to be admitted to the United States after 1 July 1928. Among the various proposals submitted, the most important contemplate either extending to the various American countries the contingent system hitherto

applied to immigration from Europe or mitigating certain features of the present regulations, such as the difficulties which prevent the wives and children of immigrants already in the country from coming out to the United States and joining them.

Mexico has to some extent adopted a policy of restriction similar to that of the United States, and has strengthened the control of immigration and transit over Mexican territory. In particular the admission of immigrant workers from the Near East has been suspended until the end of 1929. In *Panama*, also, various restrictions on immigration have been maintained in force, with a few exceptions in favour of immigrants from Central America and the West Indies.

As against this considerable list of prohibitions and restrictions, mention should be made of certain countries which on the whole encouraged, or at any rate did not restrict, immigration during 1927.

On the whole the South American countries are still disposed to encourage immigration in certain circumstances, although in most of these countries, e.g., *Argentina* and *Brazil*, there is a tendency towards more systematic selection with a view to eliminating immigrants who may be undesirable for economic or other reasons. In *Bolivia*, *Ecuador*, *Paraguay* and *Peru* Acts and Decrees have been adopted containing programmes for encouraging immigration and agricultural colonisation, and various projects have been drawn up for colonisation with the aid of foreign agriculturists. In the *Union of Socialist Soviet Republics*, too, recent regulations show the Government's desire to encourage the immigration of foreign agriculturists and skilled workers. Up to the present, however, the results obtained appear to be inconsiderable.

Migration in mandated or colonial territories continues to be fairly strictly controlled, as is shown by various provisions recently enacted in the *Cameroons*, *Togo* and *Transjordan*. The work of Jewish colonisation in *Palestine* is apparently encountering certain economic difficulties.

In the *British Empire*, the endeavours made to carry out the programme contained in the Empire Colonisation Act of 1922 were continued in 1927, and great efforts have been made to find wider outlets in the Dominions for emigrants from the home country. On 24 February 1928 the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Amery, stated that unemployment in Great Britain and emigration within the Empire were two problems which should be considered separately. He expressed the hope that the movement from the home country to the Dominions would progress more rapidly in the future, as British emigrants became

better adapted to the needs of the countries of destination and the economic conditions in those countries gradually improved. In *Canada*, the Federal Government and various Provincial Governments in 1927 accentuated their policy of encouraging British emigration, particularly for young men and families intended for agricultural work. The same Government and the two great Canadian transport companies have continued to show interest, though not to the same extent, in agricultural immigration from certain countries of Western and Northern Europe considered as "preferred countries", although certain temporary restrictions were made in May 1927 on the admission of certain categories of immigrants from Continental Europe. Moreover, the Federal Government has introduced stricter control over the sanitary inspection of immigrants and the examination of their occupational capabilities before leaving Europe. In *Australia*, the Federal authorities and more especially the Federal Development and Migration Commission have continued to work on the carrying out of the agreement with the British Government which provides for the employment of a large number of British settlers in the Commonwealth by means of a loan of £34,000,000. Foreigners do not come under the settlement schemes to which the British and Australian Governments contribute. Neither in *New Zealand*, where the admission of immigrants, except for certain classes of agricultural workers and domestic servants, was still prohibited in 1927, nor in the other Dominions are there at present any considerable outlets for immigration, and Great Britain is turning more towards various British Colonies in Africa, more particularly, to *Kenya*, *Uganda*, and *Southern Rhodesia*, for an outlet for additional contingents of national settlers. Different migration problems are raised in *South Africa* and *India*. An agreement was concluded between these two countries at the beginning of 1927, which has already been referred to. Moreover, in various circles in South Africa the fear of insufficient labour at an early date in the Rand Mines has been raised by the Portuguese Government's denunciation of the so-called *Mozambique Convention* in November 1927. Important labour contingents continue to leave *India* for *Ceylon*, where a Bill has been introduced with a view to supplementing the protective measures for Indian workers.

It will thus be seen that the year 1927 has been characterised more than previous years by fresh important developments in the matter of migration. Several great emigration countries have made the emigration of their subjects either in fact or even in law subject to authorisation and preliminary enquiry, and some Governments have asserted more or less categorically their desire to prevent the exodus of

their nationals. On the other hand, various immigration countries require new arrivals to furnish additional guarantees, which make it more difficult for them to enter the country or to find employment.

Above all, different States are coming more and more to consider it their duty to exercise in their respective territories a definite and systematic control over the circulation of individuals in general and workers in particular and not to allow emigration to take place outside the limits fixed by national law.

154. *The movement of ideas.* — All these measures and systematic policies adopted by certain States could not fail to provoke further thought on emigration problems and fresh tendencies of ideas: and there has been much further study and discussion of the varied aspects of migratory movements.

One of the chief international events of 1927 in this connection would appear to have been the meeting of the World Population Congress which took place at Geneva in August 1927, and which was attended by a great many private individuals interested in demographic questions who had been attracted from various European, American and Asiatic countries by the possibility of exchanging views unofficially on these questions.

One of the sittings was devoted to the international aspect of migration. The rapporteur for this question submitted in his own name a number of reflections suggested by the demographic and economic situation in countries of emigration and immigration. He held the view that migration, if it was organised in the common interest and subject to carefully thought out and voluntarily concluded agreements, could, instead of being a source of international distrust and dispute, effectively help in improving the relations between nations. It may be hoped that the contact thus made for the first time will not be barren of results, and that the permanent organisation for the study of population questions which it was decided at the Congress to create will resume in an impartial and scientific spirit the discussions which were begun on national and international emigration problems.

As has been stated in an earlier chapter, the second Conference of the Institute of Pacific Relations met at Honolulu in July 1927. The migration problem, and particularly its economic and social aspects, were discussed by unofficial delegates from practically all the northern Pacific countries, as well as from Australia and New Zealand. Again, as has also been stated in an earlier chapter, the second General Assembly of the International Association for Social Progress, held in September 1927 at Vienna, recommended that unemployment insurance systems should be extended to immigrant workers, and that an interna-

tional enquiry should be held into the legal status of foreign workers in different countries. The recommendation of the Assembly on rationalisation and the preliminary exchanges of views on vocational guidance also drew attention to the relation between these questions and emigration problems.

One of the most noteworthy events of 1927 was the action of the International Parliamentary Commercial Conference, which placed the problem of migration as between Europe and America on the agenda of its Session held at Rio de Janeiro at the beginning of September 1927. The discussions brought to light profound differences between certain groups of delegates, and furnished an opportunity for several of them—in particular, the South American delegates—to specify their views clearly. It must be admitted that the discussions of the Rio de Janeiro Conference, though interesting in themselves, seem rather to have dealt with questions of principle, and considered migration chiefly in its theoretical and political aspects. It is difficult at present to appreciate the extent to which these discussions will facilitate the solution of the highly complex problems which migration raises between State and State. But even at this stage practical indications of undoubted utility may be found in the resolutions adopted—e.g. the recommendation calling for the improvement and co-ordination of migration statistics, an idea to which attention has long been drawn by the International Labour Office, and which it has been sought for years to develop.

At the Eleventh Plenary Assembly of the International Federation of League of Nations Societies, which was held at Berlin in May 1927, it was proposed that the official international institutions should examine effective means of obtaining a satisfactory international regulation of the migration problem, dealing first of all with exchanges of information between the Government Departments concerned and the International Labour Office.

Private initiative has not been less active. Philanthropic and religious societies for the protection of emigrants show a tendency towards greater reciprocal collaboration to strengthen their work of assisting emigrants. For instance, at the beginning of 1927 three of the more important Jewish protection associations concluded an agreement with the object of more effectively co-ordinating and bringing into line their various activities. Further, the international Conference of private organisations for the protection of migrants has been continuing its work, and at its Fourth Session (Geneva, September 1927) a series of recommendations was unanimously adopted as the result of an enquiry undertaken by the affiliated associations in Europe and America on the subject of the separation of migrating members of the same family, which is being one of the results of the regulations in force in certain countries, and more particularly

in the United States. The other questions dealt with by the Conference were those of the official recognition of protective organisations in international matters, further collaboration between members of the Conference in the various countries, measures to deal with frauds committed on migrants and assistance to emigrants who are returning home without any resources. The importance of the protection of migrants has also been recognised by the important women's organisations, and more especially the International Council of Women, as well as the Seventh International Congress for the suppression of the white slave traffic, which met at London in June 1927.

There is little doubt, therefore, but that there is a revival of general interest in emigration questions.

More and more attention is being given to the importance of exchanges of population and labour as a factor in economic and political international relations. Different views are held as to whether the modern world would be more prosperous if migration were facilitated or abolished or better organised, whether the idea of collaboration between countries of emigration and immigration should be favoured or opposed, and as to how far and in what circumstances such an idea is capable of practical realisation. This important controversy, which has as yet scarcely appeared in outline, may be expected to last for a long time.

It would be idle to deny at the present time the necessity or the power of national regulations on migration. Their development is striking, and would appear to fulfil an essential requirement of the modern world. The three volumes of the study which the Office is preparing on them leave a convincing impression that the great ideas of *laissez faire* and *laissez passer*, which have for long governed the policy of emigration and immigration countries, are being more and more abandoned. Admittedly, from the point of view of individual liberty, the present general development may sometimes be thought to go too far, but it cannot be neglected or systematically opposed. Nevertheless, to judge by more than one recent symptom, the world displays a tendency at the present time to separate into several camps. Usually States are arranged in two main groups, fundamentally united but distrustful of each other: emigration countries and immigration countries. This situation appears to have been accentuated at every conference and international congress held recently. Not to mention every manifestation of this state of mind, attention may be simply drawn, firstly, to the animated discussions of the International Parliamentary Commercial Conference at Rio de Janeiro, and, secondly, to the decision that population questions should not be expressly placed on the agenda of the International Economic Conference which met in May last.

No doubt the latter decision was justified by several practical reasons, but the impression was left that the majority of the States desired that there should be no possibility of examining international emigration questions.

The Conference which is meeting at Havana at the time of writing this Report, and which is being attended by delegates from the majority of emigration and immigration countries, will furnish an opportunity for estimating how far this development has proceeded, and the possibilities which remain for international collaboration in the field of migration. It is this development of international collaboration which the International Labour Office will endeavour to foster, both by its studies and publications and by its meetings and negotiations.

Already the assistance of the Office is being called for more and more. The fact is that the need of international documentary information is increasingly felt for facilitating not only the study of emigration questions but also the solution of numerous practical problems. By its publications, periodical or otherwise, following the fluctuations and varying aspects of migration, and more particularly by a careful study of the present state of national and international migration regulations throughout the world, the Office has contributed during the past year to supplying the elements of information and working material which have been called for. Its historical study of migration statistics is being printed and will be published in 1928 by the National Bureau of Economic Research: it has already been warmly commended by experts in the United States.

The number of international groups and bodies interested in various aspects of migration is very large, and they all feel the need of information and research. The collaboration of the Office is sought more than ever from all directions. Save in those cases which are outside its competence, the Office never fails to respond. To the requests which have been made to it—to examine the workers' claims for international action on migration—to study a draft standard contract which would lay down rules for the employment of workers recruited in bulk abroad—to contribute to the erection of an international insurance system protecting overseas emigrants against the risks of accident while at sea—to collaborate in drafting an international Convention on the economic treatment of nationals of one country settled in the territory of another—or to share in an enquiry into the material and moral protection of music hall artistes on tour abroad, etc.—to all these appeals the Office has responded. Moreover, when requested to take part in the Third International Conference on Emigration and Immigration, the Office was glad to place the services of several of its collaborators at the disposal of the Conference, and will study with the greatest interest the in-

dications furnished by the Governments on that occasion.

In carrying out the work entrusted to it for the protection of emigrants, strictly within the limits of its competence, the International Labour Office is still, as it has often been recognised it should be, the principal international centre for migration questions.

Russian and Armenian Refugees.

155. — The International Labour Office has been associated in the positive work of settling Russian and Armenian refugees for more than three years. The circumstances will doubtless be remembered in which in 1924 the League of Nations transferred to the Office the task of completing the work which it had begun.

The general plan of organisation established in 1924 has remained broadly speaking the same. With its limited resources (the budget for the refugees amounting only to 339,175 francs) and in spite of increasing difficulties, the Office has been endeavouring to fulfil the task which has devolved upon it.

The Office has been helped financially by a number of countries. The Austrian and Bulgarian Governments, for example, assume sole responsibility for the maintenance of the Office's delegations at Vienna and Sofia. The German Government, too, contributes half the cost of the Berlin delegation, and the French and Polish Governments grant subsidies to the Office's Correspondents at Beyrout and Warsaw.

In accordance with the division of labour decided upon in 1924, the High Commissioner of the League of Nations has retained responsibility for the political questions which necessarily arise out of the settlement of the refugees, and for the management of the funds in his hands, to which the Office has recourse for advances for the refugees' travelling and settlement expenses. The High Commissioner also ensures the carrying out of the decisions of the inter-Governmental Conference of May 1926 on the establishment of a revolving fund and on the so-called "Nansen pass" system for the refugees. These passports, which have been in force for several years, have now been recognised by 51 Governments for Russian refugees and by 36 Governments for Armenian refugees.

The decisions of the Conference of 1926 have so far been adopted by 19 Governments. This Conference, it will be remembered, established *inter alia* the system of special stamps of five gold francs which are affixed yearly on the passports of self-supporting refugees. The sale of these stamps has already realised the sum of 200,000 Swiss francs, and this fund is steadily increasing as a result of the adherence of other Governments to the arrangement of

May 1926. This is, however, not the only money at the disposal of the High Commissioner; other sums available for the settlement of the refugees are obtained from contributions from other sources. These include Dr. Nansen's "private funds", amounting to £12,000, the credits of £12,500 and £5,000 opened by the Czechoslovak and German Governments respectively, £14,000 generously guaranteed by the British United Armenian Committee (consisting of the Armenian (Lord Mayor's) Fund, the Save the Children Fund, the Friends of Armenia, and the Society of Friends), £3,000 given by the Near East Relief, and £500 given by the *Union arménienne de Bienfaisance* for the settlement of refugees in Syria. Considerable sums have also been collected in America for the special purpose of evacuating the refugees at Constantinople. Thanks to the unsparing efforts of Dr. Anson Phelps-Stokes, Canon of Washington Cathedral, the sum of \$100,000 has been placed at the disposal of the High Commissioner by the American Red Cross, the Catholic Near East Welfare Association, the Laura-Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, the Near East Relief, the Russian Refugees Relief Society, the American Jewish Joint Distribution Committee, and other philanthropic bodies. The Lebanon Government, too, has made a grant of £25,000 for building a quarter for Armenian refugees in Beyrout.

Various bodies have been set up to assist the High Commissioner. There is, firstly, the Central Advisory Committee, created at the same time as the High Commissariat, which consists of representatives of some thirty of the more important relief and refugee organisations in the world. There is also a special Committee for the establishment of Armenian refugees in Syria, consisting of representatives of phil-Armenian organisations in various countries and a representative of the International Red Cross Committee and of the American relief organisations.

Such, then, are the broad outlines of the present organisation. For a long time the Governing Body refrained from going into the budget of this organisation in any detail. As its duties were simply to carry on work which had been begun by others, it left it almost entirely to the Assembly of the League of Nations to settle the budget total.

As, however, the work is still being carried on from year to year in spite of its temporary character, the Governing Body has had to consider the responsibilities which the International Labour Organisation was undertaking. With a view to forming a clear idea of the value and duration of the work it has assumed, and seeing how and when it might be possible to terminate it, the Governing Body has recently decided to transform its refugee Sub-Committee into a permanent Committee and to go in detail into the posts budgeted for the Refugees Section and its different settlement schemes.

Recent progress in the work of the Refugees Section has necessarily been slower and more difficult than in earlier years. In 1925 the Office succeeded in placing no fewer than 25,000 refugees. This important result was largely due to the close co-operation which had been established with the French *Service de la main-d'œuvre étrangère* and the *Service de la main-d'œuvre agricole*, and which enabled the Office to settle some thousands of refugees in industrial employment, or as agricultural workers. It was even then obvious, however, that such a high figure of placings could not be maintained in succeeding years. The French labour market had reached saturation point, and conditions inside the country were bound to change before long. In 1925, accordingly, the Assembly of the League authorised the Office to establish a delegation of the Refugees Section in the Argentine and Brazil, with a view to exploring the possibilities of refugee settlement in South America. In spite of the efforts of this new delegation, which naturally could not produce full results immediately, the number of refugees placed in 1926 fell to 12,000.

At the time of drafting this Report, the Office has not received full figures for the placings in 1927, but those to hand for the first nine months of the year indicate that approximately 7,000 refugees found employment during that period. To this number must be added the 5,000 Armenian refugees for whom arrangements have been made to settle them in Syria.

This decrease in the number of refugees placed should be attributed, not only to the causes already mentioned and in particular the closing of the labour markets, but also to the increasing difficulties encountered in selecting suitable refugees for employment. The field of choice is becoming narrower, and the remaining refugees belong to categories for which it is difficult to find employment.

Nevertheless, in spite of every obstacle, the Office may be proud of having found employment, during a period of under three years, for no less than 50,000 refugees.

Most of the refugees came from the following countries: Austria, Bulgaria, China, Czechoslovakia, Estonia, Germany, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, and Turkey. They were mostly transferred to the Argentine, Armenia, Canada, Egypt, France, Paraguay and Russia. These settlement figures are not, however, the only ones with which the Office should be credited. In 1925 when the heavy task of settling the refugees was taken over, the Office found that there were no less than 400,000 refugees without employment. This figure, according to the latest statistics available, cannot to-day be more than 250,000. Apart from the 50,000 refugees for whom the Office knows that it has itself found employment, a large number of other placings

have been effected on which the Office, directly or indirectly, has had a real influence and for which it can on the whole claim a certain amount of credit.

But there still remains the question of placing those refugees who have still to be found regular employment. Great hopes were placed in the possibilities of settlement in South America, but it was foreseen at the time that the delegations at Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Ayres could not produce very big results immediately after their establishment. The early months of their existence were devoted to enquiries, establishing relations with the authorities and examining available offers of employment. Nevertheless, at the inter-Governmental Conference convened by the High Commissioner in June 1927, the Office was able to notify offers for the settlement of 700 refugees in the Argentine, 25,000 in Bolivia, 1100 in Brazil, 125 in Paraguay and 350 in Peru. The Government of Paraguay also invited the Office to have a general immigration and colonisation scheme drawn up by an expert.

These first offers, coming after little more than a year's work in South America, were extremely encouraging, though the Office has not found it possible to take full advantage of them.

The Office is fully conscious of the responsibilities it is undertaking. It cannot allow the refugees to be exposed to the treatment to which emigrants were subjected in the past by private recruiting agencies. It has to insist upon conditions of labour for the refugees which really respond to its own ideals, but which are not always guaranteed by private colonisation enterprises. After one or two disappointments, the Office is carefully examining all the acceptable offers, and will endeavour to lose no real opportunity of settling refugees satisfactorily in South America.

All the same, the Office must still look towards other countries and make an appeal to those which have already absorbed a large number of refugees, such as France and her African colonies and protectorates. In this connection the Office is able to record the successful outcome of its recent negotiations with the *Office de la main-d'œuvre agricole* for the establishment of Russian refugees as *métayers* in France. Through the generous assistance of this Office it was possible in 1927, the first year in which this new method of settlement was tried, to settle about 1,000 refugees as *métayers*, small farmers or farm workers in the south-west of France. Through the co-operation of the *Credit Agricole*, too, it is expected that a further 5,000 refugees will be placed in the course of the next few years. Similar possibilities for settlement are being examined in Corsica, Algeria, Tunis and other countries bordering the Mediterranean.

The Office's work is thus gradually making progress in spite of all kinds of difficulties which have to be overcome. But,

though this work is becoming more and more difficult, there are cases where it is really urgent. Two such cases have attracted the Office's particular attention—the position of the refugees in Constantinople and in China.

The 3,000 refugees remaining in Constantinople had been required by the Turkish Government either to acquire Turkish nationality or to leave Turkey before 1 August 1927. At the request of the Office the Angora Government agreed to suspend the enforcement of this measure. The date for expulsion was later fixed for 6 February 1928, subject to the consideration of a further postponement if the Office could evacuate a certain number of refugees before that date.

The situation of the Russian refugees in China was hardly less critical. It is known that there are 17,000 unemployed Russian refugees in various parts of China, in addition to about 10,000 who have recently been thrown out of employment in Shanghai as a result of the closing of foreign undertakings. There are, moreover, some thousands of other Russian refugees in various parts of China of whom it is impossible to obtain any definite information. Their lot may, however, be gauged from reports which indicate that nearly 4,000 of them have taken up service in the Chinese armies and that 1800 of this number have been killed or disabled.

These two distressing problems were brought up at the last Assembly of the League of Nations. Dr. Nansen, the High Commissioner for Refugees, made it clear that both problems were essentially of an international character, and that international action was necessary in order to solve them. He appealed to the Assembly to place sufficient funds at his disposal so that advantage could be taken of all settlement offers which were obtained directly through the Office. The Assembly, however, felt unable to respond to this appeal.

In these circumstances the first thing to be done was to endeavour to obtain a further postponement of the expulsion of the refugees from Constantinople. And it is gratifying to record that in a humanitarian spirit and out of goodwill towards the Office the Turkish Government agreed to defer until 6 February 1929 the final date for the departure of the refugees from Turkey. The Office, too, immediately set to work to obtain by every possible means such offers of employment as were still available, and succeeded in obtaining offers for the majority of the refugees able to perform manual labour.

But the mere finding of employment was not enough. It was also necessary to find funds for the transfer of the refugees from Constantinople, for the large majority of them were not in a position to pay their transport expenses. As has been already stated, in such circumstances as these the Office has recourse to the High Commissioner for refugees, who, within the limits

of his funds, advances their transport and settlement expenses.

An estimate worked out by Refugees Service showed that no less than £47,250 would be required to enable the refugees in Constantinople to take advantage of the various offers open to them, of which amount the sum of £15,000, to be expended on the settlement of unemployable refugees, would not be recoverable. If the whole of the Nansen Funds were devoted to this purpose, there would remain no money for dealing with such problems as those in China and in countries which have not yet made special contributions for the evacuations of refugees from their territory, and still £36,000 would be required to secure the departure of the refugees from Constantinople.

The High Commission was therefore faced with the alternative either of not taking advantage of the offers obtained by the Office and leaving the refugees in Constantinople to their fate, or of making an appeal to private sources for the requisite funds. The first alternative clearly could not be contemplated, and an urgent appeal was therefore addressed by the High Commission to certain American philanthropic institutions which had given assistance in the past. Hence the sum of \$100,000, which, as already mentioned, was collected through the untiring work of Dr. Anson Phelps-Stokes.

The circumstances in which the Office was led to examine, in agreement with the mandatory Power, a scheme for the settlement of Armenian refugees in Syria have been explained in previous Reports. The execution of the scheme is progressing normally, and, according to the reports from the French High Commissioner for Syria, is giving great satisfaction.

It will be remembered that there are in all 90,000 Armenian refugees in Syria, of whom 50,000 are regarded as more or less self-supporting, 28,000 are living from hand to mouth and 12,000 are destitute. The attention of the Office has therefore been first concentrated on the settlement of the two last mentioned categories of 40,000 refugees, and primarily on the establishment of the 12,000 destitute refugees. The 40,000 refugees to be settled consist of 24,000 agriculturists, 4,000 rural artisans and 12,000 urban artisans.

The High Commissioner for Refugees has appointed an Advisory Committee consisting of representatives of phil-Armenian organisations in various countries. The work of the Committee is to raise funds for the settlement of the refugees, advise the High Commissioner as to the employment of those funds, and make recommendations to the Office on various aspects of the settlement work. There is also a Refugee Settlement Committee at Beyrout, which includes representatives of the High Commissioner and of the local authorities. The delegate of the Office at Beyrout is also assisted by an Advisory Committee, consisting of representatives of interested relief

organisations on the spot, and by sub-committees of the Beyrout Committee working in the Alexandretta and Aleppo areas.

Each colony or village consists of not less than 30 families. A *mudir* (or mayor) is placed at the head of each colony, and is assisted by a Council of three persons nominated by the members of the colony. This Council is responsible for the establishment and organisation of the colony and for the maintenance of good discipline and order. It also has to control applications for advances and their repayment.

The Councils of the various colonies are placed under an Armenian chief, who is appointed by them and has to carry out the following functions :—

- (1) Recruitment of colonists, chosen as far as possible for each colony from peasants from the same village in Anatolia ;
- (2) Organisation of the colonies and of the public works and cultivation in them ;
- (3) Transmission of advances for the settlement work to the village councils, as and when approved by him ;
- (4) Keeping accounts of the advances thus made, with details of their expenditure ;

- (5) Transmission of fortnightly reports on the progress made by each colony;
- (6) Recovery of advances.

Eight colonies, two urban and six agricultural, have already been established. In the urban colonies 458 families are being settled at a total cost of £ 27,000 ; in the agricultural 586 families have been settled at a total cost of £ 22,906 through the purchase of ten properties of a total area of 1,790 hectares. The refugees usually undertake to repay loans in five or ten annual instalments.

The above brief survey will suffice to bring out the novel character of the work being undertaken on behalf of the refugees, and it will be seen that increasing attention is being devoted to their permanent establishment. The period of large-scale movements of population is at an end. In the early days the most urgent needs had to met, and what was frequently unsuitable employment had to be accepted in order to relieve congestion in the great refugee centres. But on the lines which are being followed now definite and fruitful results can be anticipated. The refugee settlement work is now a form of colonisation, which is developing from day to day and helping to build up fresh stores of human capital.

V. Protection of special classes of workers.

Protection of seamen.

156. — Despite the opposition which on occasion is manifested in certain quarters to the Office's activities for promoting the protection of seamen, and despite the difficulties which sometimes seem to make it impossible to solve certain problems by conciliation and agreement among the parties directly concerned, the progress of ratifications and of national legislation continues to afford satisfactory evidence of the real utility and effect of the Office's work.

The following brief notes show in the usual way 1927's contribution to the measures taken to give effect to the Conference's decisions on maritime questions.

Recommendation concerning the limitation of hours of work in inland navigation (1920).

Miscellaneous information.

Austria : Applied by Act of 17 December 1919.

Recommendation concerning the limitation of hours of work in the fishing industry (1920).

No new measures in 1927.

Recommendation concerning the establishment of national seamen's codes (1920).

Application measures.

Belgium : Bill to regulate seamen's articles of agreement adopted by the Senate on 3 May 1927 and submitted to the Chamber of Representatives.

Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea (1920).

Ratification measures.

Hungary : Ratification registered on 1 March 1928.

Luxemburg : Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Norway : Ratification registered on 7 October 1927.

Recommendation concerning unemployment insurance for seamen (1920).

No new measures in 1927.

Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship (1920).

Ratification measures.

France : Bill for ratification, already adopted by the Chamber, adopted by the Senate on 17 March 1928.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen (1920).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

France: Ratification registered on 25 January 1928.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

(b) *Application measures.*

Japan: Free national employment exchanges set up on 1 April 1927.

Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers (1921).

Ratification measures.

France: Ratification registered on 16 January 1928.

Hungary: Ratification registered on 1 March 1928.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Norway: Ratification registered on 7 October 1927.

Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (1921).

Ratification measures.

France: Ratification registered on 22 March 1928.

Hungary: Ratification registered on 1 March 1928.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Netherlands: Ratification registered on 9 March 1928.

Draft Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement (1926).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Australia: Submitted to Parliament on 2 March 1927.

Austria: Submitted to the Nationalrat.

Belgium: Ratification registered on 3 October 1927.

Canada: Report of the Law Officers of the Crown confirmed by Order in Council of 16 November 1927. Is in general within the competence of the Dominion Parliament.

China: Submitted to the competent authorities.

Finland: Proposal to ratify submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (18 August 1927).

France: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 24 February 1928 and to the Senate on 17 March 1928.

Hungary: Submitted to Parliament for ratification on 9 February 1928.

India: Submitted to the Indian Legislature on 19 and 20 September 1927.

Irish Free State: Submitted to Dail Eireann and the Senate on 23 June 1927.

Japan: Submitted to the Privy Council for ratification on 17 December 1927.

Latvia: Cabinet decision of 24 May 1927 to submit a Bill for ratification to the Saeima.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Netherlands: Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention submitted to the Second Chamber of the States General on 5 September 1927.

New Zealand: Submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: Government Report approved by the Storting on 27 July 1927; ratification is to be left open until other maritime States have ratified.

Siam: Submitted to the competent authority.

South Africa: Submitted to Parliament on 31 January 1927.

Sweden: Report submitted to the Riksdag; ratification is postponed, since it would involve amendment of the Seamen's Act.

Switzerland: Submitted to the Federal Assembly; has no interest for Switzerland.

Venezuela: Submitted to the National Congress.

(b) *Application measures.*

Finland: Bill to amend the Seamen's Act submitted on 21 October 1927 to the Chamber of Deputies.

France: Maritime Code of 13 December 1926.

South Africa: Merchant Shipping Bill in preparation.

Draft Convention concerning the repatriation of seamen (1926).

(a) *Ratification measures.*

Australia: Submitted to Parliament on 2 March 1927.

Austria: Submitted to the Nationalrat.

Belgium: Ratification registered on 3 October 1927.

Canada: Report of the Law Officers of the Crown confirmed by Order in Council of 16 November 1927; is in general within the competence of the Dominion Parliament.

China: Submitted to the competent authorities.

Finland: Proposal to ratify submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 18 April 1927.

France: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 24 February 1928.

Hungary: Submitted to Parliament for ratification on 9 February 1928.

India: Submitted to the Indian Legislature on 19 and 20 September 1927.

Irish Free State: Submitted to Dail Eireann and the Senate on 23 June 1927.

Japan: Submitted to the Privy Council for ratification on 17 December 1927.

Latvia: Cabinet decision of 24 May 1927 to submit a Bill for ratification to the Saeima.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Netherlands: Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention submitted to the Second Chamber of the States General on 5 September 1927.

New Zealand: Submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: Government Report approved by the Storting on 27 June 1927; ratification is to be left open until other maritime States have ratified.

Siam: Submitted to the competent authority.

South Africa: Submitted to Parliament on 31 January 1927.

Sweden: Report submitted to the Riksdag; ratification is not proposed at present, since the provisions of the Seamen's Act are thought sufficient.

Switzerland: Submitted to the Federal Assembly; is of no interest to Switzerland.

Venezuela: Submitted to the National Congress.

(b) *Application measures.*

France: Maritime Code of 13 December 1926.

South Africa: Merchant Shipping Bill in preparation.

Recommendation concerning the repatriation of masters and apprentices (1926).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

France: Applied by existing legislation (5 December 1927).

India: Accepted by both Houses of the Legislature on 19 and 20 September 1927 (10 November 1927).

Irish Free State: Submitted to Dail Eireann and the Senate on 23 June 1927 (8 August 1927).

Japan: Partly adopted by the Cabinet (24 January 1928).

Netherlands: submitted to both Chambers of the States General (7 November 1927).

Norway: Submitted to the Storting (27 July 1927).

Siam: Submitted to the competent authority (15 March 1927).

Sweden: Applied by existing legislation (13 July 1927).

Other information.

Australia: Submitted to Parliament on 2 March 1927.

Austria: Submitted to the Nationalrat.

Canada: Report of the Law Officers of the Crown confirmed by Order in Council of 16 November 1927; is in general within the competence of the Dominion Parliament.

China: Submitted to the competent authorities.

Finland: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 18 August 1927; requires no legislative action.

Hungary: Submitted to Parliament on 9 February 1928.

Japan: Partially adopted by the Cabinet on 21 December 1927.

New Zealand: Submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: Submitted to the Storting; the provisions of the Seamen's Act are sufficient.

South Africa: Submitted to Parliament on 31 January 1927.

Sweden: Report submitted to the Riksdag.

Switzerland: submitted to the Federal Assembly; is of no interest to Switzerland.

Venezuela: Submitted to the National Congress.

(b) *Application measures.*

Finland: Bill in preparation.

South Africa: Merchant Shipping Bill in preparation.

Recommendation concerning the general principles for the inspection of the conditions of work of seamen (1926).

(a) *Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.*

France: Applied by existing legislation (5 December 1927).

India: Accepted by both Houses of the Legislature on 19 and 20 September 1927 (10 November 1927).

Irish Free State: Submitted to Dail Eireann and the Senate on 23 June 1927 (8 August 1927).

Japan: The Government has adopted the Recommendation (24 January 1928).

Netherlands: Submitted to both Chambers of the States General (7 November 1927).

Norway: Submitted to the Storting (28 July 1927).

Siam: Submitted to the competent authority (15 March 1927).

Sweden: Applied by existing legislation (13 July 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Submitted to the Nationalrat.

Canada: Report of the Law Officers of the Crown confirmed by Order in Council of 16 November 1927; is in general within the competence of the Dominion Parliament.

China: Submitted to the competent authorities.

Finland: Submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 18 August 1927; applied by law and administrative practice. A Committee is examining the improvements to be made to the inspection of the conditions of work of seamen.

Japan: Adopted by the Cabinet on 21 December 1927.

Hungary: Submitted to Parliament on 9 February 1928.

New Zealand: Submitted to Parliament on 5 December 1927.

Norway: Submitted to the Storting.

South Africa: Submitted to Parliament on 31 January 1927.

Sweden: Report submitted to the Riksdag; partly applied by existing legislation. If the regulations concerning inspection are revised, account will be taken of the principles of the Recommendation.

Switzerland: submitted to the Federal Assembly; is of no interest to Switzerland.

Venezuela: submitted to the National Congress.

(b) *Application measure.*

South Africa: Merchant Shipping Bill in preparation.

157. — To the above information some notes should be added on the work which has been done on the different special problems affecting seamen. Of these the most important is the *international regulation of hours of work on board ship*.

Reference was made in last year's Report to the decision taken in order to give effect to the resolution adopted at the Ninth Session of the Conference, asking the Governing Body to place the question of the regulation of hours of work on board ship on the Agenda of a special maritime Session of the Conference.

The favourable opinion expressed by the Joint Maritime Commission on this resolution, the provisional decision of the Governing Body on it at its 34th Session, and the latter's final decision at the following session to place the question on the Agenda of a maritime Session of the Conference to be held in 1929, may all be regarded as steps in the direction of a satisfactory international solution of this problem. Such a solution will, it is felt, be considerably

facilitated if the time which must elapse before the holding of the Conference can be utilised for a resumption of negotiations between Governments and shipowners' and seamen's organisations, and for organising in the preparation of the work of the Conference the necessary cooperation between shipowners and seamen.

The Office has accordingly taken the view that it should not merely investigate the existing position in the various mercantile marines and collect the documentary information necessary for the Conference, but that it should also endeavour, however delicate this task may be, to facilitate by every means in its power any further exchanges of views which may lead to a *rapprochement* between the parties concerned. In these proceedings the Office has encountered considerable difficulties with the shipowners. Their opposition or apprehensions perhaps are mainly due to a fear lest the eight hour day should be applied absolutely and comprehensively. Although the item on the Agenda of the Conference has, indeed, been framed in very wide terms, this apprehension has been expressed in the discussions and resolutions of important international shipowners' organisations. For example, the Baltic and International Maritime Conference adopted a resolution expressing its regret that the international Labour Organisation should hold a Conference for "the application of the formula of the eight hour day and the forty-eight hour week to the work of seamen". This is clearly a misunderstanding of the scope of the Governing Body's decision.

It may well be that the formulas used for publicity purposes by certain seamen's organisations have helped to cause this misunderstanding. The seamen, who have most closely followed the discussions since the Genoa Conference, have frequently spoken of the eight-hour day at different national and international congresses. But the great importance which they attach to this principle should not, it is considered, create any real obstacle to working out such special methods of its application as may be warranted by the character and requirements of work on board ship or the special conditions prevailing among certain categories of seamen or in certain kinds of navigation. The Office has frequently found in different seamen's organisations a longing for the old conciliatory methods which have often been successful in the past. As a matter of fact, the only definite proposals which the Office has recently received from the seamen, viz. the draft rules adopted by the Congress of Mercantile Marine Officers, do not aim at a rigid application of the eight-hour day formula. The draft rules appear to show a real spirit of moderation and an anxiety to make allowances for the practical requirements of shipping, and are very much on the lines of the proposals which were submitted by the British Government at the Genoa Conference.

A further difficulty is that the opposition in certain quarters to international regulation is based on a preference for direct agreements between owners and men, by which national solutions can be worked out in the light of the special conditions and requirements of the individual country. It is not, however, clear that there is really any contradiction between national agreements and international regulation. As a matter of fact, it would seem that, although such agreements are lacking in stability, they would be most useful for working out more general rules, which, once embodied in the laws of the several countries, would themselves form a basis for special and more detailed agreements on the special working conditions in the individual country's mercantile marine.

In many countries (e. g. Germany, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries, Italy, Finland, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) collective agreements already exist containing more or less definite rules on hours of work on board ship. But the Office is specially gratified to note that in Great Britain negotiations have been going on for some months on the National Maritime Board, with a view not only to revising existing agreements on work in ports but also, it appears, to extending them by drawing up certain rules for work at sea.

Until fresh negotiations are undertaken, however, which it is hoped will remove present misunderstandings and prejudices, the Office, in order to provide a solid basis for the preliminary discussions and the work of the Conference itself, is endeavouring to obtain all the relevant information on the legislation, collective agreements and custom which at present regulate working hours and the organisation of work in the principal mercantile fleets of the world. To check and complete this information, enquiries have had to be addressed in many cases both to Government departments and shipowners' and seamen's organisations. Although questionnaires, which owing to the complexity of the problem would have been very lengthy and detailed, have not been employed for this purpose, the Office has had to ask for a considerable amount of information on points of detail, and is particularly grateful to the Government departments and organisations concerned for the trouble they have taken in collecting and furnishing it.

Although this documentary work cannot yet be regarded as completed, every effort has been made, more particularly for informing the Governing Body and the Joint Maritime Commission, to summarise and classify the available material so that it can be rapidly consulted and compared.

Any hasty comparisons which are based on the existing material must, of course, be accompanied by the reservations which are rendered necessary by the divergences in the nature, principles and methods of the different systems of rules

in force and by the varying degrees of elasticity in their application. All the same, it is possible, even at this stage, to form an idea of the general outlines of the present situation.

It may be noted at the outset, for example, that the system of hours of work in port in most countries is the eight hour day.

In the case of service at sea, however, there are considerable differences between the different classes of seamen and also between the different mercantile marines. There is no real similarity of system except for the engine room and stokehold departments. As a general rule the seamen in these departments on ocean-going ships at any rate are organised in three watches, so that their normal hours of work do not appreciably exceed eight per day.

As regards deck staff, the countries in which the eight-hour day is applied at sea are still in the minority. An eight-hour day for deck staff is only laid down by law in Australia, France and Russia. In practice, however, deck work is organised in three watches on most German ships and on ships controlled by the Shipping Board of the United States.

As for the catering department, the work of the staff in this department is only regulated in exceptional cases. As a rule, the staff has to be present on duty from 12 to 16 hours. A distinction should be drawn, however, between persons employed on cargo vessels in the galleys and in waiting on officers and the large number of stewards who look after passengers on liners. There seems little doubt but that satisfactory regulations might easily be established for cargo vessels. But the problem specially affects liners, and on these vessels it is generally considered, in view of the system of remuneration at present applied, that it is impossible to restrict hours of work. In many countries, however, workers in the stewards' department have expressed their desire not to be excluded from any international regulations. They consider that to limit their work would not be incompatible with the exigencies of their occupation or with their own pecuniary interests.

Lastly, it is necessary to distinguish between the different kinds of navigation, and more particularly between foreign going trade and coasting trade in its various forms. Foreign going navigation is carried on in much the same conditions on all vessels and is specially affected by international competition. The crews engaged on such vessels accordingly have to work on time tables which are, or might easily be made, much the same. On the other hand, coastal navigation is in many countries reserved to national vessels, and the vessels engaged in it are for the most part of a special type suitable to local conditions, and there is no competition. The result is that there is a great diversity in conditions of work in this form of navigation, in which the longest or shortest work-

ing periods, according to the country, are to be observed.

The above rapid survey suffices to illustrate the principal difficulties in attempting to frame regulations for applying the same or equally strict principles to service at sea and to work in port, to all seamen and to all forms of navigation. At the same time, it is none the less clear, in the Office's opinion, that there are possibilities of a number of partial solutions which would as far as possible reconcile the different interests involved and objects in view.

It is the duty of the International Labour Organisation to endeavour in all circumstances to carry out the principles enunciated in the Treaty of Peace. In spite of the setback of the Genoa Conference, the Organisation could not withdraw from the task of attempting to regulate hours of work at sea. For some long time the Office has not been able to take positive action on this problem, but the problem has now been raised afresh, and, in the light of what happened before, the Office is anxious to handle it in conditions which are calculated to ensure a successful result. It should be once more emphasised that the question to be dealt with by the Conference is much wider than the question which was discussed at Genoa. If the years which have elapsed since the Genoa Conference have caused some disappointments, they have, at any rate, made it more possible to guide opinion in the direction of a friendly agreement.

In accordance with the double discussion procedure, no immediate decision will be taken in 1929. The discussion at that Session of the Conference will simply indicate the essential points on which the Governments are to be consulted, prior to a final vote to be taken at the following Session. In the interests of the Organisation, however, it is important that the way for the 1929 Session of the Conference should be prepared as soon as possible by those preliminary conversations which it has been repeatedly pointed out are absolutely necessary.

If the proposals which have been contemplated by the parties concerned can be laid before and discussed by the Joint Maritime Commission or its special Subcommittee, the value of which both groups have recognised—if the practical investigations which were begun after the Genoa Conference on the joint initiation of the shipowners and seamen can be set on foot again—if both parties seize every opportunity for endeavouring to find an agreement, even on a limited scale, the Office has no doubt but that satisfactory solutions will emerge which will be adopted by the Conference without difficulty and would soon be actually applied in the mercantile marines of all countries.

158.—From the Genoa to the 1926 Session of the Conference it was the task of the

Office to endeavour to establish an international seamen's code. It is not proposed to re-open this long subject. The Draft Conventions adopted in 1926 may be said to constitute the first fragmentary portions of such a code. It may perhaps be possible to complete the scheme in the course of time, but for the moment there is a simple and preliminary task which can be taken in hand, i. e., the *collection of the laws and regulations dealing with work on board ship* which are at present in force in the different countries.

In preparation for the Ninth Session of the Conference, the Office published as a first instalment of this work a collection of the laws and regulations affecting the engagement, dismissal and discipline of seamen. On the Joint Maritime Commission's request, the Office proposes to continue this publication, which has been greatly appreciated in shipping and legal circles, with special regard to the questions placed on the Agenda of the next maritime Session of the Conference. It is hoped, for example, to publish a collection of the laws and regulations affecting hours of work on board ship.

The scheme for establishing an international seamen's code showed the necessity for special investigations on one particular problem, viz., *disciplinary and penal sanctions for enforcing seamen's articles of agreement*. The Ninth Session of the Conference asked that a special study should be made of this question, and, in pursuance of its resolution on the point, the Office has continued its investigations, and has in particular gone into the question of sanctions for preventing and punishing desertion. Special efforts are being made to follow the general tendencies of legislation and authoritative opinion on this question, so as to formulate the principles on which to base an international solution, which it is generally agreed would be desirable, in spite of the present divergence of opinions and interests on the subject. As has already been indicated, however, evolution on these lines is necessarily slow, and the time would not appear to have arrived when fresh proposals could be submitted to the Conference with any chance of successful results.

159. — On the question of the *protection of the health of seamen*, the Office has continued to co-operate with the various international bodies concerned, such as the League of Red Cross Societies and the Health Section of the League of Nations.

The Mixed Committee set up at Oslo in 1926 as a means of organising this co-operation held its two first meetings at Paris in February and November 1927. The principal subjects dealt with were:— the preparation of a medical handbook for the use of masters of vessels on which no ship's doctor is carried, the use of wireless telegraphy for the purpose of consulting doctors, and the contents of ship's medi-

cine chests. The Committee also had to consider proposals submitted by the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association concerning the education of officers in health questions, the compulsory carrying of a male nurse on all merchant vessels, and the provision of separate hospital accommodation for sick persons on board vessels carrying more than 40 individuals.

The Committee decided not to take up any further problems until those connected with the treatment of sick and injured persons on board vessels on which no ship's doctor is carried had been settled. However, it endorsed the recommendations of the Sub-Committee on seamen's welfare in ports set up by the Joint Maritime Commission, and expressed its interest in the programme of the British Council for the Welfare of the Mercantile Marine. As has been pointed out on previous occasions, it is impossible to consider seamen's health and seamen's welfare in entirely separate compartments. The two groups of questions are bound up with each other, as an improvement in the living conditions of seamen on shore and on board ship is in many respects the most far-reaching and effective means of protecting seamen against the diseases to which they are particularly exposed.

160. — The connected problem of *sickness insurance and social insurance in general for seamen* is examined in the general "Social Insurance" sub-section of this Report. The account of the present situation given in that sub-section embraces seamen in the numerous countries where they are covered by the general system of insurance, and includes an outline of the special systems for seamen which exist in other countries. In these circumstances, it will suffice to recall here that the Conference, which has already formulated the main principles of insurance for workers in general, will be called upon at the maritime Session in 1929 to examine the special insurance problems which affect seamen. Without prejudice to other aspects of the problem, the discussions in the Conference will deal more particularly with "the protection of seamen in case of sickness (including the treatment of seamen injured on board ship)".

161. — The question of the promotion of *seamen's welfare in ports* is on the Agenda of the maritime Session of the Conference in 1929, in pursuance of a resolution adopted by the Conference in 1926, which was subsequently considered by a special sub-committee of the Joint Maritime Commission.

In certain respects the problem is connected with the utilisation of workers' spare time which has already been dealt with by the Conference (Sixth Session, 1924) in a Recommendation. In view, however, of the nomadic kind of life which seamen lead, it would seem that the Office's investigations and the work of the Conference should

cover a wider field and deal with certain aspects of the question which are special to seamen. The idea is not merely to organise facilities for the utilisation of the seaman's spare time, but to give him every possible assistance both during the brief periods when he is in port with his ship and for those longer periods when he is waiting for a fresh ship. It would therefore be desirable to furnish seamen with facilities not only for healthy recreation but also if possible for board and lodging.

A great deal has already been done on these lines in the various maritime countries. In most large ports there exist seamen's homes or hostels organised by philanthropic institutions or shipowners' and seamen's organisations. Moreover, in some countries this welfare work is beginning to be organised on a national basis. For example, there was recently created in Great Britain a Council for the Welfare of the Mercantile Marine, which consists of representatives of such institutions as Missions to Seamen, the British Sailors' Society and organisations of shipowners, officers and seamen. The principal function of this Council is to initiate or encourage general welfare for seamen, to buy and distribute sports material, to develop recreational and medical facilities in all the large ports of the world and to study the means of raising the necessary funds. Practical steps in these directions have already been taken, and in more than 70 ports secretaries have been specially appointed for organising recreational facilities for seamen and co-operating with ships' sports committees. The formation of clubs is also contemplated.

The success of schemes of this kind and the wholehearted collaboration which the Office has already met with in all quarters will facilitate its work on this question, which will be to co-ordinate these various measures internationally and formulate a common programme of action. It is not too much to hope that the Conference will come to a unanimous decision on this question of seamen's welfare in port.

162. — The Office has continued to collaborate with the Transit Organisation on the problems affecting the *safety of crews at sea*, whenever these seemed to come more particularly within the competence of that body, and has also advanced its work on those aspects of this subject which it had previously been dealing with on its own account.

The investigations carried out and results produced by the Office and the Joint Maritime Commission on the international regulation of deck cargoes and particularly cargoes of wood have been indicated in previous Reports. This technical and complex problem continues to engage the attention of the Office, which has pursued its investigations into its various aspects. A desire for international regulation is becoming increas-

ingly evident in a number of countries, notably in Great Britain. On recent occasions when penalties have been imposed on masters of British or foreign vessels on their arrival at British ports, it has been pointed out that proceedings were brought for violation of the British law, although the cargo had been loaded in accordance with the law of the port of sailing.

The more general problem of the overloading of vessels, with which the question of deck cargoes is closely connected in many respects, has again come into prominence as the result of certain recent maritime disasters. Since the Joint Maritime Commission expressed the opinion that the load-line rules in force in most maritime countries should be extended to all mercantile marines and be more strictly applied, the Office has endeavoured to keep abreast of the development of legislation and judicial decisions on this matter in the various countries.

Generally speaking, load-line regulations are of comparatively ancient date, and there is a general feeling in shipping circles that they should not only be rendered more uniform but also be revised so as to take account of experience and technical progress. In Great Britain, where the legislation in force was adopted as recently as 1906, a committee has been appointed to draw up proposals for its revision; the Committee has embarked on a general enquiry in British ports and its report will probably have a considerable influence on other countries and any international regulations which may be adopted. Another factor which may produce good results is the campaign in the United States for the adoption of a statutory load-line; the absence of any regulation is at present regarded as a serious defect in that country, and in December 1927, a Bill to "establish a load-line for American vessels" was introduced into Congress by Senator Jones.

A consideration of the decisions of the courts shows that as in the case of deck cargoes a number of breaches of the regulations which have been reported may be explained, to some extent at least, by the difference between the law in the country where the cargo is loaded and that of the port to which it is despatched. In Great Britain, in particular, there is a strong desire to put an end to this situation, and it is generally recognised that the adoption of international rules of a uniform character would diminish the number of cases of overloading and justify stricter punishment in such cases as occurred.

163. — As far as current or more urgent work has permitted, the Maritime Service has endeavoured to carry on the various enquiries it has been asked to undertake, and in particular the general *enquiry into conditions of work in the fishing industry* and the special enquiry proposed by the Conference in 1926 into *conditions of work*

in fishing for sponges and various other submarine products.

The general lines on which the enquiry into conditions of work in the fishing industry was undertaken were indicated in last year's Report. The Office has since endeavoured to enlarge its documentary material on this subject, in spite of the difficulty of obtaining complete information on certain points. A very large amount of material has now been collected, but owing to shortage of staff it has not yet been possible to work it up or to carry out the enquiries on the spot by which it could be co-ordinated.

On the other hand, more progress has been made with the enquiry into conditions of work in fishing for sponges, pearls of all kinds, coral and submarine products in general, which is of a more limited character.

The first enquiries on the subject showed that the field of investigation was practically unexplored, provisions for the protection of the fishermen being both rare and difficult of application and sources of information being very meagre. It was therefore thought that direct enquiries, even though limited to a few countries, might make it possible to collect the information necessary for forming a clearer idea of the work to be undertaken than is contained in the rather vague resolution of the Conference, for facilitating the preparation of a definite questionnaire for submission to the Governments concerned, giving more life to the material which might be collected, and investigating practical measures for the protection of the fishermen in question.

Tunis, Italy and the latter's Mediterranean possessions seemed particularly suitable for preliminary enquiries of this kind, in view of the extent to which sponge fishing is conducted in those regions and their proximity to Geneva. In these places, it was considered, it would be possible to see fishermen of various races—natives, Italians and Greeks—using the principal methods of fishing, and to have an opportunity of comparing working conditions where no regulations exist, as in Tunisian waters, and where definite regulations apply, as in Italian waters. As, however, the Italian Government informed the Office that it was at the time making investigations with a view to revising the existing regulations and that it might therefore be advisable to postpone the enquiries in its possessions, the enquiries were restricted, provisionally at least, to Tunis.

Through the courtesy of the Tunisian authorities, one of the officials of the Office was able to see sponge fishers actually at work. The notes he made bore on all that affects the engagement of the fishermen, their pay, working hours, the intensity and safety of their work, the employment of children, etc., according to the various methods of fishing employed (har-

pooning, naked divers, trawling, machine diving).

The interesting material thus obtained will be of considerable value as a basis for asking the maritime and colonial departments in the different countries concerned for as detailed information as possible on points of special interest and for making the general enquiry more practical.

No doubt the information in question only covers a limited field, and is not sufficient to allow of general and definite conclusions being drawn. But it would seem to indicate the directions in which further action should be taken. It would appear, for example, that special attention should be paid to the study of working conditions and safety in machine diving. The Office is already considering, at least for this type of fishing, the possibilities of a scheme of international regulations which would take account as far as possible of the interests affected but would be capable of being properly applied and would effectively protect a class of workers for whom such protection seems to be specially necessary.

It remains to consider what general impressions can be drawn from the foregoing account of the work of the Office on the chief problems affecting the maritime industry.

The Office considers that, in spite of the difficulties which it has on occasion encountered in its endeavours to secure the co-operation of shipowners and seamen, its work on the whole is making effective progress, and is really necessary in itself.

In the field of international labour legislation the results obtained by the maritime Sessions of the Conference in 1920, 1921 and 1926 have not yet, perhaps, been consolidated nationally to such an extent as had been hoped. But, on the whole, the Governments have shown goodwill and in some cases perseverance in giving the necessary effect to the moral undertakings given at these Sessions of the Conference. A considerable number of application measures have been carried out in the different maritime countries, and the number of ratifications registered is by no means negligible. Moreover, it must be borne in mind, as regards the Conventions adopted in 1926, that this Session of the Conference was held only two years ago, and that Parliamentary procedure is slow. It may be hoped, however, that the lead which certain important maritime States are preparing to give will be followed by numerous and early ratifications.

Moreover, the practice of concluding collective agreements between important organisations of owners and men is becoming more general; and these agreements contribute to the improvement of working conditions on board ship, whether they precede legislation or supplement it.

In addition, it would appear that the attention which has been drawn by certain

humanitarians to seamen's welfare is producing results, and that institutions for the betterment of the seamen's lot are being developed and co-ordinated.

Lastly, the Office's work and investigations are throwing light on the privations and hardships which seamen suffer and revealing some of the means of alleviating them by common action. Perhaps, owing to lack of staff and the need of concentrating on the preparation of the 1929 Session of the Conference, the Office has not done as much as it would like in this field of collecting information and carrying out technical investigations. But what has been done has not been fruitless: on most of the questions on which the Office has had to work fresh progress has been made, and Government departments are more and more using and appreciating the Office's documentary material.

When circumstances are difficult in political or labour affairs and complicated problems cannot be gone into directly or opposition is strong, it is good tactics to use the co-operation of those who are well disposed for carrying on some limited but positive piece of work. This helps to create a new atmosphere, and to prepare for further progress in the future. The Office is by no means discouraged, but is carrying on its work in maritime circles in this sense.

Agricultural workers.

164. — The international basis for social legislation in favour of agricultural workers was laid down at the Third Session of the International Labour Conference in 1921, when three Draft Conventions and seven Recommendations were adopted. Between 1921 and 1927 no Convention or Recommendation specially referring to agriculture was voted. In 1927, however, the Conference adopted a Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for agricultural workers. The text of this Draft Convention is identical with that of the Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for industrial workers, except on some points of detail. This clearly shows the intention of the Conference to place agricultural workers on the same footing as industrial workers as regards sickness insurance. This intention is made yet more plain by the fact that the Conference also adopted a single Recommendation on the general principles of sickness insurance, in which no distinction is made between agricultural and industrial workers. The fact that the Conference voted two separate Draft Conventions on sickness insurance was due to an apprehension—felt even by a number of leading personalities in the agricultural world who had been consulted by the Office in their capacity as experts on the Mixed Advisory Agricultural Com-

mittee—that a single Draft Convention covering all workers would encounter considerable difficulties when it came to ratification, because existing social legislation is less advanced in many countries in regard to agricultural than to other workers, and so it might happen that the advantages which industrial workers could derive from ratification of a single comprehensive Convention might be lost and no benefit be conferred on agricultural workers. It may be noted, moreover, that a special article in the two Draft Conventions which allows of their non-application to sparsely populated territories is of much greater practical moment to agricultural than to industrial workers. The two Draft Conventions have been ratified by Germany.

The effect given during 1927 to the decisions of the Conference affecting agricultural workers is shown in the following notes.

Recommendation concerning the prevention of unemployment in agriculture (1921).

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Hungary: A number of steps have been taken (free finding of employment for agricultural workers — loan to irrigation societies and hydraulic undertakings — public and private construction work — development of home industries) (15 November 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; there is no unemployment in agriculture.

Recommendation concerning the protection, before and after childbirth, of women wage-earners in agriculture (1921).

Miscellaneous information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; a Federal Act is in preparation to assimilate the sickness insurance regulations for workers in agriculture and silviculture.

Recommendation concerning night work of women in agriculture (1921).

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Hungary: Night work of women in agriculture is unknown (15 November 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; similar protective provisions are included partly in the agricultural labour codes issued by the Austrian provinces and partly in the Federal Act of 19 December 1918 concerning the employment of children.

Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture (1921).

Ratification measures.

Belgium: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted on 21 June 1927 to the Chamber of Representatives. No amendment of existing legislation will be required.

Greece: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 30 May 1927.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Netherlands: Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention submitted on 16 December 1927 to the Second Chamber of the States General.

Norway: Government Report approved by the Storting on 27 June 1927; the Government cannot recommend ratification.

(b) Application measures.

Finland: Bill concerning the employment of women and children in agriculture (in preparation).

Recommendation concerning night work of children and young persons in agriculture (1921).

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Hungary: Night work of children and young persons is unknown in agriculture (15 November 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; similar protective provisions are included partly in the agricultural labour codes issued by the Austrian provinces and partly in the Federal Act of 19 December 1918 concerning the employment of children.

Recommendation concerning the development of technical agricultural education (1921).

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Germany: Approved by the Government of the Reich, with the consent of the German States; the question of the system of technical agricultural education is, if it arises, within the competence of the several States (Art. 10, No. 2 of the Constitution) (9 April 1927).

Hungary: A new special school has been opened. The winter agricultural schools are developed with the help of the Chambers of Agriculture and are under State control (15 November 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; the Recommendation is to a large extent applied.

Recommendation concerning the living in conditions of agricultural workers (1921).

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Hungary: The authorities supervise the living-in conditions of agricultural workers on estates and farms, submit detailed reports and, if necessary, suggest improvements (15 November 1927).

Other information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; similar protective provisions are included partly in the agricultural labour codes issued by the Austrian provinces and partly in the Federal Act of 19 December 1918 concerning the employment of children.

Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers (1921).

(a) Ratification measures.

France: Bill for ratification adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 9 February 1928.

Greece: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 1 June 1927.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Norway: The Storting approved on 27 June 1927 a Government Report stating that the question was of no practical interest to Norway and that there was no reason to recommend ratification.

(b) Application measure.

Hungary: Bill to regulate the rights of association and combination (in preparation).

Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture (1921).

(a) Ratification measures.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; any decision is postponed pending the passing of the Federal Bill concerning sickness, accident and invalidity insurance for workers in agriculture and silviculture.

Finland: Bill for ratification submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 28 October 1927.

France: Bill for ratification adopted by the Chamber of Deputies on 9 February 1928 and by the Senate on 17 March 1928.

Greece: Bill for the ratification of the Convention submitted on 1 June 1927 to the Chamber of Deputies.

Latvia: The Cabinet of Ministers submitted to the Saeima on 18 June 1927 a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Luxemburg: Bill for the approval of the Convention submitted to the Chamber of Deputies (25 January 1928).

