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# LEAGUE OF NATIONS

REPORT

ON

**The Eight-Hours Day**

OR

**Forty-Eight Hours Week.**

(Item I of the Agenda.)

X:951.1

**PREPARED BY THE ORGANISING  
COMMITTEE FOR THE INTERNA-  
TIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE,  
WASHINGTON, 1919.**

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# PREFATORY NOTE.

At the Plenary Sitting of the Peace Conference of the 11th April, 1919, the following Resolution was adopted :—

“ That the Conference approves the Draft Convention creating a permanent organisation for the promotion of the international regulation of labour conditions which has been submitted by the Labour Commission, with the amendments proposed by the British Delegation ; instructs the Secretariat to request the Governments concerned to nominate forthwith their representatives on the Organising Committee for the October Conference, and authorises that Committee to proceed at once with its work.”

The Committee having been constituted in accordance with the provisions in Part XIII of the Peace Treaty issued a letter and series of questionnaires dealing with the Items of the Agenda specified in the Treaty. This letter, together with the questionnaire dealing with the first item of the Agenda, will be found on pages 147–155.

The present report analyses and summarises the material contained in the replies to the questionnaire received from the different Governments, and the Committee present as a result of their examination of this material certain conclusions and recommendations which they suggest may afford a basis for the discussion of the subject by the Conference.

A list of the Governments from whom replies had been received up to the time of going to press is given on page 156, and the Committee desire to express to them their thanks for the information they have furnished and their appreciation of the trouble they have taken to render all assistance possible in the limited time available.

The Committee regret that it was not possible to allow a longer time for the preparation of the replies, and they fear also that their report may suffer from deficiencies and errors which might have been avoided if the time at their disposal had been longer. They trust, however, that it may prove of assistance to the Conference in dealing with the problems before it.

H. B. BUTLER,  
*Secretary.*

ARTHUR FONTAINE,  
*Chairman.*

18th August, 1919.



## APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLE OF THE 8-HOURS DAY OR OF THE 48-HOURS WEEK.

### INTRODUCTION.

THE application of the 8-hours day or 48-hours week is the first and most important subject on the agenda for the consideration of the Conference.

A questionnaire was issued by the Organising Committee to the Governments of all the States named in the Annex to the Covenant of the League of Nations and the following report is mainly based on the information furnished in reply. In addition, the Committee have been able to draw upon published official reports and other authoritative sources of information. They believe that the Conference has before it all the information required to enable it to come to a decision on the matter.

The Committee have not thought it necessary to go into the history of the question of the 8-hours day or 48-hours week, or to discuss the reasons for the limitation of the hours of work on this basis. Moreover, as the subject proposed for the consideration of the Conference is the general application of the principle of the 8-hours day or 48-hours week to *all* industrial workers, they have omitted reference to laws and regulations dealing with the regulation of hours of special classes of workers such as women and young persons.

The Allied and Associated Powers have definitely affirmed the principle concerned. In Article 427 of the Treaty of Peace, the Powers specify as being of special and urgent importance certain "methods and principles for regulating labour conditions which all industrial communities should endeavour to apply so far as their special circumstances will permit"; and among them they include "The adoption of an 8-hours day or a

48-hours week as the standard to be aimed at where it has not already been attained." The principle having been affirmed, the question of its application in the actual circumstances and conditions of industry remains; and that is the question which has been referred to the Conference for determination.

In the present report the Committee first review the situation in regard to the adoption of the 8-hours day or 48-hours week, how far it has been already adopted (whether (a) by legal enactment, or (b) by industrial agreements) or is actually at the present time in process of adoption—the exact extent of its application and the nature of any exceptions or deviations from the principle which are permitted and the conditions under which they are permitted. Chapter I.—Present Law and Practice.

The report then proceeds to indicate the attitude of the different States—as shown by their replies to the Questionnaire—towards the adoption of the principle in their respective countries. Chapter II.—Attitude of the Governments.

In a third chapter, the Committee discuss in detail the application of the principle to industry—the administrative measures for securing its observance; the exceptions necessary to meet the special needs of particular industries or classes of work, or to provide for emergencies. Chapter III.—Application of the Principle.

In a final chapter they indicate the conclusions which in their opinion may be based on the information submitted and make suggestions for the consideration of the Conference as to the extent to which an agreement between the States may be found to be possible at the present time. Chapter IV.—Recommendations.

There are some preliminary points as to the scope of the question referred to the Conference, to which it is necessary to call attention, as they have an important bearing on the consideration of the subject.

1. The standard of the 8-hours day or 48-hours week which is contemplated by the Treaty of Peace is a standard to be embodied in national legislation. It is to be a legal or statutory limitation of the hours of work, which will

be laid down by the legislature and enforced by the executive department of the Government. It will not be merely a "standard" or "basic" week on which normal wages will be calculated and which determines the point at which overtime pay at increased rates is to begin. Such a standard leaves the number of hours of work unlimited except in so far as may be agreed upon between the employers and workers or the enhanced rate of payment may make the employer less willing to work the longer hours. It therefore fails to provide the protection against undue fatigue, to ensure the reasonable leisure and opportunities for recreation and social life, which it is the purpose of the Treaty to secure to all workers.

In laying down a legal limitation of the hours of work, it is necessary to take account of exceptional conditions and circumstances in particular industries or particular districts or countries, and to make such provision in any international agreements that may be arrived at and in the national laws which will be adopted to give effect to such agreements as will meet the necessities of these special cases. Information on this subject has been asked for from the different States, and is fully set out in Chapters I and III of this Report.

2. The Treaty presents for the consideration of the Conference alternative proposals—an 8-hours day or a 48-hours week. These proposals differ in some important respects. The principle of the 8-hours day permits of a week of 56 hours, if work is carried on for seven days a week, and this is common in certain industries, processes or occupations which require to be carried on continuously. On the other hand, if combined with a half holiday and a weekly rest day, it may reduce the number of working hours to less than 48. The 48-hours week ensures that *on the average* the hours of work will not exceed eight hours a day for six days, but allows somewhat longer hours to be worked on some days if compensated for by shorter hours (e.g., a half holiday) on other days. It will be for the Conference to determine which of these principles it will adopt.

3. The Committee understand that the question before

this Conference is the application of the principle to *industrial* workers. Commerce, agriculture, and the sea service and other non-industrial employments have therefore not been inquired into by the Committee or dealt with it in its report. It will be remembered that special proposals with reference to agriculture and the sea service were made by the Labour Commission.

It will be for the Conference to consider what should be regarded as included within the term "industrial work." The point is dealt with later in the Report.

## CHAPTER I.—PRESENT LAW AND PRACTICE.

### A. SCOPE OF EXISTING LAWS.

1. The limitation of working hours by law to 8 a day or 48 a week is already the practice, in some occupations or branches of industry, of most States. This limitation is effected by legislation of varying types. Certain American States have embodied the principle, that 8 hours shall be the normal working day, in their constitutions, but such provisions do not necessarily limit the working day to 8 hours, since they admit of agreements to work longer hours and apply only where no such agreement has been made. Leaving out of account such general affirmations of the principle, the laws may be roughly classified as belonging to three types.

(i) Laws limiting working hours to 8 a day or 48 a week, or to an equivalent limitation averaged over a longer period, and specifying *in detail* the industries, occupations and categories of workers to which the limitations apply. The Czecho-Slovakian Eight Hours Act of 1918, the Dutch Act of 1919, and others are of this type.

(ii) Laws laying down the limit of 8 hours a day or 48 a week or an equivalent limitation averaged over a longer period as the *general rule*, but permitting exceptions and relaxations under conditions to be defined by Decree or Administrative Order, and generally leaving the detailed application of the principle to be made by such Decrees or Orders. The Eight Hours Laws of Spain and France are examples of this type.

(iii) Laws providing for the settlement of disputes over the conditions of employment (including hours) by arbitration and the enforcement by legal process of collective agreements or arbitration awards. Examples are the Arbitration Laws of the Australian Commonwealth and its constituent states.

The effect of laws of the first type is to impose a statutory limit on the number of hours actually worked ; the effect of the third type is usually to establish a basic day or week for the purpose of calculating wages, but not necessarily to reduce the number of hours actually worked ; when workpeople desire to earn, and employers are willing to pay the higher rate of pay which overtime involves, the 8-hour day becomes nominal. The second type depends for its effect entirely on the object to which the administrative powers it sets up are directed.

The following list shows the States which have laws of general application classified according to the three types indicated above :—

*Type i.*—Czecho-Slovakia, Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, Uruguay, New Zealand.

*Type ii.*—France, Spain, Poland, Portugal, Ecuador, Panama, Finland, Russia, Germany, German-Austria.

*Type iii.*—Australian Commonwealth, Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, West Australia, Tasmania, certain States of the American Union, certain Provinces of the Dominion of Canada

The following extracts from the laws define their scope :—

#### AUSTRALIA.

##### *New South Wales.*

4. (1) The following directions shall be observed by the Court and the Boards in making awards, and by the parties in making industrial agreements :—

- (a) In the coal mining industry . . .
- (b) In the metalliferous mining industry . . .
- (c) In all other industries the number of hours worked shall not exceed :—

- (1) Eight hours per day on six consecutive days.
- (2) Forty-eight hours per week, or
- (3) Ninety-six hours in fourteen consecutive days,

as may be determined by industrial agreement or by an award of the Board.

##### *South Australia.*

21. The Court shall, as regards every industrial matter and every industrial dispute over which it has jurisdiction, have power :—

(e) To make any order or award, and, without being restricted to the specific relief claimed by the parties to the dispute or matter, to include in any order or award any matter or thing which the Court thinks necessary or expedient for the purpose of preventing or settling the dispute or dealing with the matter.

(g) To declare, by award or order, that any practice, regulation, rule, custom, term of agreement, condition of employment, or dealing whatsoever determined by an award in relation to any industrial matter shall be a common rule of any industry.

"Industry" means any business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, occupation, or calling, except agriculture, in which persons are employed for hire or reward, or in which they give their services for hire or reward, and includes any occupation or calling of any employé for hire or reward, whatever may be the business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, occupation, or calling of the employer, for the time being, of such employé, and also includes a branch of an industry and a group of industries, and any process, trade, business, occupation, or calling, or any group or part thereof, within the meaning of the Factories Acts.

93. Every Board, as far as regards the particular process, trade, business, occupation, or calling, or group or part, for which it is appointed :—

III. Shall fix the maximum number of hours per week in respect of which such wages, prices or rates shall be paid.

78. (1) The Governor shall appoint Wages Boards for the following processes, trades, businesses, occupations, or callings :—

- (a) The preparation and manufacture of clothing and wearing apparel.
- (b) The preparation and manufacture of furniture.
- (c) The preparation and manufacture of overmantels and of wood mantelpieces (other than wood mantelpieces to be painted, such as are usually made in saw-mills).
- (d) The preparation and manufacture of mattresses and bedding.
- (e) The making and baking of bread and small goods.
- (f) Of a pastrycook.
- (g) Of a butcher and seller of meat, and maker and seller of small goods.
- (h) Of brickmaking.
- (i) Of drivers of trollies, wagons, drays, and carriers' vehicles.
- (j) Agricultural machinery and implement makers.
- (k) Printers, bookbinders, paper rulers and cutters.
- (l) Brushmakers.
- (m) Carpenters and joiners.
- (n) Coopers.
- (o) Hairdressers.

- (p) Laundries.
- (q) Painters and decorators.
- (r) Galvanised-iron workers engaged in the construction of buildings; plumbers, and gas fitters.
- (s) Saddlers and harness-makers, including collar-makers, bridle-cutters, and machinists employed in the trade.
- (t) Saw-mills, timber yards, and wood box makers.
- (u) Tanners, curriers and tanyards.
- (v) For any other process, trade, business, occupation, or calling in respect whereof both Houses of Parliament pass a resolution approving such appointment.

"Factory" means and includes—

(1) Any premises or place within which or the precincts thereof the occupier employs any one person at manual labour which is exercised by way of trade or for purposes of gain in or incidental to :—

- (i) Any handicraft;
- (ii) The making of any article or part of any article; or
- (iii) The altering, repairing, ornamenting, or finishing of any article; or
- (iv) The adapting for sale of any article;

and to or over which premises or place or the precincts thereof the employer of any person so working therein has the right of access or control.

(2) For the purposes of registration and the computation of registration fees, any number of adjacent buildings or places.

#### NEW ZEALAND.

"Factory" to which the 48 Hours Rule applies means :—

(a) Any building, office, or place in which two or more persons are employed, directly or indirectly, in any handicraft, or in preparing or manufacturing goods for trade or sale; "and includes any building, office, or place in which work such as is ordinarily performed in a factory is performed for or on behalf of any local authority whether for trade or sale or not," but does not include any building in course of erection, nor any temporary workshop or shed for workmen engaged in the erection of such building; but (whatever the number) of persons employed therein includes :—

(b) Every bakehouse (meaning thereby any building or place in which any article of food is baked or prepared for baking for sale for human consumption); and also

(c) Every building or place in which steam or other mechanical power or appliance is used for the purpose of preparing or manufacturing goods for trade or sale, or packing such goods for transit; and also

(d) Every building or place in which electrical energy is generated



or transformed as an illuminant or a motive power for trade or sale, or in which coal-gas or any other form of gas is produced for the like purposes; and also

(e) Every laundry (meaning thereby every building or place where laundry-work is performed for hire or reward), whether the persons employed therein receive payment or not; and also

(f) Every building or place in which any Asiatic is directly or indirectly employed in laundry-work or any other handicraft, or in preparing or manufacturing goods for trade or sale, or in packing them for transit.

"Male Worker" means a male person over the age of sixteen years.

#### CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

1.—(i) In undertakings subject to the Industrial Code or carried on as factories, the actual hours of work of workers shall, in principle, not exceed 8 hours within 24 hours or 48 hours in the week.

(ii) This rule shall also apply to undertakings, works, and institutions carried on by the State, by public or private associations, funds, societies and companies, whether they are of a profit-making, public utility, or charitable nature.

(iii) The same rule shall also apply to mining undertakings (pits, coke works, calcining furnaces and blast-furnaces), both below ground and on the surface.

(iv) The provisions of Sub-section (1) shall also apply to persons regularly employed in agriculture and forestry who live outside the household of the employer and receive daily, weekly, or monthly wages.

#### ECUADOR.

(1) No labourer, mechanic, employee in any commercial establishment, office, industrial enterprise, and, in general, no employee, whatever may be the nature of his service, shall be compelled to labour more than 8 hours daily, 6 days per week, nor shall he be required to perform any labour on Sundays or legal holidays.

#### FRANCE.

Labour Code. Book ii. Article 6.—The effective working time of work-people or employees of either sex and of any age shall not exceed 8 hours per day or 48 hours per week, or an equivalent limitation based upon a period of time other than the week, in industrial and commercial establishments or in business premises of any kind connected with them, whatever their nature, whether public or private, secular or religious, even where they are of a technical, educational or philanthropic nature.

## NETHERLANDS.

*Article 24.*—§1. A worker shall not work in factories or workshops more than 8 hours per day and 45 hours per week.

*Article 40.*—§1. A bakers' journeyman shall not work for more than 45 hours per week and 8 hours per day except on days on which bakers' work in the bread bakery in which he is employed may be begun at 4 a.m. On such days he shall not work for more than 11 hours.

*Article 52.*—§1. A worker may not work in offices for more than 8 hours per day and 45 hours per week.

## NORWAY.

I. (a) Factories and works where handicrafts or other industrial occupations are carried on, provided that such works have the character of factories or that use is made in them of power other than human strength or of steam boilers. Notwithstanding, this Act shall not apply to works where a motor of not more than 1 h.p. is in use.

(b) Stone quarries, chalk-pits and stone-hewing undertakings where at least five persons are regularly employed.

(c) Mines, ore-dressing works, smelting works and other undertakings for the getting or refining of minerals.

(d) Works where explosives are manufactured or used in manufacturing processes.

II. (a) Works where handicrafts or other industrial occupations are carried on, provided that at least five persons are regularly employed, and that such persons are employed by the occupier of the business in his workshop or in some other workplace not being any workman's home.

(b) Ice cutting works.

Provisions of Par. 23, pars 1 and 2, and Pars. 25 to 29 inclusive and Par. 32 shall also apply to:—

(c) Operations where warehousemen and packers are employed or where workmen are employed on building sites, in warehouses, goods steamers, etc., in so far as concerns such workmen.

(d) Works employing workmen in the building trades, water, gas and sewer workers, and bridge builders, and on the construction of roads, railways, harbours, telegraph and telephone installations, and other enterprises of like nature.

## PANAMA.

1. The 8-hour day for workers and commercial employees shall be introduced in the Republic. No such person shall be bound to work a larger number of hours than that stated.

2. In all national and municipal works and, in general, in all works carried on in the territory of the Republic, the working day shall be computed as 8 hours during the day or during the night, according to circumstances.

#### POLAND.

*Article 1.*—From the date of the publication of this Act in the Official Gazette of the State of Poland, the labour of workers and employees in all industrial establishments, mines, furnaces, work-rooms, transport undertakings by land and by water, as well as in commercial occupations, must not exceed 8 hours a day, and on Saturday 6 hours a day, exclusive of rest periods.

#### PORTUGAL.

*Article 1.*—The maximum period of the daily working hours, either for day-work, night-work or a combination of both, for all workmen and employees of the State and for all administrative, commercial and industrial corporations, exclusive of land labourers and domestic servants, in Portugal and the adjacent islands, shall not exceed 8 hours per day, or 48 hours per week.

Para. 1. Waiters and any others employed in hotels and restaurants are classed as domestic servants for the purpose of this enactment.

#### SPAIN.

*Article 1.*—From October 1, 1919, the maximum legal day for all labour shall be fixed at 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week.

#### SWITZERLAND.

##### Factory Act.

The following are factories within the meaning of the Act:—

(a) Industrial establishments, using power, in which not less than 6 workers are employed.

(b) Industrial establishments, not using power, in which not less than 6 workers are employed, of whom, one at least, has not completed his 18th year.

(c) Industrial establishments, not using power, in which no young persons are employed, but in which not less than 11 workers are employed.

(d) Industrial establishments in which a smaller number of workers than stated above is employed, but in which the work is particularly dangerous for the health and life of the workers or which, by reason of their nature, unquestionably fall into the category of factories.

*Article 40.*—The duration of work in concerns of one shift shall not exceed 48 hours per week for each worker.

## URUGUAY.

1. The actual hours of work of workers in factories, workshops, dockyards, quarries, works of construction, earthworks, or at ports, or on riversides and rivers; of employees or assistants employed in industrial and commercial establishments; of drivers, guards, and other persons employed on railways and tramways; of riverside carriers and, in general, of all persons engaged in daily work of the same kind as that of the workers and employees designated, shall not exceed 8 hours a day.

2. This Act shall apply also to workers employed in works carried out on behalf of the State.

## FINLAND.

This law applies to :—

(1) The under-mentioned trades and industries in so far as persons other than husband, wife, and their own children are employed in them.

(a) Handicraft and factory trades as well as other industrial occupations.

(b) Building, repair and upkeep of buildings and docks as well as railways, bridges, roads 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 cafes; as well as

(l) Industries and undertakings which are similar to the above.

This law does not apply to cases of domestic or agricultural labour and their allied trades, or to work directly connected with agriculture.

(2) The under-mentioned industries and establishments in so far as attendants and workmen are employed in them :—

(a) Railway and street traffic, postal, tax and telephonic services and canals.

(b) Automobile traffic and jobbing.

(c) Hospitals and prisons; industries and establishments similar to the above.

(d) The regulations of this law affect also industries or undertakings which are carried on by the State, by municipalities, by parish councils, associations or institutions, even if they are not run for profit.

## GERMANY.

Art. 1. The regulation covers industrial workers in all industrial undertakings, including mining, in concerns carried out by the Empire, States, municipalities and parish councils, even if they are not run for profit, as well as in concerns of an industrial kind allied to agriculture.

## GERMAN-AUSTRIA.

Art. 1.—(1) From the commencement of this Act until the conclusion of peace the hours of work of industrial workers in industrial undertakings carried on as factories shall not exceed 8 hours in 24, not including breaks in work.