Norway: Government Report approved by the Storting on 27 June 1927. At the present time the economic situation prevents the widening of accident insurance that ratification would require. The question will be re-examined.

(b) Application measures.

Austria: Federal Bill concerning sickness, accident and invalidity insurance for workers in agriculture and silviculture (in preparation).

Finland: Bill to amend the Workmen's Accident Insurance Act submitted to the Chamber of Deputies on 28 October 1927.

Recommendation concerning social insurance in agriculture (1921).

Other information.

Austria: Report of the Federal Government submitted to the National Council (Third Legislature) in 1927; sickness, accident and invalidity insurance for workers in agriculture and silviculture will be regulated by a special Federal Act (in preparation).

It will be seen from the above notes that progress in ratification of the Draft Conventions, and application of the principles laid down in the Recommendations, affecting agricultural workers has been comparatively slow during the past year. Attention should, however, be briefly drawn to some direct measures which have been taken in favour of agricultural workers.

165. — In the field of social insurance it may be noted that a Bill has been submitted to the *Austrian* Parliament containing a complete insurance scheme for agricultural workers. The Bill covers all risks in connection with sickness, maternity, accidents, invalidity, old age and death. The scheme is to cover all manual workers in agriculture, forestry, hunting, fisheries, and agricultural co-operative societies as well as domestic servants of agricultural employers. Small landowners and tenants whose most important work is in connection with their own holdings may voluntarily insure against sickness. Further, invalidity, old-age, and accident insurance, or accident insurance alone, may, at the request of representatives of certain agricultural bodies, be extended to these classes of persons, and then becomes compulsory.

In the *Netherlands*, too, a Bill for the protection of female and young workers in agriculture is now under preparation.

As regards hours of work, it may be noted that in *Finland* a Committee appointed in May 1927 drafted a Bill according to which the average working day in agriculture, calculated on a yearly basis, is to be fixed at 9 hours, and in no case, except in the most northern county, is to be more than 10 hours. Overtime also is to be strictly limited and to be paid 50 per cent. above normal rates. Since this Committee reported the Government has resigned: it is not known whether the Bill will be submitted to Parliament under the new Ministry.

In the *Netherlands*, agricultural workers' unions have urged the Government to regulate hours of work. They propose that a maximum number of working hours shall be fixed per year. The Government has asked the agricultural associations to express their opinion on the workers' proposal.

In *Sweden*, the Social Board has published a report analysing hours of work in Swedish agriculture since 1911. Since 1919 collective agreements have regulated working hours, but in general only on the larger farms and by no means in all parts of the country. Over the whole period investigated a general tendency is apparent towards standardisation of hours, especially on the large-scale farms latterly covered by these collective agreements. Moreover, hours have been undoubtedly reduced. This reduction takes effect during the summer only, winter working hours, which on account of the climate do not amount to 8 per day, remaining unchanged: the total average reduction in summer hours was 6.5 per cent. Whereas in 1911 47 per cent. of the districts investigated had a net working day (i.e. a working day excluding the rest pauses) of over 10½ hours, in 1925 only 3.4 per cent. still had a working day of this length: or, taking the total working day (i.e. the working day including rest pauses), only 9.8 per cent. of the districts still had one of 12½ hours or more in 1925 as against 59.3 per cent. of districts in 1911. Even the working hours of men in attendance on livestock seem to have been shortened, although the figures do not show this so clearly.

Three-quarters of this reduction falls within the years when Swedish manufacture was especially prosperous. During these years a general average reduction of 15 per cent. took place in the hours worked in manufacturing industry, which may be compared with the 6.5 per cent. reduction in agriculture already noted. One of the most interesting questions touched on in the report is the influence of the prosperity or otherwise of manufacture on agricultural employment. Thus, if general national prosperity had an effect in shortening agricultural hours in Sweden, the reverse can also be shown. The movement towards shortening of hours in agriculture slows down, if it is not actually checked or reversed, as a result of the industrial crisis and depression of 1921 and the following years; the gains noted above would appear to fall within the previous period.

The inference for the International Labour Organisation is clear. If agricultural hours are influenced by general hours movements, then the policy of the Organisation on the agricultural hours question must form part of its general policy on working hours, with the necessary allowance, of course, for the great technical differences between an agricultural and a manufacturing enterprise or even between different types of agricultural enterprises as such. But it cannot be too clearly stated that the Organisation's ideal must be a shortening of the present excessively long working hours in agriculture. There is not much information on the subject; only in those countries where regulation and restriction has already begun, whether on a legislative

or on a collective bargaining basis, can any figures be quoted. According to the report cited, the total estimated annual hours worked in agriculture in Sweden is about 2,680 for field workers, 2,950 in horse-breeding, and 3,450 for cattlemen. These figures may be compared with totals quoted for various European countries by the International Federation of Landworkers in a report to the Fourth Congress of Landworkers (Geneva, 1926): Denmark, 2,800; Finland, 2,650; Germany, 2,900 (maximum); Hungary, sunrise to sunset; Lithuania, 3,000 (maximum—on farms of 80 hectares and over); Netherlands, from 2,600 to 4,100. The maxima indicated are those laid down by law in the countries concerned: for the other countries the figures given are the average actual hours.

As regards wages there is some tendency towards official regulation. It may be recalled that the first dispute settled under the new *Italian* industrial system concerned the wages of workers in rice fields. The value of wage-regulation legislation in agriculture is a very difficult question and one upon which unanimity by no means rules, not even in the ranks of the agricultural workers' unions.

In *England and Wales* a successful working of the Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act 1924 is to be noted: special attention has been paid to the enforcement of the Act and the number of inspectors has been increased.

In *New Zealand*, under the system of conciliation and arbitration in force, the Court has always refused to issue awards on wages in the general farming industry, considering the difficulties too big to be overcome. On the other hand, awards have been issued for pastoral workers engaged in various seasonal occupations during the shearing season. In October 1927, however, an amendment was submitted by the Government to the House of Representatives proposing to exempt the whole farming industry from the operation of the Conciliation and Arbitration Act. It has been argued for some years that agriculture, living by an immense export trade, cannot support an independent home standard of agricultural wages. The workers oppose the Bill and point out that in countries competing with New Zealand agricultural workers are combined and work under industrial agreements.

166. — The employment market in agriculture continues to be one of great difficulty. In general, shortage of labour is among the cardinal difficulties of the industry; yet there are countries where the labour supply is satisfactory or even excessive.

A Government report for *Northern Ireland*, for instance, shows that the total population engaged in agriculture in 1912, approximately 210,000 persons, has decreased a little. Although Northern Ireland is largely cultivated as small holdings and wage-paid labour plays only a very minor rôle, the number of permanent male workers has decreased from 30,600 in 1912 to 24,700 in 1925, and that of temporary male workers from 23,800 in 1912 to 13,300 in 1925. The inference drawn by the author of the report, however, is that the figures reflect not so much actual shortage of wage-paid labour as the efforts of farmers generally to cut down their labour bills, even by utilising the services of their wives and daughters.

In *Italy*, seasonal unemployment has been a serious problem for years, especially in the north. From time to time a remedy has been sought by compelling agricultural employers to engage a fixed minimum number of workers for every so many hectares cultivated. The Fascist agricultural workers' organisations were at first not favourable to the "minimum labour load"; but in September 1927 they expressed themselves in favour of its adoption, and in the texts of some collective agreements a minimum labour load clause has been inserted.

In *Sweden*, a report of the Social Board shows that the agricultural labour supply is higher than it has been. Before the war about 35 per cent. of the rural communes stated that labour was scarce; to-day the figure is only a few per cent. and there is even a certain amount of unemployment among agricultural workers. Agricultural trade unions complain that the children of the less prosperous rural population, who were accustomed to find work on the larger farms, now have difficulty in finding such employment and must stay with their parents.

It is difficult to estimate how far these facts are isolated. The rural exodus has formed a subject of complaint for so long that it is almost impossible to examine it with a fresh mind. There is not a sufficient assembly of certain facts to justify a refusal to recognise that agriculturalists have a right to complain of shortage of labour. Yet one English speaker during the past year had the courage to declare that what was the matter with agriculture was the presence not of too few, but of too many, workers, and quite definitely of too many inefficient workers. Agriculture had most injuriously adapted itself to employing the least efficient type of worker instead of challenging manufacture to leave to it, or to restore to it, a fair proportion of

absolutely first-class labour. It is obvious that the only way to secure first-class labour is to offer first-class conditions, and until agriculture is prepared to do this it cannot hope to compete on equal terms with manufacture or transport and other services. The quantity of labour available and employed is therefore not a final criterion. Quality is at least as important, and quality depends upon conditions offered. In this connection it may be noted that the preliminary results of the 1925 population census in *Germany*, when compared with the figures for the previous 1907 census, show that a certain amount of temporary and less qualified has been replaced by permanent and more qualified labour; there has also been an increase in the total number of all persons engaged in agriculture, even if a decrease in the number of skilled permanent wage-paid workers has to be registered. The development seems to be one which is favourable to agriculture, both to employers and to workers. In any case, the present situation is unsatisfactory to all, whether employers or workers, for nothing so holds back the organisation of agricultural workers and the improvement of their conditions as the withdrawal to city employment of too large a number of the most enterprising workers.

In view of these considerations, it may be said, as was pointed out in last year's Report, that in agriculture a greater and more pronounced difficulty than shortage of labour is its uneconomic use. Note was made last year of the interest which was being taken among German agriculturalists in the question of better organisation in agriculture. It may be stated that this interest is at the present moment beginning to spread to almost all countries in Europe.

One of the main causes for waste labour is an unpractical distribution of the land belonging to a farmer, which is often split up into a number of plots intermixed with plots belonging to other farmers. On various occasions, especially since the war, attempts have been made to reconsolidate such holdings. A survey of these measures was given in last year's Report. During the past year similar measures were taken in one or two other countries. In *India*, for example, a Bill was introduced in the Legislature of the Bombay Presidency which aims both at the reconsolidation of holdings and at the prevention of future fragmentation. Again, at the annual meeting of the *Swiss* Peasants Union in December it was recommended that an improved practice should be encouraged of passing on small farms in their integrity from father to son instead of dividing the land among all the heirs. Further, in *Czechoslovakia* the Minister of Agriculture has prepared for the next legislative session a Bill for reconsolidating dispersed parcels of land.

Another question intimately connected with the employment problem is land settlement. Agrarian reforms have now come to completion in nearly all countries, and settlement must in future be carried out by the methods practiced in pre-war days and must consequently proceed at a much slower rate.

In *Germany* information recently published by the Federal Statistical Department illustrates the activity during the years 1919 to 1925 occasioned by the Federal Settlement Act. During this period 16,800 new holdings, with a total area of 146,700 hectares, have been created, and 44,900 small holders have obtained supplementary plots in ownership to a total area of 52,300 hectares. The activity for this form of settlement seems, however, to have culminated in the year 1923 in nearly all the States. According to the Federal Settlement Act it can be made obligatory for rural communities, or estate districts, to furnish agricultural workers permanently engaged in the district with a parcel of land sufficient for the needs of their household. This important rule, however, has not been much applied in practice. In all about 3,000 workers seem to have benefited from these provisions. The settlements have hitherto been established by single States only, but during the period 1926-1930 the Federal Government will contribute 50 million marks yearly.

Of special interest is the attempt made by the Forestry Commission of *Great Britain* to create holdings for forestry workers in connection with afforestation of land. The idea is to provide a holding up to 10 acres of light cultivable land, a house, and 150 guaranteed days' forestry labour in the course of the year. The Commission has succeeded in creating 360 holdings from 1919, when it was established, to October 1926. This is, of course, only a drop in the ocean; but the importance of this activity from an international point of view lies in the fact that sooner or later afforestation policies will become of immense importance throughout the world.

The settlement question has a different aspect in Europe and in non-European countries. In Europe settlement is mostly a measure taken to prevent the rural exodus; in non-European countries it is a "back to the land" or rather an "on to the land" movement, to prevent congestion in industrial centres. Thus in *Canada* the Trades and Labour Congress has proposed that, in order to relieve congestion in industrial centres, land settlement and colonisation schemes should be made widely known in Canada, and the same opportunities offered to residents of Canada as are given to those of the British Isles and foreign

countries. In *South Africa*, too, very interesting experiments are at present being carried out to solve this problem of training a limited number of city dwellers to become successful farmers.

167. — The developments to which reference has been made above may perhaps appear unemphatic, slow, dispersed, and fragmentary, in fact somewhat insignificant. But it is well to bear in mind in estimating their value that agriculture has a much longer history than industry. Progress has always taken place at a slower rate in agriculture than in industry. Agricultural populations, whether peasant-proprietor populations or wage-paid workers, are reluctant to accept new ideas. Only little by little have they accepted those methods which are so easily adopted by industrial workers when they want to improve their position, methods of which the kernel is the principle of combination.

The membership of agricultural workers' organisations is still very low as compared with the aggregate number of wage-paid workers in agriculture, but it is slowly increasing in all countries where national organisations exist. The latest formation of such an organisation is to be noted in *Norway*, where a new national organisation of landworkers was formed in August 1927 and affiliated to the Norwegian National Labour Federation. The new organisation includes all workers engaged in agriculture, forestry, and timber-floating. The importance of wage-paid labour in Norwegian agriculture is not very great, as most of the land is cultivated in family holdings. But forestry is one of the most important industries in the country, and it is but natural that the bulk of the 3,500 members with whom the new organisation started should be forestry workers.

International organisations of agricultural workers have also increased in power. Three national organisations, in *Czechoslovakia*, *France*, and *Sweden*, joined the International Landworkers' Federation during 1927.

Similar progress is also noticeable in the international organisation of agricultural employers. The German Federation of Agricultural Employers' Unions has not yet joined the International Federation of Agricultural Employers, but the principal obstacles seem to have been overcome. At a meeting of the German Agricultural Board (*Deutscher Landwirtschaftsrat*) Count Kayserlingk, speaking on behalf of agricultural employers, declared that the existence of the International Labour Office made international co-ordination of agricultural employers absolutely necessary.

There can be no reasonable doubt but that progressive organisation will not

merely encourage initiative in social legislation, but will also be a contribution towards ameliorating the depression from which agriculture is suffering.

The post-war agricultural crisis which hit agriculture as well as other industries is still continuing. The main cause of present difficulties seems to lie in the disparity now existing, as compared with pre-war conditions, between the prices of the goods the farmer has to buy and of those he has to sell. Another difficulty arises out of the large investment of capital needed to restore the productive capacity of agriculture which was partially destroyed by the war. In countries where the currency is depressed it is scarcely possible to supply agricultural credit, unless it be at rates of interest much above the normal. In countries where a policy of deflation has been carried through the burden of indebtedness contracted in terms of depreciated currency now weighs more heavily on the farmer in that interest and amortization charges must be paid in a currency restored to gold values. Moreover, in some countries where agrarian reforms have been carried out difficulties are attributed in part to a temporary initial decrease in yield caused by the reforms.

For several years agriculturalists, spurred on by their common difficulties, have been making fresh efforts to unite their forces to secure for their industry that position in the international field which its importance and difficulties require. Agriculture, no doubt, had not been completely without international organisation even before.

An International Commission of Agriculture, for example, was created in 1889, but it grouped only personalities in the world of agriculture, and not associations. At that date agricultural organisation was in its infancy. But the developments of forty years, and especially since the war, have made organisation the golden rule in the solution of practically all problems. There was a feeling that the Commission was not adequate to the situation under its old constitution. It was therefore re-organised, an event which was closely followed by the International Labour Office and was described in last year's Report. The work of reorganisation may now be stated to have been finally completed with the new adherence of German agriculture to the Commission in the beginning of 1927. The Commission is now fully representative of European agriculture, though its relations with extra-European agriculture are still insignificant.

The first action of the re-organised Commission was successfully directed towards safeguarding the interests of agriculture at the World Economic Conference. It may be attributed partly to the International Commission of Agriculture that on this

occasion agriculture assumed the place to which it was entitled.

At the nomination of the new Consultative Economic Committee of the League of Nations nine posts were given to agriculture, in addition to the post given to the President of the International Institute of Agriculture. This result, however, cannot be put down solely to the activities of the International Commission of Agriculture. The truth is that the idea of treating agricultural problems within the economic organisation of the League arose by analogy and by logic out of the fact that these problems have long been handled by the International Labour Organisation. Some importance must also be attributed to the existence for a period now exceeding twenty years of an international state institution, the International Institute of Agriculture, which exists in order to study agricultural problems from a strictly international point of view. However, it is not to be denied that in establishing a committee like the new Consultative Economic Committee of the League of Nations, which is to unite representatives of different economic interests—finance, production, commerce, labour and consumption—the fact that there exists a voluntary organisation in agriculture capable of handling agricultural interests competently and advancing them authoritatively before international bodies has made the proper representation of agricultural interests much easier.

168 — The present agricultural crisis has not only given rise to a great deal of international discussion, but has induced farmers in many countries to advance claims for state help in overcoming their difficulties. However, the action of Governments in reply to these demands has not, up to the present, led to any very radical new measures directly designed to protect agriculture. Many countries show a tendency to proceed by way of comprehensive national enquiry into agricultural production and conditions before taking any fresh steps, though this is no doubt a preliminary to positive measures. This point was already noticed in last year's Report, where mention was made of several enquiries, partly organised by the State and partly by agriculture itself, e.g. in *Czechoslovakia, Germany, India, Italy, Poland and South Africa*.

For the past year new additions can be made to the above. In *Queensland (Australia)*, for example, the undertaking of an agricultural survey was recently announced. The survey will include the collection of information on problems of farm economics, such as farm costs, systems of farming and farm management, amount of capital required to start farming, labour required; and the question of casual seasonal labour will also be dealt with. The Federal

Government of the *Commonwealth of Australia*, too, in November 1927 set up a Committee to enquire into the conditions of the Australian pastoral industry and to give advice as to the best methods of conserving the national wealth represented by this industry.

In the *United States of America* a Business Men's Commission of Agriculture has been formed, which has just published the results of an intensive study of the agricultural situation, the purpose of which was to formulate "a national programme for co-operation of all economic groups in protecting the permanent national interest in a sound and prosperous agriculture".

In *France*, it has been decided to start preparations for an enquiry into agriculture in 1930. In that year a census of animal and plant production will be taken and the technical and economic conditions of French agriculture will also be examined. This decision has been taken not so much because of immediate difficulties as because of a general lack of up-to-date information on French agriculture. The new Chambers of Agriculture, the first elections to which took place in the spring of 1927 and on which agricultural workers are represented, have been specially active in insisting on such an enquiry.

In the *Netherlands*, too, a Committee has been appointed to examine the position of agricultural workers.

Each of the enquiries now in progress takes note, and sometimes large note, of labour questions. In fact, the part played by the human factor in agricultural production is so important that it cannot be expected that any serious improvement in the position of agriculture can be obtained unless the labour conditions for agricultural labour are improved at the same time. It is true that the possibilities of introducing a higher technique in agriculture are numerous. But improved measures are dependent upon the presence of workers capable of understanding the new methods and of applying them. No such supply of labour can be expected to exist in any country if the social conditions offered are noticeably inferior to those which are being offered to industrial workers. At bottom the human factor is the essential factor in agriculture. The economic progress of the industry depends upon the social progress of its workers. Social progress is the great concern of the International Labour Office, which must follow it and promote it to the best to the best of its ability. This is the whole basis of the Office's work on agricultural labour problems—work of which the Office fully appreciates the importance and in the discharge of which it will not be found wanting.

*Non-manual workers*¹.

169. — In past years there has been a split in the views of non-manual workers' organisations on the principle of protective labour legislation, some organisations considering that the policy should be to claim special measures of protection for non-manual workers, while other organisations considered it best to have uniform legislation for both manual and non-manual workers. This divergence of view has certainly had an influence on the development of national law affecting non-manual workers. In some countries, e.g., Austria, Belgium, Germany, special legislation for non-manual workers has been very much developed, whereas in other countries very few, if any, special measures have been taken. It would now seem that a common policy is in course of being evolved, all the organisations, whatever their tendencies may be, recognising that, while efforts must be made to promote social legislation in favour of all workers, it is necessary to develop such special legislation as exists. The old opposed policies have been reconciled to the extent that international organisations of non-manual workers now agree to aim at securing special protective measures on a number of questions by means of international agreement.

The Conventions and Recommendations which have been so far adopted by the International Labour Conference apply to non-manual workers just as much as to manual workers in regard to such questions as unemployment, emigration, maternity and social insurance. The following is a list of the decisions of the Conference which cover non-manual workers :

First Session :

- Draft Convention concerning unemployment.
- Recommendation concerning unemployment.
- Recommendation concerning reciprocity of treatment of foreign workers.
- Draft Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.

Third Session :

- Recommendation concerning the application of the weekly rest in commercial establishments.

¹ This year for the first time a special sub-section of Section II of the Report is devoted to non-manual workers. This sub-section perhaps goes somewhat beyond the usual scope of the other sub-sections in this part of the Report, in so far, for example, as it gives a list of the Conventions and Recommendations applicable to non-manual workers. But this seemed necessary in order to give a proper idea of the international aspects of non-manual workers' problems and to indicate the help which they can expect from the International Labour Organisation for solving them. Future Reports will only give the same review of events and ideas during the preceeding years which is usually given for other classes of workers.

Fourth Session :

- Recommendation concerning communication to the International Labour Office of statistical and other information regarding emigration, immigration and the repatriation and transit of emigrants.

Fifth Session :

- Recommendation concerning the general principles for the organisation of systems of inspection to secure the enforcement of the laws and regulations for the protection of the workers.

Sixth Session :

- Recommendation concerning the development of facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time.

Seventh Session :

- Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents.
- Recommendation concerning the minimum scale of workmen's compensation.
- Recommendation concerning jurisdiction in disputes on workmen's compensation.
- Draft Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.
- Recommendation concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases.
- Draft Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.
- Recommendation concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents.

Eighth Session :

- Draft Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants of board ship.
- Recommendation concerning the protection of emigrant women and girls on board ship.

Tenth Session :

- Draft Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants.
- Recommendation concerning the general principles of sickness insurance.

The Recommendation concerning the weekly rest in commercial establishments adopted by the Conference in 1921 invites the States Members of the Organisation to take measures to provide that the whole of the staff employed in any commercial establishment, whether public or private, or any branch thereof should, subject to certain exceptions, enjoy in every period of 7 days a period of rest comprising at least 24 consecutive hours. This Recommendation shows that, in addition to the general Conventions which are applicable to non-manual as well as to manual workers, the International Labour Conference has already recognised that special regulations for non-manual workers may be indispensable in certain cases. On some questions, in fact, such measures may be regarded as in a way pioneer measures for the working classes as a whole.

At a Conference held towards the end of 1926 at Montreux the various international organisations of non-manual workers adopted a common programme of objects. This programme was subsequently endorsed by the first meeting of the International

Association for Social Progress, and includes a number of questions which might be covered by general legislation. But it also includes questions which are special to non-manual workers, among which may be mentioned the following—termination of the contract of service, period of notice, compensation for dismissal, guaranteeing wages in case of forced absence from work. Another special question for non-manual workers is the restraint of trade clause. For non-manual workers in commerce the Montreux programme includes the special question of the regulation of shop closing.

A review of the present situation on each of these questions will show what has already been done on each of them by the law in the different countries.

170. Termination of non-manual workers' contracts of service. — Stability of employment is a matter of special importance to non-manual workers. By reason of the nature of their work the difficulties which this class of workers encounter in finding a new job are perhaps greater than anywhere else and increase with age. As a matter of fact, the work which a non-manual worker does is very personal in character. Often the worker co-operates directly with his employer and assumes part of the responsibility for the management of the undertaking. It is this personal character of a non-manual worker's employment which makes it difficult to find new work for him. Hence the reason why non-manual workers in all countries are anxious to have guarantees against the risk of a sudden dismissal by their employer. On the other hand, the employers have endeavoured to secure themselves against the consequences of a sudden termination of contract by their workers. The legislative provisions or the customs on the subject prevailing in the different countries have their origin in considerations of this kind.

The question of the termination of non-manual workers' contracts, moreover, has a number of distinct aspects, which all the same are closely allied to each other. The most important is the period of notice for ending the contract. This question is directly bound up with the question of compensation for sudden dismissal. Another aspect of the problem which it would appear should be taken into consideration along with the questions of the period of notice and compensation is the right to wages in case of forced absence from work (accidents, sickness, being called to the colours, etc.)

In a number of European countries—*Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Switzerland*—and also in some South American countries—*Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Peru*—the non-manual worker's rights as against his employer in the matter of the period of notice and compensation for dis-

missal are regulated by Acts or Regulations. In other countries the period of notice is generally fixed in the contract of service in accordance with the prevailing customs.

French law (§ 23 of the Labour Code) does not deal with the causes of the termination of the contract, the periods of notice, or the compensation for sudden dismissal. During the last few years, however, Parliament has had before it several Bills chiefly intended to fix the periods of notice. The last in date was introduced in 1927. In November 1925 the Supreme Labour Council recommended that the periods of notice should be fixed by local or trade custom or, in default thereof, by collective agreement.

In *Great Britain* there is no special legislation on the termination of non-manual workers' contracts of service. Subject to certain stipulations contained in such special enactments as the Electricity Act of 1919, as amended in 1922, questions affecting the termination of the contract of service (periods of notice, compensation, etc.) are regulated by the common law.

The obligation to give notice is always conditioned by the two following principles—there must be a contract for hiring services and the contract must be made for an indeterminate period.

Generally speaking, the different legislations fix the periods of notice which are to be given on the basis of length of service.

Some legislations leave the Courts to fix the amount of compensation to be paid for dismissal (*Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Switzerland*). In other countries the amount of compensation, which is generally based on the rate of salary, is fixed by the law itself (*Austria, Belgium, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg*).

The amount of compensation depends on several factors—custom, the nature of the services, the period for which they have to be rendered, etc. Special elements are also taken into account in particular cases, e.g., reimbursement of payments made with a view to retiring pension, cost of board and lodging considered as part of the salary, travelling expenses, gratuities, holidays, etc.

In some countries forced absence from work (sickness, accident, being called to the colours) is not considered as putting an end to the contract: the contract is simply suspended. Sometimes the right to salary is guaranteed by the law for a fixed period and according to varying formulas (*Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Switzerland*). In *France*, on the other hand, the contract is legally at an end and no damages are claimable in case of *vis major*. One of the Bills at present before Parliament proposes that the contract should not be terminated

but merely suspended in case of illness or a call to the colours.

The legal provisions concerning the termination of non-manual workers' contracts of service are sometimes scattered throughout a number of enactments. For *Germany*, for example, reference has to be made to the Commercial Code, the Civil Code, the Industrial Code, the Works' Councils Act of 4 July 1920, the War Disabled Act of 12 July 1923 and the Act of 9 July 1926 on the periods of notice for non-manual workers. For *France*, reference has to be made to the Labour Code and the Civil Code. In *Austria* the question is regulated by Acts dated 11 May 1921 and 13 July 1926. In other countries the provisions in force are collected in a single Act—*Belgium* (Act of 7 August 1922), *Finland* (Act of 1 June 1922), *Greece* (Act of 11 March 1920), *Hungary* (Decree of 1 March 1920), *Switzerland* (Code of Obligations, § 335 and following). In *Italy* termination of non-manual workers' contracts of service is regulated by Decrees dated 13 November and 5 December 1924, and in *Czechoslovakia* by Acts of 16 January 1910 and 31 March 1925.

The most advanced legislation on periods of notice and compensation would appear to be the *Austrian* legislation. The periods of notice to be given to the worker vary from 6 weeks to 5 months according to the number of years of service. The period of notice to be given to the employer is one month, but may be extended by agreement to 6 months. The law fixes both the employer's and the work's rights to compensation in certain specific cases. The amount of compensation is also fixed. This right is conferred without prejudice to other compensation by way of damages. There is no right to compensation where dismissal is caused by misconduct on the part of the worker.

171. *Restraint of trade clause.* — To prohibit the non-manual worker to compete with his own employer after his contract has come to an end sometimes considerably complicates the worker's economic position. A prohibition of this kind may be justifiable in some cases, e.g. when the worker has had opportunities for becoming closely acquainted with his employer's customers and his trade secrets: but it has often been abused, and this explains why non-manual workers' organisations claim that the restraint of trade clauses which are included in their service contracts should be declared void.

Provisions on restraint of trade clauses are contained in enactments in *Austria*, *Belgium*, *Czechoslovakia*, *Germany*, *Italy*, *Luxembourg*, *Switzerland*.

The *Belgian* Act of 7 August 1922 and the *Italian* Decree of 13 November 1924 on employment contracts provide that clauses which would restrain the future trade activities of a non-manual worker after the termination of his contract are to be void. The worker is simply required not to use the information or manufacturing secrets which he may have obtained while working for his employer to set up in unfair competition against him.

In *Austria*, *Czechoslovakia*, *Germany* and *Luxembourg* the restraint of trade clause is void where it applies to non-manual workers whose salaries are comparatively low (2,250 marks per annum in *Germany* and 4,000 crowns in *Czechoslovakia*). In these countries the clause is also void if the worker was under age at the time he entered into his contract. The position is the same in *Switzerland*.

The clause can only take effect for one year in *Austria* and *Czechoslovakia* and for two years in *Germany* and *Luxembourg*.

The law in the above countries which recognise that the restraint of trade clause is valid for non-manual workers in receipt of a comparatively higher salary provides that the restrictions on the worker's activities, having regard to their objects, the time and the locality, are not to be such as to jeopardise his future career in his own occupation.

In *Germany*, during the time the restraint of trade clause takes effect the non-manual worker is entitled to half his salary subject to certain exceptions, e. g. if his salary was more than 12,000 marks before the contract was terminated.

In *Austria*, *Czechoslovakia*, *Germany* and *Switzerland*, if the contract of service is terminated by the non-manual worker for misconduct on the part of his employer this may nullify the restraint of trade clause. In these countries the law provides that, subject to certain exceptions, the clause shall be void if the employer terminates the contract. Provision is made for fines and damages if the law is broken.

In *France* there are no enactments dealing with the restraint of trade clause. Contracts of service generally contain provisions on the point. A Bill on the legal position of non-manual workers which was introduced at the end of 1926, however, defines the cases in which the restraint of trade clause should be treated as void and illegal. This Bill also lays down certain limitations on the effect of the clause where it is legally valid. The Supreme Labour Council at its meeting in November 1926 also recommended that the law should prohibit restraint of trade clauses on the lines of the provisions contained in Belgian and Italian legislation.

172. *Regulation of shop closing.* — The regulation of shop closing was one of the first restrictions on working hours for non-manual workers, by which they obtained opportunities for enjoying more spare time. As it is useless for the employer to open his shop too early in the morning, as there would be no customers at that time, the effect of regulating closing hours is to shorten the time during which the shop may remain open. The problem is thus closely bound up with the problem of working hours. From the economic point of view, too, shop closing regulations may also have serious consequences, because the working classes will have less opportunities of making purchases if the closing times coincide with the times when the workers leave their factories and workshops. Moreover, this question may raise the question of regulating the employer's work, as was demonstrated during the discussions which took place in the Governing Body on the Agenda of the Conference for 1929. For these reasons the Office has been investigating the problem from different standpoints.

At present shop closing hours are regulated by law in the following European countries : *Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Ireland, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, Sweden* and a number of the *Swiss cantons*. Partial measures have also been taken in *Spain* and the *U. S. S. R.*

These different sets of regulations are based on varying principles. Some of them only fix the closing hour : others also prescribe the opening hour. The closing hour is most often fixed at 7 or 8 p. m. Sometimes special closing hours are prescribed for certain classes of establishments. Other criteria which are used in a number of countries for determining the closing hour are—the locality, the season (winter or summer), the periods of increased seasonal work, and the different days of the week.

During the past year, Bills on the subject have been laid before Parliament in Belgium and the Netherlands.

In *Belgium*, a Bill was introduced in the Chamber of Representatives on 7 April 1927. This Bill provides that it should be prohibited to open shops to the public on working days between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m. The exceptions provided do not allow for shops remaining open more than two hours longer in the evening, or being opened more than one hour earlier in the morning, and cannot be granted for more than fifty days in the year. Infringements are to be punished by fines.

In *the Netherlands*, the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry also introduced a shop closing Bill in April 1927, along with a Bill for regulating non-manual workers' hours of work. The shop closing

Bill provides that shops are not to be open after 8 p. m., and that the authorities in the communes may make it compulsory to close shops for one half-day per week. Further, the Communal Council may authorise for fourteen days a year at most an extension of the opening hours, with or without limitation. Sanctions are also provided for infringements.

Lastly, in *Great Britain*, a committee was appointed in March 1927 to investigate the application of the provisional Acts of 1920 and 1921, and to consider the desirability of making these Acts permanent. On 2 January 1928 the committee issued its report. This report recommends the adoption of permanent legislation establishing the principle of compulsory closing hours. The exemptions provided for under the existing law, it is recommended, should be maintained, subject to certain unimportant modifications which practice has shown to be desirable.

In the *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom*, a committee has recently been instructed to draw up rules for the whole country on the opening and closing of shops.

The Office has already undertaken documentary studies on all these questions. Two of the questions, the termination of the contract of service (periods of notice) and the regulation of shop closing, were submitted to the Governing Body with a view to their inclusion in the Agenda of the 1929 Session of the Conference, in case the Governing Body did not give effect to a resolution adopted by the Conference in 1927 on Mr. Schürch's proposal that the question of non-manual workers' working hours should be discussed by the Conference in 1929. This latter question, however, was approved by the Governing Body for the 1929 Agenda.

The Office has, moreover, endeavoured to comply with the pressing requests which have been made by non-manual workers' organisations asking that it should give its full attention to non-manual workers' problems. A considerable number of sets of legal rules affecting non-manual workers, in particular Acts and Regulations on their contracts of service, their working hours and their insurance have been published in the *Legislative Series*. A number of studies on non-manual workers have also been published in the *International Labour Review*, and since the beginning of 1927, a special section of *Industrial and Labour Information* has been reserved for non-manual workers and officials. Apart from these documentary studies, a special enquiry has been carried out on the protection of non-manual worker inventors. Comparative studies have also been made of bank employees' working conditions and the different systems of remuneration in force in the hotel industry.

It will be seen that the Office now has definite objects in view in its work for non-manual workers, and the organisations concerned have already on several occasions expressed their satisfaction at the work which is being done. The Office will endeavour to keep in permanent touch with these organisations, and to bring to successful results the new work which has to be undertaken in regard to this extremely important class of workers.

Intellectual workers.

173. — Reference was made in last year's Report to the importance and complexity of the working conditions of intellectual workers. This year the Office is glad to be able to record a number of events which enable it to contemplate the future with confidence.

The first fact to note is that a considerable number of associations of intellectual workers have been formed, and that their international organisations are being improved. At present journalists, doctors, dentists, nurses and chemists have their own international organisations. Engineers, who previously had only formed specialised international federations, like the International Union of Boring Engineers and Mechanics, are about to form a large international organisation which is being promoted by the Federation of Engineers' Unions in France, while on the other side of Europe the national associations of engineers in the Slav countries have a federation with its seat at Belgrade. Similar developments are taking place with architects and lawyers. International federations cover tens of thousands of dramatic artistes and musicians. An International Office of Music is being created at Vienna, and it is proposed to create an International Theatre Office in Geneva. The day will come, perhaps soon, when no intellectual occupation in which any considerable number of persons are employed will be without its own associations and international organisation. The question will then arise as to the relations between these occupational organisations and such general organisations as the International Confederation of Intellectual Workers. But this question need not cause any apprehensions to the Office. As soon as intellectual workers have recognised the benefits of organisation, as manual workers have done, they must of necessity keep developing their movement for organisation and combine their action on a larger and more substantial scale.

Along with this tendency to organise themselves, there appears to be also a tendency among intellectual workers to define themselves, so as to indicate clearly the possible extent of their organisation and

the distinction between them and other groups of workers. In September last, for example, the Fourth Congress of the Confederation of Intellectual Workers after considerable discussion adopted the following definition of intellectual worker :

An intellectual worker is one who derives his means of subsistence from work in which mental effort, initiative and personality habitually predominate over physical effort.

It may be noted that the expression "means of subsistence" excludes amateurs, that the words "initiative and personality" emphasise the original quality of the intellectual work, and that the word "habitually" excludes manual work and even certain types of work which do demand mental effort but not habitually. However valuable a theoretical definition may be, its possible practical disadvantages must not be overlooked. No doubt any such disadvantages do not affect the International Labour Office as such, because as the task of the Office is to protect all workers without distinction any definition which might be adopted, even if it excluded certain classes of workers, would not in any way restrict the Office's province: any workers which were banished from one part of its territory would simply be located in another part of that same territory.

But, whatever be the theoretical definition of intellectual workers, it is considered that it should not be made into an impassable barrier, and that it is indispensable in many cases that intellectual workers should co-operate with other classes of workers, especially officials and salaried employees. The attitude of the Office towards intellectual workers, as towards any other workers, will never be to classify them in such watertight compartments that they would be divided against themselves and so weakened. The reason for having separate groups can only be that this furnishes a more convenient basis for classifying the different questions affecting the workers concerned and for consulting them as real experts on their particular problems: it should not in any way prejudice what Mr. Justin Godart rightly calls the "unity of labour".

Means have already been created for the Office to co-operate actively with these organisations of intellectual workers, which are anxious to take action to promote their objects. In pursuance of a proposal made to the Office by Mr. de Michelis, the Italian Government representative on the Governing Body, the latter decided to create an Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers to assist the Office. The Governing Body also decided that the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations should take part in the work of this Committee. The first five members of the new Committee, i.e., the three delegates of the Governing Body,

Mr. de Michelis, Mr. Lambert-Ribot and Mr. Oudegeest, and the two representatives of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, Mr. Destrée and Mr. Einstein, met, as has been already reported, at Brussels on 19-20 December 1927. The proposals adopted by them will probably have been considered by the Governing Body when the Conference meets. These proposals are not only to the effect that the Committee should be definitely constituted by the addition of representatives of intellectual workers' organisations, whether international or national, but also refer to the Committee's programme of work, and so affect the Office's work.

The Conference is aware that before the new Committee was appointed the Office had already begun to investigate the working conditions of intellectual workers, and will no doubt have in mind the Office's study on the working and living conditions of engineers and chemists which was published some four years ago. The Conference will also remember that in 1925, at the request of the Association of journalists accredited to the League of Nations, the Office undertook an enquiry into journalists' working and living conditions. The preliminary results of this enquiry were issued in roneoed form, and by this means the Office was able to have the observations, additions and corrections of the different organisations concerned and other persons with knowledge and experience on the subject. The Office has now published a completed study in which the social and economic conditions of the journalist's occupation are analysed—definition of journalist, state of employment, the legal position of journalists, their contracts of service, conditions of work, provident institutions, etc. The Office would be glad to collect in the near future similar information on the working and living conditions of all classes of intellectual workers—dramatic artistes, cinema artistes, doctors, etc.

For the moment, however, a considerable programme of work will have been laid down for the Office by the first five members of the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers if the Governing Body approves their proposals. If these proposals, which are based on the demands of a considerable number of intellectual workers' organisations, are considered, they will be found to form a very practical programme.

One of the principal reasons for the Office's confidence in this new movement among intellectual workers' organisations is the practical objects they keep in view in considering and endeavouring to find means to improve the economic conditions of their members. The working conditions of intellectual workers are in many cases regulated in the same terms and simultaneously with those of other classes of workers, and a number of the international

labour Conventions and most national laws and other legislative or contractual provisions make no distinction between them and other workers. All the same, there are distinct features in the exercise of different intellectual occupations which raise special problems and demand special solutions. An attempt could, in fact, be made, and made successfully, to draw up for each occupation a long, if not complete, list of the questions which are peculiar to the economic conditions of intellectual work and which could be gone into forthwith by those who are interested in the problems of social reform. Only, all social progress, more especially in the international field, is achieved slowly, and it is necessary to proceed by stages. This method has been adopted by manual workers for effecting the improvements they desire in their working conditions, and intellectual workers have realised that they will not be able to take a different line. Their desires will only be likely to be fulfilled if they are confined to definite and strictly limited questions. The time has passed when well-meaning dreamers could ask the Office forthwith to translate into actual fact their ideals of social justice. To give only one example, the International Federation of Journalists, which is a firmly established organisation, has asked the Office to investigate a very special problem, viz., the dismissal or resignation of journalists when their paper changes its policy. The Federation has offered to help the Office in collecting information on this question, and is endeavouring to win public opinion over to its proposed improvement on the present situation. The question will probably be put before the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, to which the Office will submit a report on the problem. If the Committee agrees, it might ask the Governing Body to put the question on the Agenda of an early Session of the International Labour Conference. When the Conference discusses it, it might adopt either a Draft Convention or Recommendation on it, and this might later be ratified by the States Members. This may seem a long procedure, but it is the only procedure which is practicable and which does not present insurmountable obstacles.

For the first meeting of the Advisory Committee on Intellectual Workers, four clearcut problems have been selected and proposed by the first members of the Committee to the Governing Body—the dismissal or resignation of journalists, the restraint of trade clause for engineers and mechanics who leave an undertaking, the finding of employment for theatre artistes, and the problem of salaried inventors. All these problems are clearly of a reasonable and practical character, and show that the organisation of intellectual workers has passed from what may be called its romantic period to a period of practical and substantive endeavour.

This does not imply that there is no general question affecting intellectual workers as a whole at present under consideration. There is one particular problem which affects almost all intellectual workers, i.e. unemployment. This problem has long been discussed in University publications as well as by international students' organisations, and more especially the International Student Service, which has devoted a special number of its review (*Vox Studentium*) to the problem and collected and published statistics on what is called the over-production of intellectual workers. In April 1927 the Committee of representatives of international students' organisations convened by the League of Nations adopted a resolution asking the International Labour Office and its new Advisory Committee to go into the problem and to endeavour to find a practical solution. This resolution was considered at the meeting of the first members of the Advisory Committee, which proposed that the Governing Body should instruct the Office to prepare, in co-operation with the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, a report to be submitted to the members of the Committee before the end of 1928. The problem is a delicate and complicated one, but it must be faced, because it arises everywhere—in Germany, Poland, Austria, Hungary, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, as well as in Canada, Japan and even in India.

The Office firmly hopes that its new Advisory Committee will give it very useful assistance in its work, which it is anxious to carry on as energetically as it can but which social conditions themselves oblige it to undertake with care, one might almost say, with tact, and in a practical direction. It is hoped that this work will bear substantial fruit; in any case, it will greatly facilitate intellectual work, without which there can hardly be any progress in the organisation of production.

Native and colonial labour.

174. — In the Report submitted to the Conference last year the present paragraphs dealt in succession with two series of questions. In the first place were examined those involved in the application of ratified Conventions to colonies, protectorates and possessions. In the second place a summary was given of the more general problems resulting from the primitive labour conditions in the various territories. This second class of problems, concerning particularly the suppression of slavery, the transition from a servile organisation and mentality to wage-earning employment or independent production, forced labour and contract labour, health questions, penal sanctions, etc., problems already solved by western nations, are in reality those the

solution of which is of the greatest urgency for the territories under consideration here.

The progress of events in 1927 has confirmed this opinion to such a degree that it was felt best, in order to avoid arbitrary divisions and a lack of proportion, to adopt a somewhat different plan for the present Report. Those events which during the year have affected colonial territories in connection with Article 421 will be grouped in the Second Part summarising the annual reports received by the Office under Article 408. The reader is therefore referred to this Second Part for all information regarding the application of Conventions in colonial territories. He will see that the results recorded for the last year, however important they may be regarded in certain cases, are not of a nature to modify the opinion expressed in last year's Report that most of the Conference's decisions, having so far been concerned with conditions in highly industrialised countries, can only be applied very gradually in the colonies. At the same time it must be added that such application far from represents the general labour legislation movement in these areas.

The plan which it seemed preferable to follow in the present Report appears to accord better with the actual development of colonial problems. In the first place, therefore under the heading "*The National Movements*", a summary will be given in the following paragraphs of the development of public opinion and of the positive measures due to Government action in each country resulting in an increase in the protection afforded to native workers. This summary will give country by country the most important events of which the Office has learned during the past year. In the second division, this Part of the Report will analyse "*The International Movement*", which can be regarded as a synthesis of the various national movements treated earlier. With this idea in mind, the Report will first summarise the developments of international opinion as shown by the programmes of Congresses, the resolutions passed by various associations, etc., and secondly the actual work of the International Labour Organisation.

A. The national movements.

175. — The legislative movement in industrially backward areas is now in full swing. The year 1927 was fertile in legislative advance, and the underlying causes of this are such as justify the prophecy of more rapid advance in the future.

The humanitarian movement for the protection of native peoples against the dangers of an unrestrained industrialisation is continually gaining strength under the pressure of hard facts. Humanitarian motives are strengthened by motives of a more materialistic nature. Both the administrations and the employing companies

and industrial concerns are realising increasingly that get-rich-quick methods in colonial development are illusory, and that prudent and solid preparation is necessary if, instead of killing the goose that lays the golden eggs, a continued output is to be attained. Thirdly, a powerful factor in the situation is undoubtedly the consideration that when an industrial proletariat is being formed there are certain dangers which can only be met by wise and prudent social action. All these reasons—moral, economic and political—combine, therefore, to favour a fruitful legislative activity in colonial areas.

It may be added, too, that the impulse given to the general movement by the action of the League of Nations in adopting the Slavery Convention and of the International Labour Office in undertaking a study of forced labour and contract labour is not without effect. It is gratifying to note, for example, the case of Sierra Leone, referred to hereafter, as one instance of the direct effect of international action, and to hear, as the Office hears from time to time, of the effort being made in a number of colonial Ministries to advance legislation towards the standards already laid down or projected. But these matters are best illustrated by the accounts which follow, showing, country by country, what has actually been done during the past year¹.

Belgium. — In the Belgian Congo the question of the native labour supply has remained one of the chief preoccupations of the Administration. It may be remembered that a committee was appointed to study this difficult problem. The report submitted on 17 March 1925 was much commented upon in the press and led to important discussions during the Second Belgian Colonial Congress held in Brussels on 6 and 7 February 1926. Shortly after the Colonial Congress, the Government forbade the direct intervention of officials in the recruitment of labour except for public works. This decision gave rise to much discussion on the lines indicated in last year's Report.

The Government has recently endeavoured to put the recommendations of the committee into practice. A general labour office has been set up under the Central Colonial Government. It has been found necessary to a certain extent to pool the resources of the colony and the principle of inter-provincial co-operation has in some instances been translated into practice. The Government has taken a census of natives in employment. The recommendations of the committee regarding the percentages of

able-bodied adult males who may be recruited in each province have been put into force.¹

Porterage has been prohibited in certain districts over routes where mechanical transport is possible².

Much improvement has been effected in the transport of recruited labourers. In particular, provision has been made for the creation of camps in which the workers can become accustomed to climatic changes. Certain amendments have been made in the Orders regarding the health and safety of natives in public or private employment. In the Congo-Kasai Province, for example, an Order was issued on 13 August 1926 prohibiting the porterage labour of women, and another Order on 12 July 1927 provided for improvements in the workers' rations and for the supply of a blanket and loin-cloth to each recruited labourer and his wife.

In the Equator Province an Order of 25 August 1927 assigns to the district officials and Government medical officers, in addition to the inspectors of industry and commerce, the duty of supervising the enforcement of the legal provisions regarding the health and safety of the workers.

In the Equator Province too, an important Order dated 17 June 1927 has provided for the creation of a labour inspectorate. By another Order of the same date the industrial district of Coquilhatville has been made into a special district for purposes of labour inspection.

During the discussion of the Colonial Budget for 1928, the Belgian Minister for the Colonies took the opportunity of explaining in the Senate the ultimate intentions of the Government in regard to native policy³. He drew attention to certain grave aspects in the health situation in the Belgian Congo and to the need of coordinating the work of doctors and missionaries in regard to these matters. For this purpose a Superior Council of Colonial Health has been set up. The medical service is still under-staffed. Owing to the lack of candidates, there are 100 instead of 131 medical officers. New hospitals should be built. It is not certain that the population of the Belgian Congo is diminishing or that contact with the white races is still injurious. Nevertheless, it is necessary to act as if there were a danger of depopulation.

¹ The *Bulletin officiel du Congo Belge* has published several orders forbidding or restricting recruiting: Congo-Kasai Province, Orders of 21 August 1926 and 20 January 1927; Equator Province, Orders of 19 February and 18 August 1927; Katanga Province, Orders of 23 October 1926 and 1 June 1927; Eastern Province, Orders of 11 August, 26 September and 6 October 1926, and 1 August 1927.

² e. g. Congo-Kasai Province, Order of 20 January 1927; Katanga Province, Order of 11 February 1927; Eastern Province, various Orders issued on different occasions.

³ See *Compte rendu analytique*, 14 June 1927.

¹ It will be noted that this Report contains no mention of the situation in Italian, Portuguese and Spanish colonies. Owing to lack of resources, the study of these territories has had to be put aside for the moment. It is hoped, however, to resume it in 1928, so that in next year's Report the summary given will be complete.

This is a question which must be studied by the Committee set up to examine the whole problem of the native labour supply.

In the annual report of the Belgian Government on the administration of *Ruanda-Urundi* during 1926, interesting details are given of recent progress in this mandated area.

In Ruanda, Police Regulations No. 52 of 24 March 1926 have provided for the cultivation of foodstuffs throughout the zones lying within six kilometers of the principal means of communication. The products of such compulsory cultivation will remain the property of the native cultivators.

There appears to be no difficulty in the recruitment of labour in this thickly populated territory. By an Order dated 19 November 1926, the Congo Decree of 15 June 1921 on the health and safety of workers has been extended to Ruanda-Urundi. Portage has been regulated by an Order, providing in particular for medical examination, maximum loads, maximum stages and minimum wages.

Emigration has been regulated by a Decree of 19 July 1926 according to which no native of Ruanda-Urundi may leave the territory without an emigration pass. An Order containing detailed measures for the application of this Decree was issued on 7 December 1926 to come into force on 1 April 1927.

Mention should be made of an important recruiting experiment undertaken in Ruanda-Urundi by the Upper Katanga Mining Federation. Owing to the precautions taken to secure that the workers receive adequate health attention during their transport to the place of employment, this initial experiment has fully succeeded.

During the period under review, no offences against the laws forbidding slavery were recorded.

British Commonwealth.— In Great Britain public opinion is taking an increasing interest in colonial questions. The attention drawn by such matters as the Colonial Office Conference, slavery in Sierra Leone, juvenile employment in Southern Rhodesia and the appointment of the East Africa Commission is a sign of the growing realisation of a new conception of imperial responsibility, and facile phrases regarding the white man's burden in some circles and economic imperialism in others are now less often coined.

The Conference of Colonial Governors and their representatives held at the Colonial Office from 10 to 31 May 1927 is of great interest in this connection. As the Secretary of State for the Colonies, who presided, pointed out: "the Colonies were emerging from the merely negative conception of control and direction by the Colonial Office to a more positive conception that

all were partners together in a great creative enterprise."

Nearly every one of the developments in 1927 outlined below under the individual territories have had some echo in Great Britain and questions which were once mainly of interest to the humanitarian and to the colonial administrator are being anxiously followed by the economist and the politician as vital to the home country's welfare.

In the *British East African Dependencies* the year has been marked by few legislative measures of importance in regard to labour. It has, however, seen the issue of the Kenya Labour Commission's report and that on the the Nyasaland Census, both of which are treated below.

In Kenya on 12 January 1927 the Governor appointed a Commission to examine and report on the needs of the Colony in respect of African labour outside the native reserves.

The report of the Commission reviews at length the development of the labour problem.

At present there are estimated to be 509,528 males between 15 and 40 years of age. Of this number it is suggested that 20 per cent. are unfit for hard work, and the Commission accepts the figure of 400,000 as probably representing the potential labour supply of the country. Though at the present moment considerably less than half this number are at work outside the reserves at any one time, and though the European labour requirements of Kenya are expected to reach 232,000 by 1929, the Commission, judging by the increase during the last five years, considers that it may reasonably be expected that the apparent deficit will be met.

With regard to wages and hours of work, the Commission appears to favour a system of bonuses for actual work performed and on re-engagement. It believes, however, that there is some evidence to show that where the task work system is employed, the task is not infrequently the measure of the slow worker rather than that of the worker of average capacity.

Important parts of the Commission's report are devoted to the possibility and advisability of increasing juvenile employment. A suggestion was made to it that compulsory mental and industrial training for natives from the ages of six years and upwards should be recommended. The Commission, however, points out that circumstances will not permit the adoption of the proposal for many years to come. Another suggestion was made that the main school holidays should be fixed to synchronise with the coffee harvest. On this point the Commission recommends that wherever possible the school holidays should be made to synchronise with harvest

time. Concerning juvenile employment itself, the Commission states that the principle of such employment has been accepted by the Medical Department and by the Chief Native Commissioner as in no way harmful.

In one of the chapters of its report the Commission examines the position of a native working on his own account in the reserves, and that of a native employed upon a European farm, and comes to the conclusion that the latter is much better off. The Commission believes that to earn approximately the same money in the reserves as he does in European agricultural employment the native would have to work three times harder than he does at present.

Nevertheless, the Commission realises that unsatisfactory social conditions are in a measure created by the repeated absences of the married male adult. It considers that whole families should be encouraged to become permanently resident in the alienated areas where satisfactory conditions of life should be provided for them. Through the establishment of an African population away from the reserves, the children would be brought up in contact with civilisation and with industry, and with increasing efficiency wages would also increase.

The report of the Labour Commission, which must not be accepted as an expression of the views of the Government of Kenya, has been the subject of discussion within and outside the colony. In particular, attention has been drawn to passages implying a large dependence on woman and child labour. It is pointed out that the whole modern theory of native policy runs contrary to the assumption of an increase in the numbers of women and children labouring at unskilled work outside the reserves. The native councils are seeking powers to tax their own people for purposes of providing education, and systems are being set up which are logically expected in the course of some years to provide for the education of every African child in his own village. Among the women, social work and the influences of western thought are revolutionising tribal tradition, even though slowly. Recognising these tendencies, it seems impossible, it is argued, for Kenya to be satisfied with a labour position which discloses a reliance upon women and children. Everything done for the benefit of the women and children is opposed to an increase in the number of unskilled and casual labourers drawn from them.

Controversy aroused by the Native Labour Commission's report and by the whole question of British East African policy has led to the publication of details regarding the actual conditions of service on some of the bigger estates. Thus, the managing director of the Victoria Nyanza Sugar Company has shown that, together with other improvements, a result of employ-

ment has been an improvement in the general health of the workers and a large increase in voluntary engagements.

With regard to forced labour in Kenya, the Under Secretary of State for the Colonies stated in the House of Commons on 14 November 1927 that if women and children were sent out by the male natives as their substitutes, they were sent back at once, and the defaulting males prosecuted.

In *Nyasaland* an important Report on the Census of 1926 establishes the close relationship between population movements and native labour policy.

According to the Superintendent of Census, one of the most important causes tending to counteract the natural fertility of the Nyasaland native, is the absence of thousands of adult natives seeking work and adventure, generally in Southern Rhodesia, where they often remain for periods extending up to ten years, and whence they seldom return before three years. Strong opinions are held that the Government should take some action in the matter. The Government is not indifferent. Natives are forbidden by law to leave the Protectorate without a pass, and it is illegal to recruit natives in Nyasaland for service outside. But Nyasaland has hundreds of miles of open and unguarded border, and thousands of natives leave for Southern Rhodesia each year, willingly paying the fine of 10/ or £ 1 for having evaded the law.

As the production of economic crops by natives extends over the Protectorate, and as wages and conditions of work improve, the Superintendent of Census anticipates, the stream of emigration will gradually diminish in intensity. If that should prove the case, one of the greatest factors in reducing the native birthrate below the normal will have been removed, together with a source of social evil of some magnitude in other directions. Nevertheless, the Superintendent points out that when the native goes abroad, he is selling his labour in the highest market. It is reckoned that each native who works in Rhodesia brings or remits money home to the extent of about £ 5 a year, after providing for his living expenses and purchasing the articles with which such natives usually return. It is open to doubt whether the some 30,000 temporary emigrants, who are employed in Southern Rhodesia, could at present be employed in Nyasaland either in producing crops for export or in paid employment in such a way as to provide earnings of an equivalent amount.

With regard to employment within Nyasaland, the Superintendent believes that a great responsibility rests upon the employers to foster the health of the workers. The natural life of the native is not conducive to sustained labour, and unless some trouble is taken with him he is not capable of regular work for a long period. Under normal conditions, if he

works at full pitch, three or four hours is the limit of his effective day's work. Subconsciously he adapts his output so that it will spread over the time he is called upon to work. The labour problem is not one of numbers but of the efficiency of the unit, and that efficiency is a medico-social matter, which can only be solved by the combined action of the natives themselves, the Government, and the employers of labour.

The general policy of the Nyasaland Government on the matters referred to in the Census Report is indicated in instructions issued on 15 January 1927, for the guidance of officers in dealing with questions of native labour. These instructions lay down that the first aim of the Government is to induce the native to increase production beyond his personal needs. As many parts of the Protectorate are subject to famine, the growth of economic crops must always be secondary to the provision of an ample food supply. Where, however, conditions are suitable to the growth of economic crops, and provided ample provision has been made for the food supply, every assistance should be given to natives who desire to grow such crops. On the other hand, no steps should be taken to induce natives who are accustomed to work on plantations or elsewhere to abandon their habit in favour of direct production, and in localities where the natives cannot grow economic crops, Government officers will best serve the community by recommending natives to engage in work for the Government or for private employers.

In the Sudan notable progress has been made towards the complete abolition of slavery. In a despatch to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, dated 12 April 1927, the Governor-General states that "slave-raiding is a thing of the past and the various forms of "domestic slavery" have undergone such rapid adjustment to new ideas that the term, broadly speaking, is hardly justified. A gradual merger of races is taking place and the policy of not forcing the pace unduly has been completely justified."

Slavery in the provinces north of Khartum is moribund, chiefly as the result of the publicity given to the possibilities of freedom and the increased opportunities for independent employment.

In the extreme South, slavery may be said to be non-existent, no slave-owning communities existing there.

In one or two of the central provinces, notably Kordofan and Kassala, the progress of manumission has not been so rapid as might be desired.

The Administration is also working towards the abolition of indirect forms of slavery and is assisting the settlement of freed slaves.

Lastly, it may be mentioned that the Sudan Government has acceded to the

Slavery Convention, its accession having become effective from 15 September 1927.

In the Mandated Territory of *Tanganyika*, the Government has adopted a definite policy concerning forced labour.

The report on the territory for the year 1926 stated that instructions had been issued to the effect that forced labour for public works should cease and that all possible steps must be taken to obtain voluntary labour before resort was had to a levy. A Circular dated 31 March 1927 emphasised the necessity for making conditions on Government works attractive enough to induce labourers to take work for the Government in the same manner as for private employers.

In a statement made to the Eleventh Session of the Permanent Mandates Commission held in June-July 1927, the Governor, Sir Donald Cameron, stated that he had recently issued instructions directing that, with two exceptions, no labour was to be requisitioned without his express authorisation. The exceptions were cases of emergency, such as the breakdown of a bridge or dam, and cases when it was necessary to obtain portage for stores or transport of Government officers proceeding to outlying places. Every effort was, however, being made to replace portage by motor transport.

It is also proposed to abolish compulsory labour for local public purposes in the near future. The monies from local taxation paid into the native treasuries will afford the necessary funds for the payment of labour on public services.

Native authorities are unable to requisition labour for their own works without the express authorisation of the Governor. Certain tribes are, nevertheless, required to keep clean the native administration roads passing through their territories, but unpaid labour on these roads will disappear when the native budgets are in working order.

During the year certain Regulations dated 8 April 1927 were issued under the Masters and Native Servants Ordinance concerning the employment of children on machinery. These prohibit the employment of children under the age of 16 years between fixed and traversing parts of any machinery while the machinery is in motion. Further measures were also taken during the year with a view to safeguarding contracts made between employers and servants, the Masters and Native Servants Regulations issued on 20 May 1927 requiring that every contract of service made in writing after 1 January 1928 was to be in a prescribed form.

In *Uganda*, by a Notice dated 31 January 1927, the punishment of whipping has been abolished for offences under the Masters and Servants Ordinance.

While in other of the British East African Dependencies the tendency appears to be for wages to rise, in *Zanzibar* there is evidence of wage reductions, largely due to the efforts of a clove growers' association.

In *Southern Rhodesia* the chief event of the year has been the coming into force of the Native Juveniles Employment Act 1926.

This Act provides that no native juvenile under the apparent age of 14 years shall be permitted to seek employment without a certificate from a native commissioner. It however permits juveniles who have obtained such certificates to enter into contracts of service subject to the provisions of the Act.

In the second place the Act confers certain powers on the native commissioners in respect of native juveniles who are employed or seeking employment or who are absent from the control of parent or guardian. The commissioners may terminate any contract of service on the ground that the employment is unsuitable, may inquire into conditions of work on the actual premises, may inflict certain punishments on the juveniles and may arrange for their employment. The Act also provides that the punishment of whipping may be inflicted on male juveniles who have failed to obey orders of a native commissioner.

There has been considerable opposition to the enforcement of the Act. The British Anti-Slavery and Aborigines Protection Society addressed an open appeal to members of the British Parliament in which it was argued that the new law is particularly objectionable as being applicable to girls as well as to boys, as providing no minimum age for compulsory apprenticeship and as permitting the summary whipping of male juveniles.

Questions have also been asked in the British House of Commons. In particular, on 12 December 1927 attention was drawn to the fact that the Act contains no minimum age provisions.¹ Its provisions have, however, been defended in Southern Rhodesia on the grounds that a growing number of native juveniles have been leaving their homes and in many cases absconding to the towns, where they was no legislation controlling their employment and where they were exposed to influences of a most pernicious kind, and that the purpose of the Act was to introduce the necessary control.

In spite of the attacks made upon the measure in Great Britain, therefore, the British Government decided not to exercise the prerogative of disallowance possessed by it under the Constitution of Southern Rhodesia. Accordingly the Act came into effect following a Proclamation of the Governor dated 16 June 1927.

¹ By instructions dated 18 January 1928 the general minimum age was fixed at ten years.

In the *Union of South Africa* the tendency noted in last year's Report to regard the problem of the industrial clash of colour as insoluble by purely restrictive legislation appears to have made progress in the course of the year. The Johannesburg Joint Council of Europeans and Natives, for example, has submitted a memorandum to the Department of Labour, in which it states that the native question is made difficult, and native competition with unskilled whites formidable, not by the advancement of the native, but rather by his backwardness and lower standard of life and that these adversely affect the economic life of the country. The Council holds that natives should be shown that there are regular and constitutional means of redressing their grievances, that the Wage Act and Wage Board provide such means, and that the Board should be asked to investigate native wage conditions.

The action of the Portuguese Government in giving notice to end, as from 1 June 1928, Part I of the Mozambique Convention relating to the recruiting of natives for work on the Rand, is of importance in this connection. At the present moment, the bulk of the native labour on the Rand gold mines is obtained from Portuguese East Africa. If this supply becomes no longer available, the industry will have to be prepared to make offers sufficiently favourable to fill the deficit from other, and presumably British South African, sources.

Of the legislative action taken by the Union Parliament in 1927, mention should be made of the Native Administration Act which came into force on 1 September. The general intention of the Act is to consolidate some of the measures relating to native administration in the various provinces.

The problems of native industrial organisation and the relations of native trade unions to the European unions have been widely considered. The South African Trade Union Congress has decided not to accede to an application for affiliation made by the native union, the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union. On the other hand, in November it was stated that the Cape Federation of Labour Unions was taking the greatest interest in a proposed re-organisation of the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union, and that it was believed that some concrete proposals would materialise by which co-operation in the Cape province between the white unions and the native union would be furthered. Another point of interest is that in the same month the National Council of the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union announced its approval of the proposal to appoint a British trade unionist to act as adviser to the union in South Africa.

In *South West Africa*, under mandate to the Union of South Africa, the year has been marked by increasing difficulties with regard to the supply of native workers

for white undertakings. Even in the mines where the highest rates of wages prevail, development work, except in cases where labour-saving plant has been introduced, is almost at a standstill.

The situation on the farms is also reported to be serious. It is stated that the natives have very little regard for their contractual obligations, and for this reason certain of the penalties for breach of contract by natives contained in the legislation governing relations between masters and servants have recently been made more severe by the provisions of Proclamation No. 10 of 1927.

New legislation has been passed to increase the control over the movements of natives.

It would seem that in the *British West African Dependencies* the principle of economic self-determination for the native has been definitely adopted as the policy of the Government. The system of production by the native on his own land has so far brought prosperity to West Africa and in a recent review of the development of the Gold Coast during the last seven years, the late Governor drew attention to the phenomenal growth achieved by the cocoa industry on the system of native production.

Significant of the changes which are now occurring in the social and economic status of the native are the recent legislation regarding the abolition of the legal status of slavery in Sierra Leone and the development of native administrations in the direction of control of their own resources which has made possible the gradual abolition in two West African territories of unpaid compulsory labour on certain local works for the benefit of the community.

In *Nigeria* unpaid compulsory labour on roads and rivers could formerly be required in those districts in which there was no direct taxation. By the Native Revenue Amendment Ordinance of 1927, the direct taxation system has been extended to all provinces, thus providing funds for the native treasuries from which the labour necessary for local public works can be paid. This has made possible the repeal of the Roads and Rivers Ordinance under which compulsory labour on roads and rivers could be levied in the Protectorate from able-bodied natives for a maximum period of eight days per quarter.

In the Northern districts of the *British Cameroons* domestic slavery continues to decrease rapidly and the Mohammedan slave owners are already much concerned with the problem of finding a substitute for the slave labour which they have hitherto employed on their farms. In the South there were, in 1926, 1,360 persons who were regarded in native opinion as slaves. An energetic campaign has for some years been carried on by the Government against slave dealing and the cases brought before the

Courts diminish steadily in numbers. The seizure of persons as pledges for debt is the commonest form of this offence, but it is anticipated that as the influence of the Courts of Law becomes increasingly felt, these cases will become less and less frequent.

The population of the British Cameroons is almost entirely pastoral and agricultural. The only instance in which native wage earners are employed in considerable numbers is that of the European-owned plantations on which 12,128 men were working at the end of 1926 on daily contracts. The Nigerian Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1917 is in force upon these European-owned plantations and a new labour code has been drafted. The reports of the official inspections carried out on the plantations show that labourers are well treated and the health of plantation labour appears to be better than that of the ordinary native population. There are no labour-recruiting agencies in the territory and the workers engaged on plantations have presented themselves voluntarily for employment. Nevertheless, the Administration, in view of the dangers attendant upon the employment of native workers at long distances from their homes, has decided that it will in future encourage agriculture as a peasant industry on tribal lands, rather than the establishment of large scale undertakings necessitating the congregation of large numbers of wage earners.

Compulsory labour is only employed in the British Cameroons for local public services in accordance with established native custom and for the transport of Government officers and stores. It is, moreover, only employed for portage on routes on which no motor transport is available and is always fully paid. During 1926, 415 persons were convicted and punished in the native Courts in the Cameroons Province for refusing to obey the orders of the native authority to carry loads or perform labour when called upon to do so.

In *Sierra Leone* a finding of the Supreme Court in July 1927 revealed the fact that the legislation passed in 1926 for the purpose of abolishing slavery had not had the desired effect since in certain circumstances the right of slave-owners to recapture runaway slaves in the Protectorate could be recognised by the Courts.

New provisions were at once laid down in the Legal Status of Slavery Abolition Ordinance which contains in Section 2 a declaration that the status of slavery is abolished in the Protectorate. The new measure which affects about 200,000 slaves came into operation on 1 January 1928. Any person therefore who was previously of slave status under the native law of the Protectorate automatically acquired permissive freedom on that date. It follows that if any such person chooses to leave his master, no claim in respect of his person

will be recognised in any of the courts of the Protectorate.

Another event of interest has been the abolition of unpaid compulsory labour for certain public services. In this connection the Governor recently announced in the Legislative Council that as from 1 January 1928 all native labour called up for work on Government buildings of native construction in the Protectorate would be remunerated at the rate of 6d per man, per diem.

Protective legislation in the shape of regulations concerning the relations between masters and servants have been in existence in some of the old-established colonies of the *British West Indies* for many years and have paved the way for more advanced legislation. The following are the more important enactments which have been promulgated during the past year.

In *Trinidad and Tobago*, a new Ordinance entitled the Employment of Children Ordinance of 19 April 1927 prohibits the employment of children under 12 years of age in any labour exercised by way of trading or for the purposes of gain.

In *Barbados* the Better Security Amendment Act of 1927 amends existing local legislation by the introduction of certain provisions affording measures of protection from intimidation in the event of trade disputes.

In the *Virgin Islands*, the year has been marked by the passing of an Ordinance, No. 2 of 1927, regulating the rights and duties of masters and servants. The provisions of this Ordinance are practically identical with those of the legislation on the same subject which exists in other islands of the Leeward Islands group.

The investigations carried out in 1927 by an official Commission of Enquiry into the causes which have retarded the economic development of *British Guiana* show that lack of sufficient labour has in the past been one of the main difficulties with which the colony has had to contend.

With the exception of about 9,000 aboriginal Indians, the population, which in 1921 numbered nearly 300,000 persons, has been imported for the purpose of working the sugar plantations. The races from which this imported labour has been drawn include East Indians, Negroes, Chinese, half-castes and about 12,000 Europeans of whom 9,000 are Portuguese. East Indian labour was found to be the most satisfactory and was imported under the indenture system up to 1917 when the Government of India refused to sanction its continuance, and although negotiations have recently been reopened for the further supply of labour from India for the colony, the conditions laid down by the Government of India may prove to place too heavy a burden on the

Colonial Government for it to be able to fulfil them. In the circumstances the possibility of obtaining immigrant labour from the West Indies is under consideration.

In *Palestine*, which is under British Mandate, progress in the improvement of labour conditions has been considerably hampered by a severe spell of unemployment. The economic boom of 1925 attracted to the country a larger number of immigrants than could be immediately absorbed, and one result has been increasing unemployment from the autumn of 1926 onwards. According to the quarterly report of the Palestine Administration for the period ended 30 September 1927 labour conditions in Jerusalem and Haifa have now appreciably improved. But the situation still continues to be serious in Tel Aviv where from five to six thousand of the unemployed or partly employed have still to be assisted. Both the Government and the Zionist organisations have been busily engaged in exploring every possible avenue that might relieve the situation and certain emergency works have already been started.

Another obstacle in the way of the betterment of labour conditions arises from the different stages of civilisation and economic development of the Arab and Jewish populations. It has been suggested that the adoption of a minimum wage scale would ease the situation. Such a scale would probably be higher than the present earnings of the Arab labourer, without, however, being quite up to the Jewish level. The Government has taken up the suggestion and appointed a committee consisting of a British official as Chairman, and a Jewish labour leader and an Arab engineer as members, to make a thorough study of the minimum wage problem and to make recommendations. The report of the Committee is awaited with interest.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, there are signs of a rapprochement between the Jews and the Arabs. A very noteworthy feature, both from the economic as well as from the political point of view, is the introduction of Jewish labour into what till recently were exclusively Arab labour markets. There are already many instances of common action by Jewish and Arab workers, as for example, in the State Railways, where both classes are working together in the same organisation.

The year 1927 has been particularly fruitful in the field of labour legislation. Various Ordinances were promulgated dealing with compulsory accident insurance, factories and works inspection, the industrial employment of women and children, and the suitable fencing of machinery. The forty-eight hour week is general in post-war industrial undertakings, and a seventh day holiday is generally observed. The Department of Health exercises powers under municipal regulations for the control of shops and factories, the maintenance of

proper hygienic and sanitary appliances, ventilation, water supplies, etc. In the tanning industry, steps have been taken by the Department of Agriculture for the prevention of infection from anthrax spores by the total destruction of infected animals and by the examination of all imported skins and hides. Lastly, the international white phosphorus convention is already in force in the country.

In spite of the prevailing difficulties, the Palestine labour organisations have continued to be active and to carry out experiments which make the country an excellent observation field. The General Confederation of Jewish Workers ("Histadruth Haovdim") with a membership of about 25,000 workers, has set up various technical branches and social service institutions. These are run on a mutual aid basis and provide for accident insurance and sickness insurance. Generally speaking, it may be said that the conditions of life and labour of Jewish workers tend to approximate to those prevailing in the West. The Arabs, though generally fond of all forms of association, are not yet organised for trade union purposes, but as has already been pointed out, a good many of them have adhered to Jewish workmen's organisations.

In dealing with labour conditions in *Iraq*, two considerations will have to be borne in mind. The first is that, of a total population of about three millions, no fewer than one and a half million consist of settled or nomadic tribesmen living under tribal conditions. The second consideration is that local industries are mostly of the cottage variety, and that factories, in the ordinary sense of the term, have not yet come into being in the country. The economic life of *Iraq*, thus, is of a very simple character, and labour is as yet unorganised.

In 1926, the Government was still the largest single employer of labour, the Government Railways providing work for a daily average of 8129 persons, and the Port of Basra for 765. Among private enterprises, the Turkish Petroleum Company and the Anglo-Persian Oil Company employed 3500 and 2500 persons respectively. As an example of indigenous effort may be mentioned the Iraqi-managed spinning plant in Baghdad, employing 65 persons.

The Railways and the Port, as well as the Cotton Growing Association and the spinning plant observe a 48-hour week. The Oil Companies maintain a 54-hour week for labourers, and a 48-hour week for drillers and artisans. In all cases, the weekly rest-day is observed. The Government undertakings and the Oil Companies pay overtime at one and a half times the ordinary rate, though the private concerns, as a rule, discourage overtime.

On the Railways, the rules enforced for the safety of employees working with machinery conform as far as possible to those in India. Members of the staff of the Rail-

ways and the Port who are injured in service are given free hospital treatment and food, and full pay for a reasonable period, and thereafter half pay. Compensation in the case of death depends on the terms of the individual contracts.

Unskilled labourers are engaged locally and sign no contract. Skilled labourers engaged on monthly rates are recruited locally or from India, and are required to sign contracts setting forth the terms of their engagement. Indian labour is slightly better paid, and is entitled to free housing accommodation and free passage to India on the termination of the contract.

Certain provisions of the Ottoman law governing relations between employers and employed are still unrepealed in *Iraq*, but since they are not commonly enforced, the labour legislation of *Iraq* since it became a separate political entity is alone of practical importance. Art. 10 of the Constitution of the 21 March 1925 absolutely forbids all unpaid forced labour. By the Forcible Assistance Law of the 27 March, 1923, the Government is empowered to impress labour for certain public purposes at rates of pay to be fixed by the Government. The worker under this Law is safeguarded by Articles 100 and 119 of the Baghdad Penal Code, under which an officer compelling a worker to forced labour is liable to imprisonment or fine or both if he keeps to himself the amount debited to the Government as labour charges, and to imprisonment and dismissal if the labour impressed is employed on "works other than works of public utility as determined by law or ordered by the Government, or recognised as urgent in the interests of the locality".

In the *Commonwealth of Australia* much attention has recently been drawn to the conditions of natives and suggestions have been made that a special Commission should be appointed to investigate the status and treatment of aborigines and half-castes in the Commonwealth. The individual States of the Commonwealth did not favour this course as they considered that the action taken by them severally was sufficient to safeguard the interests of the aborigines. The Commonwealth Government is, however, causing an enquiry to be made into the conditions of aborigines and half-castes in Northern and Central Australia, in which two territories it exercises direct control of natives.

Under the system of compulsory cultivation of plantations in *Papua* for the benefit of the natives themselves, (Native Regulations of 1909 and Native Plantations Ordinance of 1925), the Government allocates an area near a village and the natives work on this land under supervision, being supplied with seeds and tools. The harvest is divided between the Government and the villagers, the proceeds of the Government's

share being used for the direct benefit of the natives. In some instances it has been found necessary to compel natives to undertake this work, but in those where they have begun to realise the advantages resulting to themselves, the work is stated to be readily performed and great progress is made.

According to recent information, fifteen to sixteen thousand natives out of an estimated total population of 275,000 were recently employed on contracts of varying lengths. Conditions of labour in the territory are reported to be steadily improving. The reports of the Native Labour Inspectorate for 1925-1926 show that it is exceptional to find cases of bad conditions.

In the mandated territory of *New Guinea* large numbers of natives continue to work as indentured labourers on the copra plantations. The various plantations and undertakings on which these natives are employed are liable to inspection at least once a year by the competent officials whose powers in this direction have recently been stated more explicitly in a new Ordinance, No. 22 of 1927, which gives medical officers the right of entry at any time for purposes of inspection of natives, of their housing accommodation and of the sanitary conditions of the places in which they live and work.

Considerable attention is being devoted to the question of the diet of native labourers and the dangers arising from the carrying of diseases into villages by labourers returning from indenture.

In the mandated territory of *Nauru*, phosphate mining, the main industry of the island, is carried on by means of imported Chinese labour as the Nauruan natives are not willing to undertake this work. The number of Chinese labourers employed in the industry in January 1926 was 827.

The conditions of this labour are regulated by the Chinese and Native Labour Ordinance of 1922. The labourers are medically examined on arrival at Nauru to ensure that they are free from contagious or infectious disease. Their invalidity rate is, however, sometimes high. In August 1926, for example, 37 out of 197 repatriated labourers were classified as unfit for further service. In this connection, the Permanent Mandates Commission at its Eleventh Session held in June-July 1927, suggested that the number of labourers repatriated as medically unfit might perhaps be reduced if more thorough medical examination in Hong Kong of labourers recruited for work in Nauru could be instituted.

Detailed regulations govern the recruiting, engagement and employment of native labourers within the *British Solomon Islands Protectorate*. A number of additional measures of protective legislation have come into force during the year. The repatria-

tion of time-expired native labourers within a reasonable period is provided for in a Circular Letter of 5 February 1927, and the medical examination of recruits in that of 4 March 1927. Regulations concerning the provision to be made for the wives and families of married labourers are contained in a Circular of 20 January 1927, and the notification to the Native Labour Department of the cancellation of contracts is rendered compulsory by the Circular of 9 March 1927. A Circular of 18 February 1927 concerning the Native Tax Regulation 1920 prescribes that the native tax due in the case of labourers employed under written contract must be paid by the employers who are not entitled to recover it from wages. Finally, a Circular dated 19 April 1927 prohibits the recruitment of children under fourteen years of age.

An interesting experiment is to be recorded in *Western Samoa*. Certain changes have been made in the legislation governing native taxation, the Native Personal Tax Ordinance No. 4 of 1927, providing that any village community may, by agreement signed by the adult male natives of that community, elect to pay the native personal tax in copra. The Government is further undertaking to help the natives to place their copra on the overseas market, in order that better prices may be secured than have been hitherto obtainable from the local traders. It is understood that deliveries in Europe have realised more than double the local prices.

In the *Anglo-French Condominium of the New Hebrides* the shortage of labour for European-owned plantations has for some years been felt acutely. The French settlers are meeting the difficulty by the importation of workers from Tonkin and Annam. These sources of supply are, however, not open to British planters who are consequently still dependent on the labour of local natives, the amount of which is stated to be quite inadequate. The difficulties of the situation led to the appointment of a British Commission of Enquiry which proceeded to the islands in April 1927 and conducted an investigation into the general situation of British settlers. The findings of the Commission have not so far been published.

France. — In France colonial questions have aroused considerable interest during the past year, as is shown by the following events : two important parliamentary debates on colonial policy (19 March and 22 and 23 November 1927) ; an enquiry into the native labour problem opened by a circular to the colonial governors dated 17 November 1926 ; the entrusting of this question to a special committee by the Superior Council of the Colonies ; resolutions in favour of the protection of the natives passed by the Confederation of 'Unitary'

Labour at its September 1927 Congress and by the *Grand-Orient de France* (the supreme lodge of French Freemasons) at its 1927 Congress; and important press campaigns on such matters as the concessions system in French Equatorial Africa and in Indo-China.

In *Algeria*, where in numerous respects the labour legislation is as advanced as in France, various improvements in detail have been effected in the course of 1927.

A Decree dated 16 March 1927 extended to Algeria, with certain modifications, the application of the French Act of 2 February 1925 concerning free employment exchanges. Towns of over 10,000 inhabitants are required to set up a free municipal employment exchange, and occupational and agricultural sections may be created in cases where needed.

A Decree dated 20 May 1927 defined the detailed measures for the application of the Eight-Hour Day Act in retail drug stores. In December, moreover, an enquiry was opened into the possibility of extending to Algeria various French measures bringing certain occupational groups under the scope of the same Act, e.g., leather industries, retail trade, wood cutting industry, biscuit and chocolate factories, confectioners' establishments, etc.

A Decree dated 17 June 1927 extended to Algeria the Decree of 28 January 1927, setting up arbitration committees for the solution of collective disputes in the sea fishing industry.

A Decree dated 5 July 1927 applies, subject to certain modifications, the provisions of the Decree of 9 August 1925 regarding the special health and safety precautions to be taken in building operations and on public works.

The Governor-General has shown himself particularly anxious to foster the development of native artisans. In Algiers, he has founded a Handicrafts Institute, the object of which is to establish relations between dealers and natives working at home in the manufacture of pottery, carpets, furniture, etc. Mention should also be made of the work undertaken by the Native Handicrafts Association of Oran, which is endeavouring to encourage native labour by recruiting young apprentices for the town workshops.

In *Tunis* two Orders dated 30 June and 13 July 1927 complete the Decree of 20 April 1921 concerning weekly rest, and prescribe that pharmacies in the town of Tunis and hairdressing saloons in the European quarter shall be closed on Sundays. An Order dated 10 September 1927 also prescribes the conditions of application of the Decree of 30 July 1927, concerning the giving of credit to small artisans and lays down the procedure to be adopted in connection with applications for loans.

In *Morocco*, the work of placing the

country under effective control, the problems connected with its economic development and the difficulties caused by the war, have so far prevented the Government from giving more than secondary consideration to social and labour questions. In 1926 and 1927, however, plans were worked out for a system of labour legislation and the important Decree (*Dahir*) of 13 July 1926, together with three others dated 25 December 1926, were examined in last year's Report. Additions to this legislation were made during 1927 in the shape of a *Dahir* dated 18 January 1927, regulating child labour in mines. This provided that the hours of employment should not exceed eight on any one task or during 24 hours. The employment of children was permitted in the sorting and loading of minerals, in working barrows, operating ventilating doors and other ventilating apparatus, and in other auxiliary work of a nature not likely to make unsuitable demands on their physical powers. Their employment on other underground work was prohibited. A vizirial Order (*arrêté viziriel*) dated 29 January 1927 specified the different types of industrial work on which the employment of children and of women under 16 years of age was in future to be prohibited.

A vizirial Order dated 10 May 1927 enumerated the special cases and exceptions which were provided for in certain sections of the *Dahir* of 13 July 1926 concerning the night work of women and children.

A *Dahir* dated 15 June 1927 established a central fund in connection with native agricultural social insurance and mutual aid societies.

Significant as is the social legislation already enacted in Morocco, it is at present fragmentary and incomplete. The development of industry and industrial plant raises social problems which have to be solved in the immediate future. The principles laid down in the Code of Obligations of 1913 concerning industrial accidents are insufficient and, in the absence of definite regulations, the Courts are apt to give arbitrary decisions. Legislation in this connection is of real urgency as is evidenced by the fact that certain undertakings prefer to make their own arrangements with their workers on the lines of the French Act of 1898.

In *French West Africa* the native labour shortage is still causing the Administration much anxiety. French West Africa is very sparsely populated. According to the 1926 census, the average density per square kilometre is barely three. The improvement and increase of the native dietary are regarded by the authorities as of vital importance. The Government has issued detailed instructions for the greatest possible development of the cultivation of foodstuffs and for the extension of relief measures and institutions. The results so far obtained have been satisfactory, for, in spite of the

drought experienced in the summer of 1926, the year passed without shortage owing to the increased scale on which native food-stuffs are grown.

The principal purpose of the labour regulations contained in the Decree of 22 October 1925 was to overcome the natives' hesitation to seek employment in public and private undertakings, which hesitation was mainly due to the absence of those guarantees which are recognised in most civilised countries as essential to the workers. In the various colonies of French West Africa the regulations are being progressively put into force. In Dahomey, for example, Orders have been issued defining the conditions of native employment. On 17 August 1927 an Order laid down the minimum age for admission to employment, fixed hours of work at ten in the day, defined the rights of the sick worker, and prescribed the scale of rations, conditions of housing, and methods of payment. By a Decree of 18 August, arbitration boards were set up in the capital of each district of Dahomey, while two other Orders provided for the protection of children employed on kapok picking (11 April 1927), and fixed the wages of porters, canoe-men and litter-bearers (12 April 1927).

In the French Sudan, an Order of the Lieutenant-Governor has regulated the employment of natives in Government or public service, especially in regard to wages and hours of work. Two series of regulations adopted in 1926, the Decree of 23 May establishing a system of agricultural credit in French West Africa and the Decree of 14 June setting up a Housing Department, have been applied in virtue of Orders issued on 25 February 1927.

However, the most important legislative measure adopted during the past year in French West Africa is undoubtedly that of 23 May promulgating in the Colony the Decree of 31 October 1926 regarding the execution of works of public importance by workers taken from the second portion of the native military levies. It is clear that French West Africa has followed the example of Madagascar. Various sections of the Order define the administrative organisation for the use of the levies on works of public importance, the calling up of these levies, the treatment of the workers, disciplinary sanctions, leave, and demobilisation. These provisions have already come into force and 1500 new recruits have been called up during the last quarter of the year, 500 in the Ivory Coast for employment on railway and road construction, and a thousand in the Sudan, half to be employed at Thiès-Kayes-Niger, and the other half on irrigation works on the Niger.

Mention should also be made in the case of French West Africa of various Orders applying the Decree of 20 October 1926 relating to employment in dangerous and unhealthy trades, in particular the Orders of 28 April, 1 May and 9 June 1927.

No fundamental alteration in labour legislation or in conditions of labour occurred in *French Togoland* during 1927. French Togoland is essentially an agricultural country, where owing to the relatively dense population and favourable economic conditions the labour problem is simple.

It has been necessary, however, to introduce new measures for the regulation of native emigration. The regulations in force required all natives leaving the territory for a period of longer than ten days to be provided with a passport. Experience showed, however, that this was not sufficient to prevent a considerable amount of emigration or to avoid illegal recruitment of native labourers with consequent prejudice to the economic development of the territory. In order to deal with this situation, a Decree dated 1 March 1927 prohibited all natives from leaving French Togoland except with the authorisation of the Commissioner. Other Orders, dated 15 April, 23 May, 4 June and 20 June 1927, completed the regulations on this question.

Methods of recruitment and the protective measures laid down in the interests of native labourers remain as before. It should be noted, however, that an Order dated 29 June 1926 laid down regulations concerning the savings funds of natives recruited under contract for various Government works. A new clause was inserted in paragraph 7 of the model contract prescribed by the terms of the Order of 27 October 1924, requiring the employer to provide motor transport for his workers. In order to facilitate the application of this provision, an Order of 5 December 1926 prescribed that one-fourth of the places available on Government motor vehicles should be reserved for recruited contract workers.

The report for 1926 states that it has not been necessary to have recourse during the year to legal measures in connection with the slave trade, as this no longer appears to have any existence except in the memory of the natives. The number of domestic slaves steadily decreases, such slaves are either very aged men or persons who voluntarily refuse to leave the family in which they have been brought up, fed and well-treated. Slavery under cover of educational training or apprenticeship is principally found in the south of the territory, but the provision of boarding-schools and vocational schools is helping to abolish this practice. The development of the cultivation of export crops has brought prosperity to the native, and pawning for debt is no longer practised. Finally, the form in which adoption of children is carried on by natives cannot be considered to be an attempt at deprivation of liberty, nor a disguised form of slavery.

In *French Equatorial Africa* colonial problems have centred around two questions which, during 1927, attracted not a little in-

terest among the public. These questions are the construction of the railway from Brazzaville to the Atlantic, and the concessions system. Both are of direct importance to the labour problem, the first owing to the intensive use of forced labour, and the second owing to the indirect obligation to labour which results from the methods of exploitation carried on by the large concessionary companies.

The construction of the line from Brazzaville to the Atlantic has led to the issue in recent years of various orders regarding labour. In 1927 this legislation was completed by an Order dated 18 January regarding the organisation of a medical service for native labour.

In spite of this measure the rates of mortality and morbidity for the natives employed remained disquietingly high. The Government realised the seriousness of the situation and the Minister for the Colonies invited the Governor-General to come to France to discuss with him the conditions under which the work was being carried out. It is certain that the construction of a railway line of 300 miles in length in a tropical zone through difficult country such as the Mavumbe Area is of considerable difficulty, but such difficulty does not appear sufficient to explain the high mortality noted among the workers employed.¹

On 23 November 1927 in the Chamber of Deputies, the Minister for the Colonies explained that the initial error was a desire unduly to hasten the construction of the line. A new contract with the concessionary company should enable the number of native workers to be reduced from 8,000 to 4,000, owing to the extension of the period fixed for the execution of the work and the use of up-to-date machinery. Other detailed measures have been taken: the workplaces have been reorganised, rationing has been closely supervised, and the medical services have been strengthened.

The question of the concessions system led to much discussion in the press during the course of the year. The land laws applied to the French Congo by the Decree of 28 March 1899 in virtue of which nearly half the French Congo was assigned for a period of thirty years as concessions to 38 limited companies, delegated considerable privileges to these companies which have so extended their privileges that they have become practically sovereign within their respective areas. The publication of an account by M. André Gide of his travels in the Congo has drawn attention to the deplorable position of the natives in certain districts and to the serious disadvantages of the concessions system as it at present exists. Demands have been made in the

press for a return to a system of common law, i.e. to free trade and cultivation in French Equatorial Africa. It has been generally recognised that the concessions system, whatever services it may have rendered in the initial stages of colonial development, no longer suits the economic and general needs of the times. This opinion appears to be shared by the Government, and the Minister for the Colonies at the sitting of the Chamber held on 23 November 1927, stated that "the system of granting concessions to large companies such as was first instituted must come to an end. Moreover, all the chief concessions fall in in 1929, I can assure the Chamber that not one of them will be renewed or prolonged, at least on the conditions according to which they were originally granted".

Among the laws passed in 1927 for the protection of the natives, mention should be made of the Order of 3 January 1927 providing for the supply of a labour book for natives, the Order of 20 January modifying the Order of 11 February 1923 concerning conditions of work, and the Orders of 26 November fixing for the duration of 1927 the minimum wages of native workers.

In the *French Cameroons* an important Order dated 9 March 1927 contains new regulations regarding the enforcement of labour dues (prestations). These regulations are markedly in advance of those previously in force (Order of 1 July 1921). The precise terms used, the obligations to be assumed by the administration, the precautions to be taken in the drawing up of schemes of work and in their execution, seem likely to forestall both abusive and arbitrary action. Ten days per year and per person have been fixed as the maximum amount of labour dues enforceable.

The Administration is endeavouring to reduce as far as possible the use of porters. By an Order of 10 December 1925, their wages have been fixed at 1.75 francs for the transport of loads and 50 centimes for the return journey, unloaded. Porterage appears to be becoming the exception in the central and southern districts.

It still remains necessary to call up native workers for the execution of important public works. However, the central railway was almost completed early in 1927, Yaoundé being reached on 12 March, and the Government has decided for the moment to suspend the work of railway construction so as to give the natives time to recover from the considerable effort demanded of them and to enable the workers to return to their villages.

The harbour works at Douala are still being continued. An Order dated 25 February 1927 fixed the hours of work for natives employed in their construction.

Government officials are still expressly forbidden to assist in the recruitment of

¹ In the case of certain gangs the figures are stated to have reached 45, 50 and even 94 per cent. (statements made in the Chamber of Deputies on 23 November 1927).

workers for private employers. In 1926, 42 permits were granted to agents resulting in the recruitment of 3,647 workers. The 1926 annual report shows that the system of written contracts for workers employed outside their own districts has led to certain cases of desertion, probably because the workers regard the contracts as binding them to their employers without their consent.

According to the same report, slavery has practically disappeared from the Came-rooms. In 1926, 23 judicial sentences affecting 32 individuals were passed in repression of the slave trade. It is hoped that cases of pawning of the person, which used to take place on exceptional occasions in these districts, will not survive the growing economic prosperity.

As regards *Madagascar*, in last year's Report a broad outline was given of the system of labour regulation instituted by the Decree of 3 June 1926, in virtue of which men belonging to the second class of the native levies, i.e. recruits who are not called to the colours, but who are neither exempt nor unfit for military service, were to be employed on important public works. An Order of the Governor-General under date 29 November 1926 defined the measures for the application of this Decree which came into force during the year. Very varying opinions have been expressed on this new form of requisitioning labour. The Governor-General of Madagascar, in an address delivered on 17 October last, praised the results expected of this measure in the following terms: "As I have shown again and again, it is just, logical, humane and democratic. Through its application it will be possible quickly to remedy that lack of the materials of development which distinguishes new countries from countries of long-established civilisation". On the other hand, complaints from native sources have reached the Office. It is argued that, whatever may be the economic results of this innovation, by legalising the principle of the requisitioning of labour with imprisonment as a penalty it seems to be in contradiction with the general trend of French legislation, which during recent years has endeavoured to introduce the double principle of freedom of contract and arbitration, a trend expressed in Madagascar itself by the important Decree of 22 September 1925.

Among the general proposals which are occupying the attention of the Administration, mention should be made of that for the establishment of a Housing Department. This move will probably be of great value at the present time when Madagascar, like other countries, is suffering from a housing shortage.¹ Another proposal under consideration concerns the detailed measures

for the application of the regulations regarding the national life insurance fund. A third contemplates the establishment of a land bank, which would undoubtedly be of great value, in particular to the smaller colonists.

Lastly, the Order of 17 January 1927 fixed for the year in question the redemption fees for prestation labour, while the Order dated 17 February laid down minimum wages for the employment of native workers in certain districts.

It was stated in last year's Report that a Commission had been nominated for the purpose of laying down the basis of a labour code for *Syria and the Lebanon*. This Commission was to commence its work during 1927. The Economic and Agricultural Departments which, under an Order of 14 January 1925, had been entrusted with the organisation of conditions of labour, continued nevertheless to consider the problems raised thereby and to endeavour to interest the different States in the consideration of this question which is new to them.

Certain definite problems are at present under investigation. The method of applying the system of labour dues is the subject of periodical reports by the States to the High Commissioner. The Administration has also under consideration the question of the supervision of labour contracts which has so far been rendered difficult owing to the rarity of written contracts.

The various States, on the suggestion of the High Commissioner, have undertaken enquiries into the possibility of issuing regulations for the protection of women and children. These enquiries seem to indicate that no necessity for general regulations on the subject is as yet apparent, and that the degree of supervision over health conditions in workshops which is a present exercised, meets the most urgent needs. The High Commissioner has, however, stated that every effort will be made to encourage the States to adopt such regulations.

The Administration continues to consider the question of health and safety of workers and regulations concerning protection against blackwater fever will shortly be brought into force.

The Government considers that the development of technical and vocational education is of capital importance for the future progress of the country, but so far it has been possible to achieve very little in this direction.

The final decision of the High Commissioner with regard to the enactment of legislation concerning industrial accidents has not yet been published but it is reported that he proposes to limit to the Alaouite State the first experiment in this direction.

The above short account gives an idea of the policy which is being followed by the Administration. This policy is not so

¹ The creation of this Department was decided by a Decree of 6 December 1927.

much to enact a complete Labour Code as to study one by one the problems raised by the regulation of labour beginning with the less difficult problems and taking note of the experience which these investigations give, in order to profit by it when new difficulties arise. This experimental method obviously possesses distinct advantages and it is to be hoped that the Commission which is to draw up the Labour Code will take steps to ensure that the social legislation which is in the experimental stage in the States under mandate leads to practical results.

In *French Indo-China* various disconnected measures concerning labour legislation are in existence. These are mostly local in character. The important Order of 11 November 1918, which was in effect an agricultural labour code, only applies in this colony to the category of workers (*engagés*) defined as "natives of the various territories of Indo-China or foreign Asiatics recruited in Indo-China or in their country of origin who hire their service under a written contract to the proprietor of an agricultural undertaking in return for wages". As a result of this definition, these regulations failed to cover, firstly, contracts entered into between natives, thus leaving a loophole for continual exploitation of small farmers by Annamite proprietors by means of a fatal system of advances, and secondly industrial workers for whom practically no protective measures existed in Indo-Chinese local legislation.

A number of Orders which came into force in the course of 1927 have partly filled these gaps. Firstly, an Order dated 25 October 1927 concerning the protection of native and foreign Asiatic labour employed on contract in agricultural, industrial and mining undertakings in Indo-China, contains a series of provisions concerning recruitment, hiring of services, supervision of the carrying out of contracts, conditions of labour in agriculture, wages and advances, the supply of food, precautions concerning the health of workers, protection of women and children and the cancellation and renewal of contracts.

A second Order dated 25 October 1927 provided for an individual savings fund for native workers recruited under contract for labour in agricultural, industrial, mining or commercial undertakings in the various territories of Indo-China.

A third Order laid down regulations concerning emigration of Tonkinese labourers and includes strict provisions concerning the compulsory clauses in contracts and protective health measures for emigrants.

The organisation of the labour inspectorate made important progress in the course of the past year. A labour inspectorate was already in existence in various territories in the Union. This had been

created in Cochin-China by an Order dated 11 November 1918, in Tonkin by an Order dated 30 April 1926, and in Annam by an Order dated 10 June 1927. An Order dated 11 July 1927 established, for the assistance of the Governor-General of Indo-China, a General Inspectorate of Labour, the duties of which include the general regulation of labour conditions, of savings funds and of social insurance measures in Indo-China, the control of movements of labour, and inspection in the different public services and in undertakings of all kinds employing labour.

It may be taken, therefore, that the foundations of an Indo-Chinese labour code have been laid. It is to be hoped that this preliminary legislation will develop in such a manner as eventually to cover as many types of industries and workers as possible.

Amongst the problems closely affecting labour questions is that of concessions which, during 1927, met with much attention both from the public and the Government, and which does not seem so far to have been definitely settled. A debate which took place in the Chamber of Deputies on 18 March 1927, seemed to indicate that the granting of certain concessions in the Moise district had carried with it the forced levy of workers for the requirements of the undertaking. Subsequently to this debate, the Government promulgated a Decree dated 26 March 1927 which provided that until such time as general regulations for the system of concessions in Indo-China should come into force, no concession might be granted and no contract concerning land might be approved except by decree. Provisional regulations were laid down in the Decree of 5 July 1927.

In the four colonies of *French Guiana, Guadeloupe, Martinique* and *Reunion*, the efforts of the Administration are chiefly directed to the application of the legislation concerning workmen's compensation for accidents. The Decrees of 19 July 1925, which extended to these colonies the Act of 9 April 1898 together with the subsequent relative legislation concerning liability for industrial accidents, came into force in all four possessions on 1 January 1927. This date marks an important stage in the application of the legislation of the home Government to the more advanced colonies. These are, however, only preliminary measures, and may be said to introduce recognition of the principle of occupational risks. Further measures applying to these four colonies the provisions concerning the liability in cases of accidents occurring in agricultural undertakings are contained in two Decrees dated 23 May 1927.

In *Reunion* a Decree dated 10 February 1927 extended to the Malagasy workers in that colony the provisions of the Decree of 22 December 1925 which laid down general

regulations for native labour in Madagascar.

In French Guiana an Order dated 11 January 1927 established a commission for the purpose of examining the best methods of increasing the labour supply in that colony, the lack of agricultural labour being the chief cause for the slow economic development of French Guiana.

An Act dated 31 December 1927 established consultative labour committees and agricultural committees in Guadeloupe, Martinique and Reunion.

In *St. Pierre and Miquelon* an Order dated 15 May 1927 brought into force in that colony the Decree of 29 March 1927, which amended various sections in the public administrative regulations of 21 September 1908. These sections concerned the health and safety of workers on board trading vessels and fishing vessels.

Further, an Order dated 26 September 1927 brought into force in the colony the Decree of 31 August 1927 which laid down public administrative regulations for the application of Section 85 of the Act of 13 December 1906 concerning the Maritime Code.

Two important Decrees which came into force on 5 October 1927 introduce general regulations concerning native labour in *New Caledonia*. This legislation had become necessary owing to the development of industrial and mining undertakings. These two Decrees extend to New Caledonia Books I and II of the Labour and Social Insurance Codes and establish a labour inspectorate. The legislation does not apply to immigrant Javanese and Asiatic workers under the jurisdiction of the local immigration service, nor to natives of New Caledonia and its dependencies under the jurisdiction of the Department of Foreign Affairs and Native Affairs, the conditions of these two categories of workers continuing to be regulated by the special terms of their engagement contracts and by the local orders relative thereto.

Important changes were made towards the end of the year in the system of labour dues, with the object of raising the birth rate and benefiting native families. The period for which labour dues can be annually called for will in future vary according to family responsibilities. This measure forms part of the Government's general policy for the encouragement of an increase in the native population.

Recourse continues to be had in New Caledonia to the use of immigrant Javanese and Chinese labour in order to carry on the economic development of the Colony. The Administration is making efforts to settle this Asiatic labour on the land on the expiry of their contracts. For this purpose the Government has drawn up a Bill providing that this settlement shall be in the form of communities near agricultural cen-

tres. In October, 1927, 4500 Javanese and 3500 Annamites were introduced into New Caledonia.

The lack of native labour in *French Oceania* is the cause of increasing difficulties. It has led to the increased use of Chinese labour and at the beginning of 1927 there were more than 6,000 Chinese out of a total population of 28,000. It appears that lands bought by the Chinese are sold to Chinese and therefore seem unlikely to return to Tahitian or French ownership. The Government is considering this matter to which its attention has been drawn by the Chamber of Agriculture in Papete. Among other measures this body suggests the prohibition of the sale of landed property to non-naturalized Orientals, and the taking of immediate and determined measures to encourage naturalization. The recent establishment of agricultural unions in the Tuamotu Islands which was authorised by the Order of 13 September 1927 is a further measure of defence against the increase of the Asiatic population.

From the foregoing summaries it can be seen that important progress has been achieved during 1927 in the social legislation of the various French colonies. In different ways nearly all the Governors have interested themselves in the movement, while in Morocco, Indo-China and New Caledonia common efforts are being made to endow the colonial workers with complete codes, in which the first stage is usually the creation of a labour inspectorate. The laws concerning workmen's compensation, already in force in the old possessions, are being extended to the other more advanced colonies and preparatory steps have been taken in Morocco and Indo-China. The system of labour dues continues to be carefully controlled. Events in French Equatorial Africa and in Indo-China have drawn the attention of the public and of Parliament to the concessions system, which sometimes involves the use of forced labour. Increasingly labour compulsion is becoming out of date and attempts are being made to substitute for it a labour policy, which, avoiding labour wastage by the use of machinery and by health precautions, will enable each territory to develop through the sole use of local voluntary labour.

Netherlands. — The unrest in the *Dutch East Indies*, to which reference was made in last year's Report, appears to have died down, and a rapid increase has taken place in the prosperity of the country.

The year has been marked by an important development in the direction of responsible local government, which is bound to react on the regulations governing conditions of labour.

Since 1925, the Assembly (*Volksraad*) has shared with the Governor-General the power of enacting legislation on nearly all ques-

tions including that of labour, concerning the internal administration of the Dutch East Indies. The Volksraad has also the right of initiating legislative measures. The importance of these powers is evident in view of the fact that the Dutch majority in this Assembly will disappear and that in future the majority of seats will be occupied by natives and Chinese. As the result of an amendment brought forward by the Government and adopted by the Volksraad in December 1927, the latter will in future be composed of a Dutch president, 25 Dutch members, of whom 15 will be elected and 10 nominated by the Government, 5 Chinese members, of whom 3 will be elected and 2 nominated, and 30 native members, of whom 20 will be elected and 10 nominated. Therefore, if the proposed amendment is accepted by the Netherlands States General, the native and Chinese members will have a predominant voice in local affairs.

Both the Government and the general public in the Netherlands have devoted much attention to the question of the maintenance of the system of criminal penalties for breach of labour contracts. It is satisfactory to note that both the Netherlands Government and the Volksraad in the East Indies have decided to abolish or to reduce these survivals of servile labour as rapidly as possible.

With this object, Mr. Vreede, the Director of the Labour Office in Weltevreden in Java, recently carried out investigations in the Malacca Peninsula, where criminal penalties have been abolished for certain categories of workers. According to a statement to the press made by Mr. Vreede the Government intends to reduce penal sanctions as quickly as possible and to abolish them as from 1930.

It was also stated that the Director of the Department of Justice had been instructed to give his immediate attention to the amendments to be made in the legislation concerning contract labour which it is proposed to bring into force in 1930.

The Permanent Labour Commission, which was established in 1925 for the East Coast of Sumatra, for the purpose of advising on the question of criminal penalties, has been requested to submit its report on 1 August 1928.

United States of America. — No important legislative changes have been recorded from the *United States Outlying Territories*. A valuable report has, however, been received from the *Philippine Islands* on labour conditions and has been analysed in the *International Labour Review*. The Director of Labor considers that certain further legislative action is now necessary for the protection of labour. These measures should include an eight-hour day act, a minimum wage act for workers in Government employment and various social insurance measures.

Other Independent States. — Except for the coast belt which is about 20 miles in width, *Liberia* is as yet a vast forest with a certain number of native clearings not yet fully under administrative control. Rubber planting on a very large scale, however, has recently been embarked upon by an American company. Extensive clearings are being made and it is reported that about 10,000 natives are already in employment. No information is yet available concerning the regulation of this labour.

According to reports contained in the Press early in 1927, an agreement has been reached between the Governments of Spain and Liberia for the supply of Liberian labourers to the Island of Fernando Po. The terms of the agreement do not appear to have been published, and it is not known whether they amend the terms of the Convention on the same subject which was made between Spain and Liberia in 1914.

A certain amount of progress has been made in *Abyssinia* in connection with the abolition of slavery. According to information placed before the Sixth Committee of the Assembly of the League of Nations in September last, some hundreds of persons have been freed under the 1924 Regulations for the emancipation of slaves, and many offenders have been punished for contraventions of the regulations. The Abyssinian Government also stated that a special welfare organisation for liberated young persons had been established under royal patronage, with a view to providing them with vocational training and other practical assistance.

The Treaty signed at Jeddah on 20 May last between Great Britain and the king of the *Hedjaz* and of *Nejd* contains amongst its provisions clauses concerning the protection of pilgrims and an undertaking on the part of the king of the Hedjaz to cooperate by all the means at his disposal with Great Britain in the suppression of the slave trade.

Appended to the Treaty are texts of notes exchanged between the British representative and the king of the Hedjaz on the subject of the slave trade in which the former informed the latter that the British Government must reserve its right to manumit slaves who voluntarily present themselves to British consular officers with a request for liberation and repatriation to their country of origin. As soon, however, as the cooperation in the suppression of the slave trade which is provided for in the Treaty results in practical measures which render the exercise of the right of manumission unnecessary, the British Government will be prepared to consider the abolition of this right.

It may also be mentioned that in a communication addressed to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations on 29 July last, the British Government drew attention to the fact that practical efforts were being

made to bring about the disappearance of the slave trade in the *Red Sea*, the British naval forces having received special instructions to do their utmost to check the slave trade in these waters.

Reference was made in last year's report to the measures taken in 1926 by the Khan of *Kalat*, in Baluchistan, for the purpose of freeing all slaves in his dominions. In a declaration made before the Sixth Committee of the Assembly of the League of Nations in 1927, the Maharaja of Kapurthala stated that the Khan had finally succeeded in abolishing all forms of property in human beings and that a recent report showed that slavery no longer existed in the *Kalat State*, that the transition from slavery to free labour had taken place without any undue social or economic disturbances and that there was no danger of return to the old conditions.

An account was also given last year of the measures taken to secure the abolition of slavery in the *Hukwang Valley*, an unadministered area in *Upper Burma* near the *Assam* frontier. A similar policy was subsequently carried out during the winter of 1926-27 in a second area, known as the *Triangle*, lying at the junction of two tributaries of the *Irrawaddy River*. It was estimated that this district contained about 5000 slaves. An expedition was despatched in January 1927 which resulted in the release of over 4000 slaves after payment of compensation to owners on the same scale as in the *Hukwang Valley*. The freeing of the remaining four or five hundred slaves was delayed as the activities of one part of the expedition were interrupted by a hostile attack. Reports in the press at the end of 1927 showed that negotiations had been resumed.

In the meantime, a further small expedition had been operating in a district to the west of the *Hukwang Valley* and had also visited the persons in the *Hukwang Valley* itself who had been freed the previous year. The released slaves were found to be settled in new villages and had in many instances undertaken the cultivation of rice with success.

In South America the question of the assignment of land for the use of native Indians is receiving considerable attention.

In *Argentina*, efforts are being made to place native Indians on agricultural work in order to avoid their drifting into industrial employment which is found to have undesirable social effects. A Decree dated 13 January 1927 extended the powers of the already existing committee concerned with the welfare of Indians in reserved areas, and all questions concerning natives are now within its competence.

According to reports in the *South American Press*, economic conditions are partly responsible for risings of the native agricultural population, which took place in *Bolivia* during the summer of 1927 and in which about 50,000 Indians were concerned.

In *Chile*, the Government is endeavouring to promote a system of individual ownership of land by natives in preference to the traditional method of communal ownership, as it is hoped by this means to encourage initiative and the use of improved agricultural methods. With this object in view a Decree dated 7 September 1927 lays down provisions regarding the distribution of land occupied under title by Indians in southern *Chile*.

In *Peru*, 250,000 hectares of public lands have been set aside for division among native farmers. The settlement scheme is being laid down in a Bill which will shortly be brought before Parliament and will place restrictions on the sale of any lands which may be allotted under the scheme.

B. *The international movement.*

176. *Conferences and Congresses.* — The question of native labour is becoming more and more international. An examination of the agenda of the various Congresses held in 1927, or which it is proposed to hold at a future date, shows that the work of the International Labour Organisation for the protection of the native workers is part of a widespread international movement. At the coming Congress of the Labour and Socialist International to be held in London in 1928, at the 25th Conference of the Inter-Parliamentary Union to be held in Berlin in July, and at the coming session of the International Colonial Institute to be held in Paris in 1929, native labour problems are among the most important chosen for consideration. The year 1927 saw too the creation of new associations for the protection of native workers. Thus, on the extreme left, a Congress held in Brussels from 10 to 15 February 1927 led to the establishment of an Anti-Colonial and Anti-Imperialist League.

Missionary circles are giving increasing attention to the work of the Office. Continual requests are being made by Protestant missions for the attendance of a representative of the Office at their congresses, and for information which the Office endeavours to supply. Considerable importance is attached to the coming meeting of the International Missionary Council, to be held in Jerusalem, at which will be laid down the policy of the Protestant missions with regard to the social organisation of primitive peoples.

No less interest is being shown by Catholic missionary societies. Their "mission weeks" are paying increasing attention to the Office's activities.

Women's international organisations have also given cordial and constant support to the Office in these matters. They requested the Office to include a woman among the members of the Committee of Experts on native labour, and the Office is already considering how it can satisfy this legitimate aspiration.

Work of the Office. — 1927 was the first year of the new Section organised in the Diplomatic Division to deal with questions of native labour. The Section is endeavouring by all possible means to meet the special difficulties due to the diversity of the conditions to be studied and the distances of the territories from Geneva. It is not yet in regular receipt of all the Government periodicals of which it has need, and other important documents, instructions or reports, only reach it after long correspondence. Nevertheless, much progress has been achieved. The Office is finding the members of the Committee of Experts valuable sources of direct and indirect information. The Deputy-Director, through his visit to South Africa, and the Chief of the Section, through his attendance at the Mandates Commission and his presence in London at the time of the British Colonial Office Conference, have been able here and there to establish that personal contact which is so necessary for the Office's work.

By the information it receives, and by the requests for information it is able to satisfy, the Office has already succeeded in establishing the least inadequate world centre of information on native labour problems. By next year it may be hoped that this claim will be expressed in less negative terms.

In this connection the attention of the Conference must be drawn to the advantages which would accrue if the information which the new Section is obtaining could be disseminated more easily and regularly. Whilst all possible use is made of the *International Labour Review* and of *Industrial and Labour Information*, these publications are obliged to divide their available space amongst a multitude of subjects. Moreover, they do not usually reach the circles specially interested in questions of native labour. Judging by the opinions which have reached the Office, the Colonial Administrations would welcome some means by which they might be informed of the trend of general opinion upon native labour questions, of the movement of legislation in colonial territories, and of the methods adopted to overcome difficulties common to the various colonial authorities. Nor is the demand confined to administrative circles. Correspondence received by the Office shows how general is the desire for the information which could be given by such a publication.

There remain to be explained the concrete measures which the Office has taken during 1927 to hasten the study of the fundamental aspects of native labour with a view to an international solution.

Last year's Report explained that the Committee of Experts, first consulted by correspondence, had suggested that the questions of forced labour and of contract labour seemed most ripe for international action, while the Conference itself in 1917 expressed the hope that it would be possible to place these two questions on the agenda of one its early sessions.

The Office therefore prepared, on the question of forced labour, a draft report dealing with the law and practice regarding forced labour in the various territories, the international decisions already taken on the subject, the opinions on its value and effects and on the need for its regulation, and the principles which appear to underlie the actual and proposed regulation of forced labour. This report was brought before the Committee of Experts at its first session held in Geneva from 7 to 12 July 1927. The Committee devoted almost its whole time to a discussion of Chapter VII of the report, in which the Office had attempted to collect and classify the principles underlying the regulation of forced labour. The Committee held that while a regulation of forced labour was intended to prevent abuses arising under this system, the real aim of any action should be to hasten the disappearance of forced labour in all its forms, and that till such aim had been achieved recourse to forced labour should only be had in certain precise conditions on lines suggested by the Committee. The more important of these conditions were that forced labour should be paid except in cases of *force majeure* or small local work in the villages; that the Administrations should take responsibility in cases of accidents or illness due to the conditions of the workers' employment; that the duration of forced labour for any individual should not exceed 60 days per annum, except in cases where the natives are obliged to travel long distances in order to carry out the work; and lastly that forced labour for private employers should speedily cease to exist.

In addition, the Committee unanimously adopted three resolutions, the first of which urged the dissemination of information received by the Office through a special publication; the second of which invited the early inscription of the question of forced labour on the agenda of the Conference; while the third expressed the opinion that all forms of forced labour should cease at the earliest possible moment.

These resolutions were communicated to the Governing Body at its 37th Session. As regards the publication, no definite decision was taken pending further investigations.

As regards the second resolution, the Governing Body decided to place the question of forced labour on the agenda of the general Session of the Conference to be held in 1929.

Although the Native Labour Section has been principally engaged during 1927 in the study of forced labour, it has nevertheless not neglected the second matter to which its attention had been drawn by the Committee of Experts—i. e. the question of contract labour. The Office has undertaken a general examination of this question, paying particular attention to criminal penalties for breach of labour contracts and to the protection of the worker against improper dismissal by the employer, aspects the importance of which had been insisted upon by the 1927 Session of the Conference. At the present moment the study undertaken by the Office has covered most of the British and Belgian possessions. A certain amount of information has been collected on the French and Dutch colonies. Italian, Spanish and Portuguese colonial territories will shortly be studied for the same purpose. The Section thus hopes to be able to submit to the Committee of Experts at its next session a report similar to that already drafted on the subject of forced labour.

The above is thus an outline of the present progress of the Office's work in regard to questions of native labour. It will be seen that for the one question which is most urgent, that of forced labour, the preparatory work is well advanced, and that the time is coming when the Conference will be called upon to take a decision. It would not be an exaggeration to state that the placing of this question on the agenda of the 1929 Session of the Conference may well prove as important a step in the recognition by the advanced nations of their responsibilities towards the backward peoples as was the adoption of the Slavery Convention by the League Assembly in 1926. It may indeed be argued that without action by the International Labour Conference the Slavery Convention must remain lamentably incomplete. Its Article 5 lays down that the parties to it "recognise that recourse to compulsory or forced labour may have grave consequences and undertake... to take all necessary measures to prevent compulsory or forced labour from developing into conditions analogous to slavery". But such an undertaking, apart from appearing to aim only at the misuse of forced labour, is particularly vague. A power desiring to give effect to it may well wish for greater precision for itself and for its neighbours. The Assembly itself was not deaf to such objections. At the same time as it adopted the Convention it passed a resolution drawing the attention of the International Labour Organisation to forced labour.

The Organisation has accepted that invitation. Through the Office's Committee of Experts it has recognised the possibility of international action. It will be for the Conference in 1929 to take the next step and to prepare the way for the translation of the Office's technical work into concrete facts.

Nevertheless, as was pointed out in last year's Report, the Conference's action will only be decisive if the native workers, by some form of representation in the work of the Conference, are enabled to press their claims directly. Some such representation appears highly desirable for two reasons. In the first place it will compel the natives themselves to take some interest in their future, and will help in forming a native consciousness which at the present moment hardly exists. In the second place it will forestall any reproach to the effect that the Conference is taking decisions without taking account of the direct wishes of the classes affected. Such a reproach has already appeared in certain newspaper articles regarding the preparatory work undertaken by the Office, and in particular in connection with the first work of the Committee of Experts.

In endeavouring to solve this question, the Conference would only be following the example already given by certain Governments. Thus, in the Netherlands States General, during the discussions on the 1928 budget, several deputies, and Mgr. Nolens in particular, drew attention to the advisability of enabling the native population of the Dutch East Indies to take part in the work of the various organisations of the League of Nations, more especially in the International Labour Conference. The Prime Minister replied that the Government was willing to take this question into consideration.

The attention of the Conference itself, moreover, has already been drawn to this problem by the resolution submitted by Mr. Giri, Indian workers' delegate, during the Tenth Session. The Conference referred this resolution to the Governing Body, and the Governing Body invited its Standing Orders Committee to examine the points raised in it. At the time of the drafting of this part of the Report, no proposals have yet been brought before the Governing Body by its Committee.