## RUSSIA.

The Decree of October 29–November 11, 1917, drawn up by the Central Committee of the Soldiers' and Workers' Delegates, applies to all commercial and industrial establishments, whatever their importance or their legal status (Art. 1).

In addition to such general legal limitation of hours, there are laws which deal only with particular industries, branches of industries or occupations. Thus, there are special acts or decrees limiting the hours of work to 8 a day (or less) in various industries in different states, as follows :—

(a) In *mines* in the following States :—

Coal.	Metal.	All Mines.
United Kingdom.	British Columbia.	France.
Canada : Alberta.	Oregon.	Queensland.
British Columbia.		Ontario.
Portugal.		Alaska.
Kansas.		Arizona.
Pennsylvania (hoisting engineers only).		California.
Washington.		Colorado.
		Idaho.
		Missouri.
		Montana.
		Nevada.
		Oklahoma.
		Utah.
		Wyoming.

(b) In *processes involved in the reduction of ores* in the following states :—Canada : Alberta, British

Columbia; United States of America: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Idaho, Missouri, Montana, Utah, Wyoming.

(c) *In continuous processes* in the following states:—  
Denmark (continuous processes in general); Alaska, Arizona (electric light and power, coke ovens, blast furnaces); Colorado (coke ovens, blast furnaces).

(d) *In transport and communication services* in the following states:—

Telegraph and Telephone Operators, Despatchers, Signalmen, &c., on Railroads:—Arkansas, Connecticut, Maryland, Nevada, New York, Texas, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

State Railways—

Italy; U.S.A. (Adamson Law); Roumania.

(d) *In certain dangerous trades*, as follows:—

Caisson work	.. ..	U.S.A. : New Jersey.
		New York.
		Pennsylvania.
		Massachusetts.
		Netherlands.

Pottery: Processes involving the use of lead.	in- United Kingdom.
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(e) *Similar restrictions are found sporadically in other industries as follows:—*

Plaster and cement mills	.. ..	Arizona.
		Nevada.
Plate glass works	.. ..	Missouri.
Rolling mills, rod mills, etc.	.. ..	Alaska.
		Arizona.
Tunnelling	.. ..	Arizona.
		California.
		Montana.
Irrigation works	.. ..	Montana.
Baking	.. ..	Germany.
		Greece.
Tobacco (part of the year only)	.. ..	Greece.

(f) *Government work.*—The Federal Government and many of the States of U.S.A. require by law the limitation of working hours to 8 a day (i) in all public employment and (ii) on all public contracts placed with private firms: (7 hours for clerks and employees in Executive Departments), Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Porto Rico, Texas, Utah, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin and Wyoming. The Canadian province of Manitoba and the Yukon Territory have similar laws. State Printing Works, Match and Tobacco Factories in Roumania.

## B. EXCEPTIONS.

In all laws and decrees, whether general or specific, certain exceptions are permitted. In laws of the type of the French Eight Hours Act, all details as to relaxation and exemption are left to be supplied by Administrative Order, which will be based normally on collective agreements between employers and workpeople. It is found necessary in other laws to provide for two classes of exception:—(1) Temporary relaxations of the law; (2) permanent exclusion of an industry, branch of industry or class of workers from the law: the two classes are, however, not always distinguished in the existing laws. The actual exceptions made are not the same in all States, but they coincide to a large extent and can be classified under the following heads:—

(1) *National Emergency, such as War.*—Provision is usually made for the suspension or relaxation of the law by the administrative authority or Government in case of war or other exceptional national emergency. The following are clauses of this character:—

### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

#### *Alaska.*

#### *Hours of Labor—General Employments.*

\* *Section 3.*—The governor of the Territory is hereby given the power to suspend or modify restrictions contained in this law, when such

shall be requested by the Council of National Defence or the Secretary of the Interior, and such modifications or suspension when made shall continue for a specified period and not longer than the duration of the present war or during the continuation of any future war with a foreign power.

Approved May 3, 1917,

*Arizona.*

Except in cases of extraordinary emergency, which may arise in time of war, or in cases where it may be necessary to work more than 8 hours each calendar day for the protection of property or human life: Provided, that in all such cases the laborers, workmen, mechanics or other persons doing manual or mechanical labor, so employed and working to exceed 8 hours each calendar day shall be paid on the basis of 8 hours constituting a day's work.

*California.*

*Section 17.*—The time of service of all laborers or workmen or mechanics employed upon any public works of the State of California, or of any county, city and county, city, town, district, township, or any other political subdivision thereof, whether said work is done by contract or otherwise, shall be limited and restricted to 8 hours in any one calendar day, except in cases of extraordinary emergency caused by fire, flood, or danger to life and property, or except to work upon public, military, or naval works or defences in time of war, and the legislature shall provide by law that a stipulation to this effect shall be incorporated in all contracts for public works and prescribe proper penalties for the speedy and efficient enforcement of said law.

*Idaho.*

Except in cases of extraordinary emergency which may arise in time of war or in cases where it may be necessary to work more than eight hours per calendar day for the protection of property or human life.

*Kansas.*

Except in cases of extraordinary emergency, which may arise in time of war, or in cases where it may be necessary to work more than eight hours per calendar day for the protection of property or human life.

*Massachusetts.*

No laborer, workman or mechanic so employed shall be requested or required to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day or more than forty-eight hours in any one week except in cases of extraordinary emergency.

*Oklahoma.*

*Section 3757.*—Eight hours shall constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen, mechanics, prison guards, janitors of public



institutions, or other persons now employed or who may hereafter be employed by or on behalf of the State, or by or on behalf of any county, city, township, or other municipality, except in cases of extraordinary emergency which may arise in time of war, or in case where it may be necessary to work more than 8 hours per calendar day for the protection of property or human life.

Provided that in all such cases, the laborers, workmen, mechanics, or other persons so employed and working to exceed 8 hours per calendar day shall be paid on the basis of 8 hours constituting a day's work.

*Texas.*

*Hours of Labor on Public Works.*

*Section 2, Chapter 68.*—All contracts made by or on behalf of the State of Texas, or by or on behalf of any county, municipality or other legal or political subdivision of the State, with any corporation, persons or association of persons for the performance of any work, shall be deemed and considered as made upon the basis of 8 hour constituting a day's work. It shall be unlawful for any corporation, person, or association of persons having a contract with the State or any political subdivision thereof, to require or permit any such laborers, workmen, mechanics or other persons to work more than 8 hours per calendar day in doing such work, except in case of emergency, which may arise in times of war, or in cases where it may become necessary to work more than 8 hours per day for the protection of property, human life or the necessity of housing inmates of public institutions in case of fire, or destruction by the elements.

*Wyoming.*

*Section 1, Chapter 90.*—The time of service of all laborers or workmen or mechanics employed upon any public works of the State of Wyoming, or of any county, city and town or any other political sub-division thereof, whether said work is done by contract or otherwise, shall be limited and restricted to 8 hours in any one calendar day, except in cases of emergency caused by fire, flood, or danger to life or property; or except to work upon public or military works or defences in time of war.

UNITED KINGDOM.

4. His Majesty may, in the event of war, or of imminent national danger, or great emergency, or in the event of any grave economic disturbance due to the demand for coal exceeding the supply available at the time by Order in Council, suspend the operation of this Act to such extent and for such period as may be named in the Order either as respects all coal mines or any class of coal mines.

## CANADA.

*Alberta.*

3. The Lieutenant-Governor in Council may, in the event of great emergency or of any grave economic disturbance, due to the demand for coal exceeding the supply available at the time, by Order in Council, suspend the operation of this Act to such extent and for such period as may be named in the order either as respects all coal mines or any class of coal mines.

*Ontario.*

(5) In the event of great emergency or grave economic disturbance the Lieutenant-Governor in Council may suspend the operation of this Section to such extent and for such period as he deems fit ; or upon the inspector certifying as regards any iron mine that the precautions, safeguards and arrangements for protecting the health, safety and comfort of the workmen employed therein are satisfactory, and in compliance with this Act, the Lieutenant-Governor in Council may, upon the recommendation of the Minister, in like manner suspend the operation of this Section in so far as such mine is concerned

## FRANCE

Labour Code. Bk II. *Article 8.*—Administrative Orders shall determine.

(5) The temporary exemptions it will be necessary to grant in order to allow undertakings to meet special increases of work or national emergencies, or accidents, which have happened or are imminent.

[*Mines Act.*] *Article 13.*—In deviation from the provisions of the preceding Articles the daily duration of work may, in case of war, actual or imminent, be increased beyond 8 hours.

Such exceptions shall be decided by the Minister of Mines, and on his responsibility.

## PORTUGAL.

*Article VI.*—The number of working hours may be increased in cases of urgent State need, such as mobilisation, fire, floods, collapse of buildings, explosions, serious accidents and other cases of *force majeure* or in those expressly mentioned in this Decree, as well as in the special cases prescribed in the official regulations and instructions.

(2) *Accident and Unforeseen Circumstances.*—Provision is made for exceeding the normal hours to cope with accident or make necessary repairs. Such departures must usually be notified to the competent authority and authorisation secured. The following are clauses of this type :—

## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

*Alaska.**Compiled Laws, 1913.*

Provided, That in cases of extraordinary emergency, such as danger to life or property, the hours for work may be extended.

*Arizona.**Revised Statutes, 1913.*

Section 3108.—The period of employment of hoisting engineers at the mines in this State, and furnace men at the smelters in said State, shall be 8 hours per day except in cases of emergency, where life or property is in imminent danger.

*California.**Labor Laws, 1913.*

Provided, That in case of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger, the period may be a longer time during the continuance of the exigency or emergency.

*Colorado.**Hours of Labor, 1908.*

Section 3922.—Nothing in section 1 of this Act (3921) shall be construed so as to prevent work in excess of 8 hours a day in emergency cases. Provided, That hours in excess of 8 a day shall be treated as constituting part of a subsequent day's work: And, provided, That in no one week of 7 days shall there be permitted more than 48 hours of labor. Any violation hereof shall be unlawful.

*Connecticut.**Labor Laws—Acts of 1909.*

And, provided further, That in case of sickness, death, wrecks, or washouts, telegraph or telephone operators may be held on duty not to exceed 16 hours in a day of 24 hours.

*Hawaii.**Revised Laws, 1905.*

Section 123.—A stipulation that no mechanics, clerks, laborers or other employees employed upon any public work in the employ of the contractor or sub-contractor shall be required to work more than 8 hours in any one calendar day, except in cases of extraordinary emergency, and that no mechanic or laborer, other than a citizen of the United States, or person eligible to become a citizen, shall be employed, shall be contained in every contract to which the territory or any political subdivision thereof is a party.

*Idaho.**Labor Laws, Acts of 1909.*

Except in cases of extraordinary emergency which may arise in time of war or in cases where it may be necessary to work more than 8 hours per calendar day for the protection of property or human life.

**Kansas.***Labor Laws, 1909.*

Except in cases of extraordinary emergency, which may arise in time of war or in cases where it may be necessary to work more than 8 hours per calendar day for the protection of property or human life.

**Massachusetts.***Labor Laws, 1909.*

No laborer, workman or mechanic so employed shall be requested or required to work more than 8 hours in any one calendar day or more than 48 hours in any one week except in cases of extraordinary emergency.

*Labor Laws, Acts of 1911.*

Except in cases of extraordinary emergency. Danger to property, life, public safety or public health only shall be considered cases of extraordinary emergency within the meaning of this section.

**Montana.***Eight Hours a Day's Work for Hoisting Engineers.*

**Section 1734.**—It shall be unlawful for any person or persons, company or corporation, to operate or handle, or to induce, persuade or prevail upon, any person or persons to operate or handle for more than 8 hours in 24 hours of each day, any hoisting engine at or in any mine. This act shall apply only to such plants as are in continuous operation or are operated 16 or more hours in 24 hours of each day, or at or in any mine where said hoisting engine develops 15 or more horse-power, or at or in any mine wherein there are 15 or more men employed underground in 24 hours of each day: Provided, however, that the provisions of this act (sections 1734, 1735) shall not apply to any person or persons operating any hoisting engine more than 8 hours in each 24 hours for the purpose of relieving another employee in case of sickness or other unforeseen cause or causes.

*Eight-hour Day in Mines, etc.*

**Section 1736** (as amended by Chapter 21, Acts of 1911).—The period of employment of working men in all underground mines or workings, including railroad or other tunnels, shall be eight (8) hours per day, except in cases of emergency where life and property is in imminent danger.

**Nevada.***Hours of Labor in Mines, Smelters, etc.*

**Section 6555.**—The period of employment of working men in smelters and in all other institutions for the reduction or refining of ores or metals shall be 8 hours per day, except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger.

*Hours of Labor on Public Works—8-Hour Day.*

*Section 6778.*—Provided, That nothing herein shall be so construed as to prevent the preservation or protection of property in cases of emergency.

*Section 1941.*—The number of hours of work or labor of mechanics engineers, blacksmiths, carpenters, top-men, and all working men employed or working on or about the surface or surface workings of any underground mine workings, shall not exceed eight (8) hours in any period of twenty-four (24) hours, except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger.

*New Jersey.**Chapter 243.—Hours of Labor on Public Works—8-Hour day,*

*Section 1.*—Provided, That in case of accident or unexpected contingency extra labor may be permitted for extra compensation.

*Chapter 253.—Hours of Labor on Public Works.*

*Section 1.*—Provided, That in cases where it may be necessary to work more than 8 hours per calendar day for the protection of property or human life such laborer or workmen and mechanics may be employed for longer periods per calendar day if paid on the basis of 8 hours constituting a day's work.

*New York.*

*Section 8.*—Except in cases of extraordinary emergency caused by accident, fire, flood, or danger to life or property and for each hour of labor so performed in any one day in excess of such 8 hours, by any such employee, he shall be paid in addition at least one-eighth of his daily compensation.

*Labor Law.*

*Section 3* (as amended by Chapter 494 Acts of 1913).—Eight hours shall constitute a legal day's work for all classes of employees in this State, except those engaged in farm and domestic service unless otherwise provided by law. This section does not prevent an agreement for overwork at an increased compensation except upon work by or for the State or a municipal corporation, or by contractors or sub-contractors therewith. Each contract to which the State or a municipal corporation or a commission appointed pursuant to law is a party which may involve the employment of laborers, workmen or mechanics shall contain a stipulation that no laborer, workman, or mechanic in the employ of the contractor, sub-contractor or other person doing or contracting to do the whole or a part of the work contemplated by the contract shall be permitted or required to work more than 8 hours in any one calendar day except in cases of

extraordinary emergency caused by fire, flood or danger to life or property.

*Ohio.*

*Section 37.*—Except in cases of extraordinary emergencies, not to exceed 8 hours shall constitute a day's work, and not to exceed 48 hours a week's work, for workmen engaged on any public work carried on or aided by the State, or any political sub-division thereof whether done by contract or otherwise.

*General Code—1910.*

*Section 17.*—1 (added by Act, page 854, Acts of 1913).—Except in cases of extraordinary emergency, not to exceed 8 hours shall constitute a day's work and not to exceed 48 hours a week's work, for workmen engaged on any public work carried on or aided by the State, or any political sub-division thereof, whether done by contract or otherwise; and it shall be unlawful for any person, corporation or association, whose duty it shall be to employ or to direct and control the services of such workmen to require or to permit any of them to labor more than 8 hours in any calendar day or more than 48 hours in any week, except in cases of extraordinary emergency. This section shall not be construed to include policemen or firemen.

*Oklahoma.*

*Section 4005.*—Except in cases of emergency, 8 hours shall constitute a day's work underground in all mines of this State.

*Oregon.*

*Section 4.*—In all cases where labor is employed by the State, county, school district, municipality, municipal corporation, or sub-division, either directly or through another, as a contractor, no person shall be required or permitted to labor more than 8 hours in any one day, or 48 hours in any one week, except in cases of necessity, emergency, or where public policy absolutely requires it, in which event the person or persons so employed for excessive hours shall receive double pay for the overtime so employed; and no emergency, necessity, or public policy shall be presumed to exist when other labor of like skill and efficiency which has not been employed full time is available.

*Porto Rico.*

*Section 1659.*—In works of a public nature, a working-day may be lengthened only in cases where the lives and property of the inhabitants of a municipality or of the insular government would be endangered if same were not done. This Act (secs. 1657-1660) shall not apply to the insular police force, internal revenue agents, telegraph operators and telegraph messengers, nor to the clerks of the departments of the insular government when, in the opinion of the

heads of such departments, work beyond 8 hours by them is necessary in the interest of the public service.

*Act No. 140.*

*Section 1.*—The service and employment of all laborers, workmen and mechanics who are now or may hereafter be employed by the people of Porto Rico or by any municipality or school board or other dependency of the people of Porto Rico, or by any contractor or sub-contractor upon any of the public works of any of the said municipalities, school boards, or other dependencies of the people of Porto Rico, is hereby limited and restricted to 8 hours in any one calendar day, and it shall be unlawful for any officer of the people of Porto Rico or of any municipality school board or other dependency of the people of Porto Rico whose duty it shall be to employ direct or control the services of such laborer, workman, or mechanic to require or permit any such laborer, workman or mechanic to work more than 8 hours in any one calendar day. No penalties shall be imposed for any violation of the provisions of this act due to any extraordinary events, or conditions of manufacture, or to any emergency caused by fire, famine, or flood, by danger to life, property, public safety or public health, or by other extraordinary event or condition on account of which the governor of Porto Rico shall subsequently declare the violation to have been excusable.

*Texas.*

*Section 2, Chapter 68.*—All contracts hereafter made by or on behalf of the State of Texas, or by or on behalf of any county, municipality, or other legal or political subdivision of the State, with any corporation, person or association of persons for the performance of any work, shall be deemed and considered as made upon the basis of 8 hours constituting a day's work. It shall be unlawful for any corporation, persons or association of persons having a contract with the State or any political subdivision thereof, to require or permit any such laborers, workmen, mechanics, or other persons to work more than 8 hours per calendar day in doing such work, except in case of emergency, which may arise in times of war, or in cases where it may become necessary to work more than 8 hours per calendar day for the protection of property, human life or the necessity of housing inmates of public institutions in case of fire or destruction by the elements.

*Utah.*

*Section 1336.*—Eight hours shall constitute a day's work in all penal institutions in this State, whether State, County or municipal, and on all works and undertakings carried on or aided by the State, county or municipal governments. Any officer of the State or of any county or municipal government, or any person, corporation, firm, contractor, agent, manager, or foreman, who shall require or contract

with any person to work in any penal institution or upon such works or undertakings longer than 8 hours in one calendar day, except in cases of emergency, where life or property is in imminent danger, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour.

*Section 1337.*—The period of employment of working men in all underground mines or workings, and in smelters and all other institutions for the reduction or refining of ores or metals, shall be 8 hours per day, except in cases of emergency, where life or property is in imminent danger.

#### *Washington.*

*Section 6575.*—It is a part of the public policy of the State of Washington that all works "by contract or day labor done" for it, or any political subdivision created by its laws, shall be performed in workdays of not more than 8 hours each, except in cases of extraordinary emergency. No case of extraordinary emergency shall be construed to exist in any case where other labor can be found to take the place of labor which has already been employed for 8 hours in any calendar day.

*Section 6585.*—And provided further, That this Act shall not be construed to prohibit extra hours of employment underground necessitated by a weekly change of shift, or where rendered necessary by reason of any accident, or for the purpose of making unavoidable repairs, or for the protection of property or human life.

*Section 6573.*—All work done by contract or sub-contract on any buildings or improvements or works on roads, bridges, streets, alleys or buildings for the State or any county or municipality within the State, shall be done under the provisions of this Act: Provided, That in cases of extraordinary emergency, such as danger to life or property, the hours for work may be extended, but in such case the rate of pay for time employed in excess of 8 hours of each calendar day, shall be one and one-half times the rate of pay allowed for the same amount of time during 8 hours' service.

#### *West Virginia.*

*Section 1.*—Eight hours shall constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics, who may be employed by or on behalf of the State of West Virginia.

*Section 2.*—The service and employment of all such laborers and mechanics who are now or may be hereafter employed by or on behalf of the State of West Virginia or by any contractor or sub-contractor upon any of the public works of the State of West Virginia is hereby limited and restricted to 8 hours in any one calendar day, and it shall be unlawful for any officer of the West Virginia State government or any such contractor or sub-contractor whose duty it shall be to employ, direct or control the service of such laborers or mechanics to require or permit any such laborers or mechanics to work



more than 8 hours in any calendar day, except in case of extraordinary emergency.