It is clear that it is for the Governments to take the final decision on the appointment of delegates and technical advisers. Nevertheless, it is for the Conference to decide whether it is not advisable, by a formal resolution, to draw the Governments' attention to the importance of promoting a representation so necessary for the efficient conduct of the Organisation's work.

Special countries—Asiatic enquiry.

177. — The ever growing importance of Asiatic countries in matters of social policy is reflected in their relations with the International Labour Organisation. With the greatly increased correspondence and the closer collaboration established between the leading countries of Asia and the International Labour Office, Asia to-day may be considered to be taking a share in the activities of the Office more in accordance with its industrial importance. The success of the Correspondent's Office in Tokyo had already led the Governing Body to decide to establish another Office in India, and the proposal took definite shape during last year, so that in the course of the present year it is hoped that work there will be commenced under an official of Indian nationality. The fact that Japan and India, those great industrial countries of the East, occupy two out of the eight permanent seats on the Governing Body allotted to the "States of chief industrial importance" and have, or will have, important Correspondents' Offices in their respective capitals, is an indication of the very vital part which the East plays in the life of the Organisation. A striking event of the year 1927 in the relations of the International Labour Organisation with Asia was the election of a representative of the East to the Presidency of the Conference. Those who attended last year's Conference will remember with what authority and competence the eminent delegate of India, Sir Atul Chatterjee, presided. In this connection it may also be recalled that the Conference elected Ambassador Adatci of Japan to preside over its 1923 Session, and thus has had representatives of Asia in its Presidential Chair twice in the course of the past ten Sessions.

At the Washington Conference, certain Asiatic countries, e.g. India, Japan and China, were regarded as special countries for the purpose of the Hours of Work Convention, by virtue of the exceptions which, it will be remembered, the Treaty of Versailles allows for the benefit of special countries. The Conference has not failed to conform either to the letter or to the spirit of these provisions, and the Draft Conventions and Recommendations have always been drawn up with particular attention to them. On the other hand, such Asiatic countries as Japan and India have consistently shown their desire to conform to the international standards set up by the Conference either in their national legislation or in practice, though in China the disturbed political situation still retards the industrial development of the country.

It was with the object of discovering the exact extent to which these countries could apply the International Labour Conventions and Recommendations that the Conference

decided to instruct the Office to undertake a documentary enquiry into the conditions of work in Asiatic countries, which decision was embodied in final form at the 1925 Session.

This enquiry, the progress of which was outlined last year, is nearing completion so far as some of the main countries are concerned. The draft reports for India and China are practically finished, subject only to revision of certain parts which are incomplete owing to the lack of the necessary correct figures or of authentic materials. As regards the Japanese report, the draft for its first part dealing with the historical background and the economic basis of Japanese industry, industrial relations and trade unionism is finished, while the drafting of the remaining parts is in progress. The drafts for Siam and British Malaya have been completed and communicated to their respective Governments for the addition of necessary corrections and fresh information. With regard to Persia, the Dutch East Indies and certain other independent or quasi-independent States, colonies and mandated areas such as Irak and Palestine, the studies are in course of preparation.

At a time when the Organisation is endeavouring to learn more exactly the peculiar conditions in these States, it is of value to record that they are moving rapidly in a new direction of considerable interest to the Organisation. More and more they are ceasing to take advantage of the special provisions stipulated in their favour by the Treaties of Peace. Their industries are advancing rapidly, and, while the countries are ceasing to demand special treatment, they are adopting the common level of labour protection reached in other States. The Asiatic enquiry which the Office has in hand will bring out clearly the difficulties against which these Asiatic countries have to struggle in reaching this common level, and not only will the Organisation be able to assist the States in their efforts through the working of the spirit of international solidarity, but also it will be able to profit by their valuable experiences.

In accordance with the practice in previous Reports, below will be given a brief description of the chief events in the social evolution of the principal Asiatic countries during 1927.

178. *India.* — During the year the atmosphere in India has become increasingly favourable for the development of social legislation. The numerical strength of the trade unions has remained practically the same as last year, i.e. there are about 100 unions with a membership of about 146,000, besides 50,000 members of the Government employees' organisations. However important these numbers may appear, they represent but a small proportion of the working population of India, where organ-

ised industries, factories, mines, estates, and transport, employ a total of 3,700,000 workers.

The most important event in the trade union movement was the holding of the eighth session of the All-India Trade Union Congress at Cawnpore at the end of November. Since the sixth session held in March, the number of trade unions affiliated with the Congress decreased from 59 to 57, though the membership of the unions remained practically the same, i.e. 125,000.

The Congress emphasised the necessity of a powerful central organisation with unified control and sufficient funds, and put forward a scheme for organising workers and peasants. A resolution for the appointment of a council of action to that effect was adopted. Of other resolutions passed by the Congress, the most important were the following: 1. Revision of the Workmen's Compensation Act. 2. Legislation in accordance with the Eight Hour Convention. 3. Limitation of underground work in mines to a maximum of eight hours in the day. Furthermore, the Congress passed resolutions condemning the system of piece-work obtaining in Government printing presses and protesting against the Government's policy in hindering the affiliation of trade unions to the All-India Trade Union Congress. A further resolution instituted a committee for drafting a labour constitution for the future government of India.

Not only the trade union movement, but also the general political movement, is favouring the development of social legislation. The annual Conference of the Liberal Federation (a federation of political parties of liberal tendencies) adopted towards the end of December a resolution asking the Government of India to appoint a committee to enquire into labour conditions and to suggest legislation tending towards the amelioration of these conditions. The Federation itself undertook a similar enquiry and contributed 1,000 rupees towards the initial expenses. The results of the Federation's enquiry are to be presented to the next Conference by the end of 1928.

Among the concrete measures adopted during 1927 with a view to the improvement of conditions of work, mention should be made of the following. During the year the Government ratified the Conventions adopted by the Seventh Session of the Conference concerning workmen's compensation for occupational disease and equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents, together with that adopted by the Eighth Session of the Conference concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship. It also approved the Recommendation adopted by the Eighth Session concerning the protection of emigrant women and girls on board ship. Furthermore, a Bill has been introduced to amend the Indian Mines Act of 1923 by limiting the daily

hours of work to 12, whilst retaining the existing provisions restricting weekly hours to 60 above ground and 54 below ground.

The Indian Government has decided to apply the Hours Convention to the staff on the railways. The rules giving effect to this decision will come into operation before the end of September 1928, except in respect of the running staff, to cover whom similar measures will be undertaken as soon as practicable.

The Government has under consideration the desirability of legislation for ensuring the prompt payment of wages, and for regulating deductions from wages in the form of fines, matters which for some time have been the subject of enquiry by the local Governments. Certain among these Governments have continued their enquiries into middle class unemployment. They also have passed regulations under the Trade Union Act of 1926 which came into effect during the year. Nine unions have been registered under the Act. The trade unions have decided to promote a Bill for securing the same immunity regarding certain criminal liabilities for unregistered unions as granted by the Act to registered unions.

Lastly, reference must again be made to a problem special to India to which attention has already been drawn in previous Reports. This is the problem raised by the co-existence of Native States with the provinces of British India. The Native States are not independent Members of the International Labour Organisation, and, as quasi-independent States, are not subject to labour legislation enacted by the Government of India. Nevertheless, the industrial importance of some of these states has led the Office to seek the assistance of the Government of India to ascertain the possibility of obtaining documentary evidence on labour conditions in these territories. Negotiations on this subject are still in progress.

179. *Japan.* — As pointed out in last year's Report, 1926 was an epoch-making year for Japan from the point of view of social policy. A large number of new labour laws either under the direct or indirect influence of the Conference were then brought into effect. On the other hand, 1927 was a busy year of new experiments of special interest to the Organisation.

During the last months, Japan encountered serious financial difficulties. A panic overtook the country in which one of the greatest firms engaged in shipbuilding, shipping and commerce, collapsed, banks were closed, and a considerable number of workers were thrown out of employment. The problems of over-population, the shortage of raw materials and of food began to be felt more and more keenly, and when the figures showing an enormous increase in the population during the previous year were published by the

Statistical Bureau of the Cabinet, the whole nation took alarm. An important commission was appointed by the Government with the Prime Minister as Chairman, in order to study questions of food and population, and to work out practical plans for their solution. The recommendations of the Commission, particularly those for the solution of the population problem, are remarkable for their insistence on the importance of satisfactory conditions of labour in respect of wages, provision against unemployment, vocational guidance and the improvement of efficiency, as well as in respect of measures for encouraging migration.

Among workers' organisations, the movement in favour of a consolidation of political parties has steadily progressed, particularly in connection with the general election under the new Universal Suffrage Act. However, the four parties of various tendencies mentioned in last year's Report have remained apart in spite of repeated efforts towards their amalgamation. The more moderate seamen's organisations, such as the Japanese Seamen's Union and the Japanese Mercantile Marine Officers and Engineers' Association, finally decided to support the Social Democratic Party, whereas workers in the State enterprises, Government-owned factories, etc., still remain aloof. In the various naval ports the workers have organised separate political parties of moderate tendency. It may be added that the Japanese Parliament was dissolved on 21 January and that the general elections took place on 20 February, and led to a partial victory of the workers organised in the so-called proletarian parties. There is ground for hope that the Trade Union Bill adjourned at the last session of the Diet will be taken up again with a chance of success, together with other measures of importance with regard to social policy.

The constant progress of the democratic system has not failed to have its effect on social legislation, as is shown by the following developments in 1927.

During the year no case arose of the application of the Labour Disputes Arbitration Act, in force since 1926. It was generally felt, however, that the spirit of this law has been fully appreciated by the public and a considerable number of cases were recorded of friendly conciliation effected by the conciliation officers of the Government and through the good offices of the police and other Government or municipal officials, either at the request of employers or of workers or of both.

The campaign against unemployment has continued. New exchanges for intellectual workers were opened in important cities. In the six largest cities the practice of promoting public works with the aid of State subventions was continued with the special object of providing work for the unemployed. The promptitude with which

the public employment exchanges were mobilised to obtain work for the several thousand men discharged from the Kawasaki dockyards at the time of the financial panic was a spectacular illustration of the degree of efficiency obtained by the Japanese system. At a dozen Japanese coast centres free public employment exchanges under the management of the Joint Maritime Board began to function. It may be recalled that the formation of this Board was determined after representations from the Japanese seamen in harmony with the spirit of the Genoa Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen.

One of the most important social laws enacted during the year was the Emigration Society Act. Though the emigration policy of the country has not undergone any fundamental change, the Government has been actively engaged in promoting the welfare and improving the quality of emigrants. An important step taken in this direction was the promulgation of an Imperial Ordinance, in virtue of which a large emigration station with training courses was set up in Kobe, and another measure likely to improve conditions of emigration is the handing over of emigration questions to the Bureau of Social Affairs, in virtue of an Imperial Ordinance which at the same time increased the staff of the Bureau.

Other measures were of more direct importance from the point of view of labour protection. The Health Insurance Act which was brought into full force on 1 January 1927 is a momentous and costly national experiment affecting the welfare of over two million workers. As might be expected of any new machinery set in motion for the first time, difficulties occurred. Complaints came from all sides, employers, workers and insurance doctors. The Government, however, promptly worked out improvements with the intention of proposing amendments to the Diet at its winter session of 1927-1928. It also drafted for submission to the same session a further measure providing for accident compensation for workers employed in the building and for outdoor trades, these workers being mostly outside the scope of the present Factory Act.

With a view to extending the benefits resulting from the restriction of working hours, the Government also drafted for submission to the Diet at the same time a further amendment to the Factory Act Amendment Act of 1923. It is hardly necessary to repeat here how powerful an influence the Washington Hours Convention exerted in the enactment of this amended Factory Act which has been in force since July 1926.

Vocational guidance has been continued in Japan with a more extensive application than hitherto of mental tests and other measures suggested to the Home Minister

by the Central Employment Exchange Commission. Closer collaboration was established between the Department of Home Affairs and the Department of Education for the purpose of improving vocational education, guidance, and the placing of children about to leave school.

Industrial safety has been promoted by such measures as the organisation of a safety week throughout Japan and the offer of prizes for posters on safety.

Among other measures of importance to the Organisation, mention should be made of the promulgation of regulations concerning dormitories attached to factories, the promulgation of the Public Pawn Shops Act, and, lastly, the second National Labour Census taken on 10 October 1927.

Among employers' organisations, the same sustained interest in the International Labour Organisation continues to be shown. In virtue of the Act establishing the Chamber of Commerce and Industry promulgated during the year, the existing Chambers of Commerce will, from the date of enforcement of the Act, which is to be fixed by Imperial Ordinance, be transformed into Chambers of Commerce and Industry. The Conference will recall that the Japanese Government in appointing the employers' delegate to the International Labour Conference has been accustomed to ask the Chambers of Commerce for nominations. Finally, the various Japanese employers' organisations, including the Chambers of Commerce, were especially active during the year in perfecting the Health Insurance Act and in submitting important suggestions to the Government for the amendment of the Act. The Organisation will follow with the keenest interest the new developments in social legislation and the application of labour legislation which are undoubtedly to be features in the coming years in this important industrial country of the Far East.

180. China. — The continued troubles of the past year have not been conducive to rapid progress in social legislation in China. Nevertheless, despite the difficulties of the moment, a considerable body of important labour legislation has been adopted during the year.

The Governments of Peking and of Nanking, and even certain military chiefs in power, are at pains to elaborate labour laws for the areas over which their jurisdiction extends. Among these labour laws, the most important from the point of view of the Organisation are undoubtedly the Factory Regulations and the Factory Inspection Regulations, both promulgated in the autumn of 1927, by the Peking Government. The Factory Regulations, elaborated by the Department of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce, and sanctioned by the Decree of the Generalissimo Chang Tso-Lin dated 27 October 1927, take the place of the provisional Factory Regulations of

1923, to which reference was made in last year's Report, and came into force as from the day of their promulgation. Besides numerous modifications or improvements made in respect of hours of work, rest periods, minimum age of admission to industrial work, etc., the new law embodies two new principles: penalties for breach of the regulations, and the fixing of minimum wages by the inspectors in agreement with the employers. The Conference may recall that these are, as pointed out in the last Report, the important points on which the Factory Regulations as drafted by the Nationalist Government of Ou-Han during the previous year differed from the older regulation of the Peking Government.

The new Peking law of 1927 applies to factories where 15 or more persons are normally employed, instead of 100 as laid down in the provisional Regulations of 1923. It equally applies to places where the work is of a dangerous nature or injurious to health, irrespective of the number of persons employed. The minimum age of admission to factory employment has been raised from 10 to 12 in the case of boys and from 12 to 14 in the case of girls, and the age of adolescents who may be employed in "light and easy work" has consequently been raised from 10-17 to 12-17 for boys, and from 12-18 to 14-18 for girls. The legal maximum working hours are, as hitherto, eight for women and young workers and ten for adult male workers. The new law further lays down that the wages paid to workers must be sufficient to maintain the minimum standard of living in the locality, and provides for accident compensation and old age pensions, while it includes new provisions for the protection of women before and after childbirth, apprenticeship, factory inspection, work certificates etc. Those who know the Japanese Factory Act of 1911 (amended in 1923) will be struck by a close resemblance of the Chinese law to the old Japanese Act.

The Factory Inspection Regulations were issued on 30 September 1927 by the Department of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce, in pursuance of a provision of the above-mentioned Factory Regulations. According to these Regulations, which came into force on 2 November, the points to be covered by the inspection include safety and hygiene in factories, education, the insurance and relief of workers, provisions against unemployment, workers' unions, harmonisation of the relation between capital and labour, protection of women and young workers, minimum wage, apprenticeship, etc. Inspectors under the Regulations may order the cessation of work in either the whole or part of any workshop when such action is justified by consideration of safety or health or the public security of the locality. Similar action may be taken in case of infraction of the law or in prevention of accidents. The inspector may, if necessary for the perform-

ance of his functions, question any person in the factory or demand the presentation of evidence and various documents. In carrying out his duties he may require the help of the police.

Besides these two laws, an interesting development in 1927 under the Peking Government was the engagement in the spring of the year by the Government of expert service to translate the documents of the International Labour Organisation. It was also announced that conferences would be held from time to time between the Departments of the Interior, of Communications and of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce, to discuss labour questions and other matters of interest to the Organisation.

In the South, in addition to the scrupulous enforcement of the existing social legislation analysed in last year's Report, a feature of the year was the creation of a Labour Office by the Nanking Government. This Office is entrusted with the preparation of labour laws and, above all with their strict application. At the present moment its committees are studying a draft labour code. Particularly in the Province of Kwangtung the Department of Labour is successfully pursuing its programme of unifying the

trade union movement and is considering the setting up of workers' credit associations. Neither the internal dissensions within the party nor the persecution of the Communists has affected the regular advance of the Nationalist Government's social policy. This result public opinion attributes to Mr. Ma Tchao Tsoun, the veteran leader of the Koumintang's social policy, Director of the Nanking Labour Office and of the Canton Department of Labour, to whom it feels deep thanks are due.

Another important measure adopted in the course of the year was the promulgation of elaborate labour regulations by Marshal Feng-Yu-Siang for the Provinces under his jurisdiction of Kiangsu and Chensi.

These events, taken together with those reported in 1927—the proposed formation of national industrial organisations such as the Producers' Association of Tientsin and the Industrial Service League of Shanghai, the organisation of arbitration committees in Amoy and Foochow, the foundation of the Economic Research Society, which definitely began to function in Kiangsu during the early part of the year—gives an indication of the widespread character of this growing movement.

VI. The workers' living conditions.

Utilisation of workers' spare time.

181. — To judge merely by the communications received by the Secretary-General of the League of Nations on the action taken on the *1924 Recommendation*, it might appear that the important question of the utilisation of workers' spare time has been somewhat neglected during the past year. The official information communicated, which is given below, is extremely scanty.

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Australia: Tasmania: the Commonwealth Government has communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations information upon the action taken in Tasmania in respect of the *Recommendation* (10 June 1927).

Other Information.

Austria: Report submitted in 1927 to the National Council (Third Legislature); no new legislation is required, since steps have already been taken to facilitate the rational use of spare time.

In reality, however, fresh and important progress was made last year in promoting the utilisation of workers' spare time on the lines laid down by the Conference in the *1924 Recommendation*.

In nearly all the fields covered by the *Recommendation* fresh work has been done and existing facilities have been developed. In many countries the period of experiment appears to have come to an end, and valuable results may be hoped for in the near future.

There are some questions on which action is still in its initial stages. This applies particularly to the first question dealt with in the *Recommendation*, the preservation of workers' spare time. There are still many workers whose working day is unsuitably arranged, or who have to spend a long time in travelling between their home and their place of work and thus have not enough time left for proper recreation. These workers are prevented from obtaining the benefits which were expected from the reduced working day. There are housing and transport problems involved in this matter which have not everywhere received the attention which they deserve. As will be shown below, an immense effort is now being made to do away with slums and overcrowding, and to supply suitable housing accommodation for the workers at low rates; great progress has been made in improving health conditions and making proper family life possible: but sufficient allowance is perhaps not always made for the necessity of arrang-

ing for rapid travel between the place of work and the place of rest or recreation. It seems necessary to draw the attention of the Governments to this problem, which may appear a minor one, but is really one of first-rate importance.

In few fields has so much progress been made as in social hygiene, which is the second topic of the Recommendation. The danger of an increase in drunkenness which it was thought by some might result from the increased spare time allowed to workers appears to have been definitely averted. There can be no doubt that shorter working hours make it less necessary for the worker to have recourse to stimulants, and that the increased spare time available makes a healthier life possible, and has thus contributed to the decrease in drunkenness which has been observed in different localities.

As far as individual hygiene is concerned, there has been an extraordinary increase in the number of baths and swimming pools provided. In Great Britain more than 4 million persons made use of public swimming baths in 1927. The number of persons using the baths has increased proportionally with the number of baths available: an annual increase of 20 per cent. has been observed. Popular bathing beaches have also been instituted on the shores of lakes and rivers. Thousands of workers are now able, after leaving the factory, to enjoy the pleasures of sun and water in summer, and thus to share in the open air life which some years ago was the exclusive privilege of the well-to-do. It is difficult to exaggerate the benefits to public health which may result from this movement, which is spreading, largely owing to the increase in workers' spare time.

Progress has also been made in the matter of housing. This question is dealt with more fully in the next sub-section. It will be sufficient to point out here the great value which attaches, from the point of view of workers' spare time, to the efforts to deal with the slum problem which were begun on a large scale some years ago. The public authorities are tending more and more to take action in this matter, either by themselves building healthy houses at low rates, or by giving assistance to such work in various forms. In some cases small suburban houses surrounded by plots of land are built on the garden city system. The development of this system was interrupted by the war, but is now being resumed. More frequently, however, for reasons of economy and convenience, the system adopted is the construction of urban blocks of dwellings provided with ventilation by means of squares and furnished with common facilities for heating, cleaning and so on. Even in towns of medium size, thousands of workers' dwellings of this kind have been built to replace slums, often at

the cost of considerable financial sacrifices on the part of the community.

On the fourth point of the Recommendation, which deals with facilities for improving the workers' family life, physical culture and intellectual culture, important work has been done during the past year, though the first of the three fields of action mentioned above appears to be that which has received least attention. Little has been done, for example, to promote the comfort and artistic adornment of the worker's dwelling, except by certain associations for popular art and certain institutions which encourage improvements in furnishing and house decoration by various means, particularly the organisation of competitions and the sale of pictures at low prices. Among such institutions may be mentioned the Belgian Provincial Commissions and the Italian institution "Dopolavoro" the latter of which is organising a national competition this year.

But considerably more attention has been paid to the question of workers' gardens. The movement for gardens and allotments developed enormously immediately after the war, but had slackened off somewhat in recent years in certain countries, such as Great Britain. The enormous growth of allotments was partly due to the difficulties of the food supply during the war. Once those difficulties were removed, other motives were necessary to replace purely economic interests. The movement continued, however, in spite of a temporary setback, (Germany alone has more than a million such allotments) the first International Congress on Workers' Gardens, which was held at Luxemburg in August to consider the various aspects of the question. Much has also been done to promote allotment-holding and poultry breeding by the Belgian Commissions on spare time, which have accomplished surprisingly good results.

Much activity has been shown in the past year in the promotion of physical culture and sport, and the workers are taking increasing advantage of these means of recreation. The International Labour Office has had opportunities of manifesting its interest in this question, to which special attention was drawn by the 1924 Recommendation. It was represented at the Czechoslovak Workers' Olympic Games which were held in July 1927. One of the features of the Games was the massed drilling performed by the workers on the famous Sokol system. The Director took advantage of the fact that many prominent persons in the workers' athletic movement were in Prague at this time to arrange a small meeting for the discussion of various aspects of the question of sport and physical culture. Shortly afterwards, from 5-9 August, a congress of representatives of the International Socialist Federation for Physical Culture and Workers' Athletics was held at Helsingfors. The Office was again represented, and the Fe-

deration adopted a resolution in which it "noted with satisfaction the work done by the International Labour Office for the organisation of workers' spare time" and promised its full support.

The question of sport and physical culture is at the present time one of the most important developments in connection with workers' spare time. There are few young workers who do not belong either to a workers' or general sports club, and who do not spend a considerable part of their spare time in playing or watching games. The workers' organisations have made great efforts to promote athleticism. They have created important institutions, such as the Workers' School of Physical Culture at Leipzig, which possesses a large building and employs the most up-to-date instructional methods.

Sport, of course, has its dangers as well as its advantages. One of the dangers is that it may arouse a competitive spirit, and an excessive anxiety to win prizes may lead to a sort of professionalism. One of the greatest proofs which the workers' athletic organisations have given of their intelligence and realisation of their responsibilities is that they have forbidden money prizes for competitions. Another danger is that athleticism, if practised to excess, or in an unsuitable way, may be injurious to health. To prevent such results an endeavour is being made to establish closer relations between doctors and the athletic organisations: for example, scientists, such as Dr. Latarjet in France, and public authorities, such as the municipality of Vienna, which has this year set up a Medical Sports Council, are endeavouring to obtain the collaboration of doctors, not merely to prevent accidents or overstrain, but to ensure that athleticism is as beneficial to the individual as possible.

The attention given to physical culture has not meant that intellectual culture has been neglected. In this field also important progress has been made during the past year. There has been increased activity in all branches of intellectual culture—science, art, music, and general or specialised education, and in all methods of instruction—classes, lectures, libraries and cinemas. Although the workers' universities created in the past have not been altogether successful, this has not discouraged the leaders of the movement, who have returned to the attack with new methods which seem likely to give good results, and fresh action is being taken by philanthropic organisations, political parties, trade unions, and the public authorities. The trade unions have perhaps been the most active during the past year. It is sufficient to mention the system of classes and lectures instituted by the German trade unions in order to give an idea of what is being done.

Two main tendencies may be noted in the work which is being done to promote

workers' education. Some of the organisers of the movement aim at improving the workers' vocational capacity either by teaching them to exercise their occupation with greater skill or by fitting them for more advanced work. Thus, a mechanic is enabled either to become a more skilled mechanic or to train as an engineer. Others aim at giving the worker, even if he is to remain in exactly the same position throughout his life, the general culture which he needs in order to be a good citizen and capable of understanding the questions which affect his own community and humanity in general. The latter tendency is principally shown in the educational work of the trade unions.

A large number of classes were organised last year, principally by the workers' organisations, for training labour leaders, such as trade union officials, members of works councils etc. In some cases assistance is given by official teachers. For example, instruction is given by State technical instructors in the classes which the Workers' Academy at Prague organised last October. In Germany good progress is being made by important institutions for the higher education of the workers, such as the Düsseldorf courses, the Frankfurt Academy, and many others.

The experiments in workers' education which were made some decades ago were unsuccessful, partly because of errors in psychology in the methods which they employed, and partly owing to external circumstances. This may have caused some doubt whether the workers were really desirous of education. That such a desire really exists is now perfectly clear, partly owing to the new methods now adopted, and still more to the fact that the workers have more spare time for education. The facilities which are provided are warmly welcomed. For example, last September, when the German workers' organisations opened their first evening school for adults, which was based on American models, the number of students was much larger than was expected. Many had to be turned away, and it was found necessary to create more institutions of the same kind. In France, again, fresh impetus has been given to the movement for workers' education by the publication of a book by one of the great authorities on history and social philosophy; and the Ministry of Public Instruction and several of the French universities have been approached with proposals for the creation of institutes of labour for promoting the higher education of the workers.

The cinema now takes a front rank place among the means of education at the disposal of the workers. Members of the Conference will be aware that considerable attention was given in the past year to the educational use of the cinema. Efforts are now being made to take full advantage of

this invention for educational purposes. An important feature of the past year is that the first step has been taken towards international collaboration on this matter. A congress was organised in Paris in September 1926 by the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, at which the Office submitted a provisional report on the part played by the cinema in the utilisation of workers' spare time which was very favourably received. Subsequently an International Congress on the educational use of the cinema was held at Basle, at which something was done towards co-ordinating the work which is being undertaken in various countries. Members of the Conference will also remember the proposal submitted to the League of Nations by the Italian Government. That Government, which is greatly interested in cinema questions, had previously suggested, through its representative on the Governing Body, that a collection of cinema films should be made by the Office. At the last Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations, the Italian Government made a new proposal to set up an International Institute for the educational use of the cinema, under the auspices of the League. The Assembly asked that the various competent bodies, including the Office, should be consulted. This was done, and a draft constitution and rules of the institute was submitted to the Council of the League in March, and was referred by the Council to the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the Child Welfare Committee, and the International Labour Office, for consideration. It will thus be seen that attempts are being made in various quarters to promote collaboration in the educational use of the cinema. The Office is continuing to make an international study of the question. The work was begun in connection with the report to the Paris Congress, and since then much further information has been obtained. A further report will be drawn up in the near future, and there is every reason to hope that it will throw considerable light on the question, and will help to co-ordinate and systematise the work which is being done on it.

The Office has not yet been able to make a systematic study of wireless telegraphy as a factor in the utilisation of workers' spare time. Wireless is, however, already of some importance in this respect. Instruction is given by wireless by certain educational bodies, such as the Italian institution *Dopolavoro* and the School of Social Policy which was opened at Prague last October.

The 1924 Recommendation strongly advised that central bodies should be set up to co-ordinate the work in connection with workers' spare time, to encourage initiative, to give guidance, and to support existing institutions. Bodies for this purpose have

been set up on a regional basis in Belgium, and on a national basis in Italy.

In *Belgium* the Provincial Commissions for the utilisation of workers' spare time are continuing their work with great success. The most active is the Commission of the Province of Hainault, which has this year received from the funds of the Province over a million francs for developing facilities for the utilisation of spare time. Possibly the work will soon be undertaken on a national scale. Mr. Louis Piérard, Member of the Chamber of Deputies, proposed some seven years ago that a national institution for spare time should be created, and this proposal has now been taken up again. At the time of writing it is understood that the matter will be considered at the next meeting of the Cabinet. The discussions in the Chamber have already shown that the principle is generally accepted.

In *Italy* the *Opera Nazionale Dopolavoro* is extending its activities in the most varied directions. During the single month of November this institution arranged 294 athletic meetings, 122 theatrical and 152 musical performances, 147 educational meetings, and 51 meetings for various recreational purposes. During the same month 10 schools of music for workers were opened. During the period January to March 1927 the number of members of this institution rose from 280,000 to 330,000, and it is believed that by the end of the present year all bodies engaged in recreational work will have been brought under the supervision of the *Opera Nazionale*.

Although Belgium and Italy are the only countries which have official bodies to deal with workers' spare time, the question receives attention from the public authorities in many other countries. This is shown by the enquiry undertaken in the United States by the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics on the facilities for recreation existing in industry. An enquiry into facilities for open air recreation has already been carried out, and the Federal Bureau is this year dealing with indoor work. The information collected applies to some 2,000,000 workers, and will undoubtedly be of great use as a basis for future action.

There are also a number of private or semi-private institutions which endeavour to co-ordinate work of this kind or to encourage it by providing funds or information. Several such organisations have been set up in the past year. The most important are the Section for the utilisation of spare time set up by the Institute of Social Economy at Warsaw, the Workers' Athletic and Educational Institute founded last summer in Bucarest, and the Association for the Utilisation of Spare Time set

up at Prague on the initiative of the Czechoslovak Workers' Confederation.

It will be seen from the examples given above that increasing attention is being devoted to the question of workers' spare time. This was inevitable in view of the shortening of the working day. Sooner or later it becomes necessary to satisfy the needs thus created. Those countries which are already endeavouring to do this are acting wisely, and will reap their reward in the increased culture of their populations.

Housing.

182. — Generally speaking, it may be said that the development of the housing crisis, which began with the war and which became more marked in most countries during the first post-war years, has now entered on a further phase. Almost everywhere the ineffective method of meeting the housing shortage by allotting existing houses in such a way as to house as many persons as possible has been abandoned. Efforts are now being directed more towards constructing new houses in order to meet the need caused by the increased number of households and the necessity of replacing old houses. Almost everywhere, however, there are serious difficulties in the way of construction, due partly to the high cost of materials and partly to the lack of capital available for long term investment. The construction of new houses is the more unremunerative, and there is the less inducement for private initiative to move in this direction, as in most European countries rents are still fixed by legislation and have not yet come up into line with the general price level. Disregarding for the moment the countries which remained neutral during the war, housing and rent control has been maintained everywhere except in *Finland* and *Italy*. In the latter country, however, special measures have had to be taken to cope with the undesirable effects produced by the removal of control. As to other countries, it may be mentioned as examples that at the end of 1927 the general rents level was 10 per cent. lower than the level of food prices in *Great Britain* and *Belgium*, 17 per cent. in *Germany*, 45 per cent. in *France*, and nearly 60 per cent. in *Poland* and *Czechoslovakia*. Further, it is evident that both manual and non-manual workers are not in a position to pay rents proportionate to the high cost of building new houses, since the low cost of housing is taken into account in fixing their wages.

The housing policy adopted in the majority of countries, however, is based on the removal of housing and rent control and the resumption of private building as the most suitable means of solving the building problem. The rent levels indicated above

show how far present rents are still below the normal level. On the other hand, if rents are generally increased to meet the costs of construction they will in all probability rise above the general prices level. Since a 10 per cent. increase in rent would require an increase in wages of approximately 2 per cent., the return to private building can only be realised by stages, and this method has, in fact, been adopted in the legislation of most countries.

As a matter of fact, if the housing shortage, which has been so acute in many countries through the almost complete cessation of building, is to be remedied, there is no other means than the intervention of the authorities. But it is only in exceptional cases that the state or local authorities have made themselves entirely responsible for building. This was the case, for instance, in *Great Britain* during the first post-war years. Preference is usually given, however, to the system of encouraging private building by practical assistance. In some countries, e.g., *France*, *Belgium* and *Italy*, such assistance is only given to public utility societies, while in other countries it is extended to other persons, provided that certain conditions as to the quality of the houses and the fixing of rents are observed.

It was soon found that the payment of subsidies to cover part of the cost of building is only justified in cases where a temporary increase in the cost of production has raised costs to a higher figure than in more normal conditions. In so far as monetary stabilisation has been effected, recourse has been had to another form of financial assistance, viz., the payment of public subsidies for reducing the rents of new houses. Considerable stimulus was given by this system to building activity in *Great Britain*, where very nearly 900,000 houses have been built since 1919, two-thirds of this number having been constructed with the help of public subsidies. On the continent of Europe, however, there is another problem just as serious as the reduction of rents, i. e., providing the necessary capital for building on reasonable terms. In *Czechoslovakia* and *Italy* capital has in the first instance been drawn from the general sources of supply, but the public authorities have made themselves responsible for a certain time for part of the interest on mortgage. In *Germany*, on the other hand, where sufficient capital would not otherwise be obtained for building activities on a large scale, it was necessary to have recourse to public funds. The funds required for these financial operations were found by means of a special tax levied on the rents of old houses. Though the increase in the number of households requires approximately 200,000 houses to be built annually, it was only possible to meet these requirements for the first time in 1926: but the deficit left over from previous years has still to be met.

There are certain countries, however, e.g., *Poland* and *Hungary*, where the lack of capital is such that building construction even to-day is almost at a standstill.

In *Austria*, housing policy is based on a totally different principle from that adopted elsewhere. Up to the present the Austrian Socialist Party has checked any tendency towards the removal of control and towards private building. In this country rent is calculated so as to cover merely the cost of repairs and administrative expenses. Not more than 2-3 per cent. of a working class budget is required for the payment of rent, while before the war the proportion was from 15-20 per cent. Private construction having been abolished on principle, the Vienna City Council has undertaken to meet housing requirements, and has succeeded in carrying out an extensive building programme, the cost of which was largely covered by a special tax on the rents of old houses.

A considerable amount of attention is also being given to the question of reducing the costs of building. Interesting steps have been taken in this direction in *Great Britain*, where new types of building have been recommended by the Government, and in *Germany*, where a special committee has been appointed to examine the problems of rationalisation in the building and allied trades.

As the general housing problem is closely linked with that of town planning, the question of the development of industrial towns is everywhere receiving consideration.

Not only are all these questions receiving attention from Governments and municipalities, but public opinion is taking an interest in them. The action which is being taken to create a big movement in favour of a housing policy is centralised in the International Housing and Town Planning Federation; and the first post-war international congress devoted to housing questions is to meet in July 1928 at Paris.

The International Labour Office, which published in 1924 a first report on housing problems in Europe since the war, is preparing a new study on the subject, in which housing conditions, the improvements effected since 1924 and the main features of housing policy will be indicated for each country. The investigations which the Office has had to undertake in the course of this study have shown once more how necessary it is to have greater uniformity in the statistical methods adopted for collecting and collating facts and figures; and action has been taken on a suggestion made by the International Union of Local Authorities that the methods of compiling housing statistics should be studied. The Office's report may possibly serve as a basis for an international agreement on this subject by the competent statisticians.

Co-operation.

183. — If it were necessary and possible to refer to every aspect of the part played by co-operative organisations in improving the living conditions of the workers it would be desirable, simply to give an adequate idea of the work done by them on the housing problem, to draw attention to the efforts and achievements of co-operative building and housing societies, notably in Germany, France, Great Britain and the United States (where during the single year 1925-1926 building and loan associations lent to their 10,665,705 members more than 2 milliard dollars which were used for the purchase or construction in one year of more than 550,000 houses). A survey would also have to be made of the different forms of co-operative society, so as to show by what means and to what extent co-operative credit societies, consumers' co-operative societies, co-operative associations for the marketing of produce, the purchase of machines, keeping of accounts, etc. realise their aim, viz. to reduce the cost of supply and consequently in the last resort to increase the purchasing power of their members.

An attempt will be made to give such a comprehensive survey of the progress of co-operation in a future Report. For the present this Section of the Report must be limited to indicating, in the light of the more outstanding discussions and events which have recently taken place, the present tendencies of two important groups of organisations, the consumers' and the agricultural co-operative societies, to the interdependent activities of which the International Economic Conference drew special attention.

Consumers' and agricultural co-operative societies do not merely increase the purchasing power of their members by creating the conditions for an optimum utilisation of wages in urban and rural districts, or by ensuring to the agricultural producer greater and more regular remuneration for his work. From a more general point of view they make an original and in certain respects what appears to be a decisive contribution to the development of methods better adapted to modern conditions of distribution.

It is true that one object—which to a certain extent is attained—of the rational organisation of production is to ensure an increase in markets corresponding to the increase in production, through a reduction in costs and a rise in wages.

At the same time—and this is a remark which applies to all products—rational organisation of production cannot place a greater number of products at the disposal of a greater number of consumers if the possibilities of consumption which it creates are to be nullified by waste arising through

bad distribution. The problem of distribution remains, therefore, predominant and becomes increasingly important.

This is the opinion, also, of the more ardent supporters of the rational organisation of production, who first emphasised the part to be played by engineers and then by accountants, and are now appealing, both by propaganda and by action, for a rational organisation of distribution. It will be remembered that the necessity for this was emphasised at the International Economic Conference by Frau Freundlich. In Germany it has been stressed by the former Minister, Dr. Hermes and by Professor Julius Hirsch, and in France by the Technical Committee on food supply on which is represented the National Federation of Consumers' Co-operatives, etc.

In the opinion of Professor Hirsch, consumers' co-operative societies constitute "the oldest and up to the present the most efficient form of scientific distribution".

On account of their lengthening chain of distributing centres, their autonomy, and their democratic constitution, which gives their members a right of control and a possibility of participating in the management of their own affairs, consumers' co-operative societies, being in permanent contact with those whose agents they are and with whose way of living, buying power and method of arranging their expenditure they are conversant, are better qualified than any other body to make purchases which meet the required conditions of quality and price; in short, to base all their dealings on requirements which have been found to exist or which have been estimated with a sufficient degree of precision.

On the other hand, they can only fully utilise all these advantages provided that their powers are concentrated by the constitution of secondary co-operative bodies. It is generally recognised that the concentration of buying power confers an economic advantage on large consumers' societies. This buying power, so far as it can be measured by the amount of sales effected, is already very large in certain countries and is increasing from year to year. According to statistics which were recently published by the International Co-operative Alliance and which, on account of the difficulties encountered in the collection of complete and comparable information, are not given as covering the whole situation, the total sales of consumers' co-operative societies in 32 countries in 1926 amounted to £ 612,794,462, an increase of nearly 44 % on 1924. Of the total amount Great Britain alone is responsible for £ 184,879,902 and Germany for £ 51,973,312. The ratio between purchases made (wholesale) by societies from their headquarters and their total sales (retail) was 33.6 % in Germany, 55 % in Finland, 50 % in Great Britain, etc. This increased buying power does not merely place co-operative organisations in a

favourable position on the market and enable them to effect economies in transport costs, etc., but it also gives them an influence which they do not hesitate to exert in order to resist the increase in prices often involved in the growing practice of fixing the selling price of proprietary goods.

This, however, is not the only benefit which consumers' co-operative societies derive from concentration. They are also enabled to utilise considerable amounts of capital made available by uniting a large number of small sums representing the savings of their members. Statistics prepared by the International Co-operative Alliance show that the capital thus available was £ 182,663,093 in 1926 for the co-operative societies of 32 countries and £ 90,065,361 for their wholesale societies in 24 countries.

Concentration also enables the societies, in the case of a growing number of manufactured articles and foodstuffs, to eliminate not merely the wholesale merchant but also the manufacturer—in other words, given efficient management, to reduce the final selling price of products, not merely by the amount of the commercial profit, but also by the amount of the industrial profit. Factories run by consumers' wholesale co-operative societies, which are numerous and important in Great Britain (where 38,000 persons are employed in them) have increased and developed during the past year in other countries, particularly in Germany. In 1926, the value of their output (24 countries, counting central organisations only) was nearly £ 46,000,000. Factories of this kind have often served, as is shown by the recent history of the Swedish co-operative movement, to weaken or break up combinations exploiting a monopoly situation and to reduce considerably the price of the most necessary foodstuffs.

Reference should also be made, particularly in the case of the large co-operative federations, to the various conditions of efficient organisation which can be realised only in very large undertakings—concentration of information for or regarding member societies, central services for the supply of economic information, legal advice, statistics, book-keeping, the possibility of united action, effective supervision, unification or adjustment of methods and the adoption of a properly co-ordinated system.

In most of the countries in which the law has made it compulsory for the accounts of co-operative societies to be audited this is done by special bodies, and for some time past the auditors have more and more taken advantage of the opportunity to give the societies under their supervision technical advice drawing attention in good time to weak points and making corrections or improvements as to details of organisation.

Similarly, the centralisation of statistical information on the basis of increased standardisation in book-keeping supplies the large co-operative federations with detailed information and possibilities of comparison from which are drawn conclusions immediately utilised for the rectification of methods, the filling of gaps, the suppression of waste, the elimination of unnecessary operations, faults in management, and the reduction of excessive overhead costs (too large stocks, too heavy interest charges, faulty distribution of work, etc.). It is to such measures that must be attributed, for example, the fact that the overhead costs of German consumers' societies (quoted in the 1927 Year Book of their Central Union) amounted to 15.5 %, on the average, for 1926, exclusive of depreciation (and even 8.7 % in certain cases), whereas according to the estimate of Professor Hirsch overhead costs in retail business in Germany are, on the average, 20-23 % of the total sales.

With regard to all the forms of agricultural co-operation, considered as a means of increasing the buying power of those engaged in agriculture, it may be said quite briefly, as was done by Dr. Gennes in his recommendation to the Scientific Management Congress at Rome in September 1927, that agricultural co-operation facilitates the purchase of the means of production and cultivation, improves these means and thereby increases output, diminishes costs and by this means, as well as by improved marketing, increase the return for the labour expended.

From a more general point of view it must also be said that co-operation tends not merely to increase production but also to improve the quality of the product while at the same time lowering the price. So far as this result is obtained, it is largely due to the action of co-operative marketing societies, which are developing considerably throughout the world and particularly in those countries which export agricultural produce. The fact is that, through a change which had begun before the war but which has since been accelerated, agriculture is no longer merely a branch of production in general. In addition to articles which are produced in mass, such as cereals, cotton, flax, etc., an increasing number of other products—live stock, dairy produce, and even garden produce (fruit and vegetables)—are becoming increasingly important in international trade and even inter-continental trade. The farmer can no longer be content to be a producer: he must now exercise the function of merchant, either directly or indirectly.

The average farmer or the small farmer, however, cannot exercise this function personally. In particular, he is not able to study and follow the variable conditions of markets, nor to make his product, as he gets it from the ground, a marketable commodity, i. e., to place it on the market in

large quantities, of irreproachable and uniform quality, and standardised. The problem of standardisation is not the same in agriculture as in other industries. In other industries standardisation means simplification and increased economy in the process of manufacture. In agriculture, the use of selected seed and stock (seed-growers' and stock-breeders' societies) and improved methods of production (control societies, advisory and educational bodies, the acceptance of rules) may, within certain limits, improve the quality and promote the uniformity of the product; but absolute standardisation can only be obtained after production, by classifying the products into so many large groups as there are kinds and qualities. This brings out a further difference, viz. that standardisation in industry can be carried out by the individual producer whereas in agriculture it requires the pooling of products. For these reasons it is not too much to say, as was done at the National Union of German Agricultural Co-operative Societies at its last meeting in June 1927, that standardisation of agricultural products (which is in reality the marketing of them under the most economic conditions) is closely bound up with the development of co-operation. It cannot be doubted that co-operative marketing societies supplement effectively the organising and regulating action of other kinds of agricultural co-operative societies. This is the reason for the success which they have already attained in Denmark and their recent but extraordinarily rapid development in Canada, the United States, New Zealand, the eastern Baltic countries, etc. During the past year, too, further developments in this direction have taken place chiefly in Algeria, the Argentine, Estonia, Finland, Ireland and Lithuania. In the case of certain important products the influence of the large selling co-operative societies, which tends towards the elimination of waste and hazard and thus promotes stabilisation of production and prices, is now preponderant.

Complementary to their independent action, there is the action taken by agricultural and consumers' co-operative societies to unite in a continuous chain all the operations which they have undertaken and thus eliminate superfluous expenditure in the distribution of products. What has been accomplished in this field has already been described in the memorandum submitted by the International Labour Office to the International Economic Conference on "the part played by co-operative organisations in international trade in wheat, dairy produce and some other agricultural products". The future will no doubt witness further progress in this direction, as may be judged from the numerous statements made on behalf of co-operative agricultural organisations and the resolutions adopted by the last Congress of the International Co-operative Alliance advocating intensified action.

VII. The workers' general rights.

184. — Every year the Office has had occasion to devote more and more space in this annual Report to a number of questions which have not yet for the most part been actually discussed as such by the Conference. Some of these questions, however, have exercised a very considerable influence on the discussions at a number of Sessions, and the developments which have taken or are taking place on them in various countries have found an echo in the meetings of the Conference. Among the questions of this kind which have been dealt with at some length in previous Reports, and in last year's Report in particular, are—the right of association, industrial relations, conciliation and arbitration, profit-sharing and workers' participation in management and in national affairs. These problems really go beyond ordinary measures for the protection and security of the workers, and lie within the area of the broader question of the relations between capital and labour, or, to put it more generally, the question of the position which the workers occupy or claim they should occupy in the undertakings for which they work or in the community in which they live.

The time would now appear to have come for treating these different questions more systematically, as indeed would seem to be suggested by a number of decisions or resolutions of the Governing Body or the Conference, e.g., the decision of the Governing Body to place the question of freedom of association on the Agenda of the Conference, and requests which the Conference has made to the Office from time to time to study in greater detail various aspects of the relations between employers and workers—e.g. collective agreements, conciliation, etc.

As a matter of fact, it might perhaps be desirable to go into the general problem in its full scope and from the beginning, and give a general survey of the various developments which are taking place throughout the world in the relations between capital and labour, or, to use the expression coined in the United States, in "industrial relations". An examination of this vast and general problem would perhaps reveal the logical and historical bases for legislation in this field and the possibilities of a definition of the general rights of the workers.

Of course, there could be no question of going into the philosophy of the conflict between employers' and workers' interests. This is not the place to deal, even incidentally, with such questions as whether there is any such thing as a class war which should determine the policy of the workers

in developing their organisations and furthering their objects, or whether the right method is to promote agreement and co-operation between the various classes in the community. But there are various movements of ideas in different strata of society and special traditions in industrial communities which the Office should follow and endeavour to understand if it is to promote the work of the International Labour Organisation in all directions, which though apparently divergent perhaps ultimately lead to the same goal, and wherever any progress however small can be made.

Industrial relations.

185. — Previous Reports have referred to the movement which is designated in the United States by the expression *industrial relations*. This expression appears to be used in the United States to cover the various problems of the protection and security of the workers as such—wage policy, industrial hygiene and safety, provision against risks including even life insurance, representation on works' councils, etc. The general basis of the conception, at which the Americans have arrived in the light of their own special experience, is that it is an essential condition for obtaining the *optimum* of production that all the parties concerned—employers, technical staff and workers—should each take to heart the necessities of the industry by which they live, understand the requirements of the undertaking to which they all belong, and collaborate by mutual agreement to make it as prosperous as possible. The scope of the expression is thus a very wide one, and includes all those labour problems by the investigation of which the welfare of industry can be promoted.

A few of the more important features of this movement in the *United States* in 1927 are briefly referred to below.

In the first place, strikes reached a new low level ; though a dispute in the coal mining industry threw 175,000 workers out of employment for six months in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Ohio, West Virginia and Pennsylvania.

Secondly, wages have maintained an even level throughout the year, with a declining trend in the cost of living during the first six months. This, however, has not satisfied the American Federation of Labor, which states that if high wages are paid to skilled workers the wages of unskilled workers are low and their employment irregular. The Federation has consequently inaugurated

what it terms its modern wage policy, which is an endeavour to correlate wages not only with price movements, but also with industrial production. This policy is known as *union management co-operation*. It would already appear to have yielded substantial results, particularly on the great American and Canadian railway systems.

Thirdly, the question of the security or safety of the workers has been receiving increasing attention. This object is promoted not so much through the adoption of national or provincial legislation as by voluntary and agreed action on the part of the employer and workers in the individual factory.

Then there is the development of life insurance, not through a State institution or one fathered and regulated by the law, but through ordinary insurance companies. If an individual industrial firm considers that it would be good business to have its employees insured against death or total disablement, it applies to an insurance company, which takes in all employees without physical examination. The cost in the beginning of the movement was generally paid *in toto* by the employer, but the development during the last few years, especially 1927, has been towards the contributory form. In 1912 the amount of insurance in force was about 13 million dollars; by the end of 1926 it amounted to 5,600 millions, and in 1927 to something over 6,000 millions. The year 1927 saw the establishment of the Union Labour Life Insurance Company, which has the right to do business in 14 States, and is financed by individual trade unionists and various workers' organisations.

Lastly, mention should be made of other developments—such as participation in the administration of the individual undertaking through the institution of committees of workers' representatives to examine with the management the conditions of work in the workshop, endeavours to eliminate waste in industry, and scientific organisation of work and production—which are taking place in the United States of America, that vast laboratory of experiments in "industrial relations".

A reference to the attitude of two important American business men will show what are the logical implications of this conception of industrial relations, and that these implications are already accepted by some employers in that country.

Mr. John D. Rockefeller Junr., for example, would like to see employers and workers really enjoy life, instead of just managing to live. He has expressed his profound conviction that in the natural order of things the employer and worker are associates and not enemies, that their interests are the same and not opposed, and that in the long run the success of the one depends on the success of the other. In modern industry organised on a gigantic scale, he adds, personal contact between em-

ployers and workers too frequently becomes impossible. This results in a feeling of unfriendliness and hostility. But the two parties are beginning to understand that the principle of individual representation offers a basis for agreement.

More venturesome, no doubt, are the views of Mr. Owen D. Young, President of the Board of the General Electricity Company of New York City, who stated in a speech made on 4 June 1927 that, to narrow the field of conflict between capital and labour, the great industrial organisations must really belong to those who devote their life and efforts to them, no matter in what capacity. He added, however, that most persons concerned still preferred to have a fixed income without running any risks rather than to share in the profits of an undertaking and accept all the hazards involved in it.

In Europe, the idea of industrial relations made most progress during 1927 in *Great Britain*. It would appear, however, that in spite of the similarity of their aims, the American and British movements have started from two opposite directions. In the United States, the starting point has been a general theory of the community of interests and the necessity of co-operation, which employers are endeavouring to carry out in their individual establishments. In Great Britain, the movement was started by the pressure of a specific set of events, though from its feeble and sporadic beginnings it is now gradually becoming more systematic. The unfortunate disputes of 1926 inclined certain sections of the two parties concerned to seek positive results through active collaboration. The success of the industrial relations movement in the United States was also not without influence on the development of the attitude of the workers and employers in Great Britain. The Government mission to the United States, which included prominent representatives of the employers and workers, published a unanimous report, many leading British employers visited America independently in the course of the year to study industrial development, and the Trades Union Congress received fraternal delegates from the American Federation of Labor, who emphasised the industrial relations policy of the American workers. It was impossible for British opinion to remain impervious to these various streams of influence.

The whole question entered on a new phase when the Trades Union Congress, at its Edinburgh Session on 5-10 September, adopted a resolution in response to the Prime Minister's appeal for industrial peace, in which, while criticizing the Government, it emphasised that "no section of the community is more desirous of industrial peace than the workers". The general tone of the Congress was conciliatory, and the opportunity thus afforded for positive steps in the direction of a permanent improve-

ment in industrial relations was earnestly studied by the employers.

The Council of the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations published on 20 October, 1927, the text of a resolution passed by its members in response to the resolution of the Trades Union Congress. In this statement, the Confederation "welcomes and endorses the sentiment expressed at the recent meeting of the Trades Union Congress at Edinburgh in furtherance of the promotion of industrial peace in British industry, and of the principle of that result being achieved through the combined efforts of employers and employed themselves". The Confederation further recorded its view that—

"it is in the individual industries, in their organisation and in the day-to-day contact in the works that the most ready and effective means present themselves for developing and applying the spirit of industrial goodwill which is so vital to the future welfare of this country, and which the Confederation will at all times be anxious to further and support."

So far, however, no actual steps had been taken to translate these expressions of goodwill into practice.

At this stage a representative group of employers, headed by Sir Alfred Mond, addressed on 23 November a letter to the Secretary of the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, in which they made concrete proposals for a conference on industrial relations. They explained in their letter that this action was taken because it appeared to them, after investigation, that there was no single existing organisation of employers which could take the initiative in inviting discussions to cover the entire field of industrial reorganisation and industrial relations. They urged the importance of direct negotiations "with the twin objects of the restoration of industrial prosperity and the corresponding improvement in the standard of living of the population".

The General Council at its meeting on 20 December agreed to accept the invitation to a Conference, and this Conference took place on 12 January, 1928. It was proposed that a joint committee of investigation should be set up to study a variety of problems in the general field of industrial relations. Some of those indicated included the better organisation of industry by means of amalgamation; rationalisation; the introduction of new processes and methods, technical and administrative; and schemes for dealing with labour laid off due to rationalisation; participation, on the basis that the worker is not merely entitled to a fixed wage, but should have an interest in the general prosperity of the industry; and the creation of a permanent standing committee to meet from time to time for consultation on topics affecting industry.

These events have improved the general situation, and are perhaps full of promise: but long and laborious investigation is necessary before final agreement can be reached.

In *France* and *Germany* the idea of industrial relations has profited by the growing interest taken in scientific management. In France, Mr. Poincaré has said, increased production implies co-ordination of the elements concerned in production, and such co-ordination requires an agreement between employers and workers through which both may benefit. The National Economic Council, which is referred to in a later paragraph, Mr. Poincaré considers, is manifesting a firm determination to secure loyal co-operation between employers and workers for improving production and working conditions.

A similar but stronger movement is taking place in *Italy*. But the Italian conception of industrial relations certainly differs fundamentally from the American. According to the American conception industrial relations are essentially independent of the State. In Italy, on the other hand, occupational associations are regarded as public bodies, and their activities, by reason of their legal character, are subject to the supervision and control of the State.

In *Spain* legislation was adopted in 1926 providing for a general regulation of the whole field of social and trade union life under the direct supervision of the State. All legally constituted trade associations have the right to appoint their representatives on the various corporative bodies, joint committees, mixed commissions, corporation councils etc.

Such is the present movement, varied in form and origin, but fundamentally directed to the same end. The Office cannot do other than watch its development with satisfaction, since, apart from theoretical considerations, it is constantly bringing together the two factors in industrial activity—the management and control of establishments, and productive work.

The Conference will note that the industrial relations movement is strongest in the Anglo-Saxon countries: it was born in the United States a few years ago, and spread from there last year to Great Britain. In these countries employers and workers have long been accustomed to regulate their affairs by negotiations among themselves. In other countries State intervention, or the intervention of the law, has been much more frequent, and endeavours have been made to define the workers' rights more strictly—the right to combine and the rights of combinations to take action. But, whatever importance may be attributed to such intervention and regulation, and whatever share is given to legislation in the organisation of the workers, the vitality of the workers' organisations is such, once they are formed and developing normally, that in the end their activities, whether the organisations be private or state-controlled, voluntary or legal, lead to the same ends and raise the same problems.

Right of association.

186. — The first of these problems is that of the right of association and combination for trade union purposes.

This problem came before the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference. In accordance with the new procedure a draft Questionnaire had been prepared by the International Labour Office, together with an explanatory statement, and it was on this Questionnaire that the Conference was required to take a decision. It will be remembered that, as no agreement between the various groups could be reached on the terms of the final Questionnaire to be addressed to the Governments, the proposal to place the question of freedom of association on the Agenda of the 1928 Session was finally rejected by 66 votes to 28. The hopes expressed in last year's Report were thus disappointed. There is no present possibility of introducing international regulations governing freedom of association, such as the Office hoped to see in view of the situation of trade unions in countries where industry is yet in its early stages of development, and where protection is demanded by the unions. It is perhaps not worth while to go into all the causes which led, if not to the final defeat of the Office's hopes, at least to the postponement of their realisation. It is not considered desirable to give a complete account in the present Report of the animated discussions which took place on this question, both in committee and in plenary sittings of the Conference. It is equally unnecessary to investigate the political and psychological reasons which influenced the result. It will be sufficient to point out that the discussions which took place at the Conference have, more or less, led to a deadlock. If the States are to undertake to grant a minimum standard of freedom of association, it is necessary to define such freedom, and consequently to consult the Governments on the definition to be adopted. But all definitions are dangerous, as the Latin proverb says. To define the concept is to suggest its limitation, and consequently to arouse opposition on the part of the workers, particularly in the more advanced countries. The reason for this lies in a characteristic feature of trade union evolution, namely, that the workers constantly acquire greater freedom and greater power through the regular interplay of social forces and independently of legislation, and any limitation by the law might eventually interfere with this process, to the prejudice of the unions, in socially advanced countries. Only in countries where the trade union movement is still in its infancy could the workers derive some advantage from a minimum of protection against arbitrary treatment and from having that minimum guaranteed internationally. In any case, the Director stated at the Conference, and desires to repeat now,

that the problem is so urgent and of such fundamental importance for social legislation as a whole that it will certainly be raised again, possibly in the near future, and under more favourable circumstances.

The following brief summary of the laws passed or proposed last year on this subject will show that the problem of freedom of association still occupies a prominent place among the questions before the national legislatures.

On 26 August 1927 a Decree was adopted in *Chile* by which the managers of commercial and industrial firms and establishments are prohibited from dismissing the leaders of legally constituted trade unions, except for reasons expressly provided in the Act and considered valid by the conciliation and arbitration court. This is evidence of a desire to take adequate measures to protect the rights of trade union leaders to pursue trade union activities.

The question of the right of combination of public servants in *France* has made fresh progress towards a final legal solution. Mr. Chabrun's Bill, which was analysed in these pages in previous years, and the object of which is to enable public servants to benefit by the rights conferred by the Act of 21 March 1884 on trade unions, was approved in 1927 by two Committees of the Chamber of Deputies—the Labour Committee and the Committee on General, Departmental and Municipal Administration. The objections to the officials' claim are criticised in the report submitted to the Chamber of Deputies by Mr. Février on behalf of the latter Committee. The report opposes the proposed substitution of a code of rules for the right of association. A code of rules would lay down regulations for engagement, promotion, transference, retirement and dismissal—"it would, so to speak, form a list of workshop regulations". A code of rules can perfectly well exist side by side with a trade union; the latter would see that the former was observed. The author of the report explains why, in his opinion, the officials could not be expected to be satisfied with the 1901 Act, which does not recognise the official character of the associations which it sanctions. He denies that if officials were granted the right to combine they would obtain at the same time the right to strike, which is stated to be contrary to the public interest. He argues that when citizens leave their work they are merely exercising their liberty as free men, and nothing more. What was prohibited before the 1884 Act, and still is prohibited in the case of certain officials, is a concerted agreement to cease work. The right to enter into such an agreement must not, however, be confused with the right of combination or association. There is one question of fundamental importance; departmental and municipal officers have to decide permanent and difficult staff pro

blems, in examining which they have frequently to appeal to the collaboration of the staff placed under their orders, and for whom they are responsible. Is not the recognition of the right of officials to combine likely to facilitate the discussion and solution of these problems? Would it not be better that the law should sanction a state of affairs which in many cases is already tolerated in practice? The author of the Committee's report replies to these questions as follows: it is desirable that for individual complaints, based on purely selfish considerations, there should be substituted collective claims inspired by a spirit of comradeship. The trade unions, in their relations with the masses which they represent, have consistently displayed their solicitude for the common interest.

The French legislature has also had under consideration the extension of trade union law in another direction, viz., by imposing criminal penalties in respect of offences against the right of association. This is the object of a Bill introduced by Mr. Bovier-Lapierre and Mr. Etienne Rognon, which was adopted by the Labour Committee of the House of Deputies on 5 August 1927. The Bill provides for the infliction of heavy penalties on all persons convicted of interfering, or attempting to interfere, with the right of a worker to join a regularly constituted trade union, by refusing to engage him, by dismissing him or by proposing his dismissal, or by threatening to penalise him in these or other ways.

One of the most controversial problems consists in the question whether the act of striking is a rupture or a mere suspension of the labour contract. In order to settle the discussion as far as French law is concerned, Mr. Victor Jean, Deputy, brought in, on 3 February 1927, a Bill to provide that the collective suspension of work through the exercise of the right to strike does not terminate the labour contract. He supported this proposal by the following arguments among others:—the act of striking is not a breach of a collective contract of labour; it is merely a temporary suspension of the provisions of the contract; while to decide that any strike, no matter how legitimate, may justify an action for damages on the part of the employer would be equivalent to paralysing the exercise of the right to strike.

The most noteworthy event during 1927 in connection with freedom of association was certainly the passing in *Great Britain* of the Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act of 29 July 1927. The Act has come into force too recently for it to be possible, at the moment, to arrive at a considered judgment on it. It will be sufficient to indicate briefly the effect of the essential changes introduced by the new Act in the former trade union system. These changes are concerned with restrictions on general and sympathetic strikes, the protection of

non-strikers, intimidation and picketing, strikes for political objects and the right of Government servants to combine.

The expressions "general strike" and "sympathetic strike" do not appear in the Act. It is laid down, however, that a strike is illegal if it has any object other than or in addition to the furtherance of a trade dispute within the trade or industry in which the strikers are engaged, and if it is designed or calculated to coerce the Government either directly or by inflicting hardship on the community. In the absence of authoritative legal decisions on the point, it is difficult to say yet exactly what this means. From the text itself it would seem that the following conclusions might be drawn. It is to be presumed that a sympathetic strike by workers in support of other workers in the same trade or industry would not be considered as illegal whatever hardship it might inflict on the community. On the other hand, a sympathetic strike of workers in support of workers employed in another trade or industry would presumably be held to be illegal, if the fact of their striking "ought reasonably to be expected" to result in inflicting hardship on the community so as to coerce the Government. A primary strike would be deemed to be illegal if it had any object besides the furtherance of a trade dispute within the trade or industry, and if it inflicted sufficient hardship on the community to coerce the Government. Heavy penalties are provided for any person who "declares, instigates, incites others to take part in or otherwise acts in furtherance of" a strike or lock-out held to be illegal under the Act. In addition to these criminal penalties, there is also a civil liability. It will be remembered that, under the Trade Disputes Act of 1906, trade unions and their agents could not, generally speaking, be sued for acts done in contemplation or furtherance of an industrial dispute. This immunity is now raised in the case of strikes declared illegal under the 1927 Act. Further, in cases where, under the Act, the Government is entitled to take criminal proceedings, but can prevent such proceedings from going further than the situation appears to require, civil proceedings continue in the ordinary way. In addition, the Attorney-General may apply for an injunction to prevent any application of the funds of a trade union in support of a strike declared illegal.

Special protection is accorded to non-strikers in the case of an illegal strike. Notwithstanding the provisions of the Trade Union Act of 1871, which has hitherto protected trade unions in many cases, the Courts may intervene to protect non-strikers.

The Act reaffirms and strengthens the provisions of the previous Acts (the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act 1875 and the Trade Disputes Act 1906) on intimidation and picketing. Intimidation in furtherance of trade disputes is declared

illegal, not only if threats of violence are used, but also if there is a threat of any injury for which an action may be brought at common law.

The Trade Union Act 1913, dealing with the political objects of trade unions, is also amended. For the payment of part of the individual subscription into the trade union political fund formal consent is required in the place of tacit agreement. It is also provided that the political fund is to be kept separate from the other funds of the union, and that unregistered trade unions shall be placed, in respect of their political funds, under the supervision of the Friendly Societies Officer.

Organisations of civil servants are forbidden to pursue political objects, or to be affiliated to outside bodies of an industrial or political character of which the membership is not confined to persons employed by or under the Crown.

Further, local and other public authorities are prohibited from making it a condition of employment of any person that he shall or shall not be a member of a trade union, whether in the case of their own employees or those of persons with whom they have entered into contracts.

The foregoing is a brief summary of the principal provisions of the new Act. An authoritative interpretation will not be possible until the effects of the Act in practice are known.

The tendencies of trade union reform in *Italy* have been described in former Reports. Two innovations which have been outlined during the last twelve months (the constitution of the corporations and the political representation of trade unions will soon bring the new system into full existence.

In anticipation of the setting up of the corporations, inter-trade union committees have been formed in each province, comprising the leaders of employers' and workers' occupational associations under the chairmanship of the political secretaries of the Fascist federations. With a view to co-ordinating the work of these bodies, a central committee has been appointed of which the General Secretary of the Fascist Party is Chairman. The committee includes the Under-Secretaries of State in the Ministries of Corporations and National Economy, representatives of the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions and the National Employers' Confederations, together with a representative of the National Co-operative Institute, and a representative of the Federation of Autonomous Public Institutions (villages, provinces, charities, etc.).

This new organisation was officially inaugurated by the Fascist Grand Council at its meetings of 11 and 25 November 1927. It recognises the corporative functions of the inter-trade union committees, and declares that the agreements they conclude shall have force of law, subject

to ratification by the Ministry of Corporations.

Recent legislative measures have also been taken to ensure the representation of employers and workers on the Advisory Municipal Councils in towns of more than 20,000 inhabitants, on the Supreme National Economic Council and the provincial economic councils, on the committee appointed in connection with the Central Statistical Institute, and on the local committees for determining the cost of living index numbers.

The reform of Parliament on a trade union and corporative basis has been approved. The number of deputies is reduced from 560 to 400. The Kingdom constitutes a single electoral college. The thirteen great economic organisations comprising the whole of the Italian producers and workers submit to the Fascist Grand Council the list of candidates *proposed*. The number of candidates proposed is twice that of the deputies to be elected. Each of the great organisations proposes a number of candidates fixed according to its size, and in each organisation half the candidates are chosen by the producers' associations and half by the workers' associations grouped in the organisation.

Recognised and even unrecognised bodies of national importance, and whose objects are of a cultural, educational, or charitable character, are also entitled to *propose* candidates, to a number not exceeding one-quarter of the total number of deputies to be elected (i.e. 100).

The candidates thus *proposed* are submitted to the Fascist Grand Council, which draws up the list of deputies *nominated*, choosing them freely from among the names submitted or even, if necessary, from among persons not included in the lists, so as to include persons prominent in the world of science, literature, the arts, politics and the army whose names have not been submitted. The list is then submitted for approval to the electorate, which may reply either Yes or No to the question printed on the voting paper — "Do you approve the list of deputies nominated by the National Fascist Grand Council?"

If less than half the votes are in the affirmative, a new election takes place, for which associations and organisations containing at least 5,000 members regularly entered on the electoral lists may submit lists of candidates, the number of whom may not exceed three-quarters of the deputies to be elected. The candidates on the list which obtains the greatest number of votes are elected. The seats reserved for the minority are distributed among the other lists, according to the number of votes obtained by each.

For universal suffrage is thus substituted suffrage for those who pay a trade union contribution, or direct taxation above a certain amount, or who own or receive the interest on public securities above a cer-

tain annual figure, or who receive a salary permanently borne on the budget of a public institution, or who are members of the clergy of the Roman Catholic religion or of another religion recognised by the State.

Thus, in cases where the first stage of the election is also the final one, the trade unions will only have the right of proposing candidates for the future corporative assembly. The Government has, however, announced that the new system of representation is provisional. It is thought by the Grand Council that the Fascist reconstitution of the trade unions is still too recent for it to be feasible to entrust them entirely with the task of representing the nation. As soon as the new trade union organisation is consolidated and completed, it is possible that, for future legislatures, some form of purely corporative and Fascist national representation may be instituted.

In *Rumania* the complaints of the workers' unions, which continued to call for a mitigation of the system in force under the Trade Union and Legal Personality Acts, particularly as regards formalities for registration and publication, were met by an Act of 20 April 1927, which simplifies the formalities required for the acquisition of legal personality.

In *Switzerland* a proposal made by Mr. Bolle, which was quoted in a previous Report, and the effect of which is to guarantee to the workers free choice of trade union, was adopted by the National Council on 22 September 1927. According to Mr. Bolle, the adoption of this proposal should represent the commencement of a more far-reaching trade union reform, the programme of which he explained to the National Council. This programme consists essentially of the following proposals — to confer legal personality on trade unions; to re-affirm the principles of Article 56 of the Federal Constitution, which, while guaranteeing freedom of association, expressly condemns methods or objects of an illicit or dangerous character from the point of view of the State; to proclaim the principles of freedom to join a trade union and free choice of a trade union, and to settle the question of the exercise of pressure; to encourage the federation of trade unions, in order to promote in each trade a single organisation for employers on the one side and for workers on the other; to take steps to encourage the conclusion of collective agreements and to make provision for arbitration courts to settle disputes.

Mr. Bolle also insisted upon the importance of bringing about better relations between trade organisations and of thus preparing the way for a corporative system. In his opinion, employers, workers and their unions should not be considered as enemies but as collaborators. The object to be aimed at was the creation of trade associations of a mutual character, based on a community of interests.

Collective agreements.

187. — When trade unions are strong, when they can take organised measures to defend the interests of their members and can furnish the employers with adequate guarantees, they tend to conclude collective agreements.

Collective agreements have now spread to such an extent and their value is so important that it has been considered desirable to devote a special sub-section of this Report to them. It may therefore be useful to begin with a few brief notes on their historical development. For this purpose it is hardly necessary to go very far back for most countries.

In countries where trade unionism is strong and has been long established, the use of collective agreements was begun at a relatively early stage.

In *Great Britain*, collective agreements have grown with the development of the trade unions. In 1910 there were 1696 collective agreements regulating working conditions for 2,400,000 workers. As a matter of fact, this figure does properly show their full importance, because many of them were used as models for the engagement of unorganised workers. In 1920 the number of organised workers according to Mr. and Mrs. Sydney Webb was 6,000,000, and according to the Ministry of Labour 8,000,000. These figures probably indicate the minimum number of workers covered by collective agreements at that time, i. e., in effect, three fifths of the workers in the country.

In the *United States* it may be said that the movement, though more recent, has been still stronger. The Office does not possess any general statistics, but the Bureau of Labor Statistics, which has been making a collection of collective agreements in the principal industries since 1912 and which has published a summary of them since 1925, already had copies of 17,000 agreements in 1926, 1,500 of which were concluded during that year.

In *Germany*, the same relation is to be found between the development of trade unionism and the growth of collective agreements. It may be said approximately that, while in 1913 there were 2,800,000 organised workers and 1,400,000 workers covered by collective agreements, the figures for 1925 are 12,000,000 and 8,000,000 respectively. Since 1925 the number of organised workers has been slowly increasing, and collective agreements have also been growing. It is noteworthy, in particular, that the two developments have been taking place together in the case of non-manual workers, as has also been happening in Austria and Czechoslovakia. The figures given above are considerable, and,

as in Great Britain, are all the more notable because they only represent part of the real situation; for, by an Order dated 23 November 1918, collective agreements which are found to be of special importance are often, on the demand of the parties, declared binding on the whole trade, and, moreover, they have an influence even on industries in which they are not yet used, by their effects on individual contracts.

Since the war, although there have been obstacles on both sides to the expansion of collective agreements in some countries, e. g. *France*, their use has spread to a greater or lesser extent in *Australia, Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, South Africa, Sweden* and the *U. S. S. R.*

In *Italy*, for example, collective agreements are being rapidly developed. In 1927 there were 2,290 such agreements, this being the highest figure so far attained.

The more important of these agreements, i. e. those which are nation-wide, number 54. There were also 79 regional or inter-provincial agreements and 2157 provincial agreements.

The national agreement concluded for the iron and steel trades in February 1928 covers 500,000 workers, and provides, *inter alia*, for minimum wages, the proper regulation of piece work under the supervision of the trade union organisations, and continued sickness insurance through the organisation of provident funds in each establishment, linked up with one another and drawing their resources from contributions by the employers and the workers.

As the collective agreement has become a matter of such practical importance in industrial life, a number of States have been endeavouring to regulate them by law. There are, of course, many and varied difficulties in the way, and few countries have yet arrived at anything like a definite solution. Most countries so far have only taken provisional legislative measures. Others are waiting until decisions of the courts and expert opinion have cleared up the contentious questions at issue before any regulations are laid down. Most Anglo-Saxon countries do not possess any collective agreements legislation, such agreements simply operating as *gentlemen's agreements*: but it is to be noted that decisions of the courts, particularly in the United States, are gradually defining their character. More or less comprehensive special legislation which is also to some extent connected with the conciliation and arbitration rules exists in *Australia (New South Wales, South Australia, Western Australia), Austria, Chile, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, New Zealand, Norway* and the *U. S. S. R.*

In 1927 *Latvia* and the *Netherlands* laid down legal rules on collective agreements.

The *Latvian Decree* is to be distinguished by two special features. In first place, as to the binding effect of collective agreements on the organisations or authorities entering into them and their members—the contracting parties and their members are made responsible for loss caused by non-compliance with the agreements. Secondly, any clauses in individual contracts which derogate from the provisions of the collective agreement in force are to be void.

In the *Netherlands*, before the new Act was published, Section 1637 (n) of the Civil Code provided that clauses in individual contracts which derogated from a collective agreement could be avoided. The new Act, however, is more definite. In particular, it has four special features. It requires the organisations—which are made liable—to see that their members comply with the stipulations of the agreement. Any clause in an individual contract which derogates from the provisions of a collective agreement is to be void. The employer is required to apply the provisions of the agreement even in respect of individual contracts which he enters into with unorganised workers who are not bound by the agreement, unless the agreement expressly contains a provision to the contrary. If one of the contracting parties or its members break the agreement they are to be held civilly responsible and liable to damages.

In *Italy*, a Legislative Decree of February 1928 lays down definite rules for the deposit and publication in official gazettes of collective agreements, makes the contracting organisations responsible for them, and provides that the consent of the authorities to the publication of an agreement is only to be given if the agreement conforms with the Labour Charter.

In *Sweden*, the Government presented to the Riksdag in February 1928 a Bill for putting collective agreements on a legal basis, by clearly defining the rights and duties of the contracting parties and their members under such agreements. Another Bill which was submitted to the Riksdag at the same time provides for the constitution of a special court which would have to deal with legal disputes as to the validity, existence and interpretation of collective agreements. These two Bills have been opposed by the Labour and Conservative Parties, and it is therefore uncertain whether they will be adopted.

Collective agreements give the working classes guarantees of order and stability, and their extension can therefore only be a matter for satisfaction. It may be said, moreover, that, as a general rule, collective

agreements are the forerunner of labour legislation : they provide the practical experience on which legislation can be based with more certainty and less apprehension. On the other hand, cases may be cited in which a system of collective agreements which is well regulated, widely applied, works to the satisfaction of the parties concerned, and is therefore considered as adequate for ensuring good conditions of employment has, in practice, contributed to spread the idea that the regulation of conditions of work by legislation is not indispensable. It may be said, for example, that in *Denmark* and *Great Britain* those who oppose ratification of the Washington Eight Hours Convention have argued that collective agreements on hours of work are more elastic and adaptable than legislation and therefore more suitable for meeting the technical, complicated and changing requirements of the different industries. This would appear to be the attitude of the Employers' Federation in Denmark, to judge by the memorandum which the Federation addressed to the Minister of Labour in 1925. And, to judge by its statement published in *The Times* of 2 June 1927, the same view is shared by the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations in Great Britain, the members of which employ about seven million workers.

Nevertheless, it seems clear from the attempts at legal regulation which are being made that any conflict between law and the practice of collective agreements is bound to disappear. In many cases the legislature, far from regarding collective agreements as furnishing grounds for not legislating, expects them to embody, define or develop certain parts of the general enactments which it passes. By this process collective agreements complete the law and strengthen its enforcement.

Conciliation and arbitration.

188. — Collective agreements are in general the result of direct and voluntary discussion of their interests between employers and workers. There are cases, however, where disputes cannot be settled without outside intervention, and it is in such cases that conciliation and arbitration are of value.

In last year's Report attention was drawn to the wide interest taken in conciliation and arbitration by all concerned—employers, workers and Governments. There is little doubt but that further efforts were made in 1927 to create or develop such institutions for the amicable settlement of labour disputes.

In *Australia*, where the spheres of jurisdiction of the conciliation and arbitration

institutions of the Commonwealth and of the different Federal States are not clearly defined, conflicting decisions on the same subject-matter have sometimes been pronounced. This state of things might in the long run lower the prestige of the courts, and in any case the uncertainty might cause economic difficulties. The Australian Government has consequently proposed an Amendment to the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act, with a view to harmonising the activities of the arbitration courts in the various States with those of the Commonwealth courts. The Amendment was analysed in a notable speech by Mr. Latham, the Attorney-General, during its second reading in Parliament on 15 December 1927. The Amendment contains, *inter alia*, definite provisions for improving the enforcement of arbitration awards, and provides greater facilities for voluntary submission to arbitration (free choice of referee, etc.).

In *Germany*, where several wage disputes arose as a result of the improvement in economic conditions, the arbitration and conciliation institutions were severely tried. Several disputes were, however, settled through them, or by declaring the award binding on the parties, a procedure which is authorised by German regulations on this subject. This procedure made it possible to avert a serious dispute in the Westphalian iron and steel industries. The dispute arose over the introduction of the three-shift system in continuous process industries, which had been demanded by the workers and had been provided for by a Decree of 16 July 1927, and over a demand for increased wages. In reply to these demands, the employers announced that the factories would be closed down on January 1, which meant that a very large number of workers would be thrown out of employment. After long negotiations two arbitration awards were given on December 15, and were declared binding by the Minister of Labour. Under these decisions the three-shift system was to be introduced on 1 January 1928, provision being made for certain transitory measures and certain increases in wages. Whatever may be the differences of opinion of employers and workers on these decisions, it must be recorded that both sides submitted to them, and that the system operated successfully, as it has done in other cases in Germany.

In *Denmark*, the Trade Disputes Act of 21 December 1921 has been replaced by an Act of 28 February 1928. This Act, while re-enacting the provisions of the old Act, amends it on a number of points, the most important amendment relating to the powers of the conciliation commissioner, who is empowered to require work to be resumed, for not more than one week, before he intervenes.

In *Great Britain*, the anxiety caused among trade unionists by the new Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act has not held up endeavours to create an *entente* between capital and labour. The appointment of the joint committee already referred to¹, to examine periodically economic problems and investigate the causes of disputes and the means of preventing them, cannot fail to exert a beneficial influence on the development of conciliation and arbitration institutions in this important industrial country.

As is well known, strikes and lock-outs are prohibited in *Italy*. The compulsory arbitration provisions of the Act of 3 April 1926 and the Regulations of 1 July 1926 on the legal regulation of the relations between capital and labour are in operation.

In *Mexico*, compulsory arbitration for disputes affecting more than one of the federal States was introduced by an Order of 17 September 1927. No information is yet available as to the operation and effect of the system which has been established.

In *New Zealand*, an attempt has been made, principally by the farmers, to obtain a modification of certain features in the present Industrial Arbitration Act, particularly as regards its application to agriculture. A Bill to this effect which had been prepared by the Government was nevertheless withdrawn in view of the strong opposition manifested both by the workers and the employers.

In *Norway*, in consequence of a number of serious disputes in the principal industries, the conciliation and arbitration system has been strengthened by a Trades Disputes Act of 5 May 1927. A supplemental Act passed on the same day, for a provisional period down to 1 August 1929 only, reintroduced compulsory arbitration for collective disputes of public importance. As these two Acts had been adopted in spite of the opposition of the labour party, the trade unions refused to co-operate in setting up the arbitration tribunal provided for in the supplemental Act, and the workers' representative was appointed by the King. In general the principal Act of 5 May 1927 repeats the provisions of the Act of 6 August 1915. A distinction is drawn between disputes as to the interpretation, validity or existence of a collective agreement, and disputes as to the regulation of conditions of work between workers' organisations and employers or employers' organisations; the former are dealt with in the Labour Court, while the latter come under the conciliation and arbitration system. Strikes and lock-outs are illegal which take place before the

period of notice for the collective agreement expires, within four days after notice of the dispute to the official conciliator, or, if the conciliator has in the public interest ordered that work shall not be interrupted, before the conciliation proceedings have terminated. In the event of the proceedings proving unsuccessful, the supplemental Act provides that the King may transfer the dispute to the Arbitration Court and prohibit the strike or lock-out if he considers that it is in the public interest to do so. The sentence of the Court is final. In other words, arbitration is compulsory. Penalties for illegal strikes and lock-outs have been increased.

Administration of labour law.

189. — As soon as collective action begins to be taken by the workers, the question arises as to the place they should have in the administration of the law which provides for settling or averting labour disputes. As a matter of fact, even before the war there was a tendency in many countries to simplify and expedite procedure in labour cases and to give employers and workers larger representation on certain special tribunals, c. f. the probiviral councils and trade tribunals (*Gewerbe- und Kaufmannsgerichte*) in Germany and the former Austro-Hungarian Empire, the probiviral councils in France, Belgium, and Italy, and the special tribunals in a number of countries which have for long been dealing with disputes arising out of social insurance laws. But the rapid development of labour legislation since the war has given a very strong stimulus to the development of a special procedure for dealing with individual labour disputes, the system of special tribunals already in existence being completed in some countries, and a new system being introduced in others. There were a number of innovations of this kind in 1927.

In *Germany*, jurisdiction in labour disputes was dealt with down to 1926 rather fragmentarily by one or two Acts which applied to certain occupational groups. In that year, however, the system was completed and unified by an Act of 23 December, which came into force on 1 July 1927. This Act provides for a scheme of three courts—the Labour Court (*Arbeitsgericht*) as a court of first instance, with, above it, the Provincial Labour Court (*Landesarbeitsgericht*) and, above that, the Federal Labour Court (*Reichsarbeitsgericht*), which forms a special division of the Supreme Court. Special assessors chosen from lists submitted by their occupational associations sit in these three Courts with the ordinary judges and have the same rights. The system is noteworthy for the rapidity and simplicity with which it works. The existence of the Federal Labour Court affords a guarantee

¹ C.f. page 258.

that labour law will be uniformly administered throughout the country.

Among other countries which possess special courts for the settlement of labour disputes are *Austria, Belgium, France and Spain*. In *Italy* a Decree was issued in February 1928, by which all special tribunals hitherto existing for the settlement of individual labour disputes were abolished, and matters within their competence are henceforward to be dealt with by the ordinary magistrates, justices of the peace, and tribunals assisted by two experts chosen from official lists supplied by employers and workers.

In *Poland*, the Council of Ministers in virtue of its paramount powers, has issued a Decree-Act on labour courts. This Decree provides for the creation of special labour courts in the territories which formerly belonged to Austria-Hungary and Russia. It does not apply to the old Prussian districts which already have industrial courts (*Gewerbegerichte*), which deal with labour disputes.

In several countries a single Act deals with jurisdiction in individual disputes and in collective disputes. In *Mexico*, for instance, a Federal Ordinance of 17 September 1927 on the creation of a Federal conciliation and arbitration office also makes provision for special labour courts. The *Norwegian Trade Disputes Act* of 5 May 1927, too, which has already been referred to in another connection, in addition to dealing with conciliation and arbitration procedure, lays down the procedure for legal disputes arising out of collective agreements and even, in certain circumstances, disputes arising out of individual labour contracts. In *Sweden*, again, as has been stated in a previous paragraph, a Bill was submitted to Parliament in February 1928 to set up a court for dealing with legal disputes arising out of collective agreements.

It cannot be supposed that developments will go no further. The interpretation and application of social legislation, which is continually developing and becoming more complex, are raising problems of increasing difficulty. To handle these problems judges specially competent in social legislation are required, and the circumstances in which they arise demand that the proceedings on them should be rapid and inexpensive, for the worker usually has not sufficient means to take his case to the ordinary courts.

It should be added that an international labour court exists, with a limited jurisdiction, it is true—the special Chamber set up, under Article 28 of the Rules of the Permanent Court of International Justice, to deal with labour cases or disputes as to the application of the Labour Sections of the Peace Treaties¹.

¹ C.f. ante p. 113, for the composition of this Chamber.

The Courts not only have to construe and apply the law—this is their normal function. But they often make new law—a function which is exercised to a high degree of perfection in Anglo-Saxon countries. For this reason legal procedure in labour cases is becoming more and more important, and the Office must closely follow its development. The Office has already published a survey of legal decisions on labour law in four countries—France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy; and it hopes to be able to extend this survey in the future. A number of articles on the administration of labour law have also been published in the *International Labour Review*.

Profit-sharing and workers' participation in management.

190. — Questions of profit-sharing, worker-shareholders, and workers' participation in the management of undertakings have been attracting considerable attention in *Great Britain* during the past year. This is not to say that these ideas have yet been carried out on a large scale in that country: an official enquiry shows, for example, that in 1926 the number of workers sharing or entitled to share in profits only amounted to approximately 218,000. But the acute crisis through which British industry is passing has induced a certain number of employers to consider the whole problem of the rationalisation of industry and to recognise the workers' aspirations, as is shown by the action taken by Sir Alfred Mond and referred to in an earlier paragraph.

In the *United States*, very definite opinions have been expressed by men of whom it cannot be said that they lack the spirit of organisation necessary to a manufacturer or that they ignore their responsibilities. Their appeals for the active co-operation of the workers would seem, in fact, to be due to the magnitude of the problems which have been raised by the growth of industry in that country.

Other developments on the present question have, of course, taken place in various countries during the past year. It is not proposed, however, to refer to them individually here, or to describe the work of the various congresses which have dealt with the subject, such as the Congress of the Co-partnership Association of Great Britain which met at Manchester on 14 October 1927. But the two following events should perhaps be mentioned.

In *Denmark*, a works councils Bill was brought in by the Government in 1925. This Bill met with vigorous opposition in Parliament, and was referred to a commit-

tee which was instructed to consider the question of relations between employers and workers. In December 1926, after the change of Government, it was decided to limit the field of the Committee's work to the questions of works councils, profit-sharing, and family allowances, these questions to be examined, not by the plenary committee, but by a sub-committee of seven members. As this decision was keenly opposed, the Minister of the Interior announced that the Committee would be dissolved as from the 1 March 1927. The Minister, however, had an official report published in September 1927 containing the documentary material which had been collected on the general question in Denmark and other countries.

In *Czechoslovakia*, considerable support has been given to the Works Councils Act of 12 August 1921, which came into force on 1 January 1922. The following remarks of Mr. Kotecký, Secretary to the Ministry of Social Welfare, are noteworthy in this connection :—

The object of this institution (i.e. works councils) is now clearly understood by the workers, and the employer's resistance has appreciably diminished since they have realised the useful rôle played by the works councils by way of conciliation labour disputes.

Participation of the workers in national affairs.

191. — National economic councils are passing from their initial stages and taking definite form.

In *Czechoslovakia*, 62 meetings (plenary assemblies and committee meetings) of the Advisory Committee for Economic Questions were held in 1927. Among the questions considered were a Bill on the Postal Cheque and Savings Office, and a Bill for reforming the miners' insurance system. The Committee has been asked to arrange for a conference to draw up a national economic programme based on the results of the International Economic Conference and of the Stockholm Congress of the International Chamber of Commerce.

In *France* the year 1927 was a year of consolidation. The present National Economic Council was set up by a Decree of 16 January 1925. In accordance with the promise made by Mr. Poincaré at the opening of the February 1927 session, the Government brought in a Bill on 17 November confirming the setting up of the Council but making certain changes in its organisation.

In the preamble to the Bill it is stated that the necessity of a better organisation of economic groups in the national life has led to the creation of economic councils in a number of countries since the war. The

origins of the present National Economic Council are referred to, and it is stated that "the experiment has been justified". "During the two years for which the National Economic Council has been in existence, its vitality and utility have been proved". Naturally things were difficult and uncertain at first :—

"At the outset, differences of opinion were evident between industrial and agricultural producers, workers and employers, co-operators, consumers and producers, transport undertakings and merchants, intellectual and manual workers. Gradually, however, the regular meeting around the same table of representatives of these various groups, coupled with their devoted work in common and the collective responsibility of their discussions, created common ties. Work and research carried out in common have brought about a mutual comprehension of interests. Each member, while giving first place in all good faith to his reasons for opposition or reservation, has learned to know and appreciate points of view differing from his own."

This first result is recorded with special satisfaction in the preamble, where it is further said that "this most desirable state of mind is the essential condition of social progress, and had the National Economic Council done no more than to create it, it would have justified its existence".

Besides this, however, the Council has already performed practical work, an arresting picture of which is given in the preamble. The following items in this record should be mentioned :—

(1) An enquiry into the housing problem, which led to the establishment of "a wide programme of immediate action and a general housing plan". A report has been published in which "resources, means of action, administrative and fiscal measures have been provided for, and Parliament can find therein the material for a final solution".

(2) An enquiry into the inadequacy and deficiency of national equipment. The Council "has for a year been drawing up a scheme of improvement, development and organisation, which will probably be finished in 1928, and which should be of the greatest value to the public authorities".

(3) Investigation of measures to be taken to deal with unemployment, which was severe at the time the investigations began at the end of 1926, but which has since diminished. The Government requested the National Economic Council "to draw up a programme of works which could be speedily commenced so as to occupy idle hands on work of direct utility to the prosperity of the nation". In a few weeks, the National Economic Council had carried out this task with success, and had placed the public authorities in a position to deal with the requirements of the situation, should it happen again to become acute.

(4) Opinions furnished at the request of the Ministers concerned on proposals for intensified agricultural production, impro-

vement of waterways, development of sea-ports—opinions which, when Parliament has to consider the matters in question, “will not be the least important bases of its decisions”.

It is because of the undoubted success of the institution that the Government intends to confirm by Act of Parliament the Decree by which it was created. According to the Bill which has been drawn up the functions of the Council are defined as follows:—

Section 6. — Any economic, financial or social question may be referred to the National Economic Council by the Government, which may invite it either to submit findings or to draft Bills or Decrees.

It may be consulted by the Government on any Bills or Regulations drafted by the departments concerned and relating to the foregoing questions.

It may, on its own initiative and with the consent of the Government, include in its agenda any economic problems on which it considers it expedient to submit recommendations to the authorities.

The reports, opinions, findings and recommendations adopted by the National Economic Council are to be immediately communicated by the Secretary-General to the Prime Minister and the Ministers concerned. They will be published in the *Journal officiel* together with the minutes of the discussions of the Council.

The National Economic Council is at present composed of 47 regular members and 94 substitutes. According to the Bill the number of members will be 150, all of whom are to be regular members.

The present system of parties (populace and consumers, labour and capital) is also changed, and a new classification is adopted which will ensure wider representation for agriculture and commerce: (1) production, (2) distribution in the form of exchange and transport, (3) consumption. In distributing seats between categories (1) and (2), their numerical importance according to the 1921 occupational census of the population will be taken as a basis.

Only 22 seats are allotted to the third category, viz. consumers. Referring to this decision, the preamble states that “it should not be forgotten that every inhabitant of the country including the producers is a consumer, and that if the 20 millions of French working people are already represented on the Economic Council as sharing in production and exchange, the remainder of the population should, in equity, only have a small representation. By the allotment of rather more than 20 seats to consumers it would appear that their interests will be sufficiently well represented”.

On these principles the seats have been distributed as follows:

I. Production — 80 delegates.	
A. Real property	10
B. Raw materials, machinery and power	30
C. Labour in production	40
II. Distribution — 48 delegates.	
A. Money and credit	9
B. Means of distribution and transport	12
C. Commerce	9
D. Labour in distribution	18
III. Consumption — 22 delegates.	
A. The general interests of consumers	8
B. Private organisations of consumers	6
C. Savings, mutual aid and insurance	6
D. State finance	2

In *Germany*, proposals were adopted in 1927 by the Federal Economic Council for replacing as far as possible the two-shift system by the three-shift system, for the construction of cheap houses and the financing of this scheme, and for the reduction of customs duties on a number of articles. At the request of the Government, the Economic Council also examined Bills dealing with craft trades, vocational training, the tobacco duty, the motor car tax, etc. The draft Bill for the final organisation of the Council, analysed in last year's Report, passed its second reading in the Council, and a Bill was submitted to the Reichstag by the Government on 12 November 1927.

In *Italy*, the Supreme Council of National Economy instituted by Royal Decree of 6 September—3 December 1923, which was modified as mentioned in the 1926 Report, has just been again remodelled and brought into harmony with the present corporative system. The Council will comprise four sections: (1) industry, (2) agriculture, (3) commerce, (4) welfare and labour. Transport questions will be dealt with in the industrial section and banking questions in the commercial section.

The Council will consist of 48 members appointed by Royal Decree on the proposal of the Minister of National Economy. Twelve of these members will be directly chosen by the Minister from persons with a special knowledge of economics. The remaining 36 will be chosen by the Minister from candidates proposed by the legally recognised trade federations, which will nominate two candidates for each seat. The National Employers' Fascist Federations will have 30 seats distributed as follows: agriculture 8, industry 10, commerce 6, banks 3, maritime and air transport 2, land and inland waterway transport 1. The workers will be represented by five members of the National Confederation of Fascist Trade Unions and by one member of the autonomous Fascist Federation of manual

and non-manual workers in maritime and air navigation.

In Italy there are, besides the Supreme Council of National Economy, provincial economic councils set up by the Act of 18 April 1926. These councils perform the functions formerly carried out by chambers of industry and commerce, provincial agrarian councils, agricultural assemblies, etc.

By the Decree of 20 November 1927 the composition of the first three sections of these provincial councils was finally settled—the agricultural and forestry section, the industrial section and the commercial section. There will be a commercial section and an industrial section only in those provinces where commerce and industry have developed on distinct and independent lines. In provinces where maritime commerce is distinct from the industrial and commercial activity a special maritime section will be created.

In certain provinces there will be a special system with mixed industrial and commercial sections or mixed industrial, commercial and maritime sections. On account of its smallness the Province of Zara will only have a single mixed section for all branches of economic activity.

The Decree makes provision for a labour and welfare section to supervise employment exchanges, to watch over the application of labour laws, and to carry out the welfare clauses and principles contained in the Labour Charter. The constitution of this section is at present being considered. Its chairman will be nominated by the Minister of Corporations, and it is expected that employers and workers will be represented in equal numbers.

There is also a provincial economic office for each council, the staff of which will be appointed by the Minister of National Economy.

In the *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom*, where the institution of an economic council was provided for by Article 4 of the Constitution, the Government has approved an Ordinance which was prepared by the Minister of Finance and under which a temporary economic council will be set up under the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. This council will have to collaborate in the management of State undertakings and possibly other undertakings, to co-ordinate the economic activities of the country, to encourage the development of industry and to prepare reductions in taxation.

The members of the economic council will be appointed for one year by the Minister of Commerce and Industry on the proposal of various organisations of manufacturers, workers, merchants, master-tradesmen, bankers, co-operators and agriculturists. One representative, who will sit on the Council with the same rights as regular members, will be appointed by each of the Ministers of Commerce and Industry, Transport, Finance, Agriculture, Mines, Social Affairs and Agrarian Reform. The president of the council will be the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and decisions will be taken by a majority vote.

This review of the various aspects of the general rights of the workers as at the beginning of 1928 is now concluded. It may have been somewhat lengthy, but it was desired to make it as substantial and objective as possible. Its consideration would appear to show that, by virtue of the new rights being conferred on him and the higher standing he is acquiring, the worker is now in a position not merely to obtain more effective protection of his working conditions but also to rise to a clearer consciousness of the supremely useful and noble part which he should play in his town, in his country, and in human society.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

192. — The review given in the preceding pages of the numerous questions in which the International Labour Organisation is directly interested suggests a number of general considerations as to the position of the Organisation to which it is desired to draw attention in concluding this Report.

In the first place, it is noteworthy that the present Report, unlike some of its predecessors, contains hardly any mention of any dispute, legal case, or controversy on any of the regular activities of the International Labour Office. Such a statement could not be made on the record of some previous years. To begin with, the employers were disturbed over the enquiry into production. A year ago, however, their representatives were as convinced as anyone else of the real connection between economic and labour problems. Then there was the dispute as to the competence of the Office in the matter of agricultural labour. Later the 1927 Report to the Conference had to refer to and comment on the decision of the Permanent Court of International Justice on the question of the night work of master bakers. At present, however, the Court has no question on its list relating to the International Labour Organisation. Then, again, there were certain misgivings or apprehensions as to the way the Office might develop. Some apprehension was felt, for example, for the sovereignty of the States Members, it being feared that the Organisation might tend to set itself up as a super-State. In distant countries, too, certain statesmen were afraid that the Organisation might go too far in carrying out its work on behalf of the workers, and be carried away from its proper path by the claims of organised labour. Or others were afraid the Office might lend itself to dangerous and compromising propaganda. Others felt some anxiety at the pace at which the Conference was working and desired to see it slowed down.

It may now be said that eight years' activity has dissipated many prejudices and allayed many apprehensions. The Organisation appears to have established its right to exist in a world which it seeks to help to re-organise on the basis of principles of justice. It has had no need to abandon any of its preorgatives or any of its functions; its activities are no longer disputed.

Whatever divergences of opinion may exist among its States Members, they all co-operate unreservedly and with equal devotion in its work.

Among the institutions of which the League of Nations is composed the International Labour Organisation has secured its due place as an autonomous organisation, and has succeeded, without difficulty or serious dispute, in arriving at a proper distribution of work between itself and the other institutions. The only wish which the Office might perhaps express is that a more methodical and constructive plan should be worked out to co-ordinate the practice and experience of the past eight years. Co-operation with international institutions not forming part of the League of Nations has also now been established on regular bases, and is producing good results.

Moreover, not only have countries which political considerations caused to withdraw temporarily from the League of Nations none the less remained loyal to the International Labour Office and officially manifested their intention of continuing to co-operate in its work, but countries which have never belonged to the League have found themselves from time to time drawn towards the Office by their own pre-occupations with industrial problems which are common to all countries, and the Office's methods have been such that they have to some extent removed any mistrust which such countries originally felt towards it.

It is, in fact, a real cause for gratification to note how the authority of the Office is growing from year to year and confidence in its work is being continually maintained. Secretaries of employers' organisations are repeatedly applying to the Office for detailed information on conditions of work in competing countries, and employers in these latter countries reply through the intermediary of the Office—trade unions, too, apply for information, and occasionally for advice, to help them over their difficulties, or, when there is no Convention on which legal action can be taken, appeal for the Office's moral support in their relations with Governments, and the Governments accept the Office's prudent and tactful intervention with sympathy and goodwill—the Director, rather as head of the Office than on personal grounds, is asked to preside over joint

advisory committees or to act as umpire in arbitration proceedings between Governments and private companies—surely all these facts are ample evidence of the moral credit which the Office has gradually won in the course of the last few years.

This result is surely due to the unceasing effort which the Office has made, in spite of criticism, to maintain and enlarge the sympathy shown towards it in its early days, and also to a very considerable extent to its scientific work. The Office is fully aware of the many gaps and deficiencies in its work of "international information". It has conducted so many enquiries and researches in all sorts of directions that it could not help but realise the incompleteness and uncertainty of some of its scientific work. Nevertheless, it may be said that the position which the Organisation has now acquired is very largely due to the Office's constant endeavours to be unswervingly objective and impartial.

Great as this moral authority may be, however, it has no value and will have no permanence unless it helps the Office to discharge its essential function, i.e., to build up a body of international labour legislation. In this direction progress is being made, though perhaps not at the same pace as in the earlier days. The number of new ratifications reported to the Conference has been as follows since 1925—50 in 1925, 48 in 1926, 35 in 1927, and 34 this year.

The reasons for this momentary slackening of pace were indicated in last year's Report: the Conference in 1922 and 1923 adopted very few Conventions, and those which were adopted in 1924 and 1925 had not yet had time to pass through the complicated administrative and parliamentary processes which Conventions have to traverse. Progress was still exceedingly slow during the latter part of 1927; but the figure for the previous year from April 1926 to April 1927, (i.e. from one Session of the Conference to another), though itself comparatively low, was nearly reached during the early months of 1928. And the pace now appears to be becoming more rapid again; more new ratifications are being notified, and a good harvest may be expected in 1928. Countries which had remained more or less indifferent for a considerable time, or were apparently retarded by unfavourable circumstances, have begun to ratify. The Parliament of Luxemburg has decided to ratify simultaneously all the Conventions so far adopted; France has doubled the number of its ratifications during the last few months, and Hungary has seriously set to work on the Conventions. There seems no reason to doubt that such examples as these will be followed.

But this is not all. Year by year it becomes more true that even unratified Conventions exercise considerable influence on national legislation. It is significant that at each Session of the Conference Government, employers' and workers' delegates

from 30 or 40 countries should compare their own legislation, institutions and experience. Every chapter of the second Section of this Report bears witness to the fruitfulness of this co-operation. In the field of social insurance, for example, the principle of the employer's liability for industrial accidents and the principle of compulsory insurance against sickness are gradually, as a result of the discussions in the Conference, finding their way into systems of legislation in which they did not previously exist. Although it will no doubt take many years to build up by ratifications a single code or a uniform international system, it is noteworthy that the different States are gradually coming to base their national laws on common principles.

Another result, less visible perhaps but not less certain, of the work of the Conference and the Office is that it provides a rallying point for the various forces for social progress throughout the world, which need to be brought into mutual contact, and so opens up to them further opportunities for making themselves felt. Instances of this aspect of the Office's influence will be found, for example, in the account given in the "social insurance" sub-section of this Report of the creation and development of an international organisation of social insurance institutions or of the international medical association, or in the record of the work of anti-slavery societies or associations for the protection of emigrants.

Set-backs, no doubt, are still possible. Life, and particularly social life, is not made up entirely of successes. In spite of its successful achievements in the field of social insurance, the last Session of the Conference failed to carry the question of freedom of association up to the stage of a Questionnaire and a second discussion. This result has produced for the time being in one or two organisations in certain over-seas countries a quite unwarranted bitterness against the Organisation itself. But not all questions are ripe for immediate solution. International solutions, especially, can only be arrived at after a certain amount of groping and experiment. It was perhaps impossible at the present stage to prepare a Convention which would both protect the comparatively weak trade unions in younger industrial countries against the arbitrary exercise of authority and not prevent the powerful organisations in the older countries from achieving new conquests without legislative assistance. It would be quite wrong, however, to argue that the endeavours which the Conference made to arrive at this result were useless. The discussions brought home to the workers' organisations, in spite of the divergences in their general attitudes towards the problem, a clearer consciousness of the need for unity in the labour movement as their common ultimate aim and a better comprehension of the standing which labour is gradually obtaining in industrial communities.

The result is that through such influences as these, the annual meetings of the Conference, constant co-operation among its different groups and increasing co-ordination of all the progressive forces which are promoting international action, a unity of outlook and an identity of purpose in the matter of social reform are being created which undoubtedly constitute one of the surest benefits of the operations of the International Labour Organisation. It is to be anticipated, moreover, that if it continues to work along these lines, the Organisation will make steady advance towards its goal—to improve the living and working conditions of the workers in accordance with the principles of the Peace Treaty.

The Peace Treaty, however, goes further; it defines the methods by which this object should be attained; it lays down the manner in which the States Members of the Organisation should enter into mutual obligations. Identity of outlook and acceptance of common principles are a necessary preliminary condition; but the work of the Organisation will be incomplete and the guarantees granted to the workers precarious if these common conceptions are not embodied in legal instruments.

Hence the reason why the Organisation must at all costs persist in the work of ratification, and why the eight hour day question is still as important as ever. It is an established and recognised fact that this institution, to which the workers are so strongly attached, is at present almost uniformly adopted in most of the great industrial countries. There is no longer any dispute as to the principle. This point has been repeatedly emphasised by the employers. It is none the less true, however, that the purposes of the Peace Treaty have not yet been carried out and will not have been carried out until an international Convention has been universally ratified and put into operation. The States Members recognise this, and are endeavouring to surmount their difficulties. They are legally at liberty to adhere or not to adhere to such a Convention. But, in point of fact, neither Germany in 1924 nor Great Britain at the present time have for a moment thought of availing themselves of this sovereign right. At the present stage of the development of international life all countries recognise the necessity of this social reform and feel themselves morally bound to enter into mutual undertakings to guarantee its establishment. Hence the curious history of the last few years; the enquiries of 1922 to ascertain the nature of the legal, constitutional or economic difficulties in the way of ratification by the different States; the successive committees set up by the Governing Body, which, in view of the refusal of the Governing Body to undertake the interpretation of the Convention, endeavoured to exercise a sort of moral pressure on the Governments so as to induce them to take

steps to remove whatever difficulties existed; the interpretative conferences in Berne and London; and, lastly, the recent proposal for revision by the British Government.

Superficial or unsympathetic observers have from time to time proclaimed the impotence or the failure of the International Labour Office, as though they really thought it possible that the new international methods could be established by a wave of the wand in the course of a few months. To create a new international life will take time. But the fact that Governments feel themselves bound to persist in the quest for a procedure which will be at once acceptable to their notions of sovereignty and capable of giving the securities required by the Treaty is a proof that the battle is already won and that the States cannot abstain from carrying out the engagements entered into in 1919. The very fact that there have been and are difficulties is a reason for confidence in the future.

An improvement in the general financial and economic situation will probably help to hasten the attainment of the desired object. As has been noted in the preceding pages, the year 1927 made a further contribution to this improvement. The old argument of economic difficulties, which was advanced in opposition to the Conventions, was not only contrary to the spirit of the Peace Treaty; it was also of very doubtful value and is gradually losing its force.

But the easing of the economic situation will not be sufficient in itself to ensure success. Whatever assistance it may receive from circumstances, no human undertaking can be accomplished except through an effort of the will and intelligence of man. The hesitation or even refusal to face the real problems which have been apparent on certain occasions, e.g., at the last Session of the Conference, have shown how essential it is that this effort should be made.

As a matter of fact, if the Organisation is to carry on and complete its work, it must have help of various kinds. First of all, it must have the resources, both in money and men, which it needs. For a number of years the idea was to keep the Organisation within strict limits; but it would now seem that the real and growing needs of the Organisation are generally recognised and that some further contribution to its resources in the above sense may not unreasonably be expected.

The next essential is that the little band of workers who believe in social justice, which does not mean only the officials of the Office, but includes all those who believe in the principles for which it stands, should maintain their faith in its future and their determination to use their best endeavours on its behalf. But perhaps the greatest essential is that the workers themselves as a whole should more and more feel the real value of the work which has been undertaken. Problems of workers' protection pure and simple are being found to be more

and more closely bound up with political and moral problems, which the International Labour Organisation cannot overlook—technical problems and problems of labour psychology. Indeed, while it calls for the workers' co-operation to help it to bring its work to success and establish the new international rules in their full force, the Office cannot avoid being struck with the dilemma in which the workers are placed by the development of modern industry and democracy. On the one hand, with the increased spare time he now enjoys the worker feels himself called upon, and more and more desires, to take a greater part in the life of his own community. He feels the need for developing his physical, intellectual and moral faculties. Much has been done in a small but persevering and successful way by individuals and groups in various countries to meet this need. There is a general aspiration for a better, more worthy and more humane life. But the new

conditions, the more intensified methods of production and some of the implications of Taylorism threaten to some extent to repress and deform the intelligence of the workers. These vast problems may appear to go beyond the Office's normal work. In fact, however, they dominate it. The first steps taken for the protection of the workers, the laws for the protection of women and children of a hundred years ago, may have been the outcome of a momentary excitement of public sentiment. But the work of international labour legislation, with its political obligations between country and country and its important consequences for international peace, can only be carried out by enlightened and organised effort.

Geneva, 31 March 1928.

ALBERT THOMAS.

SECOND PART.

Summary of Annual Reports under
Article 408.

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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 seventeen of the 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 Eleventh Session of the Conference the summary of the annual reports in respect of the year

ending 31 December 1927 is herewith formally laid before the Conference.

Appended to the summary will be found 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, and 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 of 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 as an experiment and for a period of two years a Committee of Experts composed of the following members :

Professor Henry William Carless DAVIS, C.B.E., Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford.

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, Councillor of State ; Vice-Chairman 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.

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, Rector of the University of Geneva ; Member of the Permanent Mandates Commission of 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, Brussels.

Professor Ignacy DE KOSZEMBAR-LYSKOWSKI, Professor of Roman Law and late Rector of the University of Warsaw.

In convening the first meeting of this Committee of Experts to examine the annual reports for the year 1926 the Office endeavoured above all things to make it quite clear that the functions of the Committee were entirely advisory and technical in character. During the discussion at the Eighth Session of the Conference both the supporters and the opponents of the creation of the Committee were equally concerned to emphasize the fact that it was in no sense a constitutional innovation, that no new mechanism for the supervision of the application of Conventions was being created. The Committee was not called upon to assume or exercise, either directly or indirectly, any of the obligations imposed or the powers conferred by Articles 408 to 420 of the Treaty of Peace.

The only object of the Conference in deciding on the appointment of the Committee was to secure to the Governing Body and to the Director the objective technical assistance of impartial and independent experts of undoubted competence.

The precise functions of the Committee of Experts, as defined in the report of the Committee on Article 408 of the Eighth Session of the Conference, were summarised for the guidance of the Committee of Experts in the following terms :

(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.

The first meeting of the Committee of Experts was held in May 1927 in order, as stated above, to examine the annual reports for the year 1926. It appointed as Chairman Mr. Tschoffen, and as Reporter Mr. Jules Gautier. As a result of its labours, the Committee submitted a report to the Governing Body at its Thirty-sixth Session. This report the Governing Body decided to communicate to the Tenth Session of the Conference, and the Conference, in accordance with the first recommendation of the Resolution of the Eighth Session, appointed a Committee of its members to consider both the summary of the annual reports made by the Director (Second Part of the Director's Report) and the report of the experts. The report of this Committee was discussed by the Conference on 10 June 1927 ¹.

¹ Cf. *Final Record of the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference*, Vol. I, pp. 252-260 (discussion), Vol. I, pp. 555-573 (report of Conference Committee), Vol. II, pp. 259-399 (summary of annual reports), Vol. II, pp. 400-419 (report of Committee of Experts).

The report of the Committee of Experts had contained a number of suggestions on special points with regard to which it considered that information supplementary to that given in the annual reports might in some instances be requested, and certain observations on methods of ensuring the rapid application of Conventions and on the forms for the annual reports.

As regards the suggestions relating to supplementary information it will be remembered that the Delegates of a number of States spontaneously supplied such information during the course of the Tenth Session of the Conference, and their statements were appended to the report of the Conference Committee. In other cases, information on points mentioned by the Experts has been given in the annual reports for 1927.

The other observations of the Committee of Experts were referred by the Conference to the Governing Body, which, at its Thirty-seventh Session in October 1927, dealt with the question of the revision of the forms for annual reports, and adopted revised forms for the annual reports on the Conventions voted by the Conference at its First, Second and Third Sessions. At the same time the Governing Body adopted a form of report, drafted on similar lines, for the Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents, in respect of which reports have become due. The main object of the revision has been to invite the Governments to indicate in their annual reports the provisions of their national laws or regulations which correspond to the several Articles of each Convention. It is the forms thus revised which were communicated to the Governments on 21 November 1927 to serve as a basis for the reports for the year 1927.

Another suggestion made by the Committee of Experts and approved by the Conference concerned the date by which the Governments should be invited to furnish their annual reports. Last year, owing to the comparatively late date fixed for the reception of the reports, the Committee could not be convened until May, a few weeks only before the date fixed for the opening of the Session of the Conference. The short time thus available was obviously insufficient to enable the Governments to compile the supplementary information which they might deem desirable and to communicate it in time for submission to the Conference. The Office therefore requested the Governments to forward their reports so as to reach the Office, if possible, not later than 15 January 1928.

The second meeting of the Committee of Experts was held from 5-8 March 1928.

The Committee again appointed as its Chairman Mr. Tschoffen, and as its Reporter Mr. Jules Gautier. Of the 209 annual reports due in respect of the year 1927, 175 had been received by the Office before the Committee met and after examining these the Committee drafted a report which was submitted to the Governing Body at its Thirty-ninth Session, held from 25-28 April 1928. In consequence of the earlier date of the meeting of the Committee of Experts this year, the Office was able to communicate the points raised by the Committee in its report to the Governments concerned in time for their replies to be received before the April meeting of the Governing Body. It was, therefore, possible to submit to the Governing Body the various communications forwarding supplementary information received from the Governments, as well as the report of the Committee; and the Governing Body agreed that both the report of the Committee and the communications from the Governments concerned should be laid before the Conference. As stated above, these documents will be found in the Appendix to this Second Part of the Director's Report. At the same time it should be noted that the supplementary information received has been utilised in the summary of the annual reports which forms the substance of this Part.

The annual reports which had not been received by the Office at the time the Committee of Experts met, and which were consequently not examined by the Committee, were those of Australia, Canada, Chile, Greece and Rumania. Since the meeting of the Committee, the reports of Australia, Greece and Rumania have reached the Office and have been included in the summary.

Finally, it should be indicated, as regards the summary of the annual reports here laid before the Conference, that it covers all the Conventions adopted by the Conference at its First, Second and Third Sessions, and the first of the Conventions of the Seventh Session to come into force, and that the period dealt with is the year ending 31 December 1927. The system followed in preparing the summary differs somewhat from that of previous years in that the texts of the new forms of report have been included and the information grouped under each heading of the forms. 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.¹ 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

¹ The following abbreviations are used in these lists :

B. B. = *Bulletin of the International Labour Office* (Basle).

L. S. = *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office.

O. B. = *Official Bulletin* of the International Labour Office.

measures which may have been taken with a view to application. Under subsequent headings are collected the information given by the reports regarding application of 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. Finally, there is an additional question relating to general observations.

FIRST SESSION (WASHINGTON, 1919).

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Belgium	6 9.1926	23. 1.1928
Bulgaria	14. 2.1922	16. 2.1928
Chile	15. 9.1925	
Czechoslovakia . . .	24. 8.1921	7. 2.1928
Greece	19.11.1920	10. 3.1928
India	14. 7.1921	7. 3.1928
Rumania	13. 6.1921	12. 3.1928

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, "as regards the Hours Convention, it has not yet been possible to apply it to all branches of industry, as its application depends, in the view of the present Government as in that of the two preceding Governments, upon the improvement of the general economic situation of the country. The steady efforts made by the present Government to promote this improvement are well known, and it is hoped that their success will result in economic conditions which are considered indispensable if Greek industry generally is to be able to adopt the eight-hour day, which the Government considers to be the normal working day of wage-earners.

Meanwhile... the attitude of the great majority of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation towards the Convention continues to make it very difficult to carry on the application of the eight-hour day in *Greece* ; and it is to be noted that it is due to the fact that *Greece*, by ratifying the Convention, has undertaken an international obligation, that the application of the eight-hour day has been achieved. It is, therefore, thanks to the respect of this obligation that the various Hellenic Governments have been able to withstand the very weighty representations made by the employers, and which were caused by the attitude of the other States."

The Government of *Rumania*, in a letter of 7 March 1928 communicating to the Office its reports upon several Conventions, makes the following observations relating *inter alia* to the Hours Convention : " We have the honour to inform you that, after the new Government was formed last May, committees were appointed for the purpose of discussing and preparing a draft Labour Code. A special Committee on labour legislation dealt with the question of devising the most suitable measures for giving effect to the provisions of ratified Conventions. The intention of the Government was to deal with the regulation of conditions of labour at one and the same time and in a single Act in order to secure unity of principles and of methods of application throughout the whole field of labour legislation. The committees mentioned above have now almost completed their work. Nevertheless, for the purpose of giving effect at once to the ratified Conventions, and taking into account the fact that the introduction of the whole draft Labour Code would be delayed for some time by the examination of its provisions by the Council of Ministers and the Legislative Council, the Government has decided to introduce into Parliament immediately a Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work, provisions which will ultimately be embodied in the Labour

Code." The Office has subsequently been informed by telegram that this Bill was passed by the Rumanian Senate on 10 March 1928, by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March, and that the Act was promulgated on 9 April 1928.

With regard to the existing situation of the regulation of hours of work in Rumania the report on the Hours Convention states: "Hours of work are not uniformly and completely regulated for all the industrial undertakings of the country. As far as legal regulation is concerned, the situation is as follows: In the Old Kingdom, there are in force certain provisions of the Act of 1912, respecting the organisation of handicrafts, minor credit institutions, and workmen's insurance, which apply to the hours of work of children of from 11 to 18 years of age and of women. Under § 36 of this Act no person between the ages of 11 and 15 years can be obliged to work more than eight hours a day in factories, industrial undertakings and workshops. In the Bukovina, § 96 of the Austrian Industrial Code of 1907 is in force. In Bessarabia, the provisions contained in the Russian Industrial Code have fallen into disuse. In Transylvania, the Banat and other provinces of the Ardeal, the provisions of Decree No. XII of 1919, issued by the former Directorial Council of these provinces, are in force." This latter Decree, the text of which is given in the report, is of wide application. It excludes agriculture and forestry, and such matters as preparatory and complementary work, cases of *force majeure*, seasonal industries, etc., are dealt with by way of exclusion. The normal hours of work are eight in the day and forty-eight in the week, but by agreement, and subject to the forty-eight hour week, daily working hours may be extended to ten. Overtime may be authorised in cases of exceptional pressure of work, when the public interest demands it, or by agreements between workers and employers to the extent of two hours a day or twelve hours a week, and for varying specified periods; it must be paid for at one and one quarter times the regular rate. This Decree is, however, repealed by the new Act relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work.