*Wyoming.*

*Section 3499.*—The period of employment of working men in all underground mines or workings shall be eight (8) hours per day, except in case of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger.

*Section 3500.*—The period of employment of working men in smelters, stamp mills, sampling works, concentrates, and all other institutions for the reduction of ores, and refining of ores or metals, shall be eight (8) hours per day, except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger.

*United States. Federal Law.*

*Eight Hours the Limit on Public Work.*

Except in case of extraordinary emergency: Provided, That nothing in this Act shall apply or be construed to apply to persons employed in connection with dredging or rock excavation in any river or harbor of the United States or of the District of Columbia while not directly operating, dredging or rock-excavating machinery or tools, nor to persons engaged in construction or repair of levees or revetments necessary for protection against floods or overflows on the navigable rivers of the United States.

CANADA.

*Alberta.*

It is not deemed a contravention of the law.

(b) In the case of any workman who is below ground for the purpose of rendering assistance in the event of accident, or for meeting any danger, or for dealing with an emergency or exceptional work which requires to be dealt with without interruption in order to avoid serious interference with ordinary work in the mine.

*British Columbia.*

*Metalliferous Mines.*

(14) And provided also that nothing in this rule contained shall apply where any person has been employed or detained for a longer period than 8 hours in any 24, owing to the occurrence of an accident in or about the mine, or in endeavouring to save or protect human life, or owing to such accident to save property.

(2) And provided further that nothing in this section contained shall apply where any person has been employed or detained for a longer period than 8 hours in any 24 hours owing to the occurrence

of an accident in or about the coke-oven, smelter, concentrator, or mineral-separation plant, or in endeavouring to save or protect human life, or owing to such accident to save property.

#### Coal Mines.

(19) Provided also that nothing in this section contained shall apply where any miner, mine labourer, or underground worker has been employed or detained underground for a longer period than 8 hours from bank to bank in any 24 hours owing to the occurrence of an accident to the mine, or in endeavouring to save or protect human life, or owing to such accident to save property, nor prohibit the manager or overman from entering a mine at any time and remaining therein in the necessary discharge of his duties.

#### *Manitoba.*

[In Manitoba, the orders of the Minimum Wage Board provide that in abattoirs, yeast factories, creameries, printing establishments, ladies' hat and ladies' wear factories, garment and regalia factories and furriers' establishments, overtime for female employees shall be governed by the regulations of the Factories Act which authorises the inspector, subject to any regulations by the Lieutenant Governor in Council, to permit longer hours on account of an accident, or other occurrence beyond the control of the employer, or because of the customs or exigencies of certain trades. In every case where overtime is permitted by the inspector, the hours for women and girls shall not be more than 12 in any day, nor more than 60 in any week, and these hours shall not be before 7 a.m. nor after 10 p.m. Overtime shall not be worked more than 36 days a year, and every female worker employed to an hour later than 7 p.m. shall be allowed at least 45 minutes between 5 and 8 for an evening meal.

In the mercantile industry, the limit of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is allowed to be exceeded in the following circumstances and under the following conditions in the different provinces :—

In Manitoba, the limit of 8 hours a day for 48 hours a week for boys between the ages of 13 and 14 years employed in shops is not allowed to be exceeded. The Orders of the Minimum Wage Board provide that in hair dressing establishments, the limit of 48 hours a week for female employees may be exceeded only on permit from the Bureau of Labour and only in cases of emergency. When such permit is granted, overtime shall not exceed three hours per day, nor 6 hours per week, nor be worked oftener than 20 days per year. No overtime shall be worked before 7 a.m. nor after 10 p.m. except in "shops or stores commonly open in the evenings or on Sundays, or both." In mail order establishments, the limit of 48 hours a week for female employees may be exceeded only on permit from the Minimum Wage Board. When such permit is granted, overtime shall not exceed 3 hours on any day except Saturday, nor 10 in any week, except between March 15 and May 15, and between October 15 and

December 22, when 13 hours per week may be worked. Overtime shall not be worked on more than 30 days in a year and in no case shall the total working period in any week exceed 60 hours. Work shall not commence before 7 a.m. nor continue after 10 p.m. In "5, 10, 15 cent" stores, overtime shall be governed by the regulations of the Factories Act.]

#### *Ontario.*

(b) The said limit of time shall not apply to a shift boss, pump-man, cage-tender, or any person engaged solely in surveying or measuring, nor shall it apply in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger, or in any case of repair work, or to any mine where the number of men working in a shift does not exceed six.

#### AUSTRALIA.

##### *New South Wales.*

(2) Nor shall any contravention of the provisions of the aforesaid subsections be deemed to take place in the case of any workman who is below ground in cases of accident, emergency, or other unavoidable contingency.

#### *Queensland.*

36. No person other than a watchman or caretaker in charge of machinery used in connection with any mine shall be so employed for more than 8 consecutive hours at any time, or for more than 8 hours in any 24 hours. Such period of 8 hours shall be exclusive of:—

(c) Any time in which such person is employed in case of breakage or other emergency.

#### CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

*Article 6.*—(i) When extra work is necessary in case of an interruption of the undertaking resulting from *force majeure* or accidents, or in the public interest, or for other important reasons, and if no other measures are practicable particular undertakings or a particular class of undertakings may be permitted temporarily to increase the hours of work during not more than four weeks of the year and by not more than two hours a day. Such permits shall be issued for works subject to industrial inspection by the industrial inspector; for mining undertakings, by the districts mining board; for railway work, by the Minister of Railways; for undertakings and institutions in agriculture and forestry, by the communal authorities; and for other undertakings, works and institutions, by the political authorities of first instance.

(iv) Overtime shall not extend altogether beyond 20 weeks or 240 hours in the year. This limitation shall not apply to emergency work, especially repairs, where danger to life, health and the public interest is involved, but only for a limited period unavoidably necessary for technical reasons, and if this work cannot be carried out within the usual hours of work. No official permission shall be necessary for this work, but it must be notified to the authorities named in the Sub-section (1) if it lasts longer than three days.

#### DENMARK.

Such extensions of the total working time as are caused by necessary shift changes, or repairs, sickness, completion of a certain piece of work and such like are not subject to these provisions.

#### FRANCE.

Public administrative regulations drawn up to fix the conditions under which the principle shall be applied in each trade, industry, or commercial undertaking shall decide particularly :—

(b) "The temporary exemptions it will be necessary to grant in order to allow undertakings to meet special increases of work or national emergencies, or accidents which have happened or are imminent."

#### NORWAY.

(1) Where, in the case of any workers, the work extends beyond the time fixed for their ordinary period of employment under par. 23 (1) and (2), and par. 18 (*Cf.* par. 25 and 31 (4)), the work performed in the extended period shall be regarded as overtime work. For this purpose it shall make no difference whether the work is carried on by day or night (par. 24).

(2) Overtime is prohibited except in the following cases :—

(a) When unforeseen occurrences or the absence of certain workers have interrupted or threatened to interrupt the carrying on of the undertaking ;

(b) When overtime is necessary to avoid the deterioration of raw material or products ;

(c) When periods of unforeseen pressure occur ;

(d) When the undertaking can only be successfully carried on if certain workers commence work before their colleagues and finish later than their colleagues ;

(e) When it is necessary in the public or social interest for workers to work overtime longer than one day (24 hours) the employer must obtain authority from the Inspectorate.

## PANAMA.

8. The preceding provisions shall not apply to works in which work cannot be interrupted either on account of urgent necessity or in so far as continuous work is essential for technical reasons or in which such interruption is liable to cause serious injury to the public interests or the public health, nor to work performed in order to prevent damage or which it is necessary to undertake on account of natural occurrences.

## POLAND.

*Article 5.*—Overtime must be paid for at special rates, and therefore the contract concerning voluntary overtime must be submitted immediately to the Labour Inspector for approval. Compulsory overtime can only take place under special conditions created by *force majeure* or unforeseen circumstances.

## PORTUGAL.

*Article VI.*—The number of working hours may be increased in cases of urgent State need, such as mobilisation, fire, floods, collapse of buildings, explosions, serious accidents and other cases of *force majeure* or in those expressly mentioned in this Decree, as well as in the special cases prescribed in the official regulations and instructions.

## SWITZERLAND.

*Article 48.*—In the case of duly justified need and with the authorisation of the competent authority, the duration of the day's work as fixed by Articles 40 and 41, may be prolonged for exceptional and temporary reasons, by a stated number of hours and for a stated number of workers.

The prolongation shall not exceed two hours a day, save in urgent cases.

## FINLAND.

4. If any Act of God, accident or other occurrence threaten to endanger the continuation of the work or have already interrupted it, or if an interruption of work would cause the destruction or damaging of property, goods or raw materials, the working hours fixed in paras. 2 and 3 may be appropriately extended, in so far as these circumstances may render this necessary, but not for longer than 4 weeks. Such work would not be included in the overtime mentioned in para. 3.

The notification of such an extension of working time is to be sent immediately by the employer to the inspection authorities with an exact statement of the reason for taking such measures, as well as the commencement and the duration of the extension. After examination of the circumstances of the affair the inspection autho-

rities can either acquiesce in the notifications or take steps for the limiting or stopping of the extension.

The regulations of section 2 of para. 3 regarding the payment for overtime can also apply in this case.

#### RUSSIA.

[All work carried out at a time falling outside the limits laid down by the regulation is considered to be overtime and shall be paid for at double rate (Article 18). Persons under 18 and women may not work overtime; workers over 18 may only work overtime with the consent of the workers' associations and solely in cases determined by the law (the absolute necessity of completing a piece of work, imminent danger, accident, urgency, &c.). (Article 19.) In certain of these cases overtime may not be worked without a special permit from the Commissioner or Inspector of Labour. (Article 20.)

Overtime may not be authorised for more than 50 days for each section of the same establishment. (Article 22.) No worker may do more than 4 hours during two consecutive days. (Article 23.)

Until the restoration of peace, provisions limiting the duration of overtime (Articles 19-23) or respecting rest (Articles 4-6) may be suspended if the workers and the workers' associations particularly agree to it. (Article 24.)]

(3) *Subsidiary and Complementary Processes.*—The great bulk of the work to which an industrial undertaking is devoted may be restricted to eight hours a day without technical difficulty, but there are always certain operations that must be undertaken before the main work can begin, or that must be done after the main work has ceased, and provision is usually made for exempting them from the eight hours rule.

This class of exception is provided for in the following clauses :—

#### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

##### *Washington.*

The hours of labor are fixed at 8 per day for underground work, exclusive of one-half hour for lunch, and employers and employees are alike made responsible for the observance of this law. Engineers, rope riders, motormen, cagers, and other persons necessarily employed in transporting men in and out of the mine may work not to exceed 10 hours per day.

#### NEW ZEALAND.

(2) The foregoing limits of working-hours shall not be deemed to apply to any male worker employed in getting up steam for machinery

in the factory, or in making preparations for the work of the factory, or to the trades referred to in the Third Schedule hereto.

#### CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

7.—(i) No special permission shall, moreover, be necessary for such subsidiary operations which necessarily precede or follow the work (manufacture) such as the heating of boilers, cleaning the workrooms, feeding animals, &c., even when they are carried on outside the ordinary hours of work fixed in the undertaking.

#### FRANCE.

Public administrative regulations drawn up to fix the conditions under which the principle shall be applied in each trade, industry, or commercial undertaking shall decide particularly :—

*Article 8.*—(a) “ The permanent exemptions that it will be necessary to grant for preparatory or complementary operations which must of necessity be carried out during periods which fall outside the limit prescribed for the general work of the establishment, or for certain groups of workers whose work is essentially of an intermittent nature.”

[An example of such regulations is the agreement, which has been drawn up in the Metal Trades in anticipation of the Act, see pp. 69-74.]

#### NETHERLANDS.

*Article 25.—32.* By General Administrative Order under conditions to be laid down in such Order, exemptions may be granted from the provisions of Article 24 in factories and workshops as follows :—

(a) Men or women who have to prepare workplaces, tools or apparatus before the beginning of the work or to clear up after the day's work, may work before 7 a.m., and after 6 p.m., for a maximum of 10 hours per day, provided that women do not work for more than 51 hours per week nor men for more than 57 hours per week in so far as one or the other is indispensable for ensuring smooth and regular working.

#### SWITZERLAND.

*Article 64.*—Regulations governing labour do not apply to subsidiary work which must precede or follow the manufacture proper,

#### GERMAN-AUSTRIA.

7. The provisions of Sections 1 to 5 shall not apply to subsidiary processes which must precede or follow the actual manufacturing processes of the undertaking (heating boilers, cleaning, &c.), provided that these operations are not performed by young workers. These subsidiary processes shall be paid for as overtime (Section 8).

## RUSSIA.

[Exemptions from the provisions of Articles 3-5 and 8-12 may only be granted after an understanding has been come to with the workers and with the approval of the workers' associations; they are granted in respect of a series of preparatory or complementary work enumerated in the law (boilers and engine staff, heating staff, overseers, &c.). (Article 17.)]

(4) *Light or Intermittent Work*.—Provision is also sometimes made for workpeople engaged in an occupation calling for slight or intermittent exertion, such as watchmen, pointsmen on railways, &c., to be allowed to work longer hours than the normal. Provision of this kind is made in the French Metal Trades Agreement quoted below (p. 69), and in the following clauses:—

## CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

(ii) The same shall apply to persons engaged in irregular service involving little exertion such as the supervision and watching of houses and undertakings, and looking after animals.

## NETHERLANDS.

(b) Men who are engaged solely in caretaker's duty may work for a maximum of 13 hours per day and 78 hours per week, and between 6 p.m. and 7 a.m.

(5) *Adjustment of shifts*.—In work which is carried on by successive shifts, special provision is often made in order to ensure that a change of workers from one shift to another (*e.g.*, day to night or night to day) is effected without interruption of the process.

The hours of work may be allowed to exceed 8 hours in order that shifts may overlap, or a shift of workers may be permitted to exceed 8 hours' work in 24 hours when it is changing over from a night to a day shift and takes two periods of work continuously.

Provision is also necessary in work which cannot be interrupted to allow a worker who has completed 8 hours' work to fill the place of an absentee who should have relieved him. Provisions of this kind are made in the following clauses:—



## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

*Alaska.*

*Section 2.*—The period of employment of any person in underground coal mines, underground lode mines, underground placer mines, underground coal, lode or placer workings, and in all other underground mines, or workings of any kind or nature whatsoever, shall not exceed eight hours within any twenty-four hours, except on such days as change of shift is made, excluding, however, any intermission of time for lunch or meals, or otherwise going to, or from the place where the work is actually carried on, whether going to or coming from the place of work be in going on, or off shift, or in going to, or returning from meals or lunch. It being the intention of this act to limit the hours of employment in any twenty-four hours to eight hours of actual labor at the face, or other place or places where the work or labor to be done is actually performed; except in case of emergency, where life or property is in imminent danger, the period may be extended during the continuance of such emergency.

*Washington.*

*Section 6585.*—And provided further, That this act shall not be construed to prohibit extra hours of employment underground necessitated by a weekly change of shift, or where rendered necessary by reason of any accident, or for the purpose of making unavoidable repairs, or for the protection of property or human life.

## CANADA.

*British Columbia.*

19. No person employed in or about a mine shall remain underground for the purpose of employment or for any other purpose, except as hereinafter provided, for a longer period than eight hours from bank to bank in any one calendar day of twenty-four hours. Provided, however, that where more than two shifts are worked, the onsetter, bottomer or cager pumpmen, stablemen, and engineers in charge of constantly running machinery other than motors and machinery directly used for the mining, drilling, or getting coal at the face, the fireboss or the shiftboss in charge of the mine or shift may be relieved at the place of duty; but in no case shall such person or persons remain underground for a longer period than eight hours and thirty minutes from bank to bank in any one calendar day of twenty-four hours; and provided further that nothing in this section shall be construed to prohibit extra hours of employment underground for such person or persons when necessitated by a weekly change of shift where more than two shifts are worked as aforesaid.

*Ontario.*

(a) A Saturday shift may work longer hours for the purpose of avoiding work on Sunday or changing shift at the end of the week, or giving any of the men a part holiday.

(b) The said limit of time shall not apply to a shift boss, pump-man, cage-tender, or any person engaged solely in surveying or measuring; nor shall it apply in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger, or in any case of repair work, or to any mine where the number of men working in a shift does not exceed six.

#### CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

7.—(i) No special permission shall, moreover, be necessary for such subsidiary operations which necessarily precede or follow the work (manufacture), such as the heating of boilers, cleaning the workrooms, feeding animals, &c., even when they are carried on outside the ordinary hours of work fixed in the undertaking.

(ii) The necessary shift-change in the case of operations where this is necessary in the interests of continuity, if the uninterrupted progress of the manufacture or of the service demand it, shall be held to be subsidiary work.

#### DENMARK.

Para. 2. In undertakings where regular uninterrupted work is carried on, the total working time of any worker engaged on uninterrupted work may not exceed 8 hours a day; at shift-change the total working time may be extended to not more than 16 hours in the day. Care must, however, be taken that the total working time of individual workers does not exceed 160 hours in three successive weeks. Such extensions of the total working time as are caused by necessary shift changes or repairs, sickness, completion of a certain piece of work and such like, are not subject to these provisions.

#### PANAMA.

8. The preceding provisions shall not apply to works in which work cannot be interrupted either on account of urgent necessity or in so far as continuous work is essential for technical reasons or in which such interruption is liable to cause serious injury to the public interests or the public health, nor to work performed in order to prevent damage for which it is necessary to undertake on account of natural occurrences.

(6) *Seasonal Trades*.—Certain trades, which from the nature of their product or the character of their market are liable to great fluctuations, may be permitted to exceed the normal 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week in their busy season. Exceptions of this kind are made in the following clauses :—

## DENMARK.

(3) On the request of the Labour Council the Minister of the Interior may grant exemptions from the above-mentioned provisions in so far as seasonal undertakings, or groups of such, are concerned, in which uninterrupted work is carried on during not more than four weeks in the course of a calendar year. The exemptions granted by the Minister of the Interior shall be published in the Official Gazette.

## NETHERLANDS.

The total number of days for which permits of prolongation are granted to a factory or portion of a factory shall not, as a rule, exceed 24 a year. In exceptional cases this number may be exceeded, in particular when the previous permission granted was only for a small proportion of the workers of the factory or a section of a factory, or when extraordinary abundance of work (notably in seasonal industries) requires it, when such case has been provided for by an agreement between the manufacturers and the workers.

## GERMAN-AUSTRIA.

3. The hours of work of workers may be extended on merely giving notice to the industrial authority of first instance, provided that this is necessary in order to make good an interruption of work which could not be foreseen and does not periodically recur.

4.—(i) In addition, the industrial authority of first instance may allow particular industrial undertakings to extend the hours of work of the workers they employ up to not more than 10 hours a day for a period not exceeding three weeks, in order to meet an increased press of work. This shall apply in particular to industries subject to the influence of seasons (seasonal industries). If the hours of work are not extended on more than three days in a month it shall be merely necessary to notify the said authority.

(ii) The notifications contemplated in Sections 3 and 4 shall be presented within 24 hours from the time that the extension of the hours of work begins. This notice shall be held to be presented when it is posted.

## FINLAND.

12. Detailed instructions regarding the application of this law will be issued by the Finnish Senate. If it is shown that the application of the law within the limits laid down in Sub-Section 2 of Section 1 of Paragraph 1 be impracticable as a result of the technical character of the work, or the time of year, or of other compelling circumstances, the Senate can at the request of the inspection authorities allow temporarily for a period not exceeding one year exemption from the regulation of work in accordance with this law.

(7) *Margin of Overtime.*—To ensure such elasticity in the application of the principle as will allow industry to adjust itself to technical and commercial exigencies, some laws permit a limited amount of overtime without special permission. This provision occurs in the following laws :—

POLAND.

[The decree distinguishes between compulsory overtime and voluntary. The first can only take place under special conditions created by *force majeure* or unforeseen circumstances. The second must be paid for at special rates and requires the previous approval of the Labour Inspector.]