The report adds that "in practice, the eight-hour day is applied on a wide scale in industry and particularly in large industrial undertakings. An enquiry carried out in 1926 in the principal industrial undertakings in the country showed that of 587 undertakings, employing 143,695 workers, included in the enquiry, 281 (48 per cent.) employing 89,859 workers (63 per cent.) had adopted the eight-hour day and the forty-eight hour week, 33 undertakings (6 per cent.) employing 8,667 workers (6 per cent.) were working less than forty-eight hours a week, and 273 undertakings employing 45,169 workers

(31 per cent.) were working more than eight hours a day. Further, almost all the collective agreements concluded during the years 1924 to 1927, which regulated working hours, fixed the limits at eight hours in the day or forty-eight in the week. For example, of 79 agreements regulating hours of work, concluded in 1924, 69 agreements (86 per cent.) provided for the eight-hour day or forty-eight hour week; in 1925, 81 agreements covering 40,647 workers established a maximum forty-eight hour week, and only 12 agreements covering 6,886 workers provided for a working week exceeding forty-eight hours; in 1926, 74 agreements covering 25,481 workers contained the forty-eight hour week clause, and only 12 agreements covering 3,205 workers permitted longer hours; finally, in 1927, of 55 agreements dealing with working hours and covering 22,608 workers, 40 agreements (73 per cent.) covering 20,251 workers (90 per cent.) contained the clause fixing the maximum working week at forty-eight hours."

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 14 June 1921 to provide for an eight-hour day and a forty-eight hour week (L. S. 1921, Bel. 1).

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.

Health and Safety of Workers' Act, 1917 (B. B. 1918, Vol. XIII, p. 26).

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.

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).

Act No. 4029 of 24 January/6 February 1912 concerning the work of women and minors (B. B. Vol. VII, 1912, p. 285).

Decree of 24 July/6 August 1912 constituting the Labour Inspection Department (B. B. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 302).

Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, issued in application of Act No. 4029 (B. B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 219).

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. 1923, Ind. 3).

Orders issued in 1921 by the Railway Department.

Rumania.

See introductory note.

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 Decree No. 24 of 24 June 1919 concerning the eight and six hour day applies to undertakings in industry, handicrafts and commerce. These undertakings are not limitatively defined, except as regards those undertakings classified as dangerous or unhealthy to which the six-hour day applies. According to § 2 (b) of the Order in application of Decree No. 24 (Order No. 2834 of 2 August 1919), the dangerous and unhealthy undertakings concerned are those enumerated in §§ 14 and 15 of the Health and Safety of Workers' Act of 1917. As regards the line of division which separates industry from commerce and agriculture, the report states that only agriculture is excluded from the operation of Decree No. 24, and that, in view of the difficulties inherent in drawing the line of demarcation between industry, commerce and agriculture and of the fact that it is unnecessary, no such line has been defined.

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 commerce and 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. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 2.

The working hours of persons employed 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, 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 paragraph shall the daily limit of eight hours be exceeded by more than one hour.

(c) Where persons are employed in shifts it shall be permissible to employ persons in excess of eight hours in any one day and forty-eight hours in any one week, if the average number of hours over a period of three weeks or less does not exceed eight per day and forty-eight per week.

Belgium. — § 2, sub-section 1, of the Act of 14 June 1921 provides 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. S. 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 organised 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 organised in shifts, the hours of work are forty-eight 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 48 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 1923 repro-

duce the provision of the Convention. The provisions of paragraphs (b) and (c) have no application to India.

Rumania. — See introductory note.

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.

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 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. — See introductory note.

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 days which 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. — See introductory note.

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 arrangements as are contained in Article 5 of the Convention.

Czechoslovakia. — § 1 (5) of the Act 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. — The report states that there are no agreements within the meaning of this Article.

India. — This Article does not apply.

Rumania. — See introductory note.

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 inspectors, police) in cases of exceptional pressure of work. The maximum number of hours of overtime permissible is defined in each case and is usually two hours in the day and twelve in the week for a maximum total period in the year of one or two months. It is further provided that the payment for overtime must be at the rate of one and one-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. — See introductory note.

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 inspecting authority or, in default 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.

Rumania. — See introductory note.

ARTICLE 10 (*British India only*).

In British India the principle of a sixty-hour week shall be adopted for all 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. 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 limiting 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 twenty persons are simultaneously employed and steam, water or other mechanical power or electrical power is used in aid of any manufacturing process”¹ or “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 a factory”, 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 where 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 fifty-four hours in any one week (§ 23). (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 on railways 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 proposals which are now being examined. The final decision of the Government of India will be communicated to the International Labour Office in due course.

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, 1923, 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) Lime 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, alcohol, 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 flaxseed 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, lithographing, and zinc-engraving shops ;
- (8) Clothing industries : Clothing shops, under, wear and trimmings, workshops for pressing-workshops for bed coverings, artificial flowers, feathers, and trimmings, hat and umbrella factories ;

¹ The expression “manufacturing process” is defined in § 2 (4) as “any process for or incidental to, (a) making, altering, repairing, ornamenting, finishing, or otherwise adapting for use, transport or sale, any article, or part of an article, or (b) refining oil or pumping or filtering water, or (c) supplying, generating or transforming pneumatic, hydraulic or electrical energy, and includes the baling of any material for transport.”

(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:

tanneries,
printing works,
manufacture of confectionery and chocolate,
manufacture of leather goods and trunks,
paper and printing industries (manufacture of envelopes, record books, boxes, bags, and bookbinding, lithographing 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 stated in the report for 1926 that the application of the eight-hour day had also been approved by the Superior Labour Council in the case of the following undertakings: corn mills where rollers are used, dye works, generation and transmission of electricity, glassworks (blowers), gas works (firemen), carbon-bisulphide works. (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. — See introductory note.

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. — See introductory note.

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 on 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 fires that cannot be put out and relit 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 recasting 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 calcars.

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 disulphide, chloride of lime, chemically pure acids.

Manufacture of artificial silk. — Collodion process: work in connection with the furnaces for the concentration of acids used for the recovery of alcohol and ether, work in the distillery and the spinning-mill; viscous and acetate of cellulose processes: work in connection with the chemical preparation of the pulp and in the spinning-mill.

Manufacture of jam 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 carbonisation of the wood and 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 accessory 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 Railway Department was notified by the trade union organisation representing the majority of the workers; as regards the travelling signalling squads, which only consist of a small 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 § 9 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 1927 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, transport, coal mining, metallurgy, underground quarries. The total number of authorisations was 699, and the 32,174 workers affected worked 2,574,267 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; hiring of horse and motor vehicles; manufacture and repairing of automobiles and cycles, and upholsterers; hand manufacture of firearms; building, public works, quarries and brick-making; clothing and subsidiary industries; food industries; 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; temporary 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; loading 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 accessory to an industrial undertaking); plate-glass making; manufacture of artificial slates; manufacture of varnish (boiling gums 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 collodion process (denitrifying, bleaching and drying); glazing of powders; manufacture of photographic requisites (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, electrotpe). 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. — As regards paragraph (a) the Government states that the list provided for in this paragraph is not given because the Decree No. 24 of 1919 does not permit the exception allowed by Article 4. The application of paragraphs (b) and (c) do not arise as the exceptions permitted by Articles 5 and 6 are not provided for in Bulgarian legislation.

Czechoslovakia. — 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 alteration 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 § II 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, carborundum and emery wheels.
- (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, § I 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 1927¹ : Permits were granted to 4,046 undertakings (0.66 per cent. of the total number of undertakings covered by accident insurance, or 5.2 per cent. after deduction of agricultural undertakings) ; the total number of workers employed in these 4,046 undertakings was 805,251 (20.2 per cent. of the total number of wage-earners or 62.57 per cent. of the wage-earners covered by accident-insurance) ; the number of workers who worked overtime was 269,474 (6.8 per cent. of the total number of wage-earners or 20.94 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 1,878,904 or 313,150.7 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

¹ The statistics for November and December were not available when the report was rendered ; they will be communicated later.

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 Bangalore, 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 Province, Ajmer-Merwara, and Delhi, 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. — See introductory note.

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 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* 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 introductory note.

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. — 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 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.

Czechoslovakia. — The Ministry for Social Welfare states that it is not yet in a position to communicate to the International Labour Office 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. This information will be available when the report of the Czechoslovak factory inspection services for the year 1927 is published (the report for 1926 was issued in November 1927).

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. From this it is seen that the factory population in India rose from 1,494,958 in 1925, to 1,518,391 in 1926. The total number of women employed in factories throughout India increased by about 2,000 to 249,669 which represents a little over 16 per cent. of the total factory population. The number of children employed in factories fell from 68,725 in 1925 to 60,094. During the year 1926 the daily average number of persons working in and about the mines regulated by the Indian Mines Act was 260,113 as compared with 253,857 in the previous year. This represents an increase of 6,256 persons or 2.46 per cent.

Convention 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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
South Africa	20. 2.1924	24. 1.1928
Austria	12. 6.1924	19. 1.1928
Bulgaria	14. 2.1922	16. 2.1928
Denmark	13.10.1921	27. 2.1928
Estonia	20.12.1922	10. 1.1928
Finland	19.10.1921	16. 1.1928
France	25. 8.1925	28. 1.1928
Germany	6. 6.1925	13. 2.1928
Great Britain . . .	14. 7.1921	3. 2.1928
Greece	19.11.1920	10. 3.1928
India	14. 7.1921	7. 3.1928
Irish Free State . .	4. 9.1925	25. 1.1928
Italy	10. 4.1923	20. 2.1928
Japan	23.11.1922	27. 1.1928
Norway	23.11.1921	9. 1.1928
Poland	21. 6.1924	5. 3.1928
Rumania	13. 6.1921	12. 3.1928
Spain	4. 7.1923	8. 3.1928
Sweden	27. 9.1921	30. 1.1928
Switzerland	9.10.1922	16. 1.1928

The *Greek* Government states that a new Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, which is now before the Chamber of Deputies, will make the application of this Convention more satisfactory.

The *Italian* Government states that, as regards the main obligation laid down in the Convention, the establishment of a national system of employment exchanges, it intends to adopt very shortly a measure which will re-organise the employment exchange system in Italy on a definite and uniform basis, and which will not fail to carry out either the obligations arising from the ratification of the Convention, the principles laid down in the Labour Charter, or the instructions of the Fascist Grand Council. With regard to the period to which the present report refers, it is stated that the fundamental provisions on the matter were promulgated in Italy before the adoption of the

Convention, and are contained in the Decree of 17 November 1918, No. 1911, relating to the finding of employment for workers, and in the Legislative Decree of 19 October 1919, No. 2214, re-organising the employment exchange system and introducing compulsory unemployment insurance. The provisions relating to compulsory unemployment insurance were amended by the Royal Decree of 30 December 1923, No. 3158, and the regulations made thereunder, which completely re-organised the unemployment insurance system. In accordance with the constant practice of the competent department, the Decrees of 1918 and 1919, as far as they relate to the finding of employment and to the application of the present Convention, have remained in force, since the Decree of 1923 which amended them dealt only with the organisation of compulsory unemployment insurance. This is proved by the registers of the various employment exchanges which have been kept since 1923 by the department concerned in accordance with the provisions of the two Decrees. It is, however, evident that the application of these Decrees had to be adapted to the new institutions for the benefit of workers created by Fascism, the new and healthy impulse given by Fascism to the trade union movement, and the salutary policy constantly pursued by Fascism with a view to reducing unnecessary expenditure in all branches of the public service. Thus almost all the employment exchanges set up and subsidised by the municipalities and provinces ceased working at about the same period, more particularly because, unemployment being practically non-existent, their utility no longer corresponded to the expenses of their upkeep, and because the new trade unions, even before they were legally recognised, had assumed public utility functions in accordance with Fascist ideas and doctrines. Moreover, it had become possible to entrust the general co-ordination of the employment exchanges maintained by the unions to the *Patronato Nazionale*, which was given legal personality by the Decree of 26 June 1925 and which acts as an autonomous institution of the Confederation of trade unions, under the powers to deal with the finding of employment conferred upon the Confederation by § 6 of the Royal Decree of 26 September 1927, No. 1718, recognising this organisation. Therefore, during the period to which the present report refers, it is the *Patronato Nazionale* which has directed and co-ordinated the placing of workers in Italy. When, however, the measure for the re-organisation of the employment exchange system has come into force in the near future, the *Patronato* will cease to deal with this matter and will devote itself exclusively to the application of the social insurance provisions of the laws for the protection of workers in all branches of production.

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.

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 Xth 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.

Employment Exchanges Act of 1 July 1927 (L. S. 1927, Den. 3).

Estonia.

Employment Exchanges Act of 1 August 1917.

Finland.

Public Employment Exchanges Act of 27 March 1926. (L. S. 1926, Fin. 1).

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, Fin. 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 14 March 1904 concerning the finding of employment for employees and workers of both sexes and in all occupations: Book I, Part IV of the Labour Code (French text in B. B. 1904, Vol. III, p. 46).

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.

Germany.

Act of 16 July 1927 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1927, Ger. 5) and Orders in application of the Act, especially the Order of 28 September 1927 concerning help for the unemployed in times of crisis.

Great Britain.

Labour Exchanges Act, 1909 (B. B. Vol. V, 1910, p. 21).

Unemployment Insurance Acts, 1920-1926 (L.S. 1920, G.B. 3; 1921, G.B. 2; 1922, G.B. 1; 1923, G.B. 1; 1924, G.B. 8; 1925, G.B. 6; 1926, G.B. 3; see also 1926, G.B. 7).

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.

The Labour Exchanges Act, 1909 and the Unemployment Insurance Acts 1920-26 (L. S. 1920, G. B. 3; 1924, I. F. S. 1; 1926, I. F. S. 3).

Italy.

Decree of 17 November 1918 relating to the finding of employment for workers.

Legislative Decree of 19 October 1919 re-organising the employment exchange system and introducing compulsory unemployment insurance (L. S. 1920, It. 2).

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).

Decree of 26 June 1925 giving legal personality to the *Patronato Nazionale*.

Royal Decree of 26 September 1927 recognising the Confederation of trade unions.

Royal Decree of 6 November 1926 promulgating the codified text of the laws relating to public safety.

Japan.

Employment Exchanges Act of 8 April 1921 (L. S. 1921, Jap. 1-4).

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. 1925, Jap. 1).

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, Jap. 1).

Norway.

Employment Exchanges Act of 12 June 1896.

Public Employment Exchanges Act of 12 June 1906 (B. B. Vol. I, 1906, p. 305).

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 29 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 1921 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 Posnanian, Pomeranian and Upper Silesian.

Rumania.

Employment Exchanges Act of 22 September 1921 (L. S. 1921, Rum. 2.)

Spain.

Act of 13 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 Organisation.

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 Decree of 16 May 1918.

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.

Federal Decree of 29 October 1909 respecting the promotion of employment bureaux by the Federal Government (B.B. Vol. V, 1910, p. 68).

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. 5).

Federal Act of 17 October 1924 respecting the payment of subsidies for unemployment insurance (L.S. 1924, Switz. 3).

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 I.

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 and for the issue, by the Labour Department of the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour, of a monthly bulletin concerning vacancies and applications for work. The report states, however, that the Ministry has not yet communicated statistical information regarding unemployment to the International Labour Office, as the service concerned is now being organised.

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 Federal Employment and Unemployment Insurance Institute communicates every three months to the International Labour Office, on behalf of the Minister of Labour of the Reich, reports containing the required information. 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 when the new Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, now before the Chamber of Deputies, has come into operation.

India. — At times of famine or scarcity the Government regularly communicated statements indicating the number of persons for whom employment had been found under the famine relief schemes. These reports have been discontinued in the absence of famine or scarcity in the technical sense.

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.

Spain. — The report states 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 to the Office the *Informations*

de statistique sociale, which is published monthly by the Federal Labour Office and which contains 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 *Informations de 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 co-ordinate their operations with those of the public agencies on a national scale.

(c) Please state the views of your Government on the possibility 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 specific 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 fee-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 Government considers that it would be desirable to co-ordinate the working of the various national systems for finding employment, but the organisation of the employment exchanges does not yet appear sufficiently developed—even in countries which have for many years been active in this respect—for the establishment of a common system to be considered. Collaboration between the various existing employment exchange systems, especially between countries which

have a common frontier, seems desirable, but is difficult to realise in practice. Owing more particularly to the obstacles placed by many States in the way of those who wish to cross their frontiers, and considering that the statistical and other data available concerning the labour market are still very incomplete, it can scarcely be expected that such co-ordination could be successfully arranged. The first condition necessary for successful co-ordination would be to allow workers complete freedom in moving from one country to another.

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. In localities where there are no employment exchanges, it is provided in § 8 that employment exchange work shall be carried on by local employment and unemployment offices, of which the report states that 33 are to be set up throughout country. 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. Regulations are to be issued with regard to their supervision.

(c) The report does not refer to the question of international co-ordination.

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.

(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 is 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 § 85 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 appren-

tices." 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 *bonâ 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 existed in all except five Departments before the passing of the Act of 2 February 1925. 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 except in two cases); 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 a Bill 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, was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies on 12 July 1927. This Bill provides that "in each Department, every fee-charging or free employment agency shall be required to communicate weekly, under conditions to be determined by the Prefect, 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; the workers' representatives are elected by the workers' group of the Provisional Economic Council. The employers' and workers' representatives among the Directors of the Institute are appointed by the Minister of Labour from special nomination lists drawn up by the groups concerned in the Governing Body.

(b) The finding of employment privately is carried on by employment agencies which do not work for profit and are outside the Institute; the finding of employment privately is also done by professional agents, whose activities are permitted up till 31 December 1930. These two forms of finding employment, under § 49 (1) and § 55 (3) of the Act respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, are placed under

the control of the Institute, which also supervises their collaboration with the employment exchanges and the State employment offices.

(c) The report states that a clearer definition of the word "co-ordination" would be desirable. If the International Labour Office desires to arrange the co-ordination of the employment exchange systems in the various countries, the German Government is prepared to take part so far as it is possible.

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 (1920-1926) 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. The number of associations with which arrangements had been made was, at the time of the first annual report, 235 with a membership of 3,779,000. The figures for the succeeding years were: 30 June 1922, 142 associations, 1,655,000 members; 30 June 1923, 141 associations, 1,021,748 members; 31 December 1923, 142 associations, 1,007,140 members; 31 December 1924, 145 associations, 964,578 members; 31 December 1925, 143 associations, 1,103,000 members; 31 December 1926, 154 associations, 1,150,400 members; 31 December 1927, 145 associations with an approximate total membership of 1,042,540. Up to 31 December 1926, 135 local education authorities had approved schemes under § 6 of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1923, which permits such authorities to undertake duties in connection with the administration of unemployment benefit claimed by persons under eighteen years of age under schemes approved by the Board of Education and the Ministry of Labour jointly.

(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, on account of the differences in language and social and domestic conditions, 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 a new Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and unemployment insurance is now before the Chamber of Deputies, and that the employment exchanges set up under this Decree 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 provides for the co-ordination on a national scale of the operations of the exchanges set up under it and of 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 Provincial 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 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 Department of Industry 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 that 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) During the period under review the placing of unemployed workers has been directed by the *Patronato Nazionale*. This body, which was given legal personality in 1925, acts as an autonomous institution of the Confederation of trade unions, with the agreement of the employers' organisations. During 1927, in addition to its other activities for the benefit of the workers in connection with labour and social welfare legislation, the *Patronato* has dealt satisfactorily with the

finding of employment for workers under the control of the Ministries of National Economy and of Corporations. The placing of unemployed was effected in each province through special offices, which were co-ordinated with communal offices, and which were assisted in their detailed work by the regional authorities of the Confederation of trade unions; the provincial offices were divided into trade sections, corresponding to the kinds of workers in the province. Each office has been supervised by committees composed of an equal number of employers' and workers' representatives nominated by the industrial organisations concerned, the chairman being ordinarily the director of the *Istituto provinciale del Patronato*. The offices have also acted as offices for the distribution of unemployment benefit as provided by law, and for the reception of the signatures of the workers in receipt of benefit.

(b) Private employment agencies had been prohibited in Italy under the explicit prohibition contained in § 11 of the Legislative Decree No. 2214 of 19 October 1919. However, by the promulgation of the codified text of the laws relating to the public safety in the Royal Decree No. 1848 of 6 November 1926, the possibility of carrying on private employment agencies has again been permitted, provided that such agencies have received due authorisation in the form of a special licence granted by the public safety authorities. Under the same legislation, an obligation is imposed on such agencies to keep a daily register of their operations and to keep permanently posted up in a conspicuous place the list of fees which may be charged. Nevertheless, private employment agencies have no practical importance in Italy, and it has not therefore been considered necessary to take steps to co-ordinate their operations with those of the public offices.

(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 210 on 1 December 1927, of which 38 were private. From January to October 1927 these exchanges received 2,975,970

applications for work and 2,548,007 offers of work; 2,365,800 workers were placed, and 2,181,106 applications were satisfied. 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 opinions 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 directors 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 3,457

on 31 October 1927. Their operations included the receipt of 738,923 applications for work and 892,244 offers of work; 727,504 workers were placed and 463,222 applications were satisfied.

(c) The Japanese Government is of opinion that there is considerable difficulty in realising the co-ordination of the operations of the various national 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 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 1928, 38 offices in the principal towns, 18 branch offices in places of lesser economic importance and 10 communal exchanges in Upper Silesia. During 1927, the public employment exchanges placed 293,935 workers, as against 324,110 in 1926 and 282,111 in 1925. 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 1927 there were 158 such agencies, and the workers placed in 1926 numbered approximately 25,000. 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 56 in 1927 as against 59 in 1926; they placed approximately 17,000 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 1927 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 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. During 1927 the exchanges received 115,716 applications for work and 111,459 offers of employment; 80,302 workers were placed.

(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.

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 1927 refers to previous reports.

(b) The report does not refer to this question.

(c) The report states that the Spanish Government considers that it is 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 1927 there were working 36 public employment exchanges controlling 36 employment offices and 106 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. During 1927, there were 517,711 applications for work; the number of vacancies was 261,539, of which 211,977 were filled.

(b) The report states that as the private employment agencies are considered as bound to disappear, 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) Free public employment agencies had been established by the Federal Decree of 29 October 1909, in the form of labour offices centrally grouped in the "Association of Swiss Labour Offices"; this system was developed by the Resolution of the Federal Council of 29 October 1919 concerning unemployment benefit, which provided in § 5 for the creation in each Canton of a central employment office. In 1924 the system was somewhat modified by the withdrawal, on 1 July 1924, of the Decree of 29 October 1919 and the issue by the Federal Council of the Order of 11 November 1924 respecting public employment exchanges, the object of which is to co-ordinate the obligations arising from the Convention for the Confederation and the Cantons. This Order 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 which have retained a service for the finding of employment.

(c) Every three months the Federal Labour Office communicates to the International Labour Office a list, by occupations, 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. — The report refers to the Labour Treaty between France and Italy¹, signed at Rome on 30 September, 1919 and ratified by the French Parliament, which provides in Article 11 that "subsidies 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 Belgium² 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 nationals, and, with some reservations, to Austrian nationals. An agreement on the subject has so far been concluded only with Poland, on 14 July 1927.

Great Britain. — Foreign workers are subject to the compulsory unemployment insurance system, and enjoy the same benefits as nationals. Certain restrictions have, however, been re-imposed by the Minister of Labour, under § 1 of the Unemployment Insurance Act, 1925, in respect of the payment of "extended" benefit, i.e. benefit paid beyond that payable strictly in proportion to the number of contributions credited to an insured contributor. These restrictions affect all foreign workers other than (a) British-born wives or widows of foreigners; (b) foreigners who served with the British forces (or in certain cases as merchant seamen) during the late war; (c) foreigners who have been continuously resident in Great Britain during the ten years prior to the date of the claim. The same restrictions affect certain categories of British insured persons. Arrangements for reciprocal payment of unemployment benefit exist between Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Greece. — The draft Legislative Decree provides for equality of treatment as regards unemployment insurance benefits, on condition of reciprocity.

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

¹ L.S., 1920, Int. 2.

² L.S., 1924, Int. 3.

in the Kingdom by the Decree No. 368 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. 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.

Spain. — The report for 1925 stated that no such arrangements had been made with other States.

Sweden. — There is no system of unemployment insurance. Nevertheless, the report states that the Government has concluded with Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Germany, Norway and Switzerland agreements under which subjects of these States may, under certain conditions, receive the same treatment as Swedish workers as regards measures relating to unemployment.

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 refuse 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, agreements have been concluded with Austria and Italy, and arrangements have been made, by an exchange of notes, with 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 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.

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 Orleansville.

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 contemplated by the Convention unnecessary, and the establishment of a scheme of unemployment insurance impracticable. The labouring population is not sufficiently organised or developed to participate in any such scheme.

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 certain times of the year they worked longer hours and preferably at night.

Leeward Islands. — 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 works well 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 their needs.

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 Settlement as a rule only if employment had been arranged beforehand. As regards Asiatic labour, it was pointed out that it was usually difficult to import a sufficient amount of labour. The unemployment which occasionally arose owing to industrial depression was purely temporary and the voluntary return to India of thousands of labourers brought the supply below the level of the demand.

Uganda. — The Protectorate Government reported that, in view of the fact that Uganda was a purely agricultural country mainly of peasant producers and therefore free from the industrial evils against which the Convention was designed to provide, there would appear to be no necessity for the Convention to be applied to the Protectorate.

Zanzibar. — There is no unemployment in the Zanzibar Protectorate. The fertility of the soil, combined with the comparative sparseness of the population, makes living easy for the native, and so far from it being necessary to relieve unemployment it is often difficult to obtain labour.

Nyasaland. — The Protectorate Government pointed out that there were practically no factories and few businesses in which European employers are engaged in the Protectorate. Apart from officers in the Government Service, Europeans were engaged in planting tobacco, cotton, or tea for themselves or as overseers for others. Few natives were employed in factories connected with these industries and those who are employed otherwise work as plantation labourers or as porters. In the opinion of the Protectorate Government it 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 and other information, which 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 so 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 supervise 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. — 1 December 1922.

Finland. — 23 June 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.

Spain. — 4 July 1923.

Sweden. — 27 September 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.

South Africa. — The application of the measures giving effect to the Convention in the Union is entrusted to the Minister of Labour who ensures, through the central staff and the district inspectorate of the Department of Labour, that the provisions of the Convention are in practice applied.

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 districts 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.

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 decisions 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 assumed by the labour inspectors.

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 report states that, as regards the public employment exchange service, the central and provincial authorities of the *Patronato Nazionale* have taken the necessary steps for the direct supervision of the working of the employment offices. The Ministries of National Economy and of Corporations have carried out the principal supervision through the prefectures and the factory inspectors. As regards private employment agencies, supervision has been carried out by the Ministry of the Interior through the prefectures. The unemployment insurance system is administered by the National Social Insurance Institution and its de-

pendent institutions, under the supervision of the Ministry of National Economy and the factory inspectors.

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.

Spain. — 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.

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.

* * *

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, the unemployment funds amount to 20 millions of leva, and unemployment benefit is beginning to be paid.

India. — The report states that the special conditions in India arising out of the absence of industrial unemployment, as understood in the West, and the existence of a famine relief organisation in the country to deal with agricultural unemployment in times of scarcity, were fully explained by the Secretary of State for India in his letter of 12 July 1921 communicating the ratification of this Convention. Subsequently the Government of India consulted local Governments on the desirability of creating regular public employment agencies in order to encourage the migration of labour from congested areas, but it was decided that the creation of such public employment agencies is not necessary. The question of unemployment has, however, since been discussed in the Central and Provincial Legislatures and has received the consideration both of the Government of India and the local Governments. Unemployment committees

have been formed in Bengal, the Madras Presidency, in the Punjab and in the United Provinces, and the two former have reported. The Labour Office in Bombay has also published a report of an enquiry into middle-class unemployment in the Bombay Presidency. The information already available would seem to indicate that the problem in India is mainly one of unemployment among the educated middle-classes and not industrial unemployment as understood in the West. Nevertheless, it is the intention of the Government of India to reconsider the whole question in consultation with local Governments and to see whether, in the light of the enquiries now being made, the creation of regular public employment agencies and other measures would be desirable. The results of the further enquiry contemplated by the Government of India will be communicated to the International Labour Office in due course.

Sweden. — Two Commissions appointed by the Government are at present engaged in enquiring into various unemployment questions. One of these Commissions, which was appointed on 9 April 1926, is 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. 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.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927:

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Bulgaria	14. 2. 1922	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	—
Greece	19. 11. 1920	10. 3. 1928
Latvia	3. 6. 1926	1. 3. 1928
Rumania	13. 6. 1921	12. 3. 1928
Spain	4. 7. 1923	2. 3. 1928

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.

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of the Convention have been taken into account in drafting the Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work. The Office has since been informed that the Bill, which had already been passed by the Senate, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March 1928, and that the Act was promulgated on 9 April 1928.

The *Spanish* Government states in its report that a draft Maternity Insurance Bill has been submitted to, and approved by, the National Welfare Institute.

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 legislation, etc., to the International Labour with this report.

Bulgaria.

Social Insurance Act of 6 March 1924 (L. S. 1924, Bulg. 1).

Greece.

Act No. 2274 of 1 July 1920 (O. B. Vol. II, No. 1, p. 20).

Act No. 4029 of 24 January/6 February 1912 concerning the work of women and minors (B. B. Vol. VII, 1912, p. 285).

Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, issued in application of Act No. 4029 (B. B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 219).

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.

Spain.

Act of 13 March 1900 respecting the employment of women and children, amended by the Act of 8 January 1907 (B. B. Vol. II, 1907, p. 220).

Act of 13 July 1922 for the ratification of the Convention.

Act of 26 July 1922 opening a credit in the Budget for 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 1923 amending section 9 of the Act of 13 March 1900 (L. S. 1923, 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 enquiry 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.

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 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.

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 decision which separates industry and commerce from agriculture.

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, § 3 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 em-

ployees 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.

Greece. — The Act No. 2274 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention.

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.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 21 August 1923 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 3.

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 exact 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 preclude a woman from 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 does 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. In communicating supplementary information, the Government states that the period of confinement is calculated as twelve consecutive weeks, six of which are before, and six after, confinement. 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."

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 two instalments; these breaks 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 medicines, dressings and other medical requisites. Pecuniary 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 amounting 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 confinement. 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 confinement 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 confinement. 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 maintenance 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.

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 "when-ever 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."

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 Sickness 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.

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.

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, 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.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Bulgaria. — 14 February 1922.

Greece. — 13 June 1921.

Latvia. — 3 June 1926.

Spain. — 22 August 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 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.

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.

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 the 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.

* * *

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.

Latvia. — The report states that the provisions of the Convention apply to about 65,000 persons.

Spain. — The Government states in the report that the Spanish system works without difficulty. According to official information, since the system was set up and until 1 May 1927, benefit was granted in 26,501 cases and the amount disbursed was 1,325,050 pesetas.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
South Africa	1.11.1921	24. 1.1928
Austria	12. 6.1924	19. 1.1928
Belgium	12. 7.1924	23. 1.1928
Bulgaria	14. 2.1922	16. 2.1928
Czechoslovakia	24. 8.1921	7. 2.1928
Estonia	20.12.1922	10. 1.1928
France	14. 5.1925	25. 1.1928
Great Britain	14. 7.1921	3. 2.1928
Greece	19.11.1920	10. 3.1928
India	14. 7.1921	7. 3.1928
Irish Free State	4. 9.1925	11. 1.1928
Italy	10. 4.1923	20. 2.1928
Netherlands	4. 9.1922	28.12.1927
Rumania	13. 6.1921	12. 3.1928
Switzerland	9.10.1922	16. 1.1928

The covering letter of the Government of the *Union of South Africa* contains the following passages referring to this Convention : “ As regards the Convention concerning employment of women during the night and in order to inform the conference of 1928 as fully as possible, I am directed by the Minister to indicate generally the manner in which the application of the Industrial Conciliation and Wage Acts is influencing the application of the Convention. The Industrial Conciliation Act is being increasingly applied to industries on a national or local scale which are sufficiently organised to render them capable of taking advantage of its provisions ; and, as each Industrial Council is formed, it proceeds at once to regulate the conditions of employment including the hours of labour, so that it may be taken as a rule that none of these industrial agreements contemplate the employment of women during the night ; and indeed the Department itself, apart from the members of an Industrial Council, is watchful to see that no provision is inserted in any industrial agreement which would render possible such employment. Similarly, the Wage Act, as it comes to be enforced will provide conditions of employment which will similarly render impossible employment of women during the night.

It may be observed, however, that quite apart from any such regulation, there is normally very little occasion in the Union for employment of women during the night, and that such employment, generally speaking, is quite outside the practice of the Union in the regions of industrial employment, including employment in mines where women are not employed at all.”

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 *French* Government states in its report that the legislative provisions which give effect to the Convention in France “ have to be completed by public administrative regulations... which are at present being prepared ; these administrative regulations, the object of which is to define the conditions under which the exceptions allowed by the Convention may be applied, are intended to replace the existing Decree of 30 June 1913, defining the allowances and exceptions provided for in these sections of the Labour Code, particularly as regards the night work of women in industry, which were repealed by the Act of 24 January 1925.”

The *Greek* Government states that the Convention was put into effect by Act No. 2275 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. 2275 and invited these authorities to communicate its contents to the workers’ and employers’ organisations and to endeavour to explain its provisions to them.

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention have been taken into consideration in drafting the Bill relating to the employment of women and children

and to the regulation of hours of work. The Office has since been informed that the Bill, which had already been passed by the Senate, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March 1928, and that the Act was promulgated on 9 April 1928.

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.

South Africa.

Directly : Mines and Works Act No. 12 of 1911 (B.B. Vol. II, 1911, p. 63).
Factories Act No. 28 of 1918.

Indirectly : Industrial Conciliation Act No. 11 of 1924 (L.S. 1924, S.A. 1).
Wages Act No. 27 of 1925 (L.S. 1925, S.A. 1).

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).
Mining Act of 28 July 1919 (L.S. 1919, Aus. 11).
Text of the Convention promulgated in the *Bundesgesetzblatt* of 19 July 1924.

Belgium.

Act relating to the employment of women and children of 28 February 1919 (L.S. 1919, Bel. 2) as amended by the Eight-Hour Day Act of 14 July 1921 (L.S. 1921, Bel. 1).

Bulgaria.

Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (B.B. 1918, Vol. XIII, p. 28).
Order No. 2834 of 1919 respecting the application of the eight and six hour day in public and private undertakings.

Czechoslovakia.

Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the eight-hour working day (L.S. 1919, Cz. 1).
Order of 11 January 1919 in pursuance of the Act respecting the eight-hour day (L.S. 1919, Cz. 2).
Circular of 21 March 1919 of the Ministry of Social Welfare to all administrative authorities respecting the interpretation of the provisions relating to the eight-hour day (L.S. 1919, Cz. 3).

Estonia.

Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act of 20 May 1924 (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 30 June 1913 defining the allowances and exceptions contained in §§ 17, 23, 24, 25 and 26 of Book II of the Labour Code (B.B. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 291).
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.
Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L.S. 1920, G.B. 9).

Greece.

Act No. 2275 of 1 July 1920 (O.B., Vol. II, No. 1, p. 20).
Act No. 4029 of 24 January/6 February 1912 concerning the work of women and minors (B.B. Vol. VII, 1912, p. 285).
Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, issued in application of Act No. 4029 (B.B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 219).
Royal Decree of 25 September/8 October 1913 respecting the night employment of women in factories and workshops for packing fish in boxes (preserved fish) (B.B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 225).
Decree of 24 July/6 August 1912 constituting the Labour Inspection Department (B.B. Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 302).

India.

Indian Factories Act, 1911, as subsequently amended (L.S. 1926, Ind. 2).

Irish Free State.

Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.
Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L.S. 1920, G.B. 9).

Italy.

Act of 10 November 1907 relating to the employment of women and children (B.B. Vol. II, 1907, p. 578).
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 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).

Switzerland.

Federal Act of 18 June 1914/27 June 1919 relating to work in factories (B.B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 269 and L.S. 1919, Switz. 3).
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 Act relating to the employment of young persons and women in industry (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 I.

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, water-work, or other work of construction, as well as the preparation for or laying the foundations of any such work or structure.

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.

South Africa. — As regards paragraph (a), § 8 (1) of the Mines and Works Act prohibits the employment of females underground in any mine; mines include quarries. The definition of a factory under the Factories Act includes all the undertakings referred to in paragraph (b) where machinery is installed or where three persons are employed, but does not include the generation, transformation and transmission of electricity or motive power of any kind. These undertakings, however, are covered by provisions of the Conciliation Act and Wages Act, and in actual practice no women are employed in such undertakings during the night hours. As regards paragraph (c), the undertakings enumerated are all indirectly controlled by the provisions of the Conciliation Act and the Wages Act. Under the Industrial Conciliation Act, industrial councils or conciliation boards, representing employers and workers in an industry, trade or occupation in a specified area, may be established. These bodies may conclude agreements determining the conditions of labour in the industry concerned, and such agreements may be declared by the Minister of Labour to be legally binding in the area concerned upon the parties to the agreement, or, if the parties are sufficiently representative of the industry, trade or occupation, upon all employers and workers within the area (§ 9). By § 24 of this Act the term "employer" means any person or body of persons (including a local authority), whether corporate or unincorporate, employing two or more employees (as defined) upon any undertaking in an industry, trade or occupation to which the Act applies. Under the Wages Act, a Wage Board has been established which has power *inter alia* to make recommendations to the Minister of Labour regarding the hours of work of the employees in any industrial occupation which has formed the subject of investigation under the Act. The Minister may in accordance with certain procedure make a final determination in terms of the

Wage Board's recommendations, fixing for a specified period the conditions of labour in the industrial occupation in question, including hours of work. By means of such a determination which is not limited by the size of an industrial undertaking, it is possible to protect the woman worker in establishments outside the scope of the Factories Act or the Industrial Conciliation Act. Already determinations under the Wage Act are in force in various industries. Commercial undertakings and agricultural operations as defined are excluded from the scope of the Factories Act¹. Agriculture and farming industries 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 Code² 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 agri-

¹ § 2 (2) expressly defines and excludes agriculture in the following words: "The provisions of this Act shall not apply to any farm in respect of the making, packing or preparation, by a bona fide farmer who is also the owner or occupier thereof, of produce grown or animals kept by him, of goods for transport, trade or sale as food or drink for human consumption." § 2 (3) similarly defines commercial undertakings: "This Act shall not be considered as modifying those provisions of Act No. 12 of 1911 and the regulations made therein which relate to works and machinery, or the laws relating to the hours of opening and closing of shops or as including within the definition of factory such portions of premises as are shops in any such law." The control of these commercial undertakings as defined is reserved to enactment by the provincial authorities.

² The Act promulgating the Industrial Code of 1859 stipulates that the provisions of the Code shall apply to all activity carried on for gain whether in producing, working up or altering transportable goods, to the running of commercial establishments and to the execution of services and work. From its scope are excluded (a) agriculture and forestry, together with allied industries in so far as their purpose is the working up of the products themselves, (b) mines and installations dependent upon a concession granted by the mining authorities in accordance with the Mining Act, (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) 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) hawking, etc.

culture 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 § 31 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) 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 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 ins ruction 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 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.

Czechoslovakia. — 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 agriculture. 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 (c) of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act of 20 May 1924 reproduces the terms of Article 1 (a) to (c) 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 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.

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 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.

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 6 o'clock in the evening and 7 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. 2834, the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour may authorise in particular cases, and for undertakings where work of a continuous character is carried on under 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 16 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. § 6 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."

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 allowed by the second paragraph of the Article.

ARTICLE 3.

Women without distinction 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.

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, § 2 (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 § 31 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; but it is provided in § 1 of 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 employed 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.

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons, and Children Act, 1920, embodies the provisions of the Convention.

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) lays down that nothing 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).

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.

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", under 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-men-

tioned public administrative regulations, provided merely that notice is given in advance." The public administrative regulations required by §§ 24 and 25 are now in preparation. The provisions now in application are contained in § 2 of the Decree of 30 June 1913, which specifies the industries to which the exception applies, the number of nights on which the exception may be used and the maximum number of hours which may be worked (10 hours in the day). These provisions are, however, being amended as regards the industries covered and the number of nights allowed. Moreover, the maximum working day, by the enforcement of the Act of 23 April 1919 respecting the eight hour-day, is automatically reduced to eight hours under the public administrative regulations dealing with the industries concerned.

Great Britain. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons, and Children Act, 1920, reproduces the provisions of the Convention. As regards the manufacturing industries, however, the exceptions apply only to a limited extent, for the restrictions on the night employment of women contained in the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, are subject to no exception corresponding to paragraph (a) and only to two exceptions falling within paragraph (b). These are permitted under § 41 of that Act and relate to (1) the preserving and curing of fish which must be carried out immediately on arrival of fishing boats in order to prevent fish from being destroyed and spoilt, and (2) the cleaning and preparing of fruit so far as is necessary to prevent spoiling immediately on its arrival at a factory or workshop during the months of June, July, August and September. As regards (2), the exception is subject to conditions described by a Special Order of the Secretary of State which provides, *inter alia*, that no women shall be employed before 6 a.m. or after 10 p.m. The exceptions contained in Article 4 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 form-

alities 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 prescribes 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/3 February, women over 18 years of age may be employed after 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. Notwithstanding, employers are not allowed to take advantage of the exceptions allowed by Article 4 inasmuch as the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act is in addition to and not in derogation of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901. The provisions of the latter Act are, in respect to the employment of women at night, more restrictive than the terms of the Convention, and accordingly the provisions of this Act hold good.

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 12 midnight at latest, and during the period from 15 March to 1 June till 2 a.m. at latest.

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, § 151). No such permission was

granted in 1927. The Act of 31 March 1922 (§ 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.

ARTICLE 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 Act¹.

ARTICLE 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.

¹ See under *Hours Convention*, ARTICLE 10, for definition of "factory".

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 ten 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.

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 1923 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.

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. The manufacturer must ask permission from the competent authority of the Canton. Permission, is, however, rarely requested and those cases in which it 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.

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 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 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. 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 decortication 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 *Curaçao* 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. — 11 April 1924.

Bulgaria. — 22 February 1922.

Czechoslovakia. — 18 March 1922.

Estonia. — 6 June 1924.

France. — 14 May 1925.

Great Britain. — 1 January 1921.

Greece. — 13 June 1921.

India. — 12 July 1921.

Irish Free State. — 4 September 1925.

Italy. — 27 June 1923.

Netherlands. — 4 September 1922.

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 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 inspectors have not yet had to report infractions of the law as regards the prohibition of the night work of women in industry.

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 §§ 5 and 6 of the Decree of 30 June 1913.

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.

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. It has also set up a federal factory inspectorate which supervises the enforcement of the Factory Act in all the undertakings 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.

* * *

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.

South Africa. — 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 Tenth Annual Census of Factories and Productive Industries, excluding mining and quarrying, for the year 1924-25, gives the number of establishments as 6,866 employing 152,747 persons of all races. The number of premises registered under the Factories Act at 31 December 1926 was 4,706.

Austria. — Statistical information for the year 1927 cannot yet be communicated. As regards the number of offences against the prohibition of the night work of women detected in 1926 in industrial undertakings,

not including mines, the Austrian Government observes that reference should be made to the "Report of the factory inspectors upon their activity in the year 1926", p. LIII.

Belgium. — A statement of the breaches of the law which have been reported is published monthly in the *Revue du Travail*. According to the statistics prepared on 31 October 1926 by the Department of Labour, 206,022 women were employed in undertakings employing at least ten workers.

Czechoslovakia. — The report states that full information upon the manner in which the Convention is applied in Czechoslovakia will be communicated later, when the Report upon the work of the factory inspectorate in 1927 is published.

Estonia. — The report states that the number and nature of the offences reported cannot be given as the annual report of the factory inspectors only shows the total number of offences reported as regards the conditions of labour of women and children. For 1926 the figure was 80. The number of women protected by the Act of 20 May 1924 is 15,220.

France. — The French Government states that it has finally secured the total suppression of the night work of women in factories using continuous furnaces. 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 1926 to four undertakings for a period of 154 days and for a total number of 75 women employed. In the case of Article 4 (b) of the Convention, exceptions were granted in 1926 to 94 undertakings, with a total of 94,300 nights to which the exception applied. As regards breaches of the law respecting the prohibition of night work and rest at night, the report states that, as the same legislative provisions dealt with women and children before the Act of 24 January 1925, the contraventions reported were grouped statistically. The necessary instructions have been given for a distinction to be made in future between women and children, but the following figures for 1926 concern women and children: (a) Night work: prosecutions, 26, number of offences 196; (b) Night period: prosecutions, 1; number of offences, 1.

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.

India. — According to a note published by the Government on the working of the Factories Act during 1926 the total number of women employed in factories throughout India increased by about 2,000 to 249,669 which represents a little over 16 per cent. of the total factory population. It is stated that the steady increase in the employment of women which was noticed in previous reports is unchecked in Bombay where the total number of women employed in factories rose from 77,624 to 81,104.

Irish Free State. — The position in Saorstát Éireann 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 Éireann. 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.

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. All these reports show that the prohibition of the night work of women is strictly enforced in Switzerland. The activities of these various authorities are in conformity with the principles of the Recommendation concerning the general principles for the organisation of systems of inspection to secure the enforcement of the laws and regulations for the protection of the workers, adopted by the International Labour Conference at its 1923 Session. Under this Recommendation inspectors should submit to the central authority periodical reports and the authority in question should publish in an annual report a general summary of the information supplied by the inspectors. As, how-

ever, the International Labour Office has already been duly informed, the federal factory inspectors and the cantonal Governments prepare their reports only once in two years, in such a way that the federal inspectors' report is published in the year in which the report of the cantonal Governments is not, and *vice versa*. To give full effect to the provisions of the Recommendation the Swiss Government has, however, decided that the federal factory inspectors shall submit annually a report containing the information required by the Recommendation. The information will be included in the biannual reports, and, for the alternate years in which these reports are not published, in shorter reports containing only what is necessary to meet the requirements of the Recommendation. In accordance with this decision, the statistical information compiled by the factory inspectors in 1926, their ordinary report for which year has not yet appeared, will be published shortly. 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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Belgium	12. 7. 1924	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	14. 2. 1922	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	
Czechoslovakia . .	24. 8. 1921	7. 2. 1928
Denmark	4. 1. 1923	27. 2. 1928
Estonia	20. 12. 1922	10. 1. 1928
Great Britain . .	14. 7. 1921	3. 2. 1928
Greece	19. 11. 1920	10. 3. 1928
Irish Free State .	4. 9. 1925	17. 1. 1928
Japan	7. 8. 1926	27. 1. 1928
Latvia	3. 6. 1926	1. 3. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Rumania	13. 6. 1921	12. 3. 1928
Switzerland . . .	9. 10. 1922	16. 1. 1928

The report of the Government of *Chile* has not yet been received.

The report of the *Greek* Government states that the Convention was put into effect 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. 23 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 Greek Government's letter communicating the annual reports further states that "the complete application of the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment still meets with serious difficulties. These difficulties arise from the fact that, as you are aware, there is in Greece a considerable number of refugee children who have lost their fathers and thus are deprived of the necessary protection. The mothers of these children find it impossible to meet the expenses of their maintenance, and are thus obliged to send them out to work before they have reached the age fixed by the Convention in question. The competent authorities for the application of the Convention cannot insist upon its strict observance, in view of the fact that the present state of public finance does not allow of special relief being given for the benefit of these children. The present Government, however, in order to apply the Convention strictly, has decided to amend the Legislative Decree relating to employment exchanges and compulsory unemployment insurance in such a way as to facilitate the admission of the children in question to technical schools, where they will be fed and taught a trade. Their mothers will then no longer be able to say that the children must work in order to live and the public authorities will be able to apply the Convention strictly."

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention have been taken into consideration in drafting the Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work. The Office has since been informed that the Bill, which had already been passed by the Senate, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March 1928, and that the Act was promulgated on 9 April 1928.

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).
Act of 22 November 1921 amending § 13 of the Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (O.B. Vol. V, p. 172).
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.
Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L.S. 1920, G.B. 9).

Greece.

Act No. 2271 of 1 July 1920 (O.B. Vol. II, No. 1, p. 20).
Act No. 4029 of 24 January /6 February 1912 concerning the work of women and minors (B.B. Vol. VII, 1912, p. 285).
Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, issued in application of Act No. 4029 (B.B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 219).
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.
Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L.S. 1920, G.B. 9).

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).

Switzerland.

Federal Act of 18 June 1914/27 June 1919 relating to working hours in factories (B.B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 269 and L.S. 1919, Switz. 3).
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, 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 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, 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.

Belgium. — § 1 of the Act relating to the employment of women and children of 28 February 1919, as amended by § 31 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) 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 by 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 respect-

ively 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. 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 ship-building 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 trans-

portation 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.

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, however, 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 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, 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. — § 3 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 and are legally exempt from school attendance. 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. § 3 (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.

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 5 July 1923. The Act of 31 March 1922 does 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. — § 3 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. — No reference is made to this exception in the reports submitted by the Government.

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. The rules and conditions of employment in these schools are to be formulated by the Minister of Education, in agreement with the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. The report for 1927 adds that the rules and conditions of employment in trade schools, which should have been issued under § 3 of the Act, have not been promulgated. According to information supplied by the Ministry of Education, the rules and conditions of employment in industrial schools will be issued as soon as the programme of work in these schools has been finally settled. As a rule, children are employed in these schools in strict conformity with the Act of 20 May 1924. The report further adds that on 10 December 1925 an Act was passed concerning industrial schools, § 28 of which provides that the age for admission to the lowest class of an industrial school must not be less than 13 years.

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.

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 § 131 (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 administrative authorities of first instance. § 21 of the Act of 9 October 1924 concerning the insurance of employees against sickness, invalidity and old age¹, further provides that an employer shall be bound to submit to the sickness insurance institution, at intervals of not less than a quarter, a list of the persons employed in each week. This list must give the date of birth and the address of each worker. Finally, 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

¹ L.S., 1924, Cz. 4.

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 for 1927 also adds 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 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.

Greece. — The Act No. 2271 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. Moreover, Act No. 4029 of 1912 contains provisions concerning the keeping of registers and lists of children and young persons under 18 years of age employed in the undertakings 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.

Switzerland. — The Administrative Order under the Factory Act (§ 99) requires occupiers of factories to keep a list of the whole staff, showing, among other information, the exact date of birth. The Factory Act further provides in § 73 that any factory 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 provision 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 1923 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 1923 (L. S. 1923, 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 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* 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. 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-application 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 not confer any benefit upon the people. A few children might be employed in road repairs 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 be injurious to child life. As regards 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.

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, 1903 (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.

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.

* * *

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. — 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 1927.

Czechoslovakia. — The Ministry of Social Welfare states in the report that detailed information upon the manner in which the prohibition of the employment of children under 14 in industry is enforced will be communicated to the International Labour Office, so far as it is available in the report of the factory inspectorate, when that report is published for the year 1927.

Estonia. — The number of young persons under 18 years protected by the Act of 20 May 1924 is 1,101.

Great Britain. — See the general observations on the *Convention concerning employment of women during the night*. In 1926 there were only two instances in which proceedings were instituted by the Factory Department in respect of employment of children under 14.

Irish Free State. — As the law prohibiting the employment in industrial undertakings of children under the age of 14 has been in existence in this country for seven years, and as the School Attendance Act, 1926, makes general provision that children under the age of 14 must attend school on each day on which school is open, the number of cases in which children under the age of 14 have been found employed in factories and workshops is negligible.

Japan. — The report gives the following general information: In the Bureau of Social Affairs there are 15 full service factory inspectors and 4 additional inspectors, 9 full service mining inspectors and 1 additional inspector; in local government offices there are 235 full service factory inspectors and 83 additional inspectors; in the mine inspection bureaux there are 25 full service mining inspectors. As regards contraventions, there were 30 convictions during the period 1 July to 31 December 1926. In addition, there were 3736 cases in which warnings were given in writing or verbally.

Poland. — The Government states in its report that, according to the registers, there were employed in the undertakings subject to factory inspection, in the second half of the year 1927, 49,065 young persons, of whom 32,930 were boys and 16,135 girls. These data only apply to undertakings employing more than 16 workers or using motor power. The larger number of young persons are employed in the metal industry (boys), clothing and textiles (girls), printing, paper-making and chemicals. As regards 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 1927, without specifying the nature of the contravention, was 3,447, of which 1316 gave rise to convictions, and 735 to administrative penalties.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Austria	12. 6. 1924	19. 1. 1928
Belgium	12. 7. 1924	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	14. 2. 1922	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	
Denmark	4. 1. 1923	27. 2. 1928
Estonia	20. 12. 1922	10. 1. 1928
France.	25. 8. 1925	27. 1. 1928
Great Britain. . .	14. 7. 1921	3. 2. 1928
Greece	19. 11. 1920	10. 3. 1928
India	14. 7. 1921	7. 3. 1928
Irish Free State .	4. 9. 1925	17. 1. 1928
Italy	10. 4. 1923	20. 2. 1928
Latvia	3. 6. 1926	1. 3. 1928
Netherlands . . .	17. 3. 1924	28. 12. 1927
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Rumania.	13. 6. 1921	12. 3. 1928
Switzerland . . .	9. 10. 1922	16. 1. 1928

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 "is to be completed by two public administrative regulations... which are now being prepared and are intended to define the conditions under which the exceptions allowed by the Convention may be used. These two regulations are intended to

replace two existing Decrees : (1) of 30 June 1913, defining the allowances and exceptions contemplated in the former sections of the Labour Code, particularly as regards the night work of young persons in industry repealed by the Act of 24 January 1925 ; (2) of 3 May 1893 concerning the employment of young persons in mines, § 3 of which deals with night work." According to supplementary information furnished by the French Government on 7 April 1928, the first of these regulations has now been adopted by the Council of State and will shortly be promulgated. As regards the second of these regulations, under § 185 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, the Superior Labour Commission, the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures, and the General Council of Mines must be consulted.

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.

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention have been taken into consideration in drafting the Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work. The Office has since been informed that the Bill, which had already been passed by the Senate, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March 1928, and that the Act was promulgated on 9 April 1928.

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).

Mining Act of 28 July 1919 (L. S. 1919, Aus. 11).
Text of the Convention promulgated in the
Bundesgesetzblatt of 19 July 1924.

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 30 June 1913 defining the allowances and exceptions contemplated in §§ 17, 23, 24, 25 and 26 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare (B. B. Vol. 1913, p. 291).

Decree of 3 May 1893 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.

Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L. S. 1920, G.B. 9).

Night Employment of Young Persons (Reverberatory or Regenerative Furnaces) Order, 1924 (L. S. 1924, G.B. 1).

Greece.

Act No. 2272 of 1 July 1920 (O. B. Vol. II, No. 1, p. 20).

Act No. 4029 of 24 January/6 February 1912 concerning the work of women and minors (B. B. Vol. VII, 1912, p. 285).

Royal Decree of 14/27 August 1913, issued in application of Act No. 4029 (B. B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 219).

Decree of 24 July/6 August 1912 constituting the Labour Inspection Department (B. B. Vol. III, 1913, p. 302).

India.

Indian Factories Act of 1911, as subsequently amended (L. S. 1926, Ind. 2).

Irish Free State.

Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.

Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L. S. 1920, G.B. 9).

Italy.

Act of 10 November 1907 relating to the employment of women and children (B. B. Vol. II, 1907, p. 578).

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. 1 and 1924, Neth. 5).

Mines Regulation, No. 248 of 1906 (B. B. Vol. I, 1906, p. 505) as amended by Royal Decree No. 550 of 7 October 1922 (L. S. 1922, Neth. 4).

General Service Regulations for Railways, No. 315 of 26 June 1913 and General Service Regulations for Light Railways, No. 230 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).

Switzerland.

Federal Act of 18 June 1914/27 June 1919 relating to work in factories (B. B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 269, and L. S. 1919, Switz. 3).

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 Federal Act relating to work in factories (L. S. 1919, Switz. 4, and 1923, Switz. 3).

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 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, 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, 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 Code¹ 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

¹ The Act promulgating the Industrial Code of 1859 stipulates that the provisions of the Code shall apply to all activity carried on for gain whether in producing, working up or altering transportable goods, to the running of commercial establishments and to the execution of services and work. From its scope are excluded (a) agriculture and forestry, together with allied industries in so far as their purpose is the working up of the products themselves, (b) mines and installations dependent upon a concession granted by the mining authorities in accordance with the Mining Act, (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) 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) hawking, etc.

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 § 31 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) 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 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, . . . (e) 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 30 (2) of the Labour Act, 1919 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 under-

takings 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.

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 1923. § 3 of the Administrative Order of 15 June 1923, issued under this Act, defines the term "industrial undertaking" as in Article 1 (a), (b) and (c), whilst the Order of 5 July 1923 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. 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.

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 such 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.

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 enginemens' boys in services in connection 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." § 3 of the Act of 24 January 1925 contains the following transitional provisions: "In the establishments with continuous processes referred to in § 26 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, boys under sixteen years of age may continue to be employed at night, under the conditions laid down in the public administrative regulations at present in force, until the amendments to be made in the said regulations under § 1 of this Act come into operation." In accordance with this provision and until the public administrative regulations which are now in preparation come into force, the regulations in question are contained in § 3 of the Decree of 30 June 1913, which enumerates the continuous processes to which the above exception applies, as well as the work in which exceptions are allowed, and lays down certain conditions affecting the number of hours that may be worked as an exception. These provisions, which refer to the exceptions covered by the former text of the Labour Code on the subject, repealed by the Act of 24 January 1925, are to be amended by the regulations to be issued, particularly as regards the number of industries in which exceptions may be allowed, since the Act, in conformity with the Convention, restricts the exceptions formerly permitted.

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". This permission is 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.

Greece. — The Act No. 2272 of 1 July 1920 includes the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912 provides in § 6 for the prohibition of the employment of young persons under 18 years of age in the undertakings and kinds of work specified in the Act. No reference is made to the exception for family undertakings. As regards the exception for continuous processes, the report states that it has not been used.

India. — The Factories Act in § 23 (b) prohibits the employment of children (i.e. persons under the age of 15 years) in any factory before half-past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening. No exemptions are permissible from the provisions of § 23 (b). (See also under ARTICLES 3 and 6.)

Irish Free State. — The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act,

1920, provides in § 1 (3) that no young person (i.e. a person under eighteen years of age) may be employed except to the extent to which and in the circumstances in which such employment is permitted by the Convention. Nevertheless, the report states that the exemptions permitted by this Article have not been availed of, inasmuch as the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901 (§ 54, 55 and 56) are more restrictive than the provisions of the legislation which gave effect to the Convention.

Italy. — § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 15 March 1923 amended § 5 (a) of the Act of 10 November 1907 to read: "Young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed during the night in factories or workplaces or in annexes thereto". In § 1 of the Decree it is specified that factories and workshops in which only members of the same family are employed are to be excepted. The amended § 5 (a) of the Act permits the employment during the night of young persons over sixteen years of age in the continuous processes mentioned in the Convention. The report states that no questions have arisen in connection with the application of this Article.

Latvia. — § 11 of the Act of 24 March 1922 prohibits the employment of young persons at night. In § 10 the term young persons is used to signify persons in their seventeenth and eighteenth years of age. No reference is made to the exceptions for family undertakings or for undertakings in which continuous processes are carried on.

Netherlands. — § 24 (2) of the Labour Act provides that a worker shall not work in a factory or workplace between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m. § 30 (2) stipulates that if deviations from the provisions laid down in § 24 are authorised it shall be borne in 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 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, prohibits 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 3). In the case of railways and tramways, the General Service Regulations 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 between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

Poland. — The general provisions of the Act of 18 December 1919, are completed, 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 members 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 necessarily continuous. As this determination proceeds, the inspectors are instructed which classes of processes in the industries enumerated in Article 2 are to be considered to be necessarily continuous.

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. 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 Act 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 blowers.

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 in 1927 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 consecutive 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 between 8 p.m. and 4 a.m.; such 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 § 23 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 use of this exception is at present regulated by § 3 of the Decree of 3 May 1893, 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 effect cannot be given to it in French legislation, "since bakeries are not regarded as industrial undertakings; it should be noted, however, that French legislation prohibits employment in the making of bread or pastry between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. (§ 20 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare)." Supplementary information on this point was furnished by the French Government on 7 April 1928. In the first place, it is stated that all bakeries are not excepted from the provisions applying to industrial undertakings; bread factories are subject to these provisions and it is only small undertakings where bread making is carried on in shops which are excluded. It is further stated that this exception has no importance as regards the night work of young persons, since, as explained above, no worker may be employed in making bread or pastry between 10 p.m. and 4 a.m. 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 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 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 ten hours between two consecutive periods of duty twice in every period of two consecutive weeks and 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, § 35 (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.

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 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 3 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 § 31 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 deranged 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." The report adds that "the regulations referred to above are at present contained in § 2 of the Decree of 30 June 1913, which lays down the industries to which the exception applies, the number of nights on which the exception may be used and the maximum number of hours which may be worked (10 hours in the day). These provisions are, however, to be amended as regards the nature of the industries concerned and the number of nights allowed. Moreover, the maximum working day, by the application of the Act of 23 April 1919 respecting the eight-hour day, is reduced to eight hours, under the public administrative regulations concerning the industries in question."

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 (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, but the restrictions on the night employment of young persons contained in the Factory and Workshop and Coal Mines Acts are not subject to any similar exception.

Greece. — The Act No. 2272 of 1 July 1920 contains the text of the Convention. Act No. 4029 of 1912 provides in § 7 that in the case of unforeseen and not regularly recurring interruptions of work in consequence of accidents, exceptions to 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 years are concerned. The 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.

India. — This provision does not concern India.

Irish Free State. — The Act of 1920 reproduces the terms of Article 4 in Part II of the Schedule and in § 1 (3) prohibits the night work of young persons "except to the extent to which and in the cir-

cumstances 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.

Latvia. — The Act of 24 March 1922 contains no equivalent provisions.

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 exemptions 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."

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 district authority and, in cases of suspension for 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 Act¹. § 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

¹ See under *Hours Convention*, ARTICLE 10, for definition of "factory".

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 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.

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 persons in transport undertakings provides in § 4 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. Apart from the above, the Convention has not been applied to any other British colony or protectorate on the general grounds 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 were received in certain cases from Colonial Governments as regards the non-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. The Netherlands Government has further reported that neither in *Surinam* nor in *Curaçao* 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 1923.

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.

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 of 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*.

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 very few contraventions of the provisions relating to the employment of women and young persons have been reported by the inspectors.

Estonia. — See the summary of the report on the *Convention concerning employment of women during the night*. The number of young persons up to 18 years of age protected by the Act is 1,101.

France. — The French Government has communicated to the Office two statistical tables prepared by the factory inspectorate showing the number of exceptions used by industries in which the work has to do either with raw materials or materials in course of treatment, when this is necessary to preserve the materials from certain loss (cases of emergencies which interfere with the normal working of these undertakings). In 1926 exceptions were allowed in 91 undertakings (jam, vegetable and fish canning factories) with a total number of 1,346 nights to which the exception applied. In a case of suspension of work arising out of an accidental interruption or of *force majeure* which was not of a recurring nature, an exception was allowed to an undertaking for 13 days and for 14 young persons exceptionally employed. As regards infringements of the provisions concerning the prohibition of night work and concerning rest at night, the report states that, as the same legislative provision dealt with young persons and women before the Act of 24 January 1925, the breaches of the law reported were grouped statistically. The necessary instructions have been given for a distinction to be made in future between breaches of the law affecting young persons and those affecting women, but the following figures for 1926 refer to both women and young

persons ; (a) Night work ; number of prosecutions, 26 ; number of offences, 196. (b) Night rest period : number of prosecutions 1 ; number of offences, 1.

Great Britain. — See the analysis of the report on the *Convention concerning employment of women during the night*.

India. — According to a note published by the Government on the working of the Factories Act during 1926, the number of children employed in factories fell from 68,725 in 1925 to 60,094. A very substantial reduction was effected during the year in the number of children employed in jute mills. The years 1923-1926 show a steady decrease of child labour in factories which is attributed largely to the increasing efficiency of the arrangements made in the provinces for the certification of children. In Bombay, the recent amendment of the Act making parents and guardians responsible for the double employment of

children under two certificates has proved to be very useful in checking this abuse.

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. The earlier provisions, therefore, which are more restrictive in their nature, still obtain in this country.

Poland. — See the analysis of the report on the *Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment*.

Switzerland. — See the analysis of the report upon the *Convention concerning employment of women during the night*.

SECOND SESSION (GENOA, 1920).

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification.	Reports received.
Belgium	4. 2.1925	23. 1.1928
Bulgaria	16. 3.1923	16. 2.1928
Canada	31. 3.1926	
Denmark	12. 4.1924	27. 2.1928
Estonia	3. 3.1923	10. 1.1928
Finland	10.10.1925	16. 1.1928
Great Britain . . .	14. 7.1921	3. 2.1928
Greece	16.12.1925	10. 3.1928
Irish Free State . .	4. 9.1925	11. 1.1928
Japan	7. 6.1924	27. 1.1928
Latvia	3. 6.1926	1. 3.1928
Netherlands	26. 3.1925	28.12.1927
Poland	21. 6.1924	5. 3.1928
Rumania	8. 5.1922	12. 3.1928
Spain	20. 6.1924	2. 3.1928
Sweden	27. 9.1921	30. 1.1928

The *Belgian* Government report for 1926 stated that the Belgian Acts of 13 December 1889, 10 August 1911 and 26 May 1914 relating to the employment of women and children as last amended by the Act of 14 June 1921 establishing the eight-hour day and the forty-eight hour week¹, prohibit the employment of children under the

¹ L.S., 1921, Bel. 1.

age of fourteen years (see Royal Co-ordination Order of 28 February 1919¹). Although this prohibition is not applicable to shipping, it has been from the beginning observed in practice in the mercantile marine and the fishing industry. The report for 1927 adds that the provisions of this Convention will be finally embodied in Belgian legislation by the adoption of a Bill concerning seamen's articles of agreement, which was submitted to the Chambers on 22 July 1927 and adopted by one of them on 1 June 1927. The new Act will probably be promulgated during this Session of Parliament.

The report of the Government of *Canada* has not yet been received.

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.

The report of the Government of *Latvia* states that a Bill to give effect to the Convention has been adopted by the Social Legislation Commission of the Saeima, and it is hoped that the Saeima itself will pass the Bill during the next session of Parliament, i.e. in May or June 1928.

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention have been taken into consideration in preparing the Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of hours of work. The Office has since been informed that the Bill which had already been passed by the

¹ L.S., 1919, Bel. 2.

Senate, was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March 1928, and that the Act was promulgated on 9 April 1928.

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.

See introductory note above.

Bulgaria.

Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (B.B. Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 27).
Regulations of the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

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.

Act of 20 May 1924 relating to the employment of children, young persons and women in industrial undertakings (L.S. 1924, Est. 1).

Finland.

Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 (L.S. 1924, Fin. 1).
Order of 23 December 1924 respecting the signing on and off of the crews of vessels (L.S. 1924, Fin. 4).
Order of 19 September 1925 respecting the coming into force of the international Convention concerning the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.
Act of 26 May 1925 to amend the Seamen's Act (L.S. 1925, Fin. 2).

Great Britain.

Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L.S. 1920, G. B. 9).

Greece.

Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention.

Irish Free State.

Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920 (L.S. 1920, G. B. 9).

Japan.

Act of 29 March 1923 concerning the minimum age and health certificate for seamen (L.S. 1923, Jap. 3).
Imperial Order of 19 November 1923 providing for exceptions to the Act of 29 March 1923 (L.S. 1923, Jap. 4).
Regulations for the enforcement of the Act concerning the minimum age and health certificate for seamen (Ordinance of the Department of Communications No. 96 issued on 19 November 1923).

Netherlands.

Labour Act, 1919, as subsequently amended (L.S. 1922, Neth. 1).

Decree No. 555 of 19 December 1924, issued under §§ 71 and 92 of the Labour Act, 1919 (L.S. 1924, Neth. 5).

Poland.

Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902 (R.G.Bl. 1902, p. 175).
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).

Spain.

Labour Code of 23 August 1926, §§ 35, 36 and 37 (L.S. 1925, Sp. 1).

Sweden.

Seamen's Act of 15 June 1922 (L.S. 1922, Swe. 1).
Royal Decree of 30 June 1922 respecting the keeping of registers of minors employed on board ship.
Royal Decree of 22 December 1922 to amend certain provisions of the Order of 13 July 1911 respecting seamen's employment offices in the Kingdom and the signing on and off of seamen, etc.

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. — See the introductory note above.

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.

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 Estonian Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women

Act 1924, which regulates the minimum age for the admission of children to employment in industrial undertakings, includes in the definition of "industrial undertakings" transport of passengers or goods by sea (§ 1). No specific definition of the term "vessel" is given.

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."¹ These vessels are not considered to be "engaged in maritime navigation" within the meaning of Article 1 of the Convention.

Netherlands. — § 1 of the Decree of 19 December 1924 applies to vessels engaged in maritime navigation (exclusive of sea fishing-vessels).

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.

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. — The Belgian Government reports that it is customary to follow in the mercantile marine and fishing industry the rules regarding the minimum age for the admission of children to employment laid down for industry in the Acts relating to employment in industry. The Belgian shipping officers and consuls supervise the enforcement of these rules and refuse to allow children under fourteen years of age to be signed on.

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.

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. — § 2 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that children under the age of fourteen years may not be employed or work in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof. The exception for undertakings in which only the members of the same family are employed is not included in the Act.

Finland. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act prohibits the employment of children under 14 years of age on board ship. The

¹ A koku equals 4.9629 bushels or 39.7033 gallons.

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.

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.

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.

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 Royal Order of 28 February 1919, the provisions 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.

Denmark. — No reference is made to this exception in the Act of 1 May 1923.

Estonia. — § 3 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the prohibition contained in § 2 is not to apply to the work of children in trade schools. The rules and conditions of employment in these schools are to be laid down by the Minister of Education in agreement with the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. (See *Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment* — Article 3.)

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."

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).

Poland. — The work of children on school-ships under the supervision of the public authorities is deemed to be education.

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. — No provisions equivalent to those of this Article are contained in the legislation cited in the reports. See, however, under ARTICLE 2.

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. — § 21 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act provides that the head of every industrial undertaking is to keep a register showing the date of birth of all persons under eighteen years of age employed by him.

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 the 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.

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.

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.

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 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 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 Bill mentioned in the introductory note 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. § 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. As regards *Surinam* and *Curaçao*, 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.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

Belgium. — 8 November 1925.

Bulgaria. — 20 March 1923.

Denmark. — 8 July 1924.

Estonia. — 6 June 1924.

Finland. — 19 September 1925.

Great Britain. — 27 September 1921.

Greece. — 16 December 1925.

Irish Free State. — 4 September 1925.

Japan. — 7 June 1924.

Netherlands. — 26 March 1925.

Poland. — 21 June 1924.

Spain. — 14 April 1925.

Sweden. — 27 September 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.

Belgium. — The Government reports that in Belgium the shipping officers and abroad the Belgian consuls, who have to sign the lists of the crew, are entrusted with the supervision of the execution of the provisions of the Convention.

Bulgaria. — The factory inspectors acting under supervision of the Governing Body of the (Navigation) Company and the directors are responsible for supervising the execution of the provisions of the laws and regulations.

Denmark. — The supervision of the application of the relevant legislation is entrusted to the registration officers. § 13 of the Act of 26 February 1872 provides that the registration officer, when inscribing

changes in the crew on the muster roll of a ship, must verify the exactitude of the roll and see that the legislative provisions in force have not been contravened by the master.

Estonia. — The supervision of the enforcement of the Act of 20 May 1924 is entrusted to the factory inspectors. See the analysis of the report upon the *Convention concerning employment of women during the night*.

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. The Order of 18 October 1920 respecting the inspection of merchant vessels also gives to the shipping inspectors certain rights relating to the conditions of work of seamen.

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.

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.

Poland. — See the analysis of the report on the *Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment.*

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.

Irish Free State. — The report states that the number of cases in which young persons are engaged on Saorstad 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 139. No cases of contravention are reported.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Belgium	4. 2. 1925	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	16. 3. 1923	16. 2. 1928
Canada	31. 3. 1926	
Estonia	3. 3. 1923	10. 1. 1928
Great Britain . . .	12. 3. 1926	3. 2. 1928
Greece	16.12. 1925	10. 3. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Spain	20. 6. 1924	2. 3. 1928

The *Belgian* Government stated in its report for 1926 that the provisions of this Convention would require an amendment to § 99 of Book II of the Commercial Code. In the Bill concerning the regulation of seamen's articles of agreement, which was submitted to Parliament on 22 July 1926, a clause has therefore been introduced to meet the requirements of the Convention. This clause will replace § 99 as at present drafted. The Government further added that, as Parliament had ratified the Convention, it had already legal effect in Belgium. The report for 1927 adds that the above-mentioned Bill has already been adopted by one of the Chambers, on 1 June 1927, and that the new Act will probably be promulgated during the present Session of Parliament.

The report of the Government of *Canada* has not yet been received.

The report of the Government of *Estonia* stated that a special Committee in connection with the Ministry of Justice had been instructed to draft a Seamen's Code containing, *inter alia*, provisions to give effect to

this Convention. The Government has subsequently informed the Office that the Seamen's Code was adopted by the State Assembly on 22 March last and published in the *Riigi Teataja* N° 28. §§ 6 and 41 of the Code contain provisions providing for unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of a ship which are in strict conformity with the Convention.

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* reports that it has 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 will be submitted to the Diet at its next session. Meanwhile, the Ministry of Industry and Commerce has instructed the Mercantile Marine Offices to apply the provisions of the Convention, should the case arise.

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.

Commercial Code, Book II, § 99 (see the introductory statement above).

Bulgaria.

Act of 12 April 1925 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance (L. S. 1925, Bulg. 2).

Great Britain.

Merchant Shipping Acts, 1894 to 1923.

Merchant Shipping (International Labour Conventions) Act, 1925 (L. S. 1925, G. B. 5).

Greece.

Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention.

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, It. 10).

Legislative Decree of 27 December 1925 bringing the Convention into force in Italy.

Poland.

Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902 (R. G. Bl., 1902, p. 175).

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.

Labour Code of 23 August 1926, §§ 43 and 51 (L. S. 1925, Sp. 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 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. — See introductory statement.

Bulgaria. — The terms "seamen" and "vessel" are used without special definition in the Act respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance of 12 April 1925.

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 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.

Greece. — The Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925 relating to the ratification of the Convention provides in § 2 that the obligation to pay the indemnity prescribed in the Convention shall 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. In its letter of 3 March 1928, forwarding the report, the Greek Government states that measures to remove the restriction in the case of sailing vessels are being prepared.

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. — See introductory statement. The Government reports that the indemnity payable to any one seaman is limited to 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."

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 keep up 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. — See introductory statement. The report adds 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.

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.

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 Bill to which the introductory note refers extends the provisions of the Convention to cover natives of the *Belgian Congo* and the mandated territories employed upon Belgian vessels.

Great Britain.—§ 6 of the Merchant Shipping (International Labour Conventions) Act, 1925, provides that the Act, subject to any necessary adaptations or modifications, may by Order in Council 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*. Reasons for non-application in the case of particular Dependencies were as follow:

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 § 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 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.

Great Britain. — 12 March 1926.

Greece. — 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.

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 of 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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Australia	3. 8. 1925	10. 4. 1928
Belgium	4. 2. 1925	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	16. 3. 1923	16. 2. 1928
Estonia	3. 3. 1923	10. 1. 1928
Finland	7. 10. 1922	16. 1. 1928
Germany	6. 6. 1925	13. 2. 1928
Greece	16. 12. 1925	10. 3. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Japan	23. 11. 1922	27. 1. 1928
Latvia	3. 6. 1926	1. 3. 1928
Norway	23. 11. 1921	17. 1. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Sweden	27. 9. 1921	30. 1. 1928

The Government of *Belgium* states that "the provisions of the Convention will be finally embodied in the national legislation by the adoption of a Bill concerning seamen's articles of agreement, which was submitted to the Chambers on 22 July 1926 and has already been adopted by one of them, on 1 June 1927. The new Act will probably be promulgated during the present Parliamentary Session. To avoid delay in the enforcement of these provisions a Royal Order of 20 January 1926 appointed a Joint Committee on the engagement of seamen, in accordance with the terms of Article 5 of the Convention."

The *Estonian* Government states in its report that a Bill concerning a Seamen's Institute has just been submitted to the Assembly of State. Under this title there is to be set up, under Government control, an autonomous seamen's institution, which will be directed by representatives of shipowners and seamen. One of the tasks of the institution is the finding of employment for seamen and especially the obtaining of work for seamen who are unemployed. The engagement of seamen will take place in the presence of the authorities of the Seamen's Institute. The Bill lays down that every seaman must be in possession of articles of agreement in a form approved by the Minister of Communications, containing all guarantees necessary for the protection of the parties concerned. Effect will thus be given

to the provisions of Article 7 of the Convention.

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 all the points mentioned in the form of report.

I.

Please give a list of the legislation and administrative regulations, etc., which apply the provisions of the Convention. Where this has already not been done, please forward copies of the said legislation, etc., to the International Labour Office with this report.

Australia.

Commonwealth Navigation Act, 1912-1926.

Belgium.

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.

Act of 1 August 1917 respecting employment exchanges.

Finland.

Act of 21 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 8 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 23 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.
Act of 2 June 1910 relating to employment agents (B. B., Vol. V, 1910, p. 171).
Employment Exchanges Act of 22 July 1922 (L. S. 1922, Ger. 3), replaced by the Act of 16 July 1927 mentioned above.

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 § 20 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 1920 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.

Seamen's Employment Exchange Act of 11 April 1922 (L. S. 1922, Jap. 2).

Imperial Ordinance No. 496, 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 (Ordinance 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. 374), 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 engagement and registration 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.

Act of 12 June 1906 relating to employment bureaux (B. B. Vol. I, 1906, p. 305).

Poland.

See the *Convention concerning unemployment*.
Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902 (R. G. Bl. 1902, p. 175).

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 persons without means seeking work (B. B. Vol. XI, 1916, p. 277) as amended by the Royal Decrees of 16 May 1918 and 23 May 1919.

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. — § 4 of the Royal Order of 20 January 1926 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. (See also the introductory note above.)

Bulgaria. — The Act of 12 April 1925 respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance uses the expression "seamen" without special definition.

Estonia. — The term "seamen" is not used in the Act of 1 August 1917 which deals with the finding of employment for workers generally.

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 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 "seaman". 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. The Bill concerning the regulation of seamen's articles of agreement contains the provisions of the Convention. (See introductory note above.)

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. As regards the public exchanges, § 13 of the Employment Exchanges Act of 1 August 1917 provides that "any member or employee of an employment exchange who receives from any person using the exchange recompense in any form whatsoever for information relating to situations vacant or for sending workers shall be liable to imprisonment up to three months."

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 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 following of the Act provide that any person company or agency for pecuniary gain are, under § 2 of the Legislative Decree of 7 October 1925, 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 or 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 authorised 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 gain 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 1924 the number of professional seamen's employment agents was seven. Since that date no enquiry has been made into the subject. No information is available upon the activities of these agents. 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 1927. The policy of the Government is to extend gradually free employ-

ment 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, Sarpsborg, 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.

ARTICLE 4.

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 ship-owners 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 public 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 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. It is 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 such ports and in such cases in which the recruiting of seamen does not take place through the office mentioned above, the maritime commissioners, with the assistance of the Joint Committee, see that the provisions of the Convention are observed.

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. — § 2 of the Employment Exchange Act of 1 August 1917 provides that local employment exchanges shall be set up by all urban or rural communes with a population of over 50,000 inhabitants and that the Minister of Labour may instruct any urban or rural commune with a population of less than 50,000 inhabitants to set up a local employment exchange. In virtue of this Act fourteen exchanges have been established. Their services, which in accordance with § 8 of the Act are provided free of charge, are at the disposal of all persons desirous of obtaining employment without distinction of occupation. The Government, however, states that seamen do not ordinarily make use of these exchanges as they have no difficulty in obtaining employment by direct application to masters or shipowners. A service for finding employment for its members free of charge has also been established by the Seamen's Federation. (See also introductory note).

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 a 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, Portoferraio, 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 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, Shimonoseki, 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 (Yokka-ichi), 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 satisfactory 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, Trondjhem 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 communal 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 directly. 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 eighteen 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 six 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 1927: applications for work 57,164; vacancies notified 21,196; vacancies filled 20,536. 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 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 referred to in Article 5 of the Convention. Such committees, it has been assumed; are necessary only where employment agencies are not maintained wholly by the State."

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 1927 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 (314). 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. — According to § 5 of the Employment Exchanges Act, shipowners and seamen may participate in the election of representatives on the committees entrusted with the management of the exchanges. (See also introductory note.)

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 ad-

visory 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, but it is expected that it will be set up in the near future.

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 proposed new legislation 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. — No special provisions bearing on this subject are contained in the Act of 1 August 1917.

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 Ship-owners' 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 Bill concerning the regulation of seamen's articles of agreement submitted to Parliament on 22 July 1926.

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. — There is no special provision upon this subject in the Act of 1 August 1917. See, however, the introductory note.

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 his engagement, 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.

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 services of the employment exchanges are at the disposal of foreign workers.

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, but, as the Decree does not make express provision for foreign seamen, the necessary measures will shortly be promulgated.

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.

Please state whether provisions similar to those in the present Convention have been put into 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 Bill 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 for 1926 stated that similar provisions had not been put into force for deck and engineer officers.

Finland. — The report states that the employment exchanges are also open, if necessary, to deck and engineer-officers. The maritime employment exchange at Helsinki is 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.

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 possibility 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 Government states that apart from occasions on which numbers of seamen have been thrown out of work owing to industrial disputes, there has been no marked unemployment amongst seamen in the Commonwealth. No definite figures are available, but arrangements are being made for the furnishing of periodical reports by the Commonwealth officials at the principal ports as to the extent of unemployment. An endeavour will also be made to furnish an approximate estimate of the average unemployment during each period of twelve months.

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 two years, no unemployment among seamen has been reported. No statistics have therefore been furnished.

Estonia. — The report makes no reference to the question of communicating information to the Office.

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 report states that it would be desirable to define more clearly what is meant by "co-ordination". If the International Labour Office wishes to secure the co-ordination of the various national agencies for finding employment, the German Government is prepared to take part, so far as is possible.

Greece. — The organisation of the work of placing seamen set up by the Decree of 22 June 1927 will make it possible to communicate statistical and other information from 1 March 1928. As regards the co-ordination 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. — The Government has furnished the Office with statistics of the operations of all the seamen's employment offices during the year 1927. On 1 January 1927, 16,598 seamen were on the books and 61,334 were entered during the year: total, 77,932. Of these, 18,862 entries were cancelled, 36,505 seamen were placed, and 22,565 remained on the books on 1 January 1928. 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 *Sociala Meddelanden*. The proceed-

ings 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 Act of 1 August 1917 is entrusted to the factory inspectors. See the

analysis of the annual report upon the *Convention concerning employment of women during the night*.

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.

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 January to October 1927 is as follows: — Vacancies notified: free agencies, 23,137; fee-charging agencies, 1,466; Applications for work: free agencies, 38,386; fee-charging agencies, 1,453; Applications satisfied: free agencies, 22,641; fee-charging agencies, 1,369. 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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification.	Reports received.
Austria	12. 6. 1924	19. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Czechoslovakia . .	31. 8. 1923	7. 2. 1928
Estonia	8. 9. 1922	10. 1. 1928
Irish Free State. .	26. 5. 1925	7. 2. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Japan	19. 12. 1923	27. 1. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Sweden	27. 11. 1923	30. 1. 1928

The Government of *Austria* states that the subject-matter of this Convention is dealt with by implication in the Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the employment of children, the provisions of which are much more restrictive than those of the Convention. Although this Act is fully applied, special reference is made to it in some of the Acts passed by the federated provinces respecting agricultural workers and domestic servants, by which the conditions of labour of agricultural workers and farm hands are regulated. 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.

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 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 1905 respecting school attendance.
Act of 19 December 1918 respecting the employment of children (B.B. Vol. XII, 1918, p. 19).
Order of 10 August 1919 of the Federal Ministry of Public Education.
Administrative Instruction of 23 January 1920 respecting the supervision of child labour (L. S. 1920, Aus. 17).
Text of the Convention published in the *Bundesgesetzblatt* of 19 July 1924.
Various Acts passed by the federated provinces.

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).

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.

Japan.

Imperial Ordinance of 20 August 1900 concerning elementary schools.

Poland.

Constitution of the Republic of Poland of 17 March 1921 (L. S. 1921, Pol. 3).

Education laws in force in the former Russian, Austrian and Prussian parts of Poland, and in Upper Silesia.

Sweden.

Order of 26 September 1921 relating to primary education.

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.

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, § 4 of which lays down as a general limitation that "children 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 felling 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; this restriction does 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). The report adds that "the governing principles (*deklaratorische Anordnungen*) of the agricultural codes issued by the provinces on the subject of the employment of children are almost all worded as follows: 'children who are subject to compulsory school attendance shall not be employed—irrespective of the provisions of the Act of 19 December 1918—except to such extent as the employment does not interfere with school attendance. When children are employed particular care must be devoted to their health and their physical development.' These provisions, so worded, form a binding and unalterable legal requirement."

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."

Czechoslovakia. — § 10 of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 19 December 1918 prohibits the employment of children "before the conclusion of their compulsory school attendance, and before they are fourteen years of age." According to § 1 (4), the Act applies to agriculture and forestry in respect to the regular employment of persons living outside the household of the employer and receiving daily, weekly or monthly wages. These provisions are supplemented by those of the Act respecting child labour of 17 July 1919, which regulates the employment of children under fourteen years of age "without prejudice to more far-reaching limitations in other Acts". As far as agricultural employment is concerned, this Act applies to children living in the household of the employer. By § 7 of the same Act, the employment of children under fourteen years of age is prohibited in undertakings and occupations mentioned in the schedule to the Act, which includes brick works, lime kilns, etc., operated in connection with agricultural undertakings, and also the following: "tending power machines, and all machines, shaftings and lifts driven by

motor power ; employment in connection with straw and fodder cutting machines ; wood felling and chopping ; threshing ; reaping." Children between the age of ten and fourteen years may only be employed on light work in agriculture subject to the condition that such employment does not injure their health or endanger their physical or mental development and provided that they are not thereby prevented from carrying out their compulsory school attendance (§ 4). It is further provided in § 5 that this employment may not exceed two hours on school days, and that employment during the two hours immediately preceding school and during one hour after school is prohibited.

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 compulsory school attendance shall not be employed except during the school holidays."

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 implicitly 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 employing in their undertakings children who are not fulfilling their scholastic obligations.

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 forbidden to prevent the children from attending school.

Poland. — Article 103 of the Constitution of 17 March 1921 prohibits the employment for wages of children below the age of fifteen years and of children subject to compulsory school attendance, and Article 118 makes primary education compulsory for all Polish citizens.

Sweden. — Children may not be employed in agriculture save outside the hours fixed for school attendance by the Order of 26 September 1921 relating to primary education.

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 harvest, 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. The section only allows exemptions from school attendance for 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. The report adds that the legislative measures adopted by the various provinces contain provisions regarding penalties for infringement of the law. These legislative measures effectively ensure the presence of the children at school, although in some provinces it has not yet been possible in all cases to avoid serious offences against the law. The report states in this connection that an Order of the Federal Ministry of Public Education, of 10 August 1919, laid down the rule that the hours of school attendance should be concentrated in the forenoon. The main object of this provision

was to allow children in the country to perform in the afternoon any agricultural work which might be given to them.

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.

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 pre-

scribed 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.

ARTICLE 3.

The provisions of Article I shall not apply to work done by children in technical schools, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

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.

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.

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.

Irish Free State. — The legislation in question being an Act for enforcing compulsory attendance at schools 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 elementary education in Japan is a national affair and hence the administration of the Ordinance is 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 of the application of the Ordinance is carried out by the governors of the prefectures.

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 Bill to regulate conditions of employment in agriculture and forestry, which was drafted in accordance with § 12 (1), para. 5 of the Constitution, refers to the existing Federal legislative measures respecting the employment of children and declares that they have binding legislative force. Exact statistical information concerning the number of children employed in agriculture cannot be supplied. Reference may, however, be made to the statistical information published as an appendix to No. XII of the official journal *Volkserziehung* of 1927, by the Federal Ministry of Public Education, in which the total number of children subject to compulsory school attendance is given on p. 33, together with information relating to exemptions and penalties.

Irish Free State. — The Government reports that it is not possible, at this stage, to furnish any statistics concerning the number of children employed subject to the conditions provided for in the Convention, nor is it possible to give particulars of any of the contraventions reported.

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 1900. 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.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927:

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification.	Reports received.
Austria.	12. 6. 1924	19. 1. 1928
Belgium	19. 7. 1926	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	
Czechoslovakia	31. 8. 1923	7. 2. 1928
Estonia	8. 9. 1922	10. 1. 1928
Finland	19. 6. 1923	16. 1. 1928
Germany	6. 6. 1925	13. 2. 1928
Great Britain	6. 8. 1923	3. 2. 1928
India	11. 5. 1923	7. 3. 1928
Irish Free State	17. 6. 1924	17. 1. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Latvia	9. 9. 1924	13. 2. 1928
Netherlands	20. 8. 1926	28. 12. 1927
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Sweden	27. 11. 1923	30. 1. 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 1919 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.

Act of 18 July 1923 respecting associations, federations and political organisations (L. S. 1923, Lat. 1).

Netherlands.

Constitution of the Netherlands.
 Act of 22 April 1855 regulating the exercise of the rights of association and combination.

Poland.

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 agriculture 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. In addition to these constitutional legislative measures which date from the days of the monarchy, the legislation of the Republic has laid down only general principles, which are to be found in some of the codes respecting agricultural workers and domestic servants issued by the provinces. Most of these agricultural labour codes state as a principle that neither the employer, nor his representative nor the members of his family may prevent the worker from exercising the right of combination which is guaranteed to him by the Constitution; these codes sometimes 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 the contract of engagement.

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.

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 ap-

plicable to the *Belgian Congo* or to the mandated territories, since local conditions do not allow it at present.

Great Britain. — This Convention has been applied to *British Guiana, Ceylon, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, the Straits Settlements, and Trinidad and Tobago*. It has not been considered suitable for application 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 their own 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 inadvisable 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 peasant 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. — Information will be given by the Minister of 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.

Belgium. — 19 July 1926.

Bulgaria. — 1 April 1925.

Czechoslovakia. — 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, 56,956 members in 67 branches; (2) Agricultural and Forestry Workers' Union of the Polish Trade Union Federation, 83,764 members in 49 branches and 1,814 groups; (3) Christian Agricultural Workers' Unions of the Republic of Poland, 17,078 members in 18 branches.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927:

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification.	Reports received.
Bulgaria	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	
Denmark	26. 2. 1923	27. 2. 1928
Estonia	8. 9. 1922	10. 1. 1928
Germany.	6. 6. 1925	13. 2. 1928
Great Britain.	6. 8. 1923	3. 2. 1928
Irish Free State	17. 6. 1924	17. 1. 1928
Netherlands	20. 8. 1926	28. 12. 1927
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Sweden	27. 11. 1923	30. 1. 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.

Act of 28 June 1920 (L. S. 1920, Den. 2) amending the Act of 6 July 1916 respecting insurance against the consequences of accidents (B. B. Vol. XII, 1917, p. 7).

Act of 14 July 1927 replacing the Act of 28 June 1920.

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 19 July 1911, text promulgated on 9 January 1926 (L. S. 1926, Ger. 1).

Great Britain.

Workmen's Compensation Acts, 1897-1925 (L. S. 1925, G. B. 3).

Irish Free State.

Workmen's Compensation Acts 1906-1919 (B. B. Vol. I, 1906, p. 18).

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.

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.

Act of 17 June 1916 respecting insurance against industrial accidents (B. B. Vol. XI, 1916, pp. 267), partially amended by the Acts of 15 June 1922 (L. S. 1922, Swe. 2) and 18 June 1926 (L. S. 1926, Swe. 5).

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 28 June 1920, 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." The report states that this provision has not been changed by the Act of 14 July 1927.

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 Code¹ shall apply to accidents met with by persons covered by the Act. Chapter 7 of the Industrial 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 insurance².

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 "workman" 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 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 compul-

¹ Russian Industrial Code, Vol. II of the Collection of Laws, Part II of 1913 edition.

² 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, 3 February 1920 and 4 April 1923, under which insurance is compulsory.

ory 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 agricultural undertakings, by which modification contributions will be collected by the communes. Under a Bill respecting social insurance, which provides for compulsory sickness, invalidity and life insurance, agricultural undertakings of not more than 30 hectares are also included. Meanwhile, provisions for compensation for accidents occurring on agricultural undertakings of less than 30 hectares have been included in collective agreements regulating conditions of labour and wages.

Sweden. — The Act of 17 June 1916 respecting insurance against industrial accidents, as amended by the Acts of 15 June 1922 and 18 June 1926, 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 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.

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 premiums to Insurance Companies to insure against having to pay compensation under a Compensation Law.

Netherlands. — Information will be furnished by the Minister for 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.

Bulgaria. — 6 March 1925.
Denmark. — 19 May 1923.
Estonia. — 26 February 1923.
Germany. — 6 June 1925.
Great Britain. — 6 August 1923.
Irish Free State. — 17 June 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.

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 28 June 1920, 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 Saorstát Éireann 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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Austria	12. 6. 1924	19. 1. 1928
Belgium	19. 7. 1926	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	—
Czechoslovakia . .	31. 8. 1923	7. 2. 1928
Estonia	8. 9. 1922	10. 1. 1928
France	19. 2. 1926	2. 3. 1928
Greece	22. 12. 1926	10. 3. 1928
Latvia	9. 9. 1924	13. 2. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Rumania	4. 12. 1925	12. 3. 1928
Spain	20. 6. 1924	2. 3. 1928
Sweden	27. 11. 1923	30. 1. 1928

The Government of *Austria* has informed the Office of the promulgation on 30 March 1928 of an Order issued on 4 February 1928 and relating to the notification of cases of lead poisoning caused by painting, varnishing and lacquer work. The Government further states that the statistics prescribed by Article 7 of the Convention and dealing with cases of death by lead poisoning will be regulated by means of a Decree. By this Decree the medical officers of the political authorities of first instance will be instructed to furnish, in the quarterly reports on health, statistical conditions with regard to cases of death due to lead poison-

ing caused by painting, varnishing and lacquer work, also information on the personal particulars of the deceased and the place at which death took place.

The Government of *Bulgaria* reports that the provisions of the Convention are applied within the limits of the Health and Safety of Workers Act of 1917, but that as the provisions of this Act are not in accordance with Article 1 of the Convention, the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour is preparing a Bill with a view to securing the complete application of the Convention. The Government has further informed the Office that the amendment of the Act to which the report refers has not yet been adopted by Parliament, since it will be included in a more comprehensive Bill to amend the Act concerning the health and safety of workers. It is added that since white lead is scarcely used in Bulgaria for the painting of buildings, the provisions of the Convention are merely formal. 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.

The report of the Government of *Estonia* states that a Bill to give effect to the provisions of the Convention has been brought before the Council of Ministers, but has not yet been voted by the State Assembly. The Government hopes that the Bill will be passed during the next session of the Assembly.

The *Greek* Government states, in the letter forwarding its annual reports to the Office, that further measures are necessary to secure the complete application of the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting. These measures, which deal with the prohibition of the use of sulphate of lead, are being prepared.

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, and the Government hopes to secure its adoption during the present session of Parliament. The reports adds that up to the present Latvia has no statistics relating to lead poisoning among workers.

In *Poland*, an Order of the President of the Republic respecting the manufacture, importation and use of white lead, sulphate of lead, and other lead compounds, was issued on 30 June 1927 (L. S. 1927, Pol. 7). The object of this Order is to apply the provisions of the Convention in an uniform

manner throughout the territory of Poland; it came into force on 8 March 1928. Further, an Order of the President of the Republic of 22 August 1927 relating to the prevention and combating of occupational diseases (L. S. 1927, Pol. 9) which came into force six months from the date of promulgation, contains provisions bearing on the application of Articles 5 and 7 of the Convention. The report states that, in drafting the Order of 30 June 1927, the competent authorities consulted the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. The regulations to be issued in application of the Order will be submitted in advance to the Labour Legislation Council, which consists of 45 membres, of whom 30 represent in equal numbers the employers' and workers' organisations and are chosen from lists of candidates submitted by these organisations.

The Government of *Rumania*, in reply to the letter of the Office of 21 November 1927 forwarding the forms for annual reports, states in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention will be incorporated in the draft Labour Code which is now being prepared.

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 since the regulations to be observed in Spain will not be fully applied, under the terms of the Royal Decree mentioned above, until 1 November 1928, and since the measures under which the Convention has begun to be applied are still very recent, it has not been possible to furnish a complete report. Nevertheless, the Spanish Government states 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)).

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).

Bulgaria.

Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (B. B. Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 26).

See also the introductory note above.

Czechoslovakia.

Act of 12 June 1924 issuing regulations for the protection of the life and health of persons employed in painting, varnishing and decorating (L. S. 1924, Cz. 1).

France.

Code of Labour and Social Welfare, Book II §§ 78, 79 and 80, as amended by the Act of 31 January 1926 (L. S. 1926, Fr. 1).

Decree of 1 October 1913 respecting the use of white lead in painting work (B. B. Vol. IX, 1914, p. 69).

§ 12 of the Act of 25 October 1919 to extend to industrial diseases the Act of 9 April 1898 respecting industrial accidents (L. S. 1920, Fr. 7).

Decree of 19 February 1927 respecting the application of § 12 of the Act of 25 October 1919 (L. S. 1927, Fr. 2).

Greece.

Act of 6 August 1921 respecting the prohibition of the use of white lead, red lead and litharge in the building industry and in other work (L. S. 1921, Part II, Gr. 2 A).

Royal Decree of 17 December 1921 respecting the prohibition of the use of white lead, red lead and litharge, and of all other compounds of these oxides, in the painting of buildings, ships, etc. (L. S. 1921, Part II, Gr. 2 B).

Order of 28 January 1922 of the Commission appointed in pursuance of § 3 of the Royal Decree of 17 December 1921 (L. S. 1922, Gr. 1).

Act No. 2994 of 3 August 1922 for the ratification of the Convention.

Poland.

Austrian Order of 15 April 1908 issuing regulations for the protection of persons employed in painting, varnishing and decorating (B. B. Vol. III, 1908, p. 31).

German Order of 27 June 1905 respecting undertakings carrying out painting and varnishing work, etc. (French translation in B. B. Vol. IV, 1905, p. 198).

Order of 20 September 1920 respecting the notification of cases of lead, zinc, phosphorus, arsenic, and mercurial poisoning in industrial establishments, factories and workshops (L. S. 1920, Pol. 2).

See also the introductory note above.

Spain.

Royal Decree of 19 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 as from 1 November 1928, subject to the exceptions laid down in this Decree (L. S. 1926, Sp. 3).

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.

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, 1913, 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 employers, and workers' organisations concerned.

It shall nevertheless be permissible to use white pigments containing a maximum of 2 per cent. of lead expressed in terms of metallic lead.

Please give a list of the cases (if any) where the use of white lead or sulphate of lead or products containing these pigments has been considered necessary by the competent authority after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, stating what is the competent authority in your country for this purpose and what means have been adopted for the consultation of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned.

Austria. — The Order of the Federal Ministry of Social Administration of 8 March 1923, under § 74a of the Industrial Code, issuing regulations for the protection of the life and health of persons employed in painting, varnishing and decorating carried on by way of trade lays down under § 5 (1) that "white lead, lead sulphate, and products of which substances containing lead are ingredients, shall not be used in the interior painting of buildings. Railway stations, and industrial undertakings where the use of white lead, lead sulphate or products containing these

colouring matters is certified as necessary by the industrial authorities, after consultation with the chambers of commerce, crafts and industry and the wage-earning and salaried employees' councils, shall be an exception hereto." § 5 (2) specifies that the use of white lead and other colours 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 the painting 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 is 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 1927 states that "the exceptions under (c) and (d) were reproduced from §§ 4 and 3 of the Order of 15 April 1908¹ 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." In a further communication on this subject the Ministry of Social Affairs observes "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-resisting 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.

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. — During 1927 the application of the provisions of the Convention continued to be based on the different laws of the States of which Poland once formed part, as supplemented by measures taken by the Polish authorities: (a) In that part of Poland which formerly was part of Russia, the Minister of Public Health, in agreement with the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare and in accordance with the fundamental Health Act of 19 July 1919 and the Infectious Diseases Act of 25 July 1919, issued the Order of 20 September 1920, in virtue of which every case of lead poisoning must be notified within twenty-four hours to the competent communal authorities. These authorities, or their health officers, must proceed to make an enquiry, the results of which they communicate to the district health office. This latter office in its turn notifies the factory inspector, enquires together with the inspector whether preventive measures have been taken, and orders such further measures as are necessary. (b) In that part of Poland which formerly was part of Austria the legislation relating to white lead consists of the above-mentioned Order of 20 September 1920 and an earlier Order issued by the Minister of Commerce in agreement with the Minister of the Interior and dated 15 April 1908. This last Order stipulates in § 24 that "no white lead or paints, colours and cement containing lead shall be used by way of trade for interior work." Paints for interior work are defined as "those intended

¹ B. B. Vol. III, 1908, p. 31.

for use, permanently or principally, in places where they will not be directly exposed to the open air.” It is further provided in the same section that exceptionally the industrial authority may authorise the use of the prohibited substances “in the case of operations which would otherwise be done abroad.” In such cases the necessary measures of precaution must be laid down. (c) In that part of Poland which formerly was part of Prussia, in addition to the above mentioned Order of 20 September 1920, there is in force a German Order of 27 June 1905 respecting undertakings carrying out painting and varnishing work, etc. This Decree lays down measures of precaution to be taken in connection with lead dust, in the preparation of lead paints, etc. See also introductory note.

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 shall be prohibited on and after 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. The enquiry in question was to be instituted by the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry 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.

Czechoslovakia. — 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.

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. — The various Orders in force do not contain the exception provided by Article 2 of the Convention. See also introductory note.

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 conditions laid down in the second paragraph; please state also what methods were adopted for the consultation of the employers' and workers' organisations concerned.

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 work-rooms 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 report states that the competent department is preparing regulations in conformity with Article 3 of the

Convention, and will presently consult the various bodies specified in the Act of 2 July 1899 under which these regulations will be issued.

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."

France. — The question of 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 for which the prohibition in general—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.

Greece. — The report does not refer to this Article, but the Decree of 17 December 1921 includes "works in general" in the prohibition of the use of white lead, red lead and litharge, and all other compounds of these oxides.

Poland. — The Order of 15 April 1908 which is in force in that part of Poland which formerly belonged to Austria stipu-

lates in § 5 that "women and young persons shall not be employed in the execution of painting, varnishing or decorating work in which the use of white lead or lead compounds is permissible or has been sanctioned in pursuance of § 4." § 5 (3) lays down that "an exception shall apply in the case of young apprentices who have completed the fourteenth year of their age in so far as their employment in the processes contemplated in the first paragraph of this Section is necessary for the purpose of teaching them the trade. Notwithstanding, no such person shall be so employed for more than six weeks altogether." See also introductory note.

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 shall be 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. This enquiry 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.

Belgium. — The Belgian Act came into force on 22 October 1926.

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 provisions of the Order of 15 April 1908 in force in the part of Poland that formerly belonged to Austria, and prohibiting the use of white lead and other colours and putties containing lead in internal painting, came into force by the terms of § 13 of the Order in question on 1 April 1909. See also introductory note.

Spain. — §§ 1 and 3 of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 provide that the prohibitions therein stipulated shall come 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). An Order providing that all actual or suspected cases of lead poisoning must be notified was promulgated on 30 March 1928. 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 scraping 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 headgear kept exclusively for work. § 8 requires workmen to wear clothing and headgear 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 and this form of propaganda will be continued".

Bulgaria. — I. See introductory note. II. Under the general provisions of the Health and Safety of Workers Act, 1917, workers whose work brings them into contact with machines, apparatus, liquids, gases, etc., 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 reports 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 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 during these processes or in the filling and emptying of the receptacles for substances containing lead." § 5 (6) lays down that "the employer shall provide the workers with suitable respirators for work involving the raising of much dust", and § 7 (1) prescribes that the workers are to use such respirators. I (c). § 5 (4) provides that "dry paint or putty containing lead shall not be scraped or rubbed down until it has been damped. The scraped-off substance and the fragments falling during the pro-

cess of scraping shall be removed while still damp." II (a). § 4 (2) of the Act provides that in industrial undertakings usually employing not less than 15 workers a separate lavatory capable of being heated must be supplied, while § 4 (4) lays down that 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 work is over. II (b). § 4 (4) prescribes that the employer shall see that the workers using white lead or other pigments, 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 instruction of workers takes into account the provisions of paragraph II of this Article of the Convention. III (a) and (b). It is provided in § 8 (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 work-rooms 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.

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). This question is being studied. 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 1919 respecting industrial diseases, and the Decree of 4 May 1921, amended by the Decree of 19 February 1927. The question of verification by a medical man appointed by the competent authority is dealt with under the next heading. III (b). The Government has now under consideration 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. A study of the question has been made, and its results are now being considered. 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 question of 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, has been studied and that the conclusions of this study are now being considered.

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 damped in such a way as to prevent the generation of dust. II (a). § 9 of the Decree provides that any worker who uses 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), and IV. The report does not refer to these provisions.

Poland. — I (a). No precisely identical provisions are found in the Austrian Order of 15 April 1908 and the German Order of 27 June 1905 which are in force in the former Austrian and Prussian provinces of Poland. Nevertheless, provision is made in both cases for the mechanical grinding of white lead and for the prevention of the generation of dust. I (b). The Austrian Order of 1908 provides in § 8 that respirators must be provided for workmen employed in processes with lead or lead compounds in which a great quantity of dust is generated. I (c). § 7 (2) of the Austrian Order of 15 April 1908 lays down that "the grinding or pumication of any colour or cement containing lead shall only be done after such materials have first been damped. The ground mass and the refuse arising in the process of grinding shall be removed while still damp"; whilst the Order of 27 June 1905, in force in the former Prussian territory, provides in § 3 that dry paint containing lead may not be scraped or rubbed down until it has been damped, and that the scraped-off substance and other fragments resulting from the

process of rubbing down and scraping must be removed before they are dry. II (a). The Orders in force in Poland contain provisions relating to washing facilities. 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 head 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. 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. III (a) and (b). § 11 of the Order of 1908 lays down that "the employer shall see that the workmen... shall, on showing the first symptoms of lead poisoning, be referred without delay to the medical officer of the sick club. In undertakings where more than 20 persons are employed the employer shall see that such persons as are engaged in processes which involve the use of lead or lead compounds shall be examined at least once every three months by a medical practitioner to see whether they show any signs of lead poisoning". The Order of 1905 in force in former German territory provides in §§ 10 and 11 for the appointment for each establishment of a medical officer, accepted by the administrative authorities, who must examine the workers at least once in six months, and for the keeping of a medical register which must be produced at the request of the inspecting authorities. In addition, the Order of 20 September 1920, which applies throughout Poland, provides for the notification and verification of cases of lead poisoning. 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. See also introductory note.

Spain. — § 5 of the Royal Decree of 19 February 1926 provides that, as from the date of promulgation of the Decree, the use of white lead, sulphate of lead and all products containing these pigments shall be

regulated. The general principles of such regulation are laid down in § 5, and it was further provided in § 9 that the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry should issue the necessary regulations for the administration of the Decree within six months. I (a). § 5 (1) provides that white lead, etc., may only be used in the form of paste or of paint ready for use, and § 5 (2) stipulates that all receptacles containing white lead, etc., shall be conspicuously labelled as containing poison. I (b). § 5 (3) provides that measures shall be taken to prevent danger arising from the application of paint in the form of spray. I (c). § 5 (5) stipulates that white lead paint shall not be scraped or rubbed down dry, and the burning off of layers of old paint containing white lead, etc., is also prohibited. The regulations are to specify the cases in which damp scraping and rubbing down are impossible and the precautions which must be taken in such cases. II. § 5 (6) provides that rules are to be laid down regarding the measures of cleanliness to be used by working painters who handle white lead, etc. III. By § 6 cases of lead poisoning and of suspected lead poisoning must be subsequently verified by a medical practitioner appointed by the chief officer of the provincial public health authority concerned, and the said authority may require the workers to be medically examined whenever it considers this necessary. Medical men must at once notify the provincial public health inspector of cases of lead poisoning or of suspected lead poisoning which come to their notice. IV. § 7 provides that the labour inspectorate is to distribute to working painters instructions having the force of regulations respecting the special hygienic precautions to be observed in the painting trade.

Sweden. — I (a). The Act of 19 February 1926 lays down, in § 4 (a), that pigments shall not be used by the workers except in the form of paste or of paint ready for use. I (b) and (c). § 4 (b) of the Act provides that measures shall be taken as far as possible to prevent poisoning through the application of paint in the form of spray and in dry scraping and dry rubbing down. II (a). § 4 (c) lays down that adequate washing facilities shall be provided for the use of the workers, both during and after work. II (b). § 4 (d) provides 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 workers 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 considered necessary, the chief industrial inspection authority shall propose to the competent provincial authority (*länsstyrelse*) that all or some of the working painters at a particular workplace or in the employment 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 conformity with the proposal. § 7 provides that a medical practitioner who makes an examination as provided in § 6 may lay down special conditions for the employment 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 instructions 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 authority 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 accordance 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 gives no information regarding the provisions of this Article.

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."

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.

Poland. — See the introductory note above.

Spain. — The report makes no reference to this Article.

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 :

(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. — The report states that statistics dealing with lead poisoning have not been prepared up to the present. It will be possible to prepare such statistics when the Order respecting the notification of all cases of lead poisoning comes into force (see introductory note). As regards cases of lead poisoning which came to the notice of factory inspectors during 1926, reference may be made to the special report of the medical officer attached to the factory inspectorate and published in the "Report of the Factory Inspectors upon their Activities in 1926", pp. 35-36.

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 lead poisoning is an occupational disease for the purposes of the Social Insurance Act of 1924. Only one fatal case of poisoning by lead or lead compounds has been notified during three years.

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.

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 1,505, 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 does not refer to this Article of the Convention.

Poland. — Statistics of white lead poisoning are drawn up in accordance with the provisions of the Order of 20 September 1920. See also introductory note.

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 only two cases of poisoning of this kind have been notified. Both occurred in 1927 at the Royal Naval Arsenal at Stockholm.

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 under the control of the Superior Labour and Social Insurance Council.

Czechoslovakia. — The factory inspectors and the district and communal medical officers are entrusted with the supervision of the Act of 12 June 1924.

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. As regards the nature of the offences, some information is contained in the "Report of the Factory Inspectors upon their Activities in 1926", pp. 18, 19, 51, 76 and 105.

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.

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 Czechoslovakia factory inspectorate for 1927 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 1926, only three contraventions were reported.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received.
Belgium	19. 7. 1926	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Chile	15. 9. 1925	
Czechoslovakia	31. 8. 1923	7. 2. 1928
Estonia	29. 11. 1923	10. 1. 1928
Finland	19. 6. 1923	16. 1. 1928
France.	3. 9. 1926	18. 2. 1928
India	11. 5. 1923	7. 3. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Latvia.	9. 9. 1924	13. 2. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Rumania.	18. 8. 1923	12. 3. 1928
Spain	20. 6. 1924	2. 3. 1928

The report of the Government of *Chile* has not yet been received.

The report of the Government of *India* states that the question of specifying the branches of railway work in which a weekly rest day will be allowed in accordance with the Convention is under consideration. The matter was referred to the Indian Railway Conference Association, whose recommendations on the subject are being considered, and the final decision of the Government will be communicated to the International Labour Office in due course. In the covering letter forwarding the annual report, the Government of India expresses the hope that it will now be possible to specify the classes of railway servants which should be granted a weekly rest day in accordance with the provisions of the Convention.

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 17 July 1905 relating to the Sunday rest in industrial and commercial undertakings, (French text in B. B. 1905, Vol. IV, p. 212) amended by the Acts of 25 May 1914 and 24 July 1927, (L. S. 1927, Belg. 6) and Orders issued in pursuance thereof.

Bulgaria.

Act of 1917 respecting the health and safety of workers (B.B. Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 26).
Act of 1911 respecting holidays and Sunday rest (French translation in B.B. Vol. XVII, 1918, p. 67).

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. 1-3).
Austrian Act of 16 January 1895 relating to the regulation of the Sunday rest and of holidays as amended by the Act of 18 July 1905 (B.B. Vol. IV, 1905, p. 311, German text).
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 (B.B. 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 30 December 1926 respecting special exceptions to the Act of 27 November 1917 respecting the eight-hour working day (L.S. 1926, Fin. 5).
Resolution of the Council of State of 30 December 1926 respecting hours of work in continuous undertakings (L.S. 1926, Fin. 5).
Factory Inspection Act of 4 March 1927.

France.

Code of Labour and Social Welfare, Book II, §§ 30 and following.
Decree of 24 August 1906, amended by the Decree of 13 July 1907, relating to the supervision of the enforcement of the Act relating to the weekly day of rest (B.B. Vol. I, 1906, p. 291 and Vol. II, 1907, p. 384).
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. 288).

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 30 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 134 a).

Decree of the President of the Republic of 7 June 1927 relating to industrial law.

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 and 8 July 1926.

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.

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:

(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, 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) raft-making and lumbering; (h) loading and unloading of merchandise; (i) commercial, office or warehouse work; (k) inns, hotels and cafés; 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 way 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 Legis-

¹ See above under *Hours Convention*, ARTICLE 10.

lative Decree of 2 December 1923, and of the staff employed in States services in the Legislative 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. 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 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.

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 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.

Czechoslovakia. — § 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 1895 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. — § 31 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 manager 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 brakemen 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 carried 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.

Latvia. — § 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. 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. 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 1919 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 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: ".... (j) 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 § 13 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 § 19 these exceptions shall not apply to women or to young persons under sixteen years of age.

Spain. — § 1 of the Decree of 8 June 1925 prohibits "manual work" (*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, *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 during the week and which is indispensable for that purpose; (3) to work which is rendered indispensable by impending disaster, or an accident, or other circumstances which are not of a recurring nature and could not be foreseen. In regard to these cases, however, § 6 stipulates that the number of workers employed on Sunday must be reduced to the minimum strictly necessary, that the workers shall only work the hours mentioned as indispensable in the application for authorisation, that the same workers shall not be employed the whole day on two consecutive Sundays, that they shall be granted a break of one hour for church attendance without loss of pay, that a period of rest of twenty-four consecutive hours 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 the 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 § 3 (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.

Latvia. — The report states that there has been no necessity to permit the exception provided by Article 3.

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.

Rumania. — 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.

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 1905, 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 weekdays. § 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) and (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 regulations 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 §§ 29, 30, 32 and 32 A of the Factories Act. § 29 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 (c) 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 indigo factory or 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 § 23 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.

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 custom 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, those 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 of § 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, brakesmen 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 not 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 4 of the Convention are, wherever possible, conditional on compensatory periods of rest being given.

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. — § 13 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).

Spain. — § 7 of the Decree of 8 June 1925 provides for compensatory rest in cases of suspensions or diminutions 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 3 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 as 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 § 3, 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 books, 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 24 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' assistants. 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 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 processes 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 work 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 application 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 in docks and railway stations and in docks and railway warehouses.

2. *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 industrial 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 thereof ; 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. Manufacture of papier mâché, of paper, of paper pasteboard, of cardboard partially or completely dried, in sheets or news print, polishing, cutting, sorting and packing of the manufactured goods ;
- (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 ;
- (5) Wood working : manufacture of veneering woods, steam heating of the blocks, preparation, glueing 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 refrigerating premises.

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 30 December 1926 respecting special exceptions to the Act of 27 November 1917, issued under § 12 of the Act, provided that during the year 1927 the Act was not to apply to the following works and undertakings : construction, repair and maintenance 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 ; hospitals. Further, until other provisions were issued, or until the end of June 1927 at latest, the Act was not to apply to railways, as regards the staff paid by the year or month ; the postal, telegraph and customs services, and prisons, canals and swing bridges.

By the Resolution of the Council of State of 30 December 1926 respecting hours of work in continuous undertakings, the weekly rest provisions of the Act were not to apply during 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 : furnace 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-metallurgical smelting furnaces ; chemical and electro-chemical works, e.g. soap, cement, chlorate, and chloride of lime works ; paper, wood, pulp and cellulose factories, as far as regards the departments for bleaching, boiling, preparation of the acid bath and lye, the digesting process, clearing the draining troughs, and the utilisation of bye-products.

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 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 prefect 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 the weekly rest, but only 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 under-

takings concerned are enumerated in the Decree as follows : (1) blast furnaces and appliances connected therewith, (2) pig-iron mixers, (3) continuous steel furnaces, (4) shafts and furnaces for re-heating steel ingots, (5) sundry blister 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) zinc furnaces, (10) shaft furnaces for lead and copper metallurgical operations, (11) furnaces for refining of copper and matte-concentrates, (12) continuous revolving furnaces for sintering minerals or making cement, (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 factories 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 provided in § 2 of the Decree that where the two-shift system is worked, the workers concerned must be given a twenty-four hours' rest once a fortnight or an eighteen hours' rest once a week at the change of shift, and a compensatory rest of twenty-six days per year ; where the shift system is not worked the weekly rest of specialist workers may, under certain conditions, be reduced to twenty-six days per year ; where the three-shift system is worked, the weekly rest of the workers concerned may be reduced to twenty hours for two weeks, on condition that it is twenty-four hours the third week. Another exception is permitted by § 41, in the case of undertakings where the weekly rest is granted the same day to all the staff, as regards persons employed in connection with generators and motors, greasing and inspection of shafting, cleaning, and watching.