FINLAND.

3. With their consent workpeople may be employed overtime to the extent of 10 hours a week above the working time laid down in section 1 of paragraph 2, or to the extent of 40 hours in four weeks above the working time laid down in section 3 of paragraph 2, but in both cases the maximum overtime must not exceed 150 hours in the year, and, in addition to this, if the regular progress of work absolutely demands it a maximum of 100 hours in the year may be worked with the consent of the inspecting authorities.

Overtime which is worked above the normal working day must be paid for at a minimum rate of 50 per cent. increase for the first 2 hours, and after that a minimum rate of 100 per cent. increase.

(8) *Emergency.*—In addition to exceptions specified in the law, power is reserved in the law by some States to permit by Administrative Order further relaxation or exemption when necessary in order to prevent industrial dislocation. The following are clauses reserving this general power :—

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

6.—(i) When extra work is necessary in case of an interruption of the undertaking resulting from *force majeure* or accidents, or in the public interest, or for other important reasons, and if no other measures are practicable particular undertakings or a particular class of undertakings may be permitted temporarily to increase the hours of work during not more than four weeks of the year and by not more than 2 hours a day. Such permits shall be issued for works subject to industrial inspection by the Industrial Inspector; for mining undertakings, by the District Mining Board; for railway work, by the Minister of Railways; for undertakings and institutions in agriculture and forestry, by the communal authorities; and for other undertakings, works and institutions, by the political authorities of first instance.

(ii) Further overtime not exceeding 2 hours a day during not more than 16 weeks in the year may be granted, under the same circumstances: for mining undertakings, by the chief mining authorities (Berghauptmannschaft); for railway work, by Minister of Railways; for agriculture and forestry, by the political authorities of first instance; and for other undertakings, works and institutions, by the political authority of second instance

#### SWITZERLAND.

*Article 48.*—In the case of duly justified need and with the authorisation of the competent authority, the duration of the day's work as fixed by Articles 40 and 41 may be prolonged, for exceptional and temporary reasons, by a stated number of hours and for a stated number of workers.

The prolongation shall not exceed 2 hours a day, save in urgent cases.

*Article 49.*—The permission referred to in the preceding Article shall be allowed:—

(a) For not more than 10 days by the district authority, or, in Cantons not divided into districts, by the local authority.

(b) For more than 10 days and not more than 20, by the Cantonal Government.

The total number of days for which permits of prolongation are granted to a factory or portion of a factory shall not, as a rule, exceed 24 a year. In exceptional cases this number may be exceeded, in particular when the previous permission granted was only for a small proportion of the workers of the factory or a section of a factory, or when extraordinary abundance of work (notably in seasonal industries) requires it, when such case has been provided for by an agreement between the manufacturers and the workers.

*Article 50.*—Prolongation of the day preceding Sundays and public holidays is subject to the following conditions:—

(a) That the prolongation is in consequence of duly established need, of which the cause does not lie in the nature of the industry. Permission may be granted for two days at most by the authority of the district, or, in default, by the local authority.

(b) That it concerns an industry for which the Federal Council has recognised the need of allowing a longer working day owing to particular conditions to which it has to conform; such permission is granted by the Cantonal Government.

#### FINLAND.

4. If any act of God, accident or other occurrence threatens to endanger the continuation of the work or has already interrupted it, or if an interruption of work would cause the destruction or damaging of property, goods or raw materials, the working hours fixed in paragraphs 2 and 3 may be appropriately extended, in so far as these

circumstances may render this necessary, but not for longer than four weeks. Such work would not be included in the overtime mentioned in paragraph 3.

The notification of such an extension of working time is to be sent immediately by the employer to the inspection authorities, with an exact statement of the reason for taking such measures, as well as the commencement and the duration of the extension. After examination of the circumstances of the affair the inspection authorities can either acquiesce in the notifications or take steps for the limiting or stopping of the extension.

12 Detailed instructions regarding the application of this law will be issued by the Finnish Senate. If it is shown that the application of the law within the limits laid down in subsection 2 of section 1 of paragraph 1 be impracticable as a result of the technical character of the work, or the time of the year, or of other compelling circumstances, the Senate can at the request of the inspection authorities allow temporarily for a period not exceeding one year exemption from the regulation of work in accordance with this law.

#### GERMANY.

VI. The above regulations do not apply to temporary work which, in cases of emergency, must be taken in hand immediately.

VII. In industries, the nature of which does not allow of an interruption, or which it is necessary in the public interest to maintain at full strength, a rule deviating from the above regulations can be conditionally sanctioned by the proper factory inspectors (in mining industries by the mining district authorities) if the requisite suitable labour is not at disposal. For this purpose it is necessary to have a request from the employer and, in so far as arrangements have not been come to between employers' and workers' associations, a declaration of consent from the workers' committee, or, if this does not exist, the workers in the factory. If, for the particular trades indicated, more comprehensive agreements have been come to in contracts between employers' and workers' associations regarding exceptions from the restrictions of employment of industrial workers, the factory inspectors and/or mining district authorities are entitled, having regard to the contracts, to permit conditionally further exceptions from the regulations for the protection of the workers. After granting permission, the said authorities have immediately to inform the proper employment agencies of the lack of labour in the factory concerned. The Demobilisation Commissioner is to be informed of permits which are granted.

He is authorised to direct the said authorities to withdraw their permission.

#### GERMAN-AUSTRIA.

6.—(i) The State Department for Social Welfare, after consultation with an Advisory Council composed of equal numbers of employers

and workers, may, by Order, allow further exceptions to the provisions of this Act for particular groups of industrial undertakings, subject, if necessary, to conditions which must be observed if the hours of work are extended.

3. The hours of work of workers may be extended on merely giving notice to the Industrial Authority of first instance, provided that this is necessary in order to make good an interruption of work which could not be foreseen, and does not periodically recur.

4.—(i) In addition, the Industrial Authority of first instance may allow particular industrial undertakings to extend the hours of work of the workers they employ up to not more than 10 hours a day for a period not exceeding three weeks in order to meet an increased press of work; this shall apply in particular to industries subject to the influence of seasons (Seasonal Industries). If the hours of work are not extended on more than three days in a month it shall be merely necessary to notify the said authority.

(2) The notifications contemplated in Section 3 and 4 shall be presented within 24 hours from the time that the extension of the hours of work begins. This notice shall be held to be presented when it is posted.

(9) *Foreign Competition.*—The Swiss Act reserves to the Administration power to exempt an industry from the 48-hours rule if such exemption is necessary to enable it to meet the competition of countries working longer hours.

#### SWITZERLAND.

*Article 41.*—Modification of the normal week.

*The Federal Council is authorised*

(a) To allow in certain industries a weekly maximum duration of work of 52 hours if urgent reasons justify this measure, and so long as these urgent reasons hold good, particularly if, through the application of the preceding Article, an industry runs the risk of being unable to withstand competition on account of the duration of work-time in other countries.

(10) *International Conventions.*—The French Act provides for the bringing of any regulations made under the Act into conformity with any international conventions that may be concluded.

#### C. CONDITIONS OF EXEMPTION OR RELAXATION.

Conditions are usually attached to any relaxation of, or exemption from, the normal limit of hours. These vary with the type of legislation in force and the

administrative systems of the different countries. The more important are as follows :—

(1) *Overtime Limited*.—The amount of overtime that may be worked in a day, week or year is limited ; or the 8-hour day or 48-hour week may be exceeded only on condition that an average of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is maintained over a period. The following limits are imposed in the countries named :—

Czecho-Slovakia	..	240 hours during 20 weeks.
Finland	..	150 hours in a year ; 100 additional hours in cases of necessity.
Switzerland	..	2 hours a day for 24 days in a year. May be increased in cases of necessity.
Greece	..	(Tobacco stores and factories.) 2 hours a day on 60 days in a year.
Uruguay	..	Daily overtime allowed but weekly limit, 48 hours, must not be exceeded.
Great Britain	..	(Coal mines.) 1 hour a day on 60 days in a year.
Norway	..	10 hours a week, in special cases 15 hours with a maximum of 30 hours in four consecutive weeks for a period not exceeding 6 months at a time.
Queensland (shops)		On not more than 40 days; and not more than two consecutive nights for shop employees.

In the case of France the Act does not specify the limits, but provides for the fixing of such limits by Administrative Order. In New South Wales, limits are fixed by Industrial Courts.

(2) *Hours Limited in Case of Exceptions*.—A limit is placed on the number of hours that may be worked in subsidiary operations, or by classes of workpeople excepted from the general limitation of hours. Provision of this



type is made in the British Coal Mines Act and in the Agreement under the French Law quoted below (p. 69).

(3) *Authorisation Required.*—Any departure from normal hours must be authorised by the competent authority. In some cases, in which the need of exceeding the normal limit can be foreseen, permission must be obtained beforehand; in others, it is sufficient if the departure is reported at once and authorisation asked. The following laws require authorisation of this type :—

#### CANADA.

##### *British Columbia.*

[In British Columbia, subject to any regulations made by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, the factory inspector may permit longer hours for women and young girls on account of an accident or other occurrence beyond the control of the employer, or because of the customs or exigencies of certain trades. In every case where overtime is permitted by the inspector, the hours for women and girls shall not be more than 9 in any day, nor more than 54 in any week, and these hours shall not be before 7 a.m. nor after 8 p.m. Overtime shall not be worked on more than 36 days in a year, and every female worker employed to an hour later than 7 p.m. shall be allowed at least 45 minutes, between 5 and 8 o'clock, for an evening meal.]

##### *Nova Scotia.*

[In Nova Scotia, subject to any regulations made by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, the factory inspector may permit longer hours for young persons on account of an accident or other occurrence beyond the control of the employer, or because of the customs and exigencies of certain trades. In every case where overtime is permitted by the inspector the hours for young girls shall not be more than 12½ in any one day, nor more than 72½ in any week, and these hours shall not be before 6 a.m. nor after 9 p.m. Overtime shall not be worked on more than 36 days in a year, and every young girl employed to a later hour than 7 p.m. shall be allowed at least 45 minutes between 5 and 8 o'clock for an evening meal.]

#### AUSTRALIA.

##### *New South Wales.*

The number of days or hours to be worked in any industry or calling, or in any branch or shift thereof, may be increased beyond those limited in this section by award if the court or board consider that in the public interest such increase should be allowed.

*Queensland.*

37: (1) No person shall do or cause or permit to be done any work in or about a mine on Sunday unless such work is :—

(g) authorised by an inspector, as hereinafter provided.

38. An inspector, on being satisfied that the employment of labour on a Sunday is necessary to avoid the risk of damage to the underground workings, machinery or equipment of a mine, or serious delay in the subsequent working of the mine, may give a permit for such employment by writing, stating therein :—

(a) the reasons therefore ;

(b) the number of workmen who may be employed ;

(c) the nature of the work to be performed ; and

(d) the period for which the authority shall extend.

Permits granted in accordance with this section shall be posted at a conspicuous place.

## CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

6.—(i) When extra work is necessary in case of an interruption of the undertaking resulting from *force majeure* or accidents, or in the public interest, or for other important reasons, and if no other measures are practicable, particular undertakings or a particular class of undertakings may be permitted temporarily to increase the hours of work during not more than four weeks of the year and by not more than two hours a day. Such permits shall be issued for works subject to industrial inspection by the Industrial Inspector ; for mining undertakings, by the Districts Mining Board ; for railway work, by the Minister of Railways ; for undertakings and institutions in agriculture and forestry, by the communal authorities ; and for other undertakings, works and institutions, by the political authorities of first instance.

(ii) Further overtime not exceeding 2 hours a day during not more than 16 weeks in the year may be granted, under the same circumstances ; for mining undertakings, by the chief mining authorities (Berghauptmannschaft) ; for railway work, by the Minister of Railways ; for agriculture and forestry, by the political authorities of first instance ; and for other undertakings, works and institutions, by the political authority of second instance.

## NETHERLANDS.

§ 3. The District Chief Inspector may, if special circumstances arise in an undertaking, or if in an undertaking a special pressure of work occurs, grant conditionally or unconditionally written exemption for men and women in an office to work a maximum of 10 hours per day, but not more than 55 hours per week.

§ 4. The District Chief Inspector shall in each case apply to our Minister for authorisation before granting such permits if they are to extend over a period of more than 6 days or if not more than 6 days have passed since the lapse of a previous exemption applying to the same persons.

(5) The Head or Manager of an undertaking may appeal to the Minister against the decision of the Chief District Inspector in respect of an application for exemption in accordance with Art. 3, within 14 days from the date of the decision. If the exemption is modified on appeal, then the modified exemption shall take the place of that against which the appeal was made.

(6) In an undertaking in which an emergency may arise which renders it impossible to apply for and obtain an exemption as laid down in para. 3, or in Art. 50, para. 2, the Minister may allow, either conditionally or unconditionally, a special exemption in such cases to be granted by the Chief District Inspector for men or women who do work contrary to the provisions of para. 3 or of Art. 50, para. 2. In granting such authorisation, which is valid for a period of not more than one year, and of which use is made on at least 24 days less than the number of days specified, it should be taken into account that a man or woman may not work more than 11 hours per day and 55 hours per week.

(7) Such authorisation as laid down in the preceding paragraph may not be made use of on more than 3 consecutive days. Before such authorisation is made use of, a written, dated and signed notification must be made by the Head or Manager of an undertaking to the Mayor and to the Chief District Secretary in the form specified by the Minister. An authorisation as specified in para. 1 may in the meantime be withdrawn by the Minister if the Head or Manager, or one of the Heads or Managers of an undertaking, in respect of which the authorisation has been granted, or if any of the Chief Supervisory Staff have been convicted for contravention of a provision of this law: A permit as specified in para. 3, or in Art. 50, para. 2, and an authorisation as specified in para. 6 may only be made use of so long as the permit or the authorisation in the form laid down by the Minister is posted up in a place specified by the Chief District Inspector, or in the absence of such instruction, near the Labour List.

*Article 26.*—The Minister may for a period to be fixed by him, but for not more than two years after the date fixed in Article 99, § 4, allow that in a certain factory or workshop workers may work for a maximum of one hour per day and five hours per week longer than is permitted by Article 24, § 1, or Article 25, § 2A.

*Article 28.*—§ 1. If in any undertaking a certain kind of trade is carried on in which at certain seasons of the year a special pressure of work occurs, or if in any undertaking special circumstances arise, the District Chief Inspector may grant a written exemption, conditionally or unconditionally, for workers employed in the undertaking of 16 years or over, from the provisions of Articles 23 and 24.

§ 2. In granting such exemptions, the District Chief Inspector shall have regard to the fact that a young person or a woman may not work for more than 10 hours per day and 55 hours a week, and a man for not more than 11 hours per day and 62 hours per week.

§ 3. The District Chief Inspector shall in each case apply for authorisation from the Minister before issuing such permits:—

(a) If the permit is granted for a period of more than 6 days.

(b) If not more than 6 days have passed since the lapse of a previous permit applying to the same persons except if the permit grants exemption only from the provisions of Article 23.

§ 4. The Head or Manager of an undertaking may appeal to the Minister against the decision of the Chief District Inspector in respect of an application for exemption in accordance with Par. 1, within 14 days from the date of the decision. If the exemption is modified on appeal, then the modified exemption shall take the place of that against which the appeal was made.

*Article 29.*—§ 1. For any undertakings in which cases of urgency frequently arise, which make it impossible to apply for or receive in time a permit such as that described in Article 22, § 5, or Article 28, § 1, the Minister may authorise conditionally or unconditionally the employment in such cases of men, contrary to the provisions of Articles 22, 23 and 24, without a special permit being obtained from the District Chief Inspector. In granting such authorisations, which are given for a period of a year from the date of issue, and of which use can be made within this period only on 24 days, or such fewer number of days as may be specified in the authorisation, regard must be paid to the fact that a man may not work for more than 11 hours per day and 55 hours per week.

§ 2. An authorisation such as is described in § 1 may not be used on more than 3 consecutive days. Before use is made of the authorisation a written, dated and signed notification of intention must be sent by the Head or the Manager of the undertaking to the Burgomaster and to the District Chief Inspector in the manner to be laid down by our Minister.

§ 3. An authorisation such as is described in § 1 may be withdrawn by the Minister if the Head or the Manager or any one of the Heads or the Managers of the undertaking for which the authorisation is valid, or a member of the supervising staff, is irrevocably sentenced for contravention of any provision of this Act. A sentence to a fine, if the fine is paid, is to be considered the same as an "irrevocable sentence."

#### POLAND.

*Article 5.*—Overtime must be paid for at special rates, and therefore the contract concerning voluntary overtime must be submitted immediately to the Labour Inspector for approval. Compulsory overtime can only take place under special conditions created by *force majeure* or unforeseen circumstances.

#### SWITZERLAND.

*Article 48.*—In the case of duly justified need and with the authorisation of the competent authority, the duration of the day's work as

fixed by Articles 40 and 41 may be prolonged, for exceptional and temporary reasons, by a stated number of hours and for a stated number of workers.

The prolongation shall not exceed 2 hours a day, save in urgent cases

#### URUGUAY.

3. In special cases the limit of work for adult persons may be extended, provided that in no case shall it exceed 48 hours for every six days' work.

In case of any deviation from the normal duration of the working day, notice shall be given to the proper authorities (Intendencia), in accordance with the requirements laid down by the executive authority in regulations supplementary to this Act.

#### FINLAND.

3. With their consent, workpeople may be employed overtime to the extent of 10 hours a week above the working time laid down in section 1 of paragraph 2, or to the extent of 40 hours in four weeks above the working time laid down in section 3 of paragraph 2, but in both cases the maximum overtime must not exceed 150 hours in the year, and, in addition to this, if the regular progress of work absolutely demands it, a maximum of 100 hours in the year may be worked with the consent of the inspecting authorities.

Overtime which is worked above the normal working day must be paid for at a minimum rate of 50 per cent. increase for the first 2 hours and after that a minimum rate of 100 per cent. increase.

4. If any act of God, accident or other occurrence threaten to endanger the continuation of the work or have already interrupted it, or if an interruption of work would cause the destruction or damaging of property, goods or raw materials, the working hours fixed in paragraphs 2 and 3 may be appropriately extended, in so far as these circumstances may render this necessary, but not for longer than four weeks. Such work would not be included in the overtime mentioned in paragraph 3.

The notification of such an extension of working time is to be sent immediately by the employer to the inspection authorities, with an exact statement of the reason for taking such measures, as well as the commencement and the duration of the extension. After examination of the circumstances of the affair the inspection authorities can either acquiesce in the notification or take steps for the limiting or stopping of the extension.

The regulations of section 2 of paragraph 3 regarding the payment for overtime can also apply in this case.

#### GERMAN-AUSTRIA.

3. The hours of work of workers may be extended on merely giving notice to the industrial authority of first instance, provided that this

is necessary in order to make good an interruption of work which could not be foreseen and does not periodically recur.

4. (i) In addition, the Industrial Authority of first instance may allow particular industrial undertakings to extend the hours of work of the workers they employ up to not more than 10 hours a day for a period not exceeding three weeks, in order to meet an increased press of work; this shall apply in particular to industries subject to the influence of seasons (Seasonal Industries). If the hours of work are not extended on more than three days in a month it shall be merely necessary to notify the said authority.

(2) The notifications contemplated in sections 3 and 4 shall be presented within 24 hours from the time that the extension of the hours of work begins. This notice shall be held to be presented when it is posted.

#### GERMAN-AUSTRIA (BAKERIES).

*Para. 3.*—(1) On immediate notification to the Chief Industrial Authorities an extension of the working time is permissible if an unforeseen interruption or suspension of work justify this, or if it is necessary in order to obviate deterioration to raw materials.

(2) If, owing to other exceptional circumstances an increased need of labour arises, an extension of the working time up to 10 hours, exclusive of rest intervals, is permissible for not more than 20 days in a calendar year, on immediate notification to the Chief Industrial Authorities.

#### RUSSIA.

[All work carried out at a time falling outside the limits laid down by the regulation is considered to be overtime, and shall be paid for at double rate (Article 18). Persons under 18 and women may not work overtime; workers over 18 may only work overtime with the consent of the workers' associations, and solely in cases determined by the law (the absolute necessity of completing a piece of work, imminent danger, accident, urgency, &c.) (Article 19). In certain of these cases overtime may not be worked without a special permit from the Commissioner or Inspector of Labour (Article 20).

Overtime may not be authorised for more than 50 days for each section of the same establishment (Article 22). No worker may do more than 4 hours' overtime during two consecutive days (Article 23).

Until the restoration of peace, provisions limiting the duration of overtime (Articles 19-23) or respecting rest (Articles 4-6) may be suspended if the workers and the workers' associations particularly agree to it (Article 24).

The general administration of factories, mines and pits may, in cases of urgency, grant exemptions from the provisions of Articles 3-5 and 8; it may authorise night work or irregular work at certain times of the year, when public needs require it (town lighting and water service) (Article 14). It will draw up a list of particularly dangerous

trades in which the working time laid down in Articles 3-5 and 8 may be still further reduced (Article 15).]

(4) *Higher Remuneration for Overtime.*—All overtime in excess of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week must be paid for at a higher rate of remuneration. This provision is the principal provision relied on in voluntary collective agreements and in binding awards of Arbitration Courts or Wages Boards, such as those of the Australasian States, to ensure the restriction of working hours. The following clauses embody this provision :—

#### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

##### *Oregon.*

*Section 4.*—In all cases where labour is employed by the State, county, school district, municipality, municipal corporation, or subdivision, either directly or through another, as a contractor, no person shall be required or permitted to labour more than 8 hours in any one day, or 48 hours in any one week, except in cases of necessity, emergency, or where public policy absolutely requires it, in which event the person or persons so employed for excessive hours shall receive double pay for the overtime so employed; and no emergency, necessity, or public policy shall be presumed to exist when other labour of like skill and efficiency which has not been employed full time is available.

#### AUSTRALIA.

##### *New South Wales.*

[Overtime may be permitted by the terms of any award or industrial agreement and shall be paid at a rate to be fixed by the court or the board or by industrial agreement.

The court may for any good and sufficient reason prohibit or restrict the working of overtime in any industry or calling.]

##### *Queensland.*

[Overtime in excess of 48 hours weekly or 8 hours daily is provided for in nearly all cases, and in the majority of cases the amount of overtime which may be worked is unlimited, but it is restricted by the imposition of special rates of wages over and above the ordinary daily, weekly or hourly rate. The usual rate is time and a half, but in certain rare cases double time. The Factories and Shops Acts, Section 46 (16), limit the total weekly hours, including overtime, in all factories, for females and males under 16, to 56. All shop employees, Section 54 (7), are limited to 40 overtime occasions in the year, and they may not work overtime on more than two consecutive nights.

Special provision is made for certain classes such as barmaids, chemists, &c.]

*Victoria.*

[The law differs as to (1) adult males, and (2) females, and boys under 16.

(1) Adult males may be employed for more than the hours fixed by the Wages Board without any offence against the law, but the employer must pay higher wages for such overtime work, usually time and a half, but in some cases time and three-quarters. For work on Sundays and public holidays Boards usually fix double time. This provision of higher pay for such work is found by experience to be quite a sufficient deterrent and more elastic than any direct prohibition could be. Employers only keep their people at work beyond ordinary hours under most pressing circumstances. It would not be an over-statement to say that the worker is more willing to work overtime for the sake of extra money than the employer is to get work done at the higher cost.

(2) Males under 16 or females of any age may not work in a factory (this limitation does not apply to work outside factories)—(a) for more than 48 hours in any week; (b) for more than 10 hours on any day; (c) later than 9 p.m. These hours may be exceeded and extended to 57 in order to meet an unforeseen pressure of work, on condition that:—

(a) 48 hours must not be exceeded more than eight times in one year.

(b) Time and a-half and 1s. tea money must be paid.

(c) Person must consent.

(d) Notice with fee of 2s. 6d. must be sent in each case to Labour Department.]

*ECUADOR.*

(3) If upon request any labourer, mechanic, clerk, &c., shall perform labour in excess of the hours as provided for in paragraph 1, he shall be paid for such excess worked during the day wages increased by 20 per cent. of the regular wages; increased by 50 per cent. for hours worked between 6 o'clock p.m. and 12 o'clock midnight; and 100 per cent. after the last-named hour.

These increases shall be based upon one-eighth of the daily wages, and shall be paid for each hour worked in excess of the 8 hours provided by this Act.

(4) The provisions of para. 3 shall apply to persons working by shifts only to the extent to which their labour is prolonged beyond the 8-hour shift, in which case they shall be paid the increased wages for each hour of overtime as herein provided.



## PANAMA.

3. All hours of work beyond those stipulated by the present Act worked for whatever cause and whatever class of work is in question, shall be held to be overtime, and remunerated accordingly by the owner, contractor, director or manager of the works.

4. Owners of establishments, factories, wharves or works in which, from their nature, a larger number of hours of work is necessitated, may make use of special agreements between the workers and the proprietors, administrators, contractors or directors, taking into consideration the preceding provision.

## POLAND.

[The decree distinguishes between compulsory overtime and voluntary. The first can only take place under special conditions created by *force majeure* or unforeseen circumstances. The second must be paid for at special rates and requires the previous approval of the Labour Inspector.]

## PORTUGAL.

*Article XII.*—Overtime shall be paid at double the rate of normal time.

Para. 1. Exception to this provision is made in the case of overtime performed by the workmen or employees of the State and administrative corporations, who will be paid in conformity with the provisions of the regulations appertaining to the establishment or service concerned.

(5) *Collective Agreement Required.*—No departure from the normal limitation of hours is allowed unless it is the subject of a collective agreement between employers and workpeople, which may or may not require to be reported to and approved by the authority responsible for enforcing the law. In laws and bills such as the French 8-Hours Law or the British 8-Hours Bill, all exceptions and the conditions that shall be attached to such exceptions, are left to be defined by Administrative Order embodying where possible collective agreement; but a collective agreement may be required as a condition of any relaxation or exemption in detailed laws of the first type also. Examples of this provision are the following:—

## CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

3. (i) *Breaks in work.*—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.

7. (iii) In undertakings serving a public need the regular hours of

work of particular groups of workers may be extended if the employee's work does not occupy more than 6 hours a day; although he has to remain on duty for longer hours. This extension shall only be allowed in the case of collective agreements concluded between employers and workers, and sanctioned by the Minister for Social Welfare in agreement with the Ministers concerned. In the case of railway undertakings, the Minister for Railways shall decide on this matter of the regulation of hours; he shall first invite the opinions of the workers' representatives.

#### GERMANY.

III. For those engaged in industries connected with transport, including railway, postal and telegraph services which necessitate, owing to their dependence upon time, general exemptions from the above regulations, arrangements are to be come to immediately between managements of concerns and the workmen's unions. If arrangements are not agreed upon within two weeks, further orders will be issued.

VIII. The beginning and end of times of work and of intervals are, in so far as no regulation by agreement exists, to be laid down, regard being had to the above regulations, by the employers in agreement with the workmen's committee or, if this does not exist, with the workers in the factory, and such times are to be made public by posting up in the factory.

#### GERMAN-AUSTRIA.

5. (1) The rule contained in section 1 shall not apply if the hours of work of the industrial workers in any working week are fixed by a collective contract at not more than 48 hours. In this case sections 3 and 4 shall apply, provided that the usual daily hours of work shall take the place of the 8-hour day.

#### RUSSIA.

[Work is prohibited on Sunday and on 15 days specified by the law. Special provisions are laid down in respect of workers who do not belong to the Christian religion (Art. 11).]

In concerns of only one shift each worker is entitled to not less than 42 rest hours per week. In those of two or three shifts, special agreements drawn up with the workers' organisations shall fix, for each worker, the minimum weekly period of rest, and the minimum number of holidays (Art. 12).]

Exemptions from the provisions of Arts. 3-5 and 8-12 may only be granted after an understanding has been come to with the workers and with the approval of the workers' associations; they are granted in respect of a series of preparatory or complementary work enumerated in the law (boilers and engine staff, heating staff, overseers, &c.). (Art. 17).

(6) *Registration Required.*—A register in which all departures from prescribed hours are recorded must be kept. This provision occurs in the following laws:—

## UNITED KINGDOM.

(2) The owner, agent, or manager of every mine shall cause a register to be kept in such manner as the Secretary of State may direct, of the cases in which any extension of time has been given under this section, and the register shall be open to inspection by the inspector.

## NEW ZEALAND.

(4). The occupier of a factory shall at all times keep a record-book, called the "overtime-book," wherein shall be entered a correct record showing, in the case of each person who is employed during such extended hours under this section, the name of the assistant, and the respective dates and periods of such employment.

(5). The overtime-book shall at all times be open to the inspection of the Inspector.

(6). The Inspector may at any time require the occupier to verify the entries in the overtime-book in such form as may be prescribed by regulations.

## NETHERLANDS.

*Article 68.*—§ 1. The head or manager of an undertaking in which work is performed in a factory or workshop, a shop, office, chemists' shop, coffee house, hotel or nursing institution is under obligation to take measures to ensure

(a) That in the establishment in a place which is open to all the workers in the establishment a "labour list" dated and signed by him which fulfils the provisions laid down in this Article shall be posted and remain posted long enough for all to become acquainted with the contents.

(b) That in the establishment if one or more young persons or women or five or more men are employed therein, there shall be a labour register which fulfils the provisions laid down in this Article.

§ 2. The "labour list" shall show with regard to all the persons employed in the undertaking in any occupation as described in § 1 the time for beginning and ending work every day, and the intervals for rest as well as the weekly day of rest and the period allowed for weekly rest.

§ 3. If the regulations in § 2 are not the same for all working days and all weeks, the several regulations must be entered separately on the labour list.

§ 4. The labour list shall also show the headquarters of the District Chief Inspector.

§ 5. The labour list may consist of one or more pages. Each of these pages must be dated and signed in accordance with § 1(a).

§ 6. If the labour regulations are not the same for all the persons employed in the establishment as described in § 1, the several regulations must each be entered on a separate page of the labour list. Also on each page it must be clearly shown to which group of persons the labour regulations apply.

§ 7. The labour list must not comprise any regulation which is not actually generally adhered to. It may not comprise any regulation which is at variance with the provisions of this Act.

§ 8. A worker may not work in any establishment described in § 1 in which a labour list applying to him exists between the hours shown on the list for him of stopping and beginning daily work or during the intervals for rest or days of rest prescribed for him on the list in so far as work may not be done by him according to the provisions of this Act between the hours or during the intervals or on the days of rest.

§ 9. Each page of the labour list shall come into force on the day fixed therein, or if no day is fixed therein, on the day on which it is dated. The page shall remain operative without a change until it has been replaced by another page. The coming into force of one page of the labour list shall be held to cancel the page of which it takes the place.

§ 10. The head or the manager of an undertaking shall send, either before or on the day on which a page of the labour list comes into force, a copy thereof to the District Chief Inspector.

§ 11. By General Administrative Order under conditions to be fixed in such Order, for certain concerns, or for certain classes of establishments, complete or partial exemption may be granted from §§ 1, 2, 3, and 6 above.

§ 12. By or in the name of our Minister complete or partial exemption may be granted to the head or the manager of an undertaking either conditionally or unconditionally for a specified period from §§ 1, 2, 3, and 6 above.

§ 13. The labour register shall show the surnames, Christian names and dates of birth of all persons employed in the undertaking as named in § 1 and for each of them it shall be shown on which page of the labour list the labour conditions applying to them are recorded.

§ 14. The Minister may for all or for some undertakings lay down in what form the provisions of this Article must be carried out.

#### FINLAND.

7. The employer is compelled to keep a record of the overtime work and emergency work performed, as well as the payment made for this, which must be produced on the demand of the inspectors or of the workmen's delegates.

The employer is compelled on the demand of the workmen to supply their delegates monthly with an extract from this record, free of cost.

#### D. SPREAD OF THE 8-HOUR DAY OR 48-HOUR WEEK.

Although at the time when this report is being prepared the 8-hour day or 48-hour week is enforced by law for workers generally, only to the extent that has been indicated above, its extension is proceeding rapidly. The

movement towards a general 8-hour day that is indicated by the enactment since the Armistice of 8-Hour Laws in Denmark, France, Italy (railways), the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland, Czechoslovakia, Germany and German-Austria has not spent its force. Bills for the establishment of a general 8-hour day in industry are in draft and may be expected to become law in the near future in Belgium, the United Kingdom, Italy, Roumania and Sweden. A Bill with a more restricted application is also in draft in Belgium (mines). In some countries in which legislation is not contemplated, for example, some of the Australian States, it may be noted that there is a wide observance of the 8-hour day under collective agreement, arbitration award, or custom.

*Limitation by Collective Agreement, Award, or Custom.*—This has, until quite recently, been the chief means by which the 8-hour day or 48-hour week has been secured.

A working-week of 48-hours or less is common under such arrangements in the *United States*, being established in the following industries :—

#### ORGANISATIONS REPORTING HAVING THE 8-HOUR DAY.

Asbestos Workers, International Association of Heat and Frost Insulators.  
 Boiler Makers and Iron Ship Builders of America, Brotherhood of.  
 Brewery Workmen, International Union of the United.  
 Bridge and Structural Iron Workers, International Association of.  
 Carpenters and Joiners of America, United Brotherhood of.  
 Cigar Makers' International Union of America.  
 Cutting Die and Cutter Makers, International Union of.  
 Firemen, International Brotherhood of Stationary.  
 Glass Workers' Union, American Flint.  
 Granite Cutters' International Association of America.  
 Hatters of North America, United.  
 Hod Carriers, Building and Common Laborers' Union of America, International.  
 Lathers, International Union of Wood, Wire and Metal.  
 Miners, Western Federation of.  
 Painters, Decorators and Paperhangers of America.  
 Paper Makers, International Brotherhood of.  
 Paving Cutters' Union of the United States of America and Canada.  
 Photo Engravers' Union of North America, International.  
 Post Office Clerks, National Federation of.

Powder and High Explosive Workers of America, United  
Printing Pressmen's Union, International.  
Quarryworkers, International Union of North America.  
Railway Postal Clerks, Brotherhood of.  
Roofers, Composition, Damp and Waterproof Workers of the U.S.  
and Canada, International Brotherhood of.  
Slate and Tile Roofers' Union of America, International  
Stone Cutters' Association of North America, Journeymen  
Tile Layers' and Helpers' International Union, Ceramic, Mosaic  
and Encaustic.  
Typographical Union, International.

*Industries on an Actual or Basic 8-Hour Day.*

Industry.	Dates.	How Accomplished.	Number Affected.	
			Establishments.	Employees.
Shipyards ... ..	Various dates	Labor Adjustment Board ....	—	134,000
Slaughtering and meat packing.	May 1, 1918	Federal arbitration award ...	—	100,000
Garment trades ...	1917 ... ..	Collective agreements ... ..	—	178,000
News-print paper industry.	July 1, 1918	Award National War Labor ...	19	—
Government construction work.	June 19, 1917	Agreement between the Secretary of War and the President of the American Federation of Labor.	—	108,463*
Harness and saddlery industry (so far as engaged in Government work).	August 3, 1917	Executive order ... ..	100 manufacturers signed the agreement.	—
Lumber and saw-mills of Washington, Oregon and California.	March 1, 1918 and later.	Action of employers and advice of Aircraft Production Board.	—	50,000
Anthracite Coal Mines ...	May, 1916	By agreement ... ..	—	147,000
Machine Trades ... ..	1915-1918	By agreements ... ..	—	116,000

\* This number is not included in table below, as the trades and occupations are not known.

Number of employees reported as having working day reduced to 8 hours (1915-1918).

	1915.	1916.	1917. Jan.-June.	1917. July-Dec.	1918. Jan.-June.	Total.
Aluminium manufacturing ...	—	275	—	—	—	275
Bakers ... ..	—	1,471	—	—	—	1,471
Boots and shoes ... ..	—	24,000	—	—	—	24,000
Bottlers and brewers ... ..	40	560	100	—	—	700
Brass workers ... ..	2,060	—	—	—	—	2,060
Building trades ... ..	—	28,676	610	—	1,800	31,086
Carriages and automobiles ...	31,085	—	1,000	—	—	32,085
Cement and concrete ... ..	45	—	—	—	—	45
Chemicals ... ..	46	82	—	—	—	128
Clerks, store ... ..	—	—	2,000	—	1,500	3,500
Cooperage ... ..	—	13	—	—	—	13
Electrical supplies ... ..	3,941	852	—	—	4,000	8,793
Electric and gas lighting ...	—	—	—	1,500	—	1,500
Food and tobacco... ..	300	—	—	—	—	300
Foundry and machine shops ...	88,300	19,336	3,185	2,453	816	114,090
Furniture ... ..	—	314	40	—	—	354
Garment workers ... ..	11,750	67,625	96,600	2,035	—	178,010
Glass workers ... ..	—	—	—	—	100	100
Hotel and restaurant workers ...	—	125	—	—	—	125
Iron and steel ... ..	—	—	300	—	—	300
Jewellery ... ..	—	3,000	—	—	—	3,000
Laundry ... ..	35	—	—	—	—	35



Leather workers ... ..	—	—	—	4,600	—	4,600
Lumber ... ..	—	66	1,875	1,620	50,000	53,561
Metal polishers ... ..	—	—	500	—	—	500
Mining ... ..	—	184,000	2,000	24,000	4,000	214,000
Municipal and State employees ...	—	4	—	—	—	4
Munitions ... ..	18,000	6,000	—	—	—	24,000
Musical instruments ... ..	7,500	54	—	—	—	7,554
Oil workers ... ..	7,180	350	300	—	10,000	17,830
Paper manufacturing ... ..	—	485	2,500	—	—	2,985
Packers ... ..	—	—	—	300	106,000	106,300
Plated ware ... ..	1,134	—	—	—	—	1,134
Policemen ... ..	—	—	102	—	31	133
Printing and publishing ... ..	—	—	—	—	6,600	6,600
Railroads ... ..	—	1,300	400,400	28,500	2,000	432,200
Rubber goods ... ..	192	1,500	—	—	—	1,692
Ship and boat building ... ..	120	1,250	—	—	133,000	134,370
Telephone and telegraph ... ..	—	—	—	25,000	2,300	27,300
Textile workers ... ..	250	—	—	—	324	574
Window cleaners ... ..	—	800	75	1,200	—	2,075
Miscellaneous ... ..	—	—	1,000	—	150	1,150
Total ... ..	171,978	342,138	512,587	91,208	322,621	1,440,532

In the *United Kingdom*, where already before the war a number of agreements had been made, many new agreements have recently been concluded and are now in force in all the chief industries not at present regulated by law. The following is, so far as can be ascertained, a complete list of industries observing a working day of 8 hours or a working week of 48 hours or less:—

Trade or Industry.	Area Covered by Agreements.	Number of Hours Constituting a Normal Working Week.
<i>Building Trades.*</i>		
General building trade operatives ... ..	Lancashire, Cheshire, Cumberland, Westmorland and parts of Derbyshire, Shropshire and North Wales.	46½ hours in summer, and not more than 44 in winter.
General building trade operatives ... ..	Yorkshire and part of Lincolnshire	46½ hours for ten months of the year, and 41½ for the remaining two months.†
General building trade operatives ... ..	Scotland ... ..	44 hours.
Plumbers‡ ... ..	Various localities in England ... ..	44 hours.
Slaters§ ... ..	England and Wales ... ..	44 hours.†
Heating and domestic engineers ... ..	England and Wales ... ..	47 hours.
Electricians (employed by electrical contractors).	United Kingdom ... ..	47 hours.
<i>Mining and Quarrying.</i>		
China clay ... ..	General ... ..	46 hours.
Granite quarrymen ... ..	Aberdeen ... ..	44 hours.

\* Important general agreements only are included in the statement. A large number of local agreements as to hours are in existence, and under these the number of hours constituting a working week ranges usually from 44 to 47 in important areas.

† These agreements provide for compensating increases in the rates of wages which have not yet received the sanction of the Minister of Labour under the Wages (Temporary Regulation) Act.

‡ Employed by members of the Institute of Plumbers, Ltd., only. Plumbers employed by master builders are covered by general building trade agreements as to hours in so far as these have been arrived at in the various localities.

§ Employed by master slaters.

Trade or Industry.	Area Covered by Agreements.	Number of Hours Constituting a Normal Working Week.
<i>Metal, Engineering and Shipbuilding.</i>		
Pig iron manufacture and iron and steel trades ( <i>i.e.</i> , blast-furnacemen, millmen, puddlers, mechanics, &c.).	Great Britain ... ..	8-hour shifts for shiftmen (blast-furnacemen, millmen, puddlers, &c.), and 47-hour week for day-wagemen ( <i>i.e.</i> , mechanics, engine-men, labourers, &c.).
Engineering and shipbuilding and certain other metal trades.*	United Kingdom (greater part of)	47 hours.
Railway workshops ... ..	United Kingdom ... ..	47 hours.
Light castings ironfounding ... ..	United Kingdom ... ..	47 hours.
Spring and doffing-plate making ... ..	General ... ..	47 hours.
Spindle and flyer-making ... ..	General ... ..	47 hours.
Lock and latch-making ... ..	General ... ..	47 hours.
Textile comb-making ... ..	General ... ..	47 hours.
Bobbin and shuttle-making ... ..	General ... ..	48 hours.
Farriers ... ..	Various localities ... ..	47 and 48 hours.
Edge tool workers ... ..	Principal localities ... ..	47 and 48 hours.
Card clothing making ... ..	General ... ..	48 hours.
Spelter workers ... ..	South Wales (practically the whole trade).	Process men (shiftworkers), 8-hour shifts per day. Others, 47 hours per week.
Gold, silver, &c., trades ... ..	Sheffield and Birmingham districts	47 hours.
Tinplate workers ... ..	South Wales (practically the whole trade),	Shiftworkers, 8-hour shift per day. Day workers, 47 hours per week.

<i>Textile Trades.</i>							
(1685)	Woollen and worsted ...	...	...	...	Yorkshire and Scotland (practically the whole trade).	48 hours.	
	Carpet manufacture ...	...	...	...	Kidderminster and various districts in Lancashire, Yorkshire and Scotland (practically the whole trade).	48 hours.	
	Thread manufacture ...	...	...	...	Paisley ...	44 hours.	
	Hosiery workers ...	...	...	...	Midlands (practically the whole English trade).	48 hours.	
	Bleaching and dyeing ...	...	...	...	Various districts ...	48 hours.†	
	Elastic web manufacture ...	...	...	...	General ...	48 hours.	
<i>Clothing Trades.</i>							
	Boot and shoe operatives (wholesale manufacturing).				Great Britain ...	48 hours.	
	Boot and shoe repairers ...	...	...	...	Yorkshire ...	48 hours.	

\* This agreement was made between the Engineering and the National Employers' Federations and the Shipbuilding Employers' Federation for employers and the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades for the workpeople. In addition to the most important part of the engineering and shipbuilding trades of the country, the agreement also covers a large part of the following other metal trades :—Anvil and vice making, brass manufacture, bridge building, tube, nut, bolt, nail, screw and rivet making, hollow-ware manufacture, sheet-metal trade, wagon building, wire manufacture, &c. These hours of labour have been followed by all, or nearly all, non-federated employers in these trades throughout the country.

† In Lancashire, Cheshire and Derbyshire the weekly hours for night workers are 43½.

Trade or Industry.	Area Covered by Agreements.	Number of Hours Constituting a Normal Working Week.
<i>Clothing Trades—contd.</i>		
Slipper operatives ... ..	Rossendale (practically the whole trade).	46½ hours.
Felt hat makers ... ..	Lancashire and Cheshire ... ..	46½ hours.
Tailors ... ..	Scotland ... ..	47½ hours.
Dressmakers and milliners ... ..	Scotland ... ..	44 hours.
<i>Transport Trades.</i>		
Railway traffic men ... ..	United Kingdom ... ..	48 hours (8-hour day)
Carters, motormen, &c. (engaged on commercial transport).	United Kingdom ... ..	48 hours.
Tramway workers ... ..	Great Britain ... ..	48 hours.
Omnibus workers ... ..	{ London ... ..	48 hours.
	{ Great Britain ... ..	44 hours.
Dock and waterside workers ... ..	Certain ports in Ireland ... ..	46 hours.
Coal trimmers ... ..	South Wales ... ..	84 hours per fortnight*.
Lightermen ... ..	Port of London ... ..	48 hours.
Furniture warehousing and removing ... ..	General ... ..	48 hours.
<i>Printing and Kindred Trades.</i>		
Printing trade operatives and bookbinders...	United Kingdom ... ..	48 hours.

<i>Woodworking Trades.</i>										
(7655)	Vehicle building	...	...	...	...	Various districts in Great Britain, and Belfast.				47 hours.
	Furnishing trade operatives	...	...	...	...	England and Wales, and Scotland				47 hours generally. In some localities shorter working weeks have been agreed upon, e.g., East Lancashire (46½), Northumberland (44), and Edinburgh (44).
	Packing-case makers	...	...	...	...	General	...	...	...	47 hours.
	Saw milling	...	...	...	...	General	...	...	...	47 hours.
<i>Food Trades.</i>										
	Flour millers (carmen, lorry drivers and carriers excepted).					Great Britain and various districts in Ireland.				Dayworkers, 47 hours; shift-workers, 44 hours,
	Provision trade	...	...	...	...	Various districts in Scotland				47 hours.
	Brewery workers	...	...	...	...	Various localities				47 or 48 hours.
<i>Chemical, Pottery, Brick, Glass, &amp;c., Trades.</i>										
	Chemical workers	...	...	...	...	England and Wales...	...	...	...	47 hours.
	Match manufacturing...	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom	...	...	...	47 hours.
	Paint and varnish making	...	...	...	...	General	...	...	...	47 hours.
	Rubber	...	...	...	...	General	...	...	...	47 hours.

\* Working day and night shifts in alternate weeks.

Trade or Industry.	Area Covered by Agreements.	Number of Hours Constituting a Normal Working Week.
<i>Chemical, Pottery, Brick, Glass, &amp;c., Trades, —contd.</i>		
Cement ... ..	General ... ..	48 hours.
Explosives manufacture ... ..	General ... ..	47 hours.
Pottery workers ... ..	Various districts of Great Britain (the major part of the trade).	47 hours.
Clay industries* ... ..	Great Britain ... ..	48 hours.
Flint glass cutters ... ..	Certain localities ... ..	48 hours.
Glass bottle makers ... ..	Lancashire ... ..	44 hours.
<i>Other Trades.</i>		
Leather workers (workpeople engaged in leather production, except boilermen, watchmen and other noncraft workers).	London, Northampton and Wal- sall districts, Yorkshire and Scotland (the major part of the trade).	48 hours.
Saddlery, harness and fancy leather workers (except horse collar makers and brown and black saddlers in the Midlands).	Great Britain ... ..	48 hours.
Laundry workers (females) ... ..	London ... ..	48 hours.
Asbestos workers ... ..	General ... ..	48 hours.



*Public Utility Services.†*

Gas works employees	...	...	...	Great Britain and parts of Ireland	Shiftmen, 8-hour shifts per day ; yardmen and others, 47-hour week.
Electricity supply undertakings	...	...	...	London area...      ...      ...      ...	Shiftmen, 48 hours ; others, 47 hours.

\* Including brickmakers, but not kiln workers.

† See also under Transport. Hours ranging from 44 to 48 per week have been adopted for municipal employees at many localities throughout the country by agreement between the local municipal authorities and representatives of their workpeople.

NOTE.—(i) It should be noted that, strictly speaking, the agreements are only operative in the case of members of the organisations parties thereto. In practice, however, general agreements have been usually, but not always, followed by non-associated employers in the trades which the agreements cover.

(ii) The following are approximate figures as to the numbers of workpeople covered by the agreements referred to :—100,000 operatives in the building trades (out of nearly 500,000) ; 10,000 in the mining and quarrying industries, other than coalmining (out of about 100,000) ; nearly 1½ millions in the metal, engineering and shipbuilding trades (i.e., practically all) ; 400,000 in the textile trades (the majority in the woollen and worsted, bleaching, dyeing and finishing, carpet, &c., sections)† ; over 160,000 in the clothing trades (out of 750,000) ; nearly a million in the transport trades (roughly the whole group) ; 150,000 in the printing trade (practically the whole trade, i.e., exclusive of allied trades such as papermaking, &c., which are not covered) ; 100,000 in the woodworking trades (out of some 250,000) ; 200,000 in the chemical, pottery, brick, glass, &c., trades (out of about 350,000) ; 100,000 in the food, drink and tobacco group (out of 500,000) ; and probably about 100,000 in other trades and services. In all it may be taken that the hours of labour of over 4,000,000 workpeople, out of an industrial population of 12,000,000 to 16,000,000, have been reduced to 48 or less per week by voluntary agreement.

† Negotiations are in progress regarding a reduction at any rate to 48 hours a week in the cotton trade, which will affect some 500,000 workpeople, or practically the whole trade. [NOTE.—These negotiations resulted in the establishment of a 48-hour week.]

In *Belgium* the 8-hour day is observed in gas works, electrical power works, chemical works, engineering works, nut and bolt works, enamel works, factories for the production of fire-proof and earthenware goods, glass works, printing works, chocolate factories, bakeries, biscuit factories, flour mills, yeast factories, brick works, the clothing, building, timber and furniture, tobacco and textile trades, in the manufacture of footwear and musical instruments, in diamond cutting works, in the "Art" trade and in the loading and unloading of ships, and is being introduced in blast furnaces in January, 1920.

It applies to all workers in the above-mentioned industries except in the following cases :—

*Coal Mines.*—The agreement applies to all underground workers.

*Quarries.*—The agreement applies to all workers in quarries who are parties to it.

*Electricity Work.*—The 8-hour day applies to workers engaged in the production of electric power ; those who are responsible for the upkeep work nine hours.

*Gas Works.*—The 8-hour day does not apply to yard workers. The length of the day is from eight to nine hours, two shifts of stokers in 24 hours.

*Textiles.*—The 8-hour day does not apply to firemen engineers.

*Sulphuric Acid.*—Three shifts work 8 hours a day ; the other workers do 10 hours.

*Construction Works.*—An 8-hour day for workers engaged in the manufacture and 9 hours for the general daily staff. Fifty-three hours week.

*Chemical Products.*—8-hour day for workers engaged in the manufacture—9 hours for subsidiary work.

*Coal Mines.*—The agreement adopts the terms of the law fixing the length of work in mines (dated December 31, 1909), but substituting a working time of 8½ hours, and of 8 hours for 9 hours. The terms of this law form the basis of the accepted agreement.

*Quarries.*—The agreement does not appear final as the clauses relating to salaries have been questioned.

*Blast Furnaces.*—The text of the agreement is as follows :—

“The representatives of the Iron Industry declare that they will apply the 8-hour day to workers in blast furnaces from January 1, 1920.”

The following are some types of agreement come to as a result of industrial disputes, bearing chiefly on the 8-hour day :—

*Tramways.*—The average working day is fixed at  $8\frac{1}{2}$  hours. Except in cases of *force majeure*, it must not exceed  $9\frac{1}{2}$  hours for the running services, and 9 hours for the other workers.

*Engineering Works.*—53-hour week. 8-hour day for the workers engaged on the manufacture and 9 hours for the general daily staff.

*Electrical Construction.*—53-hour week.

*Book Industry.*—8-hour day—extra remuneration for overtime. The minimum salaries of 1914 are increased by a bonus for the high cost of living.

*Chemical Products.*—8-hour day—exclusive of rest time.

*Public Services.*—8-hour day.

*Briquette Works.*—8-hour day.

*Building Industry.*—8-hour day. Nine-and-a-half hours work on 5 days, 5 hours on Saturday. Extra remuneration of 25 per cent. for the first two hours overtime, and 50 per cent. for subsequent hours. Extra remuneration of 50 per cent. for overtime on Saturday.

*Breweries.*—8-hour day.

*Nut and Bolt Works.*—8-hour day.

*Foundries.*—8-hour day.

*Plumbers and Zinc Workers.*—53-hour week.

*Construction Works.*—51-hour week—overtime from the 49th hour. If there is one day's unemployment in

the week the latter may not amount to more than 43 hours, and, in this case, overtime will be paid from and including the 41st hour. Two shift work for not more than 8 hours per shift in 24 hours. No work on Saturday afternoon.

*Manufacture of Photographic Paper.*—10 hours in summer, 6 hours in winter.

*Clothing.*—From October 1 to December 1 9-hour day and 54-hour week—the remainder of the year 8-hour day and 48-hour week.

*Timber and Furniture Trade.*—9½ hours work on 5 days, extra remuneration of 25 per cent. for the first 2 hours overtime and 50 per cent. for the subsequent hours. Extra remuneration of 50 per cent. for Saturday overtime.

*Brick Works.*—9½ hours day—no work on Saturday afternoon.

In *Switzerland* the 48-hour week has been applied in anticipation of the law, in most factory industries and is being discussed in others, including the building industry.

An 8-hour day is observed by agreement in the following :—

- (1) Mining.
- (2) Municipal Gas and Waterworks.
- (3) Tobacco Industry.
- (4) Chemical Industry.

The 48-hour week is, or will shortly be, observed by agreement in the following :—

- (1) Boot and Shoe factories.(a)
- (2) Chocolate Making.(b)
- (3) Engineering.(c)

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(a) Other important industries reported to have followed suit.

(b) Easter, 1920.

(c) October 1, 1919, or earlier if adopted by France.

- (4) Ribbon Making.(d)
- (5) Textile Industry.(e)
- (6) Breweries.(f)

*Canton Zurich.*—The Grand Council have granted a period of two years for introduction of the 48-hour week in firms and establishments in the Canton.

In *France*, similarly the 8-hour day has been agreed upon, in anticipation of Administrative Orders under the new law, in a great many industries, including the metal and engineering industries, building, leather, the book industry, clothing and footwear. Such agreements make provision for all necessary exceptions. The following agreement in the metal trades will serve as an example.

*Union of the Metal and Mining Industries, of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, Machine Construction and Industries Allied Thereto.*

The representatives of the Union of the Metal and Mining Industries, of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, Machine Construction and Industries Allied Thereto and the representatives of the Federation of Metal Workers of France, in the terms of the agreement of April 17, 1919, and in conformity with the law of April 23, 1919, have agreed upon and decided as follows :—

I. Date of coming into force.

According to the agreement signed April 17, 1919, between the Union of the Metal and Mining Industries, of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, Machine Construction and Industries Allied Thereto and the Federation of Metal Workers of France, the 8-hour day shall come into force from June 1, 1919.

However, some additional delay might be fixed for the liberated areas by agreement between employers and workers of each district. Moreover, in accordance with the agreement of April 17, 1919, it is agreed that for workers employed in running the machinery in factories in which the process is continuous, or where additional help is incontestably required, this shall not come into force until six months after Peace is signed.

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- (d) As soon as adopted in foreign countries.
  - (e) Reported agreement.
  - (f) October 1, 1919.

This time limit may not be exceeded except by agreement between the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. On the other hand, it is understood that on all occasions when as a consequence of special circumstances the manufacturers are able to apply the 8-hour day in certain factories in which the process is continuous, they shall do it without waiting for the six months to elapse.

## II. Definition of actual work.

The 8-hour day means 8 hours of actual work, starting at the signal announcing the start of work in each workshop or yard and ending at the signal to stop work.

This definition may be held to apply to all other lengths of the working day mentioned in Section III of this agreement.

The normal rest period allowed for in the workshop regulations is not included as work, whether this rest be taken in or out of the building.

## III. Distribution of hours over the week, fortnight or year.

With the exception of the arrangements made in respect of works in which the process is continuous and certain cases mentioned hereafter, manufacturers shall put into force in the whole or part of their works the working day of 8 hours for the 6 week-days. Nevertheless, when the necessity is agreed upon by the employers' and workers' associations or by employers and workers, the manufacturers may apply one of the following systems in the whole or part of their works :—

1. 48 hours per week, with a daily maximum of 9 hours and Saturday afternoon off.
2. 96 hours per fortnight, with a daily maximum of 9 hours, and one working day complete rest.
3. 2,500 hours per year, with a daily maximum of 10 hours, for seasonal industries and those carried on in yards in the open.

Should manufacturers or workers wish to adopt some other arrangement, an effort should be made to bring about an agreement between the local organisations concerned.

In default of such agreement those concerned can have recourse to the procedure provided by Article 1 of the law of April 23, 1919 (1), (Article 7 modified of the Labour Code).

## *Exceptions.*

(A).—*Permanent exceptions.*—The length of actual daily work for adult workers may exceed the limits fixed by the law of April 23, 1919, for the industries mentioned in the following schedule to the extent there indicated :—

Description of Work.	Maximum Increase in Length of Working Day.
1. Special employment in connection with furnaces, kilns, drying apparatus or boilers other than those used for power engines, preparation of metal-cleaning baths, heating of coppers or tanks, provided that such work is of an entirely preparatory or supplementary nature and not the fundamental work of the establishment.	2 hours beyond the general limit for the establishment, 2½ hours on days following days of rest.
Employment of mechanics, electricians and stokers for power plant, lighting or hoisting.	
2. In foundries for second smelting, provided that the work is of an entirely preparatory or supplementary nature, as in the preceding article :—	
(a) Removing moulds the same night as, or the morning following the casting, when this is indispensable in order to liberate the material necessary for restarting moulding, or for the success of an operation.	1 hour beyond the general limit for the establishment.
(b) Remaking the mould for the day's casting when it is technically impossible to do it the day before.	
3. Work (ordinary or extraordinary) during cessation of production, connected with the upkeep or cleaning of the machines, furnaces, looms and all other apparatus which, owing to their inter-connection with other machinery, cannot be separately stopped during the general running of the establishment.	1 hour beyond the general limit for the establishment, with right to work 12 hours on the normal rest day and the day preceding.
4. Work of foremen or of a specialist worker whose presence is indispensable for the continued work of a workshop or gang, when his relief is unexpectedly absent and while awaiting the arrival of a substitute.	4 hours beyond the general limit of the establishment.
5. Work of foremen or of a specialist worker whose presence is indispensable to co-ordinate the work of a shift taking over.	1 hour beyond the general limit of the establishment.

Description of Work.	Maximum Increase in Length of Working Day.
6. Work of men especially employed on furnaces, internal transport or other work, when the work or process is continuous for over a week.	No limit during the 1 day necessary for the changing over of gangs; this changing over not to take place at shorter interval than a week.
7. Work of men specially employed, either in heavy metal-working processes (smelting, forging, rolling of metals and similar processes) or in other operations which, for technical reasons, cannot be stopped at will, if some of these, owing to their nature or exceptional circumstances, have not been finished within the appointed time limit.	2 hours beyond the general limit for the establishment; in exceptional cases for heavy metal-working processes, 6 hours on the day preceding any day of rest.
8. Work of men in foundries for second smelting specially concerned with the firing of the smelting apparatus on days of casting.	2 hours beyond the general limit of the establishment.
9. Work of managers and foremen connected with the preparation of work done by the establishment.	2 hours beyond the general limit of the establishment.
10. Work of managers, foremen and workers specially employed in research, experiments, perfecting of new processes and reception of apparatus (testing).	2 hours beyond the general limit of the establishment.
11. In professional employment in which work is broken by long periods of actual rest, such as :— <div> <p>Watchmen, pointsmen, staff of railway belonging to the establishment, motor-car drivers, aerodrome personnel, carters, officers in charge of food and sanitary arrangements, firemen and all persons whose presence at the establishment is necessary for the 24 hours.</p> <p>Markers, office boys and similar occupations.</p> </div>	<div>4 hours beyond the general limit of the establishment.</div> <div>2 hours beyond the general limit of the establishment.</div>

It is stipulated that these exceptions may only be put into effect to the extent to which they are justified by the technical necessity responsible for their institution.



(B).—*Temporary exceptions.*—The length of actual work may also be increased by a temporary exception beyond the limits fixed by the law of April 23, 1919, for the types of work specified in the following schedule and in accordance with the conditions there mentioned :—

Description of Work.	Maximum Increase in Length of Working Day.
1. Urgent work requiring immediate attention to prevent threatened accidents, or organising means of rescue, or repairing the results of accidents to material, installation or buildings of the establishment, or to vessels leaving within 48 hours.	No limit for 1 day, chosen at the discretion of the manufacturer ; other days, 2 hours beyond the general limits of the establishment.
2. Work done in the interest of national safety or defence, or for the public service on a Government order stating the necessity for such exception.	The limit to be fixed in each case by agreement between the Minister of Labour and the Minister authorising the work.
3. Exceptional work which the establishment has to undertake.	By simple notice given to the Labour Inspectorate, not exceeding 100 hours in the year. As an exception and to facilitate the coming into operation of the 8-hours day, a 100 hours for the period still to go in 1919.

(C).—The average weekly length of work may be increased to 56 hours for specialists working in factories in which the process is continuous and belonging to categories mentioned in the decree of August 31, 1910. Such persons will continue to receive the weekly rest as provided for in the aforesaid decree.

(D).—The personnel of the power station of factories employed in the industries referred to in the present agreement (power, light, water, gas, compressed air) come under the same ruling as specialists working in factories in which the process is continuous with regard to weekly length of work and periodic rest.

(E).—In industries carried on in the open, such as workshops and yards for boat-building and machine construction, the length of the working day may be increased beyond the general limit for the establishment to make up for the irregularity of work due to bad weather, in accordance with the rules laid down in Section III of the agreement. The hours worked will not be counted as exceptional so long as the total number of hours' actual work done by each workman does not exceed 2,500 for the whole year.

This clause applies also to seasonal industries.

(F).—Hours worked beyond the general limit of the establishment will not occasion any increase in salary except as provided in paragraphs 1 and 3 of the temporary exceptions mentioned above, which hours will be paid an increase of 30 per cent.

In *Australia*, it is stated, a 48-hour week has been so long in operation that it has become almost custom without any legislative sanction. In the following industries and occupations it is enforced by award of the Federal Arbitration Courts :—

*Shipping Industry.*

Merchant Service Guild...	...	Masters and navigating officers.
Australian Institute of Marine Engineers.		Marine engineers.
Federated Seamen's Union	...	Sailors, lamp trimmers, greasers, firemen, donkeymen.
Federated Marine Stewards and Pantrymen's Association of Australasia.		Marine stewards and pantrymen.
Marine Cooks, Bakers and Butchers' Association of Australasia.		Cooks, bakers and other employees in the galley.
Federated Shipwrights, Ship-Constructed and Boat Building Association, Australia.		Including persons engaged in building or repairing iron, steel and wooden ships (other than naval draughtsmen and boiler makers) and boats.
Federated Ship Painters and Dockers' Union, Australia.		Ship painters, cleaners, boiler scalers, shipwright assistants, ship carpenters and joiners, riggers and wire splicers.
Federated Society of Boiler-makers and Iron Shipbuilders.		Boilermakers and iron ship-builders.
Radio Telegraphists' (Marine) Institute of Australia.		Wireless operators on coastal and oversea vessels.
Federated Masters and Engineers' Association of Australasia.		Masters and engineers of harbour and river vessels.
Waterside Federation, Australia*		Wharf labourers, stevedores and all waterside labourers.

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\* This organisation has an award for the whole waterfront of Australia, and works whenever ships are to be loaded and unloaded; ordinary hours of labour are between 7 a.m. and 5 p.m. Any work performed outside these hours paid for at overtime rates. Several smoke-ohs (short rest periods) are granted during day and night and paid for by the employers.

*Engineering Industry.*

Amalgamated Society of Engineers.	Smithy engineers, fitters and turners, pattern-makers, mechanical draughtsmen, electrical engineers and motor mechanics.
Federated Engine Drivers and Firemen's Association.	Engine drivers, firemen, crane drivers, dynamo attendants, motor drivers, greasers, trimmers and cleaners, in all industries.

*Mining (Coal).*

Australasian Coal and Shale Employees' Federation.	All persons engaged in the coal-mining industry.
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(Eight hours in this case calculated from bank to bank, i.e., from time miner enters the cage to descend into the mine until he arrives again at the surface.)

*Mining (Metalliferous).*

Australian Workers' Union, Federated Mining Employees' Union and Barrier Branch of the Amalgamated Miners' Association, Brokenhill.	All persons engaged in the metalliferous mining industry.
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(Forty-four hour week awarded in case of underground miners on account of peculiar nature of work.)

*Gas Industry.*

Federated Gas Employees' Industrial Union.	All persons engaged in the production and distribution of gas.
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*Tanning Industry.*

Federated Tanners and Leather Dressers Employees' Union, Australia.	All persons engaged in tanning and leather dressing.
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*Meat Industry.*

Australasian Meat Industry Employees' Union.	Butchers, slaughtermen, small-goods men, meat carters, refrigerating employees.
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*Boot Industry.*

Australian Boot Trade Employees' Federation.	Persons engaged manufacturing or repairing boots, shoes, slippers and wood lasts, in factories or shops.
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*Glass Bottle Making Industry.*

Federated Glass Founders' Association, Australia.

Unskilled workers in bottle-making factories.

Amalgamated Glass Bottle Makers' Union, Australia.

All bottle blowers and skilled workmen in the industry.

*Tramway Industry.*

Australian Tramways Employees' Association.

Gripmen, motormen, conductors, track repairers and all persons engaged in the tramway services.

*Flour Milling Industry.*

Federated Millers and Mill Employees' Association, Australia.

All persons engaged in the grain-milling industry.

*Artificial Manure Trade.*

Federated Artificial Manure Trade and Chemical Workers' Union.

All persons engaged in artificial manure and chemical works.

*Felt Hatting Industry.*

Federated Felt Hatting Employees' Union, Australia.

All persons engaged in manufacture and production of felt hats.

*Storing and Packing Industry.*

Federated Storemen and Packers' Union, Australia.

All persons engaged as storemen and packers in wool, grain, skin, hide and tallow, bond and free, or oil stores.

*Coopering Industry.*

Federated Coopers Brewing of Australia.

All persons engaged as coopers in the oil and tallow trade.

*Ammunition, Cordite and Explosive Industry.*

Ammunition, Cordite and Explosive Employees' Industrial Organisation.

All persons engaged in the manufacture and production of small arms, ammunition and explosives.

*Sail and Tent Making Industry.*

Australian Sail and Tent Makers' Society.

All persons engaged in the manufacture of sails, tarpaulins and tents.

*Smelting Industry.*

Australasian Smelters' Association.

All persons engaged in or in connection with the smelting industry.

*Hairdressing, Wigmaking and Hairworking Industry.*

Australian Hairdressers, Wig-makers and Hairworkers Employees' Federation.	All persons engaged in the hairdressing, wigmaking and hairworking industry.
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*Pastry and Biscuit Industry.*

Federated Pastry-cooks' Employees, Biscuit Makers' Employees and Flour and Sugar Goods Workers.	Persons engaged pastry-cooking, biscuit making and in the flour and sugar goods industry.
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*Furniture Making and Cabinet Making Industry.*

Federated Furniture Trades Society of Australasia.	All persons engaged in or in connection with furnishing, cabinet making, wicker-working, upholstering, french polishing, glazing, bedding and carpeting.
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*Clothing.*

Federated Clothing Trades Union of the Commonwealth of Australia.	All persons engaged in connection with the clothing, tailoring, pressing and whiteworking industries.
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*Manufacture of Groceries.*

Manufacturing Grocers Employees' Federation of Australia.	All persons engaged in the manufacture of groceries.
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*Brewing, Malting, Wine and Spirit and Hotel Industries.*

Federated Liquor and Allied Trades Employees' Union of Australia.	All persons engaged in the brewing, malting, bottling, wine and spirit, aerated water, hotel and allied industries.
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*Building Trade.*

Australian Builders Labourers' Federation.	All persons engaged as labourers or assistants to artisans in or in connection with the erection or demolition of buildings. 44 hours per week.
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*Journalism.*

Australian Journalists' Association.	All persons engaged in newspaper reporting, journalism and leader writing. 46 hours per week.
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*Carting Industry.*

Federated Carters and Drivers' Union.	Carters and drivers in all industries, and stablemen, breaksmen, leaders and drivers' assistants. 48 to 51 hours per week.
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*Pastoral Industry.*

- Australian Workers' Union.

All persons engaged as shearers, shed hands, wool pressers, &c., station hands, cooks and boundary riders. 48 hours to all these employees except boundary riders whose hours must not exceed 52 per week.

*Theatrical Industry.*

Australian Theatrical and Amusement Employees' Association.

Stage hands, scene shifters, ticket sellers, biograph operators, lime light operators. 33 to 60 hours per week. 60 hours granted to certain shows where night and day performances are given.

Similar awards or registered agreements cover most of the trades in the separate States of the Australian Commonwealth, as is shown by the following lists.

## VICTORIA.

Awards cover the following trades :—

Aerated water trade.	Cardboard box trade.
Aerated water carters.	Carpenters.
Agricultural implements.	Carriage.
Agricultural implements (country).	Carters.
Asphalters (i).	Chaff cutters, grain crushers, &c.
Bagmakers (Hessian, etc.).	Cigar trade.
Bedsteads, and fenders, iron.	Clerks, commercial.
Bill posters.	Clothing.
Biscuit.	Clothing, waterproof.
Boilermakers.	Coal, coke.
Boot dealers.	Confectioners.
Boot and shoe.	Coopers.
Brassworkers.	Cordage (rope, twine, &c.).
Bread.	Cycle trade.
Bread-carters.	Drapers.
Breweries (bottling ale, &c.).	Dresses, mantles, &c.
Bricklayers.	Dyers and clothes cleaners.
Brick trade (ii).	Electrical installation.
Brushes, brooms, &c. (except millet brooms).	Electrical supply.
Builders' labourers.	Electroplaters.
Butchers (iii).	Engine drivers (factory).
Butter.	Engine drivers (mining).
Candlemakers.	Engineering.
	Engravers and die-sinkers.

- Farriers.  
 Fellmongers.  
 Flour.  
 Flour (country).  
 Fuel and fodder.  
 Fuel and fodder (country).  
 Furniture (cabinet making, &c., European).  
 Furniture (Chinese).  
 Furniture (bedding).  
 Furniture (carpets, &c.)  
 Furniture (wire mattress).  
 Furniture (wood mantelpieces and overmantels).  
 Furniture dealers.  
 Gardeners.  
 Gasmeter.  
 Glass workers (iv).  
 Grocers.  
 Grocers (sundries).  
 Grocers (wholesale).  
 Hairdressers.  
 Ham and bacon curers.  
 Hardware.  
 Hats (straw).  
 Horsehair.  
 Hotel employees (females only).  
 Ice.  
 Ironmoulders.  
 Jams, pickles and sauces.  
 Jewellers.  
 Leathers goods.  
 Livery stable (v).  
 Malt.  
 Manure (animal), bone mills, &c.  
 Manure (artificial).  
 Marine store.  
 Meat preservers.  
 Men's clothing.  
 Millet broom.  
 Millinery.  
 Miners (coal).  
 Miners (gold).  
 Motor drivers (vi).  
 Nail makers.  
 Office cleaners.  
 Opticians.  
 Organ.  
 Ovens, stoves.  
 Painters.  
 Paper mills.  
 Paper bag trade.  
 Pastry cooks.  
 Photographs.  
 Picture frame.  
 Plasterers.  
 Plasterers (fibrous).  
 Plate glass.  
 Plumbers.  
 Polish.  
 Pottery trade (vii).  
 Printing (Metropolitan district).  
 Printing (outside Metropolitan district, but not under Country Printers' Board).  
 Printing (book-binding).  
 Printing (country).  
 Process engravers.  
 Quarry stonebreaking, &c.  
 Rubber trade, including pneumatic tyres.  
 Saddlery.  
 Saddlery (country).  
 Shirt.  
 Shop assistants (country).  
 Slaters and tilers.  
 Soap and soda.  
 Starch.  
 Stone-cutters.  
 Storeman packers and sorters.  
 Tanners.  
 Tea packing.  
 Tentmakers.  
 Tiemakers.  
 Timber fellers.  
 Tinsmiths.  
 Underclothing.  
 Undertakers.  
 Watchmakers.  
 Wicker.  
 Wireworkers.  
 Wood-working, carpentering, saw-mills, &c.  
 Wood-working (country).  
 Woollen trade.

- (i) Men on mastic machines work 60 hours.
- (ii) Burners work 60 hours.
- (iii) Apprentices (17 to 21) work 60 hours.
- (iv) Furnacemen working oil and gas-tanks, teasers, gas, furnacemen, firemen's assistants, night furnacemen, engine drivers and boiler attendants, work 60 hours.
- (v) Young men (17 to 21) work 48 hours. Adults work 60 hours.
- (vi) Drivers driving passenger vehicles seating less than nine passengers work 60 hours.
- (vii) Head and assistant burners work 60 hours.

#### SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

The Governor shall appoint Wages Boards for the following processes, trades, businesses, occupations, or callings:—

(a) The preparation and manufacture of clothing and wearing apparel.

(b) The preparation and manufacture of furniture.

(c) The preparation and manufacture of overmantels and of wood mantelpieces (other than wood mantelpieces to be painted, such as are usually made in sawmills).

(d) The preparation and manufacture of mattresses and bedding.

(e) The making and baking of bread and small goods.

(f) Of a pastrycook.

(g) Of a butcher and seller of meat, and maker and seller of small goods.

(h) Of brickmaking.

(i) Of drivers of trollies, wagons, drays, and carriers' vehicles.

(j) Agricultural machinery and implement makers.

(k) Printers, bookbinders, paper rulers and cutters.

(l) Brushmakers.

(m) Carpenters and joiners.

(n) Coopers.

(o) Hairdressers.

(p) Laundries.

(q) Painters and decorators.

(r) Galvanized iron workers engaged in the construction of buildings, also plumbers and gasfitters.

(s) Saddlers and harnessmakers, including collarmakers, bridle-cutters, and machinists employed in the trade.

(t) Sawmills, timber yards, and wood box making.

(u) Tanners, curriers and tanyards.

(v) For any other process, trade, business, occupation, or calling in respect whereof both Houses of Parliament pass a resolution approving such appointment.

Every Board, as far as regards the particular process, trade, business, occupation, or calling, or group or part, for which it is appointed.

"Shall . . . fix the maximum number of hours per week in respect of which such wages, prices or rates shall be paid."



## NEW SOUTH WALES.

The following trades, &c., are covered by awards under the Industrial Arbitration Act, 1912.

Building trades.	Government employees.
Clothing trades.	Iron and ship-building trades.
Coal-mining (north).	Leather trades.
Coal-mining (south).	Labourers.
Coal and shale-mining (west).	Manufacturing (No. 1).
Domestic.	Manufacturing (No. 2).
Engine-drivers.	Metalliferous mining (Broken Hill).
Gas-makers.	Metalliferous mining (General).
Food supply and distribution (No. 1).	Pastoral and rural workers.
Food supply and distribution (No. 2).	Printing trades.
Furniture trades.	Professional and shop workers.
Government railways.	Shipping.
Government tramways.	Transport.
	Miscellaneous.

In *Italy* there are agreements, national or local, limiting hours to 48 a week or 8 a day, in the following industries :—

Silk.	Clothing.
Cotton.	Supply of light, water and heat.
Wool and other textiles.	Mining.
Iron and steel.	Wood and straw.
Engineering, shipbuilding and other metal.	Skins and leather.
Printing and bookbinding.	Paper.
Chemicals (including rubber, explosives, fertilisers, &c.).	Rag-cutting.
Building.	Wood-pulp.
Railways.	Button, comb, brush, pipe, &c.
Food (including baking, milling, sugar refining, &c.).	Roadway drainage.
Spirits.	Furnishing.
	Transport (other than railways).
	Dock labour.

In the *Netherlands* the 8 hour day or the 48 hour week is observed under collective agreements in the following trades :—

Loading and unloading of boats.	Electrical trade.
Maritime services.	Chemists delivery service (boys).
Architectural plastering (stucco workers).	Transport of building materials.
Land transport.	Bookbinding.
Baking.	Paving.
	Metal working.

In *Spain* in mining operations and in certain industries with continuous processes three 8-hour shifts are worked.

According to the statistics of strikes published since 1905 by the Institute of Social Reforms, and according to information furnished by the Statistical Department, the 8-hour day has been adopted as the result of agreements between employers and workers in the following industries:—*Fan manufacture* (Valencia); *Agriculture* (Bejar, Salamanca, La Giueta-Albacete, Totana-Murcia); *Sandal manufacture* (Almansa, La Giueta-Albacete, Mula, Totana-Murcia); *Masonry* (Alcira, Manasasa-Valencia, Valencia, Mauresa, Saragossa, Castellon (Capitale), Yecla, Murcia); *Potters* (Hellen-Albacete, Totana-Murcia); *Skin Goods* (Valencia); *Sawyers* (Palma, Mauresa, Valencia); *Bronze and Lamp Workers* (Valencia); *Coppersmiths* (Saragossa); *Marble Workers* (Valencia); *Stevedores* (Palma, Valencia); *Carpenters* (Sabadell, Barcelona, Mauresa, Tatrassa, Valencia, Saragossa, Mataro, Caravaca-Murcia); *Chandlers* (Albaida); *Locksmiths* (Masanosa-Valencia, Valencia); *Fruit Conserving* (Alecia Algemesi); *Confectioners* (Valencia); *Building* (Oviedo, Nieres, Gijon, Badalona, Barcelona, Tarrasa, Saragossa, Madrid, Mataro); *Carters* (Valencia); *Tanners* (Badalona, Valencia, Saragossa); *Coal Wharf Labourers* (Port Bilbao (October to March)); *Joiners* (Barcelona, Mauresa, Valencia, San Vincente, Alicante); *Electricians* (Elche, Elda, Gijona, Oriheula, Pinou, Torre vieja, Villena, all towns in Alicante); *Bookbinders* (Valencia, Saragossa); *Manufacture of Esparto Goods and Brooms* (Mauresa); *Railwaymen* (Valencia to Liria); *Photo-Engravers* (Valencia); *Engravers* (Valencia); *Saddlers* (Valencia); *Iron and Metal Workers* (Barcelona, Badaloue, Sallent, Valencia, Saragossa, La Giueta-Albacete, Caravaca-Murcia, Mula-Murcia, Totana-Murcia); *Spinners* (Hellen-Albacete); *Brick Workers* (Barcelona); *Metal Industry* (Salamanca, Tarrasa); *Public Works* (Castellan-Capitale, Denia, Torre vieja-Abicante); *Bakers* (Algemesi-Valence, Cuenca-Capitale and Province); *Painters* (Saragossa, Valencia, Totana-Murcia); *Chemical Industries* (Badelona); *Rope Makers* (Valencia); *Carvers* (Valencia); *Dyers* (Totana-Murcia); *Coopers* (Grao-Valencia, Vinaroy-Castellon); *Pattern Makers* (Palma); *Wood Turners* (Mauresa); *Typographers* (Palma, Mauresa, Valencia,

Saragossa, Madrid, Terragone, Salamanca); *Glass Workers* (Palma, Barcelona); *Shoemakers* (Palma, Valencia, Almansa-Albacete, Totana-Murcia).

*In New Zealand.*

A limit of eight hours per day or less or 48 hours per week or less is provided in the various awards of the Court of Arbitration or in Industrial Agreements relating to the following :—

*Industries, including transport, in which limit of eight hours per day or less or 48 hours per week or less are enforced by law or administrative order.*

Industry.	Hours per day.	Hours per week.
Bakers ... ..	8	48
Bootmakers ... ..	8	46
Boilermakers ... ..	8½	47
Bookbinders and Paper Rulers ...	8½	48
Brewers ... ..	8	44
Bricklayers ... ..	8	44
Carpenters and Joiners ... ..	8	44
Coach Workers ... ..	8	48
Drivers (Horse) ... ..	8	48
Electrical Workers ... ..	8	44
Engineers ... ..	8½	47
Farriers and Blacksmiths ... ..	8	48
Furniture Trade ... ..	8	44
Aerated Water ... ..	8	48 and 44, according to season.
Flour Millers ... ..	8	48
Biograph Operators ... ..	7	42
Gas Workers ... ..	8	48
Iron and Brass Moulders ... ..	8	47
Jewellers and Watchmakers ...	8	46½
Laundry Workers ... ..	8	45 (females)
Laundry Workers ... ..	8	48 (males)
Labourers (General) ... ..	8½	47
Motor Mechanics ... ..	8½	47½
Painters and Paperhangers ...	8	48
Plasterers ... ..	8	44
Saddlers and Collar Makers ...	8½	48
Storemen (Wool and Grain, &c.) ...	8	48
Stonemasons ... ..	8	44
Tailors ... ..	8½	48

Industry.	Hours. per day.	Hours. per week.
Tailoresses ... ..	8	44
Timber Workers (Sawmills, &c.) ...	8	46
Tramway Employees ... ..	8	48
Permanent Way Repairers ... ..	8½	46
Trackmen ... ..	7½	45
Track Cleaners ... ..	8	48
Pitmen and Shed Labourers ... ..	8½	48
Car Examiners ... ..	8	48
Typographers ... ..	8½	42
Wharf Labourers ... ..	8	44
Tinsmith and Sheet-Metal Workers ...	8½	47
Freezing Works ... ..	No daily limit fixed.	44
Coal Mining ... ..	8 (Bank to bank with whole holi- day on alternative Saturdays.)	—
Gold Mining (Quartz) ... ..	8 (Bank to bank.)	44 with half- holiday on Saturdays.

### *In Denmark.*

Negotiations between the Danish Employers' Federation and the Federation of Danish Trade Unions have resulted in an agreement for the introduction of an 8-hour working day or 48-hour week as from January 1, 1920. Agriculture, shipping and certain occupations such as those of stokers, carters, &c., do not fall within the scope of the agreement. All who at present work 9 hours per diem are, with the above exceptions, to have their daily hours reduced by half an hour from October 1 next.

The agreement includes a provision to the effect that if the employers and workers in any trade desire to anticipate the introduction of the 48-hour week, this is to be permitted if the parties concerned so agree between themselves. Under the agreements made earlier in the year, the employers were to bear the expense of the reduction in hours then arranged, but they are not to bear the cost of the reduction to 48 hours now agreed upon. The Federation of Trade Unions undertakes not to place obstacles in the way of such overtime being worked as the needs of the various trades may require, and also agrees in principle to the introduction of a two-shift day in occupations where employers and workpeople agree thereon.

Finally, the agreement provides for the appointment of a committee comprising five representatives from each of the parties, with a Government official as chairman. The Committee will decide any disputes concerning the interpretation of the agreement now arrived at.

At the present moment an agreement for a year has been concluded with respect to 150,000 workpeople. Of these the most important groups are as follows:—30,000 agricultural workers, 28,000 metal workers, 8,600 textile workers, 6,000 carpenters, 5,000 painters, 4,600 boot and shoe hands, 4,000 bricklayers in the provinces, 4,000 slaughtermen, 3,000 tailors, 2,500 brick and cement workers, 2,200 woodworkers, 1,200 boiler and machine attendants, and 1,200 female workers. Added to these are compositors, bookbinders, gardeners and some small groups. About 50,000 workpeople still remain without agreements, including the Copenhagen building trade operatives, who insist on their demand for the introduction of an 8-hour day, a demand which the employers do not consider they can concede without upsetting the agreements which have already been arrived at with so much difficulty.

#### *In Sweden.*

By Order of the Administration the 48-hour week is adopted by the majority of occupations carried on by the State, as for example, the factories and stores connected with the Army, the shipyards of the Navy, the works and establishments of the railways and telegraphs, and the establishments for the distribution of electric power from the waterfalls of the State.

It is generally applied in mines (excavating and transport work connected therewith); lithographic and newspaper printing works, and also the tobacco industry, as well as gas and electric works, and in certain continuously working occupations, as for example, iron works, and paper pulp factories.

#### *In Serbia.*

The 8-hour day or the 48-hour week is observed in printing works, in accordance with agreement, and in mines, according to custom.

*In Siam.*

Agreements between employers and workmen are often verbal arrangements, and when they are made in writing the contracts are written in the simplest and most concise form.

*In Canada.*

The 8-hour day or 48-hour week is the rule in the following industries :—

Mining, railway operating, public utilities and specified occupations in building, clerical and mercantile work, personal service and amusement, general labour, chemicals and oils, food and tobacco, metals, pulp and paper, printing, textiles, ships and vehicles.

In all the countries mentioned the agreement is for a basic week. As pointed out in an earlier part of this Report the establishment of a basic week does not necessarily limit the number of hours actually worked. While, therefore, the spread of the 8-hour day by agreement and award may be accepted as evidence of the approval of the principle, it throws little light on the technical possibility of organising industrial production as a whole on the basis of a maximum of 8 hours of work a day. It has also another effect that should be noted ; it tends to limit hours of work, not as legislation does, in accordance with the intensity, danger or disagreeable character of the work or the physical needs of the workers, but solely in accordance with the bargaining strength, based on degree of trade union organisation, of the workers.

#### E. GENERAL SUMMARY OF THE OBSERVANCE OF THE 8-HOUR DAY OR 48-HOUR WEEK, WHETHER AS A RESULT OF LEGAL ENACTMENT OR COLLECTIVE AGREEMENT.

The extent to which the 8-hour day or 48-hour week is at present observed may now be summarised :—

*United States of America.*

Many States or Territories, as well as the Federal Government, have for several years regulated the working time of adult men in certain industries, fixing it, according to the case, at 11, 10, 9 or 8 hours a day. Only three States have confined all their wage earners to such limitation; two have adopted the 10-hour day and some only the 8-hour day.

At present, the legal working day of adult men may not exceed 8 hours: in mines (in 15 States), in foundries (9 States), in the production of electric power (1), in blast furnaces (3), in coke ovens (2), plaster and cement ovens (2), glass works (1), rolling mills (5), in the construction of tunnels (3), operations in compressed air (3), irrigation (1).

Eight States have adopted this same limit for the telephone, telegraph and signalling staff on railways—30 for private establishments carrying out work for the State or municipalities and 30 for public services.

Moreover, 9 States specified in a general manner that the day may not exceed 8 hours, unless the contract stipulates some other duration of work.

Only 3 States or Territories have fixed compulsorily a legal working time for all wage earners: Mississippi (1912) and Oregon (1913) have adopted the 10-hour day.

The territory of Alaska, at the request of the inhabitants, prescribed, on May 3, 1917, the 8-hour day for all kinds of work "except in cases of danger to life or property." Whoever contravened these regulations was liable to a fine of 100 to 500 dollars, or of imprisonment; the Governor was authorised to suspend its application in time of war at the request of the Council of National Defence. However, this law has been declared unconstitutional by the local Federal Court.

The Federal Government on its side has, since some time, established the 8-hour day in favour of several classes of wage-earners in its service.

A law of June 1868 extended this measure to all workers and labourers employed by or on account of the Government of the United States, and laws of March 30 and May 24, 1888, determined that it was compulsory in the State printing office and the postal service. But the

original law which prescribed no penalties remained a dead letter. Its efficaciousness was also seriously impaired by a decision of the Supreme Court, which considered that it constituted only an instruction with regard to staff and did not prescribe the remuneration for this duration.

A law of August 1, 1892, fixing at 8 hours the working day of persons employed either by the Federal Government or the District of Columbia, by a contractor or a sub-contractor, in any public works, was not enforced completely. The expression "public works" was the subject of constant controversies and was interpreted in too narrow a sense. Two laws of 1906 allowed for exceptions regarding the illiterate workers employed on the Panama Canal.

This law was amended by Acts of June 19, 1912, and March 3, 1913. The law of 1912 stipulates that any contract involving the employment of manual workers or labourers to which the United States, a territory or the District of Columbia are party, or which has been drawn up in their name, must contain a clause regarding the 8-hour day. Those contracts are excepted which concern transport by land or water, postal and telegraph arrangements, the victualling of the State, the supplying of daily necessities on the market or operations to prevent flood. The contracts stipulate that any infringement may be punished by a fine of 5 dollars per worker for every day on which the contravention takes place; the total will be withheld from the amount due to the contractors.

The law of 1913 limits to 8 hours the working day of all workers or artisans employed by the Federal Government, the District of Columbia, or by a contractor or sub-contractor on public works, except in cases of imminent danger.

These two laws have, however, been suspended for the duration of the war, and until further notice by regulations of March 24 and April 28, 1917; (1) with regard to workers and labourers engaged for the State in the supply of war material, building work for or in arsenals or working on fortifications; (2) with regard to the staff employed on State undertakings which the Minister of War considers important in the National Defence. Workers working



longer than 8 hours receive extra remuneration equal to one and a half times their ordinary wages.

The 8-hour day has, moreover, been applied for several years in the State dockyards and arsenals, in the Federal engraving and printing works, in construction yards of military camps and quarters; overtime is paid at the above-mentioned rate.

Finally, a law of September 3, 1916, called the "Adamson Law," has laid down that the 8-hour day is considered as the working day for the purposes of calculating the remuneration of all railway employees. During a certain period the old wages must be paid for 8 hours work.

#### *Argentine Republic.*

A decree of the Executive Council lays down the 8-hour day for railwaymen and telegraphists employed on the railways.

The 8-hour day is observed in most industries, without distinction of classes, and is regulated by custom without legal obligation.

#### *Belgium.*

The 8-hour day is not enforced by law, but an agreement has been reached to reduce the hours of work of workers employed underground in coal mines to 8 a day as from December 1, 1919, and a Bill has been drafted to limit hours to 8 a-day by law. The Government is preparing a Bill fixing the average hours of work at 8 a day or 48 a week generally. These limits are already observed by custom or agreement in the industries given in the last section.

An agreement has been adopted by the Commission of Enquiry into the reduction of the working day in *Coal Mines*. It fixes the working time during which workers may be employed underground in Mines at 8½ hours from June 1, 1919, and 8 hours from December 1, 1919.

On April 17 last (1919) an agreement was signed by a representative of the workers, and a representative of employers in *Quarries*; it fixes the working time in quarries as follows:—

(a) During the months of December, January and February at 6 hours a day.

(b) During the months of November, March and April at 8 hours a day.

(c) During the other six months of the year at 53 hours a week, of which 9 hours are worked on 5 days and 8 hours on Saturday.

At the Commission of Enquiry into the reduction of working time in the *Iron Industry* the employers and workers agreed to observe an 8-hour day for workers in Blast Furnaces from January 1, 1920.

A list of industries, etc., in which the 8-hour day or 48-hour week is worked under agreement is to be found on pp. [66-68.]

The Government has under consideration a Bill imposing a general limitation of 48 hours, which in its present form falls into the first category distinguished above.

## BRITISH EMPIRE.

### *United Kingdom.*

An 8-hour day is enforced by law in the mining of coal, stratified ironstone, shale and fireclay. A Bill has been prepared applying the limit of 48 hours generally. The limit is already observed by collective agreement in all the great industries of the country. See pp. [58-65].

### *Canada.*

The whole question of hours of labour has been regarded as falling generally, if not wholly, within the jurisdiction of the provinces. The provinces have enacted legislation freely on the subject. The whole subject of hours of labour is at the present time one of increasingly active discussion in the public press, and also of increasing contention as between employers and workmen.

In the mining industry the limit of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is already *enforced by law* in Alberta, British Columbia, Ontario, and in the case of juveniles only in Québec and the Yukon Territory.

In the manufacturing industry the limit of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is already *enforced by law* in British Columbia (female workers) and Nova Scotia (juvenile

workers), and by Administrative Orders in the province of Manitoba (female workers).

In the mercantile industry the limit of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is already *enforced by law* in the province of Nova Scotia (juvenile workers), and by law and Administrative Orders in the province of Manitoba (juveniles and some female workers).

On public works the limit of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is already *enforced by law* in the Yukon Territory, and by Administrative Order in the province of Manitoba.

In restaurants the limit of 48 hours a week is already *enforced by Administrative Order* in the province of Manitoba (female workers).

In addition, the 8-hour day is observed by agreement in some industries. In the food and tobacco group the 8-hour day is occasional. With tobacco workers, where these are organised, it is fairly well known. Very few workers in breweries have it. It is more common in certain food industries, such as cereals and packing plants.

In the metals group, the majority of workers in machine shops, who are well organised, work an 8-hour day by agreement. A good example is that of the Ontario Provincial Association of Machinists, which drafts hour and wage schedules for all local branches within the province. In the case of blacksmiths, boilermakers, moulders, sheet-metal workers and patternmakers, the 8-hour day is not usual, except in Western cities. In steel plants also it is unusual, but there are notable exceptions (*e.g.*, the rolling mills at Sydney, and the Algoma Steel Corporation at Sault Ste. Marie).

In the pulp and paper industry there appears to be a strong tendency toward adopting the 8-hour day by agreement.

Workers in the printing trades, who are strongly organised, almost invariably work on an 8-hour basis by agreement. Perhaps the only exceptions are to be found in certain less-skilled branches of the bookbinding trades, where female labour is employed. Included in this group are the bank-note companies, who also work an 8-hour day.

In the building trades, hours are regulated largely by

agreement. There is the greatest diversity in both agreement and custom. In some cases the various building trades of an entire city work on an 8-hour day basis—e.g., Ottawa, Kingston and Hamilton. In other cases it may apply to only part of these trades in the city—e.g., painters, and electrical workers in Calgary. Where all these trades work an 8-hour day in one city, it may be in accordance with an agreement between the local Building Trades Council and the local Builders' Association, as in Ottawa. But the great majority of building trades workers in Canada who work an 8-hour day do so in accordance with an agreement between the local unions and local employers. In very few cases is the 8-hour day established as a matter of custom only.

The 8-hour day, where applied, sometimes affects all classes of labour in this group, but usually is confined to those classes having, in any particular city a well-organised union. The result is an absolute lack of uniformity; in one city the painters, carpenters and masons alone may be working on this basis; in another city, plumbers, bricklayers and stonecutters may be the only classes. There is a tendency to make an exception in the case of builders' labourers and steam engineers, whose work often may require longer hours. The present tendency, however, appears to be toward uniformity between the various building trades in any one city.

In clerical and mercantile work the 8-hour day is only occasional, though there appears to be a strong movement at present toward shortening hours by early closing of shops.

In the personal service and amusement group, diversity occurs, due to the fact that where these workers are organised the 8-hour day by agreement is fairly prevalent, but where unorganised, the reverse is true; in other words, there is some practice of the 8-hour day by agreement, but very little by custom.

The mining industry is covered in part by legislation enforcing an 8-hour day. Examples of agreement, however, are those of the Cape Breton Coal Mines in Nova Scotia (9,000 workers), and the Cobalt metalliferous mines.

The mining group as a whole may be said to be largely 8-hour. In smelters, the 8-hour day is not usual; the smelters at Trail, (British Columbia) are an exception.

Railway operation in Canada follows in general the regulations laid down in the United States by the MacAdoo Award, which stipulates a basic 8-hour day. In electric street railways the 8-hour day is in practice only in British Columbia.

In some cities civic regulations affecting large numbers of workers in many different occupations require an 8-hour day. Certain large public utilities have adopted the 8-hour day. Light, heat and power companies, where privately owned, usually have an 8-hour day by agreement, especially in the case of electrical workers. Two railway express companies, the Canadian and the Canadian Northern, have an 8-hour day by agreement with their employees.

In Nova Scotia, the Lieutenant-Governor, on May 28, 1919, gave his assent to an "Act to provide for the appointment of a commission on the hours of labour." This Act authorises the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to appoint a commission to enquire into and report upon the economic effect of an 8-hour day, with special reference to the effect of such limitation upon the following matters:—

- (a) The industries of the province.
- (b) Production.
- (c) Wages.
- (d) Employment.
- (e) Export trade.
- (f) Canadian industries.

#### *Commonwealth of Australia.*

In the Australian constitution there is power for the Federal Government to legislate for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes, extending beyond the limits of any one State, by conciliation and arbitration. This power has been conferred upon Courts, Conciliation and Arbitration, constituted in 1905. In all disputes submitted to the Court the question of the reduction of hours is strongly pressed by employees, but the Court

has, with few exceptions, awarded the Australian standard of an 8-hour day or 48-hour week, usually  $8\frac{1}{2}$  hours on 5 days and  $4\frac{1}{2}$  on Saturdays. The industrial agreements are also based on a 48-hour week with very few exceptions. A 48-hour week has been so long in operation throughout Australia that it has become almost custom without any legislative sanction.

The 8-hour day is usually met by working  $8\frac{1}{2}$  hours on 5 days and  $4\frac{1}{2}$  on Saturday, and this not allowed to be exceeded unless overtime is paid, usually at the rate of time and a quarter or time and a half for the first 2 hours or portion thereof and double time thereafter. Sundays and holidays are usually awarded double time except in cases of continuous processes, where ordinary time only is awarded for the seventh day, but arrangements are made to allow the employees a day off in lieu of Sunday or holiday, and an annual holiday on full pay of about two weeks is usually awarded. The Australian standard of an 8-hour day or 48-hour week has been awarded in the industries given above (pp. 74-78).

In practically all the industries in that list agreements have been entered into on the same lines as awards, and usually apply to all employers not covered by awards. Agreements are filed in the Court and have the force of awards. The Court encourages as much as possible the making of agreements between unions and employers, and awards are only made after parties have failed to arrive at an agreement.

An agreement only binds the actual parties to the agreement as in the case of awards.

Agreements are usually in the same terms as awards.

#### *Queensland.*

The Industrial Arbitration Act, 1916, Section 10 (1) directs that all awards of the Industrial Arbitration Court shall provide for a limit of 48 hours per week in all industries except the carting trade, for employees on coastal, river and bay vessels, and for musterers and drovers of stock. In these industries the court may determine the maximum weekly or daily hours. The Act does not apply to domestic servants, nor to employees on dairy, fruit or agricultural

farms, except in the sugar industry and butter cheese factories.

The Factories and Shops Acts, 1900 to 1916, section 46 (2) limits the ordinary working hours in all factories for all females and males under 16 to 44 hours weekly. Shop employees are limited to 53 hours—section 54 (1)—but awards of the Arbitration Court, where operative, supersede this provision and limit the hours to 48. With a few exceptions the daily hours are limited to 8, with the proviso that a proportionately longer day may be worked to permit the observance of a weekly half-holiday. This proviso does not apply to callings working only 48 hours weekly, the week in such cases being divided into 5 days of 8 hours each, and one half holiday of four hours.

The awards of the Arbitration Court apply to the specified districts covered by each award, but practically the whole State is so governed in all principal industries. The Factories and Shops Act is operative in proclaimed districts only, but such districts include all the principal towns in the State.

### *Victoria.*

The hours of about 44 per cent. of the workers of Victoria are regulated by Wages Boards. Each Wages Board deals with its own trade, and usually fixes the same number of hours for a day's work for all classes of workers in the trade. In a few cases a Wages Board has fixed different numbers of hours for different workers. For example :—Motor Drivers' Board—taxi-cab chauffeurs—hour week (plying for hire), motor vehicle chauffeurs—48-60-hour week (plying between two fixed points).

In the building and transport trades, coal and gold mining, textile, clothing, boot and bread trades, engineering and iron works, and in almost every other trade, the hours do not vary for different classes of workers in the same trade.

The working week is, speaking generally, 48 hours for all occupations whether regulated by law or not.

A list of trades covered by awards is to be found on p. [78-80].

*New South Wales.*

The 8-hour Act applies to all industries in the State. In making awards on the basis of industrial agreements the following directions are observed.

(A) Coal Mining Industry.—Workmen shall not be below ground for more than 8 hours in any consecutive 24 hours, but in the cases of firemen and certain other officials the period below ground may be not more than 96 hours during 14 consecutive days, and of shiftmen, etc., handling coal, a period of not more than 48 hours during 6 consecutive days.

(B) Metalliferous Mining Industry.—Workmen shall not be below ground for more than 8 hours in any consecutive 24 hours nor more than 88 hours during 14 consecutive days.

In both (A) and (B), except in cases of emergency or accident, the bank to bank rule applies, and shifts are limited to 6 hours if the temperature is over 81° Fahrenheit for 4 hours of the shift.

(C) In all other industries the hours worked may not exceed :—

- (1) 8 hours a day during 6 consecutive days.
- (2) 48-hour week.
- (3) 96 hours during 14 consecutive days as determined by industrial agreement or award.

It may perhaps