Article 4 : Temporary exceptions : § 40 provides for exceptions in cases of urgent work, the immediate execution of which is necessary for the organisation of life-saving measures, or for the prevention of imminent accidents or the repair of accidents to material, machinery or buildings ; these exceptions do not apply to young persons under 18 years of age or to women under 21 years of age. In those classes of undertakings in which work has to be suspended owing to weather conditions, § 45 allows the time lost to be deducted each month from the days of weekly rest. § 46 provides that industries which only work at certain seasons of the year, in the open air, may suspend the weekly rest fifteen times a year. § 47 also allows the weekly rest to be suspended fifteen times a year, but on condition that the workers concerned are granted two days' rest a month, in industries which use perishable materials, which have at certain periods to meet exceptional pressure of work and which grant the weekly rest to all the staff on the same day. These exceptions do not apply to young persons under 18 years of age or to women of any age, except in the undertakings specified in the Decree of 29 April 1913.

India. — For exemptions in the case of factories authorised under §§ 30 and 32A of the Factories Act, and, in respect of mines, under §§ 24 and 25 of the Mines Act, see under ARTICLE 4.

Italy. — The report refers to the exceptions contained in the relevant legislation and regulations and states that no modifications have been made during the year 1927. The following is a summary of the provisions in question :

§ 2 of the Act of 7 July 1907 lays down that the obligation to grant an unbroken period of rest of twenty-four hours shall not apply : (a) at any time when business is being carried on in industries which deal with raw materials of a very perishable nature and which are only carried on during a

short season of the year; (b) during ten weeks of the year in the case of industries carried on directly by wind and water. Notwithstanding, in this case the period of rest must be allowed for a fortnight; (c) during six weeks of the year in industries which have a recognised period of extraordinary pressure. § 8 further provides that the regulations relating to Sunday rest may be suspended in certain places by Prefectural Order where temporary circumstances give rise to an unusual rush of business. In pursuance of § 2, lists of industries and occupations in which exceptions to the weekly rest are permitted have at various times been issued by Ministerial Decree.

(These lists are given in the Appendix on pp. 167-168)

§ 10 (4-6) of the Legislative Decree of 22 July 1923 containing service regulations for the staff of the State railways provides that to meet the requirements of the service or difficulties which arise in the drawing up of the working lists and shift time-tables, the weekly rest may be deferred for one or two days. In case of pressure of work or owing to other exceptional circumstances, the weekly rest periods of the staff with the exception of the locomotive guards and train staffs (drivers, firemen, electric train staff, head guards, senior guards, guards, brakemen on train duty) may be anticipated by, or deferred for, not more than one month. In these circumstances, not more than two of the said rest periods may be granted in immediate succession provided that their total duration shall be twenty-four hours more than the duration of the first period. The Legislative Decree of 19 October 1923, amended by the Legislative Decree of 2 December 1923, relating to persons employed in the public services, provides general exceptions in unforeseen exceptional circumstances and in case of *force majeure* and danger of accident. § 156 of 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 work may only be performed on holidays in exceptional cases when it is necessary to meet the constant and special difficulties of the service, which cases are to be laid down in the regulations of the various administrations, or in exceptional and urgent cases where the work cannot be adjourned. With regard to the compensatory rest, § 165 of the same Decree lays down that when Sunday work is necessitated in application of § 156, the workers must be granted compensatory rest of one day's duration during the same week or the following week. Nevertheless, workers whose services consist of watching or the execution of intermittent jobs carried on even outside the normal time-table and during the night, e.g., caretakers, concierges, watchmen, turncocks, labourers, seamen on wharf duty, and other workmen to be specified in regulations dealing with them, are permitted to surrender their right to this compensatory rest.

Latvia. — The question does not arise.

Poland. — The question of providing information regarding exceptions under Article 3 does not arise. As regards Article 4, the report furnishes information of which the following is a summary:

Work is permitted on Sundays and public holidays in the following cases in virtue of §§ 6 and 11 of the Eight-Hour Day Act of 18 December 1919: (a) For indispensable public utility services 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 such cases the employer must notify the compe-

tent labour inspection office in advance if it is proposed to employ workers more than three hours). (b) In establishments working continuously for the performance of work which cannot be suspended on account of the technical nature of the processes; in the undertakings and the cases provided for in § 6 (c) of the Act which specifies that in undertakings working continuously, and in so far as it is absolutely necessary for the working of the undertaking, the Minister of Labour, in agreement with the Minister of Industry and Commerce, on the advice of the trade associations of workers and employers, may authorise the extension of hours of work for particular groups of workers to not more than 56 hours per week on the average, in such manner that the eight-hour day be extended on one day in each week for one shift or for two successive shifts, provided that work is so distributed that each worker has a rest period of not less than twenty-four hours at least twice in every three weeks. (c) 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). (d) 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 cases for a period exceeding three months (in such cases the provisions of § 13 relating to compensatory rest apply). A Decree of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare respecting work at night and on Sundays and holidays in preparatory processes in the bakery trade, dated 10 December 1921, authorises the employment on Sundays and holidays of persons required for the preparation of leaven and yeast of all kinds.

Rumania. — See ARTICLE 4.

Spain. — See ARTICLE 4.

ARTICLE 7.

In order to facilitate the application of the provisions of this Convention, each employer, director, or manager, shall be obliged:

(a) Where the weekly rest is given to the whole of the staff collectively, to make known such days and hours of collective rest by means of notices posted conspicuously in the establishment or any other convenient place, or in any other manner approved by the Government.

(b) Where the rest period is not granted to the whole of the staff collectively, to make known, by means of a roster drawn up in accordance with the method approved by the legislation of the country, or by a regulation of the competent authority, the workers or employees subject to a special system of rest, and to indicate that system.

In addition, please forward specimen copies of the notices and rosters specified in virtue of this Article.

Belgium. — § 8 of the Sunday Rest Act provides that employers must post such notices and keep such registers as may be necessary for the purposes of inspection.

§ 2 of the Act of 15 June 1896 relating to workshops' regulations stipulated that such regulations should show the hours and days of rest, and that the regulations should be posted in the undertaking. No models have been prepared by the Government.

Bulgaria. — The Health and Safety of Workers Act, 1917, provides in § 20 that "every employer shall be bound to enter in the works' rules of his undertaking the time at which the period of rest is to be allowed to the workers."

Czechoslovakia. — The Industrial Code provides 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. 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.

Finland. — 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 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 transport services 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. A draft Order of the President of the Republic relating to the contract of employment has been prepared, and will shortly be issued, making uniform provisions for the whole of the territory of the Republic.

Rumania. — The Act of 18 June 1925, and the Regulations of 24 June 1925 issued in application of the Act, contain no provisions equivalent to those of Article 7.

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 13 July 1906 (now incorporated in the Labour Code) were made applicable in this colony under a Decree of 21 January 1903.

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.
Spain. — 9 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 is entrusted 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.

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 : 1925, 2,175 ; 1926, 2,546.

India. — See the analysis of the report on 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. As regards contraventions, the number reported by the factory inspectors in 1927 was 4,146.

APPENDIX.

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.

No.	INDUSTRY.	Occupations in respect of which the exception is allowed.
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(Ministerial Decree of 30 October 1908.)

1.	Silk worm rearing and the silk industry	In respect of the collection of cocoons and the suffocating of the chrysalis.
2.	Breeding	During the season when the caterpillars emerge.
3.	Unrefined beetroot sugar factories	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.
4.	Fish pickling	During the only season (not exceeding three months) when it is possible to prepare any particular kind of fish.
5.	Fish preserving	Ditto.
6.	Margarine factories	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.
7.	Sausage factories	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.
8.	Candied fruit factories	In respect of the receipt, cleaning, and first cooking of the fruit.
9.	Tomato preserving factories	In respect of all occupations from the receipt of the tomatoes until the packing of the preserves.
10.	The oil industry.	In respect of all workmen employed in the oil industry in the treatment of fresh olives.
11.	Preserved food factories	In respect of all occupations in the receipt and treatment of the food required to prevent it going bad.
12.	Extraction of alcohol and cream of tartar from grape husks	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.
13.	The vine growing industry	In respect of the transport and pressing of the grapes, drawing off the must, fermentation of the must, and the pressing of the husks.
14.	Almond cake factories	In respect of all occupations in the manufacture of the cakes including the despatching of the same.

(Ministerial Decree of 7 August 1909.)

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.
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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 :

No.	INDUSTRY.	Occupations in respect of which the exception is allowed.	Duration of the exception.
<i>(Ministerial Decree of 31 October 1908.)</i>			
1.	Toy factories	In respect of the whole manufacturing process and of despatching	Six weeks before Christmas.
2.	Candied fruit, chocolate, biscuit, and confectionery	Ditto.	Three weeks before Christmas and three before Easter.
3.	Bathing establishments and hydropathic institutions	In respect of the whole staff employed in such establishments	The summer season.
4.	The manufacture of machines and receptacles for wine and oil	In respect of repair of wine and oil machines and the manufacture of the casks	The months of August, September, and October.
5.	The publishing trade (modified by the Ministerial Decree of 23 December 1909)	In respect of the publication, the binding and despatch of school books	The months of October and November.
6.	The fur trade	In respect of the making of fur goods	The months of October, November and December.
<i>(Ministerial Decree of 7 August 1909.)</i>			
7.	Undertakings for refining and milling sulphur and the store rooms appertaining to the same	In respect of all occupations in loading ships, waggons and vehicles for immediate departure	From 15 April to 31 May.
8.	Manufacture of cells for silkworm breeding	In respect of the workers employed in the manufacture of cells	During six weeks before breeding time.
<i>(Ministerial Decree of 9 November 1909.)</i>			
9.	Renovation of gravestones etc., and work in the gardens of cemeteries	In respect of the staff employed on this work and excluding the staff employed in the manufacture of new monuments, etc.	During the last fortnight in October.
10.	Manufacture of funeral wreaths	In respect of the staff employed on this work.	During the month of October.
<i>(Ministerial Decree of 11 April 1910.)</i>			
11.	Daily newspapers	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	Six weeks in the months of December and January.
<i>(Ministerial Decree of 13 February 1911.)</i>			
12.	Undertakings for the cleaning and repair of stoves and chimneys	In respect of the whole staff employed in the undertakings	During the months of October, November and December.
13.	Game and poultry industries	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	From the second Sunday in December to the second Sunday in January.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927:

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification.	Reports received.
Belgium	19. 7. 1926	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Canada	31. 3. 1926	---
Denmark	12. 5. 1924	27. 2. 1928
Estonia	8. 9. 1922	10. 1. 1928
Finland	10. 10. 1925	16. 1. 1928
Great Britain . . .	8. 3. 1926	3. 2. 1928
India	20. 11. 1922	7. 3. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Latvia	9. 9. 1924	13. 2. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Rumania	18. 8. 1923	12. 3. 1928
Spain	20. 6. 1924	2. 3. 1928
Sweden	14. 7. 1925	30. 1. 1928

The Government of *Belgium* reports that the provisions of the Convention will be definitely embodied in Belgian law by the Bill relating to seamen's articles of agreement which was submitted to Parliament on 22 July 1926 and adopted by one of the Chambers on 1 June 1927. This Bill will probably become law during the present session of Parliament. Meanwhile, the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms.

The report of the Government of *Canada* has not yet been received.

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.

The report of the Government of *Latvia* states that a Bill concerning the employ-

ment of children and young persons on board ship has been drawn up, which embodies the provisions of the Convention. This Bill has been adopted by the Social Legislation Commission of the Saeima, and, according to later information, the Government hopes that it will be passed during the next session, i.e. in May or June 1928.

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention had been taken into consideration in drafting the Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of working hours. The Office has since been informed that this Bill was adopted by the Senate on 10 March and by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March 1928, and promulgated on 9 April 1928.

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.

See introductory note.

Bulgaria.

Regulations of 8 August 1923 relating to the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

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.

Act of 20 May 1924 relating to the employment of children, young persons and women in industrial undertakings (L. S. 1924, Est. 1).

Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 19 February 1925 respecting the prohibition of the employment of young persons under the age of eighteen years as stokers and trimmers (L. S. 1925, Est. 1).

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, 1894.

Merchant Shipping (International Labour Conventions) Act, 1925 (L. S. 1925, G. B. 5).

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.

Poland.

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).

Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare of 29 July 1925 enumerating the occupations in which young persons may not be employed.

Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902. (Freuch text in B. B. 1902, Vol. I, p. 357.)

Spain.

Labour Code of 23 August 1926 (L. S. 1925, Sp. 1).

Sweden.

Seamen's Act of 15 June 1922 (L. S. 1922, Swe. 1) amended by the Act of 27 February 1925 (L. S. 1925, Swe. 1).

Royal Order of 13 June 1911 concerning shipping offices and the engagement and discharge of seamen, etc.

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. — See introductory note.

Bulgaria. — The Regulations relating to the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company use the term "vessel" without further definition.

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 term "vessel" is not specifically defined in the Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, dated

19 February 1925, respecting the prohibition of the employment of young persons under the age of eighteen years as stokers or trimmers.

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 "vessel" is given in the Regulations for seamen's employment exchanges, but this term has in Italian law the same meaning as in the Convention.

Poland. — No special definition for the term "vessel" is given for the purposes of this Convention, but 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.

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.

Sweden. — No specific definition of the term "vessel" is given in the Seamen's Act of 15 June 1922, as amended by the Act of 27 February 1925. 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.

ARTICLE 2.

Young persons under the age of eighteen years shall not be employed or work on vessels as trimmers or stokers.

Belgium. — See introductory note.

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.

Denmark. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923 stipulates that young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed as stokers or coal trimmers.

Estonia. — By § 11 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act, the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare is empowered to supplement the present provisions of the Act by drawing up, in agreement with the other Ministers concerned, a list of unhealthy and exhausting occupations in which young persons under eighteen years of age must not be employed. In pursuance of this clause, the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, after consultation of the Minister of Communications, issued an Order on 19 February 1925 § 1 of which prohibits the employment as trimmers or stokers of young persons under eighteen years of age.

Finland. — § 10 of the Seamen's Act of 8 March 1924 provides that "young male persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed as stokers or coal trimmers on steam vessels."

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.

India. — See introductory note. The instruction issued by the Governments of Madras, Bengal, Bombay and Burma reproduce the provisions of this Article.

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.

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.

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. — See introductory note.

Bulgaria. — By § 5 of the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company it is pro-

vided 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.

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. — § 2 of the Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare 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.

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.

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. — See introductory note.

Bulgaria. — This exception is not permitted by the Regulations respecting the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Denmark. — This exception is not permitted by the Seamen's Act of 1 May 1923.

Estonia. — § 3 of the Order of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare 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.

Poland. — No similar provision is contained in the Decree of 29 July 1925.

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^E 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. — See introductory note.

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.

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. — § 21 of the Employment of Children, Young Persons and Women Act, under which the Order of 19 February 1925 was issued, provides that the head of every industrial undertaking (the definition of which includes transport by sea) is to keep a register showing the date of birth of all persons under eighteen years of age employed by him.

Finland. — By § 10 of the Seamen's Act the age of young persons under 18 years must be established by means of a certificate delivered by the 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 rating of each member of the crew have to be registered in these articles of agreement.

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 status of each member of the crew (§ 323 of the Regulations).

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.

Spain. — See the analysis of the report on the *Convention fixing the minimum age for the 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, when this Convention was ratified by India, proposals for the general amendment of the Indian Merchant Shipping Law were under consideration and it was thought that instead of undertaking separate legislation for giving effect to the provisions of the Convention necessary amendments to the Merchant Shipping Act arising from the Convention should be incorporated in the general amending Bill. Unfortunately for various reasons it has not been found possible so far to introduce in the Indian Legislature a Bill for the general amendment of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, but in the meantime the objects of the Convention have been well secured by executive orders. The Government of India, however, now proposes to undertake separate legislation. It is further stated that, in the time allowed for the submission of the report, it was not found possible to collect full details and statistics from the various local authorities in India, but that this is being done, and the information when collected will be supplied to the International Labour Office.

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification	Reports received
Belgium.	19. 7. 1926	23. 1. 1928
Bulgaria.	6. 3. 1925	16. 2. 1928
Canada	31. 3. 1926	
Estonia	8. 9. 1922	10. 1. 1928
Finland	10. 10. 1925	16. 1. 1928
Great Britain. . .	8. 3. 1926	3. 2. 1928
India	20. 11. 1922	7. 3. 1928
Italy	8. 9. 1924	20. 2. 1928
Japan	7. 6. 1924	27. 1. 1928
Latvia	9. 9. 1924	13. 2. 1928
Poland	21. 6. 1924	5. 3. 1928
Rumania.	18. 8. 1923	12. 3. 1928
Spain	20. 6. 1924	2. 3. 1928
Sweden	14. 7. 1925	30. 1. 1928

The Government of *Belgium* reports that the provisions of the Convention will be definitely embodied in Belgian law by the Bill relating to seamen's articles of agreement which was submitted to Parliament on 22 July 1926 and adopted by one of the Chambers on 1 June 1927. This Bill will probably become law during the present session of Parliament. Meanwhile the provisions of the Convention are applied in accordance with their terms.

The report of the Government of *Canada* has not yet been received.

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 report of the Government of *Latvia* states that no change has taken place since the last report as regards the measures

taken to apply this Convention. The report for 1926 stated that "before the ratification of the Convention there were no legislative or administrative measures in Latvia guaranteeing the medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea. Pending the drafting of such a law the Department of Marine of the Ministry of Finance promulgated on 26 February 1924 an administrative Decree requiring of all port authorities and inspectors that children and young persons be admitted to employment at sea solely in accordance with the provisions of the Convention. To secure the application of the provisions of the Convention a Bill has been drafted which will shortly be submitted to Parliament."

As regards *Rumania*, the Government, in reply to the letter of the International Labour Office of 21 November 1927 transmitting the forms for annual reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles, explained in a communication dated 7 March 1928 that the provisions of this Convention had been taken into consideration in drafting the Bill relating to the employment of women and children and to the regulation of working hours. The Office has since been informed that the Bill was adopted by the Senate on 10 March and by the Chamber of Deputies on 26 March, and promulgated on 9 April 1928.

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.

See introductory note.

Bulgaria.

Regulations of 8 August 1923 relating to the crews of merchant vessels belonging to the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Estonia.

Act of 18 December 1925 concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (L. S. 1925, Est. 3).

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, 1894.
Merchant Shipping (International Labour Conventions) Act, 1925 (L. S. 1925, G. B. 5).

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).
Imperial Ordinance No. 482 of 19 November 1923, issued under the Act of 29 March 1923 (L. S. 1923, Jap. 4).
Regulations of 19 November 1923 for the enforcement of the Act of 29 March 1923 (Ordinance of the Department of Communications, No. 96).

Latvia.

Administrative Decree of the Department of Marine of the Ministry of Finance, dated 26 February 1924.

Poland.

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).
Seamen's Code of 2 June 1902. (French text in B. B. 1902, Vol. I, p. 357.)

Spain.

Labour Code of 23 August 1926 (L. S. 1925, Sp. 1).

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. 264 of 22 May 1925.

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. — See introductory note.

Bulgaria. — The Regulations respecting the crews of merchant vessels belonging

to the Bulgarian Navigation Company use the term "vessel" without further definition.

Estonia. — § 1 of the Act of 18 December 1925 concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea defines "vessel" as including all merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned, which are entered in the Estonian shipping register.

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 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 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 39.7083 gallons.

Latvia. — See introductory note.

Poland. — No special definition of the term "vessel" is given for the purposes of this Convention, but 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.

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. 263 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 Luring, are not deemed to be engaged in maritime navigation for the purposes of the Convention. No exception has been made for ships of war.

ARTICLE 2.

The employment of any child or young person 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, signed by a doctor who shall be approved by the competent authority.

Belgium. — See introductory note.

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."

Estonia. — The Act of 18 December 1925 concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea lays down in § 2 that the employment of any child or young person 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 marine officer of the port.

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 excepted 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 20 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 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. — See introductory note.

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.

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. — See introductory note.

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.

Estonia. — The Act of 18 December 1925 concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea lays down in § 3 that 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 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 vessel reaches the port in which there is a doctor approved by the marine officer of the port.

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 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. — See introductory note.

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.

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. — See introductory note.

Bulgaria. — The question does not arise in regard to the crews of the vessels of the Bulgarian Navigation Company.

Estonia. — The Act of 18 December 1925 concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea provides in § 4 that in urgent cases the marine officer of the port may allow a young person below the age of eighteen years to embark without having undergone the examination provided for in §§ 2 and 3 always provided that such an examination shall be undergone at the first port at which the vessel calls where there is a duly appointed doctor.

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 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 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 urgency. 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. — See introductory note.

Poland. — The Employment of Women and Young Persons Act contains no parallel provisions.

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 : *Bermuda, Cyprus, Fiji, Jamaica, Trinidad* : and, with slight modifications, to the following : *Mauritius, Seychelles, Straits Settlements*. 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 § 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 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.

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.

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 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*.

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 factory inspectors and to the marine officer of the port.

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 children to industrial employment*.

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. — See the analysis of the *Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers*.

Japan. — The report states that no contraventions have been reported.

Spain. — The report states that no contraventions worthy of note have been reported.

SEVENTH SESSION (GENEVA, 1925).

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 1926, and from which annual reports under Article 408 were due in respect of the year 1927 :

COUNTRIES	Date of registration of ratification.	Reports received
South Africa	30. 3. 1926	24. 1. 1928
Great Britain. . . .	6. 10. 1926	3. 2. 1928
Sweden	8. 9. 1926	30. 1. 1928

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.

South Africa.

Workmen's Compensation Act No. 25 of 1914, extended by Act No. 13 of 1917 to provide compensation in the case of certain industrial diseases.

Great Britain.

Workmen's Compensation Acts, 1897-1926 (L. S. 1925, G. B. 3 and 1926, G. B. 10).
Workmen's Compensation (Transfer of Funds) Act, 1927.

Sweden.

Act of 17 June 1916 respecting insurance against industrial accidents (B. B. 1916, Vol. XI, p. 267), amended by the Acts of 15 June 1922 (L. S. 1922, Swe. 2) and 18 June 1926 (L. S. 1926, Swe. 5).
Royal Decrees of 17 December 1926, 24 March 1927, 6 May 1927 and 7 October 1927 granting exceptions from certain provisions of the Act of 17 June 1916 in the case of nationals of South Africa, Czechoslovakia, Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes and Belgium.

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.

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.

Sweden. — Under § 27, last paragraph, of the Accident Insurance Act the Govern-

ment 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, and Belgium. 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.

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.

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 had been made in the Union prior to the ratification of the Convention by the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1914.

Great Britain. — 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.

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.

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 no amendments to workmen's compensation legislation were made during 1927.

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.

Great Britain. — The report states that the officers administering the Governments of the Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories have recently been invited to consider whether this Convention is suitable for adoption in the territories under their administration or whether it can be applied in a modified form.

The question does not arise in the case of *Sweden*.

IV.

Please state upon which date the application of the provisions of this Convention came into effect.

South Africa. — 8 September 1926.

Great Britain. — 6 October 1926.

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.

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.

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 territorial 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 the Convention is being applied as above stated without respect to nationality. The transfer of the administration of the Workmen's Compensation Act to the Department of Labour has only been effected recently, and no attempt has been made in the past to secure regular statistics which would give information concerning the number of foreign workers, their nationality, and their territorial and occupational distribution. Endeavours will be made to secure this information for future years.

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.

Geneva, May 1928.

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.

In accordance with the suggestions made in the report¹ submitted to the 1927 Session of the International Labour Conference by the Committee set up by the Conference to examine the reports addressed by the States Members of the International Labour Organisation in virtue of Article 408 of the Treaty of Peace, the Committee of Experts appointed to study these reports and report on them to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office was convened by the Director on 5 March, while in 1927 it was possible for the Committee to meet only at the beginning of May².

Before proceeding to the examination of the reports, which had been communicated to each of its members by the International Labour Office, the Committee decided, at the request of several of its members, to refer to the minutes of the Committee set up by the 1927 Session of the International Labour Conference to examine the reports furnished under Article 408 of the Treaty and to the report submitted by that Committee to the Conference. These documents were placed at the disposal of its members by the International Labour Office. The Committee found that the Conference Committee had taken as the basis of its discussion both the Report of the Director and the report of the Committee of Experts; that if, as a matter of fact, certain remarks had been made in the course of the deliberations of that Committee by several of its members with regard to the limits of the terms of reference of the Committee of Experts, these remarks were not included in the report presented to the Conference by its Committee and adopted by the Conference without any modification or criticism; that, moreover,

the supplementary information spontaneously furnished to the Committee of the Conference or to the Conference itself in 1927 by certain States whose legislation had given rise to observations by the Committee of Experts clearly showed that the Committee had correctly accomplished the task which had been entrusted to it; that there could not therefore be any doubt whatever that the method which the Committee of Experts had followed in the course of its deliberations in 1927 had appeared judicious; that, further, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office had not given any contrary indication; that, in consequence, the Committee should continue its work in the same spirit which had inspired it in 1927 and should endeavour to ascertain, in particular: whether the States which had ratified Conventions had fulfilled the obligation to furnish a report as provided for in Article 408; whether these reports contained all the particulars necessary for verifying the concordance of the legislation of these States with the Conventions; and what supplementary information it was desirable to request certain States to furnish.

The Committee of Experts accordingly proceeded to the examination of the reports. It noted first of all that out of 209 reports due to be furnished, having regard to the number of Conventions adopted and the number of ratifications registered since the Washington Conference, 175 had been received by the Office at the date of the meeting of the Committee and could be submitted to it for examination (see Appendix). The Committee was informed that it had only been possible to despatch the new forms of report to the States towards the end of November, a circumstance which explains the delay in certain cases. But the Committee would observe that, although it has been materially impossible for certain States separated from Europe by very long distances to forward their reports in due time and that in consequence they cannot be held responsible for the delay, certain other States nearer home appear not to have given sufficient atten-

¹ Cf. *Final Record of the Tenth Session of the International Labour Conference*, Vol. I, p. 555.

² The list of the members of the Committee is contained in the introduction to the Second Part of the Director's Report.

tion to the formal desire expressed by the 1927 Conference that the reports should be rendered before the end of January. The Committee of Experts cannot refrain from noting that the missing reports have prevented it from fully carrying out its work. However, the examination of the reports which it has had before it makes it possible for the Committee to submit to the Governing Body a number of observations which appear to be of interest.

In the first place, the modifications which it thought necessary to suggest in the forms of report, and which the Governing Body was good enough to adopt, have had the result that the reports are more exact and contain more information. It is difficult, however, to see why certain States in submitting their reports have adhered to the old forms of report. There would undoubtedly appear to have been some misunderstanding, the repetition of which it would be desirable to avoid.

In the second place, the Committee of Experts was happy to find that almost all the reports concerned contained satisfactory replies to the observations which the Committee had felt obliged to make with regard to the reports in 1927, to the questions which it had raised, and to the requests for information which it had formulated. By these replies the States have shown clearly that they are in agreement with the Governing Body which, in requesting supplementary information, consequent upon the work of the Committee, had no other object than to give the States concerned an opportunity for explaining more clearly the bearing of their legislation, and in some cases also to enable them to fill up certain lacunae.

On one particular point, the application of the Conventions to colonies, the Experts had suggested in 1927 that in their opinion it would be desirable if the States would be good enough to state what were the local conditions which prevented the application to their colonies of the provisions of the Conventions which they had ratified. The Committee has noted with satisfaction that certain States have notified, in accordance with Article 421 of the Treaty, the action taken in respect of each colony, possession or protectorate as regards the application of the Convention in question, and that, in particular, Great Britain has given in certain cases an account of the conditions which have led to the decision not to apply the Convention or to apply it with modifications in accordance with the first paragraph of the same Article.

After having examined the 175 reports which have been submitted to it, the Committee would observe that, of these reports, 155 do not give rise to any observations, and that the legislation of the States which have furnished these reports, as far as it is possible for the Committee to judge, is in conformity with the Conventions. Referring to its report of 1927, the

Committee has noted that on that occasion only 110 reports had not given rise to any observations; the difference appears to the Committee to be very satisfactory. In a certain number of the other reports the Committee has noted cases of insufficient information, sometimes an excessive brevity or obscurity, and the observations which it has thought fit to formulate are embodied in the second part of this report with a view to supplementary information being requested from the States. If, as there is reason to hope, the supplementary information is forwarded to the International Labour Office before the 1928 Conference, the procedure suggested in the report presented to the Conference in 1927 could be followed, "reference to these additions could be made in the Report of the Director and the documentation before the Conference will be satisfactory."

In concluding this brief summary of its work, the Committee of Experts would express to the Governing Body, and in the most objective manner, its conviction that the method of examination of the reports made under Article 408 instituted by the Resolution of the Conference of 1926 makes it possible to follow more accurately the development of international labour legislation and thus facilitates the work of mutual information contemplated by Article 408.

* * *

List of points on which the Committee of Experts considered that the reports which had been submitted to it called for observations or supplementary information:

I. Convention limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the work¹.

Bulgaria. — The Committee notes that as regards the prolongation of working hours to 56 when the work is organised in shifts, the report for 1926 had stated that "if the work is done in shifts, such work is divided into two or three shifts of workers working eight hours. In this case the work continues for 56 hours and the extra eight hours become legal on the weekly rest day, so that the working hours on weekdays are still 48 hours". On the same question the report for 1927 states: "The work is divided between two or three shifts of workers working eight hours, so that at the end of the week there is a total of 48 hours work for each shift. An extension of work to 56 hours is unlawful according to the Ukase. It is for this reason that the list required by Article 7 of the Convention has not been submitted." The Committee considers it desirable that supplementary information should be furnished on the organisation of work in shifts in industries working continuously.

Czechoslovakia. — The Committee has taken note of the declaration of the Czechoslovak Government according to which the remuneration for overtime is regulated by the collective agreements in such a way that such overtime is paid

¹ The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Chile, Greece, Rumania.

in principle at a rate exceeding one and one-quarter times the regular rate.

II. Convention concerning unemployment¹.

Bulgaria. — The Committee notes that the report states that, for the current year, provision is made for 35 employment offices in the whole country and for employment exchanges at Sofia and Philippopolis. It would be useful to know at what date these exchanges began to function.

III. Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth².

Bulgaria. — The Committee notes that the question which it has raised last year with regard to the definition of the term "period of confinement" used in Bulgarian legislation has not received an answer.

IV. Convention concerning employment of women during the night¹.

Bulgaria. — The Committee notes that the Act of 1917 does not expressly provide for a night rest period of eleven consecutive hours. It would be desirable to know by what provisions this rest is ensured.

V. Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry².

Bulgaria. — The question of the provisions by which the night rest of eleven consecutive hours is ensured applies to this Convention also.

France. — The Committee notes that new public administrative regulations are at present in course of preparation. It would be useful if the International Labour Office were kept informed of the progress of this preparatory work.

The Committee notes that, according to the report, bakeries are not regarded, under French legislation and jurisprudence, as industrial establishments, while it would appear that they are covered by the Convention. It would be useful to know whether a minimum age limit with regard to night work in bakeries exists in France.

The Committee also notes that exceptions are provided for in the case of industries in which the work relates to raw materials or to materials in course of treatment which are subject to rapid deterioration, when such exceptions are necessary to save these materials from certain loss, and that these exceptions are considered as falling within the cases of *force majeure* which interfere with the normal working of an undertaking. The Committee considers it desirable that additional particulars should be furnished with regard to this interpretation of Article 4 of the Convention.

Netherlands. — The Committee notes that the general regulations for the railway and tramway services do not appear to prescribe expressly a night rest period of eleven consecutive hours. It would be useful to know by what provisions this period of rest is ensured.

VI. Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship³.

Estonia. — It would be desirable to know the date on which the Estonian Government expects that the Bill for application, at present in course of preparation, will be adopted.

¹ The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Greece, Rumania.

² The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Chile, Greece, Rumania.

³ The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Canada, Greece.

VII. Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen¹.

The Committee would observe that, generally speaking, the joint committees provided for in Article 5 of the Convention do not appear to have been established in all cases according to the provisions of this Article.

Norway. — The Committee has taken note of the declaration made by the Government Delegate at the Tenth Session of the Conference with regard to private employment agencies. It would be useful to know within what period the Norwegian Government expects that the fee-charging agencies will disappear.

VIII. Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture.

Given that the Convention does not involve the obligation to provide for school attendance up to 14 years of age, the Committee does not consider that the reports call for any observations.

IX. Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting².

Austria. — The Committee notes that an Ordinance relating to the notification of cases of lead poisoning is at present in course of preparation and will shortly be promulgated.

Belgium. — The Committee notes that regulations concerning the employment of young persons under 18 years of age and of women are at present in preparation. It would be desirable that the International Labour Office should be kept informed of the measures taken or contemplated on this subject.

Bulgaria. — The Committee would observe that the report for 1927 states that the period of six years provided for by the Convention would be respected. This period, however, expired on 20 November 1927 and it does not appear from the report that at this date Bulgarian legislation had been brought into conformity with the Convention. It would be desirable to obtain information regarding the date on which the Bulgarian Government expects that legislation on the subject will be brought into operation.

Estonia. — It would be desirable to know the date on which the Estonian Government expects that legislation to give effect to the provisions of the Convention will be brought into force.

France. — It would be desirable that the International Labour Office should be kept informed of the results of the enquiries relating to the prohibition of the employment of young persons under 18 years of age and of women, and to the extension to sulphate of lead of the regulations concerning white lead.

Latvia. — The Committee considers it useful to obtain information regarding the date on which the Latvian Government expects that the Bill adopted by the Social Legislation Commission of the Saeima will become law.

Czechoslovakia. — The Committee, in noting the replies made to the questions which it had asked last year, would observe as regards the exception provided by Czechoslovak legislation for "the application of the first coat in cases of mere touching-up of old white paint containing lead" that it does not appear to it that this exception, although it may only be used in very rare cases, is in conformity with the Convention. The Com-

¹ The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Australia, Greece.

² The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Chile, Greece, Rumania.

mittee considers it desirable to draw the attention of the Czechoslovak Government to this point.

X. Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers¹.

Latvia. — It would be desirable to obtain information with regard to the date on which the Latvian Government expects that the Bill already adopted by the Social Legislation Commission of the Saeima will become law.

XI. Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea¹.

Finland. — It would be useful to know whether the "registered medical practitioners" "authorised by the Central Medical Administration", mentioned in the reply of the Finnish Government Delegate at the 1927 Conference, are special public health medical officers or ordinary medical practitioners.

Sweden. — The Committee considers it desirable to ask the Swedish Government whether the "medical practitioners approved by the Royal Administration of Public Health", referred to in the reply of the Swedish Government Delegate at the 1927 Conference, are special public health medical officers or ordinary medical practitioners.

(Signed) JULES GAUTIER.

Reporter.

Geneva, 8 March 1928.

APPENDIX.

A. List of annual reports received and examined by the Committee.

Conventions	Countries	Date of reception of reports by the Office
Hours	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
Unemployment	South Africa	24. 1. 1928
	Austria	19. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Denmark	27. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	France	28. 1. 1928
	Germany	13. 2. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Irish Free State	25. 1. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Japan	27. 1. 1928
	Norway	9. 1. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
	Switzerland	16. 1. 1928
Childbirth	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Latvia	1. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928

¹ The reports of the following countries had not reached the Office and were not examined: Canada, Rumania.

Conventions	Countries	Date of reception of reports by the Office
Night work of women	South Africa	24. 1. 1928
	Austria	19. 1. 1928
	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	France	25. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Irish Free State	11. 1. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Netherlands	28. 12. 1927
	Switzerland	16. 1. 1928
Minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	Denmark	27. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	Irish Free State	17. 1. 1928
	Japan	27. 1. 1928
	Latvia	1. 3. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Switzerland	16. 1. 1928
Night work of young persons employed in industry	Austria	19. 1. 1928
	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Denmark	27. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	France	27. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Irish Free State	17. 1. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Latvia	1. 3. 1928
	Netherlands	28. 12. 1927
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Switzerland	16. 1. 1928
Minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Denmark	27. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	Irish Free State	11. 1. 1928
	Japan	27. 1. 1928
	Latvia	1. 3. 1928
	Netherlands	28. 12. 1927
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
Unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
Facilities for finding employment for seamen	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	Germany	13. 2. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Japan	27. 1. 1928
	Latvia	1. 3. 1928
	Norway	17. 1. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928

A. List of annual reports received and examined by the Committee (contd.).

Conventions	Countries	Date of reception of reports by the Office
Age for admission of children to employment in agriculture	Austria	19. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 1. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Irish Free State	7. 2. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Japan	27. 1. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
Rights of association and combination of agricultural workers	Austria	10. 1. 1928
	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	Germany	13. 2. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Irish Free State	17. 1. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Latvia	13. 2. 1928
	Netherlands	28. 12. 1927
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
Workmen's compensation in agriculture	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Denmark	27. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Germany	13. 2. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	Irish Free State	17. 1. 1928
	Netherlands	28. 12. 1927
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
White lead	Austria	19. 1. 1928
	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	France	2. 3. 1928
	Latvia	13. 2. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
Weekly rest	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Czechoslovakia	7. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	France	18. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Latvia	13. 2. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
Minimum age for admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Denmark	27. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Latvia	13. 2. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928

Conventions	Countries	Date of reception of reports by the Office
Compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea	Belgium	23. 1. 1928
	Bulgaria	16. 2. 1928
	Estonia	10. 1. 1928
	Finland	16. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	India	7. 3. 1928
	Italy	20. 2. 1928
	Japan	27. 1. 1928
	Latvia	13. 2. 1928
	Poland	5. 3. 1928
	Spain	2. 3. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928
Equality of treatment (workmen's compensation)	South Africa	24. 1. 1928
	Great Britain	3. 2. 1928
	Sweden	30. 1. 1928

B. List of annual reports not received in time to be examined by the Committee.

Conventions	Countries
Hours	Chile
	Greece
	Rumania
Unemployment	Greece
	Rumania
Childbirth	Chile
	Greece
	Rumania
Night work of women	Greece
	Rumania
Minimum age (industry)	Chile
	Greece
	Rumania
Night work of young persons	Chile
	Greece
	Rumania
Minimum age (sea)	Canada
	Greece
	Rumania
Unemployment indemnity (sea)	Canada
	Greece
Employment for seamen	Australia
	Greece
Rights of association	Chile
Workmen's compensation (agriculture)	Chile
White lead	Chile
	Greece
	Rumania
Weekly rest	Chile
	Rumania
Trimmers or stokers	Canada
	Rumania
Compulsory medical examination	Canada
	Rumania

2. Communications from Governments forwarding information supplementary to that contained in their annual reports.

AUSTRIA.

(Translation.)

Vienna, 6 April 1928.

Sir,

With reference to letter No. 88379/27 dated 16 January 1928, from the Federal Minister, by which he forwarded the annual report on the application of the International Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting, the Federal Minister of Social Administration has the honour to communicate to you herewith two copies of the Ordinance of 4 February 1928, regarding the notification of cases of lead poisoning caused by painting, varnishing or lacquer work. This Ordinance was promulgated on 30 March last.

The statistics prescribed by Article 7 of the said Convention and dealing with cases of death caused by lead poisoning will be regulated by means of a Decree. By this Decree the medical officers of the political authorities of first instance will be instructed to furnish, in the quarterly reports on health statistical conditions with regard to cases of death due to lead poisoning caused by painting, varnishing and lacquer work, also information on the personal particulars of the deceased and the place at which death took place.

I have the honour, etc.

For the Federal Minister :

(Signed) WLCEK.

BELGIUM.

(Translation.)

Brussels, 11 April 1928.

Sir,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter D. 602/3007/7 of 28 March last, by which you were good enough to forward me the observation made by the Committee of Experts on the report of the Belgian Government concerning the application of the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

The question of the regulation of the employment of young persons under 18 years of age and of women has not been lost sight of by my department; it is preparing to consult the various bodies specified in the Act of 2 July 1899 in virtue of which such regulations will be made.

I have the honour, etc.

(Signed) ARMAND JULIN.

Secretary-General,

On behalf of the Minister.

BULGARIA.

(Translation.)

Sofia, April 1928.

Sir,

In reply to your letter of 28 March 1928, the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour has the honour to communicate to you information to supplement the annual reports forwarded with my letter No. 2176 of 13 February 1928.

I. *Convention limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week.* — Under § 2 of the Decree concerning the application of the eight-hour day the maximum working day is eight hours, or 48 in the week.

Under § 9 of the same Decree, in undertakings where the fires are kept up continuously or where for technical reasons the process is continuous

and night shifts are worked, the reliefs must be so arranged that the change from day to night work or *vice versa* does not increase the hours of work beyond the prescribed maximum of 48 hours in the week.

The working of one shift only by day and the other only by night is prohibited. They change over every three days. Each shift is entitled to 12 hours rest apart from the regular daily rest.

In undertakings which work for 24 hours without a break, the shifts are changed every 12 hours.

These provisions of the Decree and the eight-hour working day deal fully with the question of hours of work in shifts, which are not allowed to exceed 48 hours in the week. There are no cases of a 56-hour week, which is prohibited by law.

II. *Convention concerning unemployment.* — The Act respecting employment exchanges came into force on 1 January 1926. The employment offices began their preparatory work on 1 April of the same year (the beginning of the financial year) and began their regular work on 1 August 1926, by which date the whole of the staff had been appointed.

III. *Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth.* — The period of childbirth is calculated as 12 unbroken weeks, six of which are before and six after confinement.

In case of a mistaken estimate the woman is nevertheless entitled to her rest and does not lose her right to the 12 weeks.

IV. *Convention concerning employment of women during the night.* — The 1917 Act provides that the period of rest at night shall be from 8 p.m. to 6 a.m., i.e., 10 unbroken hours in all. Since the working day for women may not exceed eight hours, the rest period really consists of 16 hours, which is in full accordance with the Convention. To some extent the Bulgarian Act goes beyond the Convention, since the night rest begins at 8 p.m., while under the Convention it begins at 10 p.m.

V. *Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.* — The observations concerning the night work of women also apply to young persons, since the subject is dealt with by the same Act.

VI. *Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.* — The Act concerning the health and safety of workers is not in accordance with the Convention only as regards Article 1 of the Convention. All its other provisions are fully applied. The amendment of the Act to which the report refers has not yet been adopted by Parliament, since it will be included in a more comprehensive Bill to amend the Act concerning the health and safety of workers.

Since white lead is scarcely used in Bulgaria for the painting of buildings, the provisions of the Convention are merely formal. 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.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) DIM. NICOLOFF

Chief of Section.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA.

(Translation.)

Prague, 13 April 1928.

Sir,

In reply to your letter No. D. 601/3001/17 of 28 March last, the Ministry of Social Welfare has the honour to inform you that it has noted your communication concerning the report of the Committee of Experts, appointed in connection with Article 408 of the Treaty of Peace of Ver-

sailles, which met at Geneva from 6 to 8 March last and repeated, as regards Czechoslovakia, one of the observations which it made in 1927. This observation relates to the application of the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting. The Committee of Experts, as you state in the penultimate paragraph of your letter observed that § 2, paragraph 2 (d) of the Czechoslovak Act of 12 June 1924, No. 137 in the collection of Acts and Orders, respecting the protection of the life and health of persons employed in painting, varnishing and decorating, allows an exception for "work in the application of the first coat in cases of mere touching up of old white paint containing lead"; this provision, however, as the report of the Committee remarks, is not altogether in accordance with the above-named Convention, which allows no such exception.

In order that the necessary explanations may reach you in time for the Thirty-ninth Session of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, the Ministry of Social Welfare hastens to inform you that the exception allowed in § 2 (2) (d) of the above-mentioned Act, No. 137 of 1924, was included in the Act because there was a similar provision in the former Order of the Minister of Commerce, issued in agreement with the Minister of the Interior, of 16 April 1908, No. 81 of the Imperial Code. This Order, in the former Austrian territory, was the first issued for the protection of the life and health of persons employed in painting, varnishing and decorating and was the outcome of an enquiry made in Vienna on 28, 29 and 30 January 1907 at the Labour Statistics Office of the Ministry of Labour, under the Chairmanship of Dr. Victor Mataja, head of the Office, who was at that time chief of division and was later Minister. In the course of this discussion some of the experts, and in particular the Viennese experts, pointed out that in renewing old coats of paint upon surfaces which had originally been painted with lead colours a new coat consisting of zinc colours would not hold and concluded that in these cases it was necessary for the first new coat to use colours containing a quarter, or, if necessary, a half of lead paint and that only with such a coat was it then possible to apply a second coat of pure zinc paint. Other experts, and in particular those from Prague, stated that the use of lead paints was steadily diminishing, especially at Prague, and that it would be desirable to abandon the use of white lead altogether, with the sole exception of Krems white, a special sort of lead paint for which the experts considered no substitute could be found.

Owing to the opinion thus expressed by the experts an exception was inserted in § 4 (3) of the Ministerial Order No. 81 of 1908 already referred to, under which the prohibition of the use of white lead and other colours and putty containing lead for interior painting did not apply to "work in the application of the first coat in cases of pure white coats upon old coats of the same kind containing lead paint". This exception, with a slight difference in the wording, was included in § 2 (2) (d) of the Czechoslovak Act No. 137 of 1924 already referred to.

The Ministry of Social Affairs would observe upon the subject that, as the result of recent research, zinc paints are almost exclusively used in interior painting, and these 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-resisting surface.

In drawing attention to these circumstances the Ministry of Social Affairs considers that although the exception allowed by § 2 (2) (d) of Act No. 137 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.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) D^r BRABLEC,
for the Minister.

ESTONIA.

(Translation.)

Tallinn, 21 April 1928.

Sir,

You were good enough, by letter D/692/3002/20 of 23 March last, to request certain information concerning the measures taken by the Estonian Government to give effect to the Conventions concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship and the use of white lead in painting.

In reply I have the honour to inform you as follows:

I. The Seamen's Act adopted by the State Assembly on 22 March last and published in the *Riigi Teataja* No. 28, contains in sections 6 and 41 (of which a translation in French is enclosed) the provisions providing for an unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of a ship which are in strict conformity with the Convention relating to this subject.

II. The Government hopes that the State Assembly will adopt at its next session, which will open on the 17th of this month, the Bill to give effect to the provisions of the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) V. GROHMANN.

FINLAND.

(Translation.)

Helsingfors, 10 April 1928.

Sir,

By letter No. D. 603/3006/21 of 28 March 1928 you informed me that the Committee appointed to examine the reports made by the respective Governments upon the international Conventions ratified by them had given its attention, as regards Finland, to the Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea, on the subject of which the representative of the Government of Finland had already given information, during the last Labour Conference. You state that in addition to the information already given, the Committee would be glad to know whether the medical practitioners in Finland authorised to make the medical examination in question are special public health medical officers or ordinary medical practitioners.

In reply to your question I have the honour to refer, in the first place, to the information already given by the representative of the Government of Finland. In view of the possibility of the question being reopened I had also referred the matter to the Central Medical Administration of Finland and to the Central Navigation Administration for their observations, extracts from which, translated into French, I have the honour to enclose¹.

As their observations show, every licensed medical practitioner authorised by the Central Medical Administration is authorised in Finland to make the medical examination in question, since it is quite impossible here to appoint special medical officers solely for these examinations. Only in the large towns are there special medical

¹ Extracts not reproduced here.

officers for the purpose; in other places, therefore, the official district medical officers or the district medical officers in the communes or, in towns, the ordinary medical practitioners as well make the examination in question. All medical practitioners licensed and authorised by the Central Medical Administration of Finland have passed in Finland the University examination, which fulfils the strictest requirements, and these practitioners may therefore be considered entirely competent and there is no reason to require special medical officers in Finland to make the examination in question.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) NIILLO A. MANNIO.

FRANCE.

(Translation.)

Paris, 7 April 1928.

Sir,

On 31 March last you communicated to me the letter in which the Director of the International Labour Office submitted to you extracts from the report of the Committee of Experts concerning the annual reports submitted by the French Government and asked to receive by 15 April further information on the subject.

I have the honour to send to you herewith this information and to request you to forward it to the Director of the International Labour Office.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) PICQUENARD,
Councillor of State, Director.
For the Minister and with his
authority.

Additional information on the report submitted by the French Government on the Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.

(1) The Committee noted that new public administrative regulations were at present in course of preparation. It would be useful if the International Labour Office were kept informed of the progress of this preparatory work.

As has been already stated, the two public administrative regulations in question, which are to define the conditions under which the exceptions contemplated by the Convention may be applied, are intended to replace two existing Decrees of 30 June 1913 and 3 May 1893.

The first of these draft regulations, which has just been adopted by the Council of State, will be promulgated shortly; when the regulation has been issued, the fact will be communicated to the International Labour Office.

The second, under § 185, Book II, Code of Labour and Social Welfare, has to be submitted for their observations to the Superior Labour Committee, to the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures and to the General Council of Mines. These bodies will be shortly requested to make their observations and the International Labour Office will also be kept informed of the progress of the work in connection with the preparation of this draft.

(2) The Committee notes that, according to the report, bakeries are not regarded, under French legislation and jurisprudence, as industrial establishments, while it would appear that they are covered by the Convention. It would be useful to know whether a minimum age limit with regard to night work in bakeries exists in France.

In the first place it should be explained that not all bakeries are exempted from the regulations applicable to industrial undertakings; bread factories come under the regulations, and the only undertakings exempted are small under-

takings in which the baker carries on his trade in a shop.

Moreover, as regards the night work of young persons, the provision is of no importance. As stated in the report, the law in France (§ 20 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare) 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 engaged in such manufacture and all the staff there employed, irrespective of age and sex. There is no need, therefore, to contemplate the fixing of a minimum age as regards night work in bakeries.

(3) The Committee also notes that exceptions are provided for in the case of industries in which the work relates to raw materials or to materials in course of treatment which are subject to rapid deterioration, when such exceptions are necessary to save these materials from certain loss, and that these exceptions are considered as falling within the cases of *force majeure* which interfere with the normal working of an undertaking. The Committee considers it desirable that additional particulars should be furnished with regard to this interpretation of Article 4 of the Convention.

§ 24 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare provides for two distinct categories of exceptions:

The first are related to the subject mentioned above; they concern only adult women and do not apply to young persons. The object of the second is to "prevent threatened accidents or to repair accidents which have happened"; these exceptions alone apply to male young persons from 16 to 18 years of age.

The confusion between these two categories of exception is due to the fact that all the exceptions are dealt with in the same § 24 and may be utilised simply by the employers giving notice to the factory inspectorate.

Additional information on the report submitted by the French Government on the Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting.

It would be desirable that the International Labour Office should be kept informed of the results of the enquiries relating to the prohibition of the employment of young persons under 18 years of age and of women, and to the extension to sulphate of lead of the regulations concerning white lead.

On both points, following on the enquiries made, draft regulations are in preparation. These draft regulations are at present submitted for examination to the Committees, the consultation of which is compulsory under §§ 185 and 186 of Book II of the Code of Labour and Social Welfare, namely, the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures and the Superior Labour Committee.

LATVIA.

(Translation.)

Riga, 3 April 1928.

Sir,

In response to your letter D. 603/3007/36 of 28 March, I have the honour to inform you that the Latvian Government regrets very much that it finds it impossible to say at what date the Bills concerning the use of white lead in painting and fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers, adopted by the Social Legislation Commission of the Saeima, will become law, as the matter depends upon the Saeima itself. However, the Latvian Government and I myself will do everything possible to secure the passage of these two Bills during the next session, i.e. in the month of May or June next.

I have the honour, etc.

(Signed) V. RUBULS,
Minister of Social Welfare.

NETHERLANDS.

(Translation.)

The Hague, 26 April 1928.

Sir,

In continuation of my letter of 13 April 1928, No. 408 Division A.D., I have the honour to inform you that § 91 of the General Service Regulations (*Algemeen Reglement Dienst*) and § 91 of the General Service Regulations for Light Railways (*Algemeen Reglement Dienst Locaalspoorwegen*) are also applicable to young persons.

In accordance with these sections the interval between two periods of work must be at least twelve consecutive hours. Nevertheless, it is permissible to reduce this interval to ten hours at least on two occasions in two calendar weeks.

The exception making it possible to grant a rest period of at least ten hours on two occasions in a period of two weeks was introduced into the above-mentioned Regulations in order that it might be possible to change over from a late shift to an early shift, or to an intermediate shift, in such manner that the rest days of the staff could be lengthened; the result of the system is that it is no longer necessary for a rest day to be preceded always by a late shift or that an early shift must always follow a rest day.

Besides these general provisions, the two Regulations above mentioned provide in their §§ 93 (a) for the prohibition of the employment of young persons between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

Taken together, these provisions—prohibition of the employment of young persons between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m., and the obligation to grant a rest period of twelve consecutive hours—sufficiently ensure a night rest period of eleven consecutive hours for young persons employed on railways and tramways as laid down in the Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry.

I would further draw your attention to the Royal Decrees of 28 February 1922 (*Staatsblad* No. 93), of 4 November 1922 (*Staatsblad* No. 591), of 22 September 1922 (*Staatsblad* No. 526), and of 4 November 1922 (*Staatsblad* No. 592).

I have the honour to be, etc.,

(Signed) A. L. SCHOLTENS,

Secretary-General,
For the Minister of Labour,
Commerce and Industry.

NORWAY.

(Translation.)

Oslo, 3 April 1928.

Sir,

In acknowledging receipt of your letter of 28 March 1928, I have the honour to inform you that the Ministry for Social Affairs is at present engaged upon the preparation of a Bill providing for the abolition of private employment offices. The question of the length of notice to be given to the different categories of these offices has not yet been settled. When the above Bill has eventually been approved by the Government and submitted to the Storting, I will not fail to forward you a copy of the Bill.

I have the honour, etc.

(Signed) TH. G. THORSEN.

SWEDEN.

(Translation.)

Stockholm, 13 April 1928.

Sir,

By letter D. 603/3006/58 of 28 March 1928, you were good enough to communicate to me the wish expressed by the Committee of Experts to be informed of the opinion of my Government with regard to "approved" medical practitioners, i.e. "approved by the Royal Administration of Public Health" referred to in the reply of the Swedish Government delegate at the 1927 Conference, in connection with the measures taken for giving effect to the Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea.

I have the honour to inform you that the medical practitioners referred to are both special health officers and ordinary medical practitioners.

In order to obtain the right to practice the profession of medicine, it is indispensable, according to the terms of the law in force on the subject, that the person concerned should have been recognised by the competent authority. If not, the practice of medicine in the Kingdom renders the person concerned liable to legal proceedings. From this it follows that the certificates in question cannot be issued by persons other than those whose competence has been duly established.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) JAKOB PETTERSSON,
Minister for Social Affairs.

APPENDIX II TO THE SECOND PART.

1. Letter from the Estonian Ministry of Labour and of Public Welfare.

Tallinn, 30 May 1928.

Sir,

Pursuant to my letter of 11 April last, I have the honour to inform you that the State Assembly voted on 25 May (1928) an Act concerning the use of white lead in painting, with a view to giving effect to the provisions of the Convention relating to this question.

I have the honour to be, etc.

(Signed) V. GROHMAN.

2. Letter from the British Minister of Labour.

London, 23 May 1928.

Sir,

With further reference to your letter (D. 600/3000/6), and to the reports under Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles previously furnished, I am directed by the Minister of Labour to state, with regard to the application or non-application to British Colonies, Protectorates and Mandated Territories, of the Conventions which have been ratified on behalf of His Majesty's Government in Great Britain, that further information has been received to the effect that while none of the Conventions has actually been applied to Palestine, an Ordinance enacted locally (Palestine No. 53 of 1927) contains a number of provisions similar to stipulations that appear in these Conventions.

The reports forwarded with this Department's letter of the 1st February, 1928 regarding—

- (a) the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night;
- (b) the Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment ;
- (c) the Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry :

should accordingly be supplemented by a statement to the effect that while these particular Conventions have not been applied to Palestine, the local Government has recently enacted legislation relating to the employment of women and children in industrial undertakings. I am to convey to you this information for any action that it may still be possible to take in the direction of amending the reports.

I am, Sir, etc.,

(Signed) R. C. SOMERVELL.

3. Letter from the Netherlands Minister of Colonies.

The Hague, 9 June 1928.

Sir,

My colleague in the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry has passed to me a copy of your letter of 21 November 1927, D. 600/3000/6, in which you ask to receive,

in accordance with Article 408 of the Treaty of Versailles and with the forms attached to your letter, the reports upon the action taken to apply the Conventions ratified by the Netherlands, concerning :

- (1) employment of women during the night ;
- (2) night work of young persons employed in industry ;
- (3) minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea ;
- (4) rights of association and combination of agricultural workers ; and
- (5) workmen's compensation in agriculture.

Since question III of the forms referred to above refers to the application of the Conventions to those colonies which are not fully self-governing, my colleague, referred to above, has requested me to undertake the answer on this subject as regards the Netherlands overseas possessions.

I have the honour therefore to send you herewith a copy of a note prepared by the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies, containing the answers and information required by the forms upon the application to the colonies of the Conventions in question.

As regards the application to Surinam and Curaçao of the Conventions mentioned under (1), (2) and (3), I have the honour to refer to the conclusion of my letter of 13 April 1927.

Local conditions in Surinam do not allow of the application of the provisions of the Convention mentioned under (4) and (5).

The same observation applies to the application in Curaçao of the Convention mentioned under (5); this objection does not, however, refer to the exercise in this territory of the right of association and combination of agricultural workers.

(Signed) M. S. KOSTER,
Secretary-General,
for the Minister of Colonies.

Note by the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies.

A. Night work of women.

Question III.

The Convention is applied in the Dutch East Indies with modifications (§ 3 and § 2, paragraph 1 of the Decree published in *Staatsblad van Nederlandsch Indie*, 1925, No. 647¹; regulations published in *Staatsblad van Nederlandsch Indie*, 1925, No. 648²). These two measures came into force on 1 March 1926).

The modifications are due to the fact that owing to the present industrial development and the special conditions of the country, the provisions of the Convention can be only gradually introduced.

B. Night work of young persons in industry.

Question III.

§ 1 of the Decree referred to above, No. 647 of 1925, prohibits in the Dutch East Indies the employment of children under 12 years of age between 8 p. m. and 5 a. m. When the employment of young persons is regulated, attention will be given to the possibility of extending this prohibition.

The exceptions to the Convention are due to the causes mentioned under A. In addition, the age limit has been lowered from 14 to 12 years because of the native labour.

C. Minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea.

Question III.

The Convention is applied with modifications in the Dutch East Indies (Decree published in *Staatsblad van Nederlandsch Indie*, 1926, No. 87³, which came into force on 1 May 1927).

The exceptions are due to the special family relations which exist in the crews of most native sea-going vessels. In this case too the age limit was lowered by two years because of the native labour.

D. Rights of association and combination of agricultural workers.

Question III.

Under § 165 of the *Indische Staatsregeling* (Administrative Regulations of the Dutch East Indies, St. 1919, No. 27), no special provisions are necessary to secure the rights in question to agricultural workers.

E. Workmen's compensation in agriculture.

Account will be taken, in the accident insurance regulations which are in preparation, of agricultural workers also, in so far as they are employed under a contract of engagement which contains penal sanctions.

¹ L. S. 1925, D. E. 1, 2 A.

² L. S. 1925, D. E. 1, 2 B.

³ L. S. 1926, D.E.1, 2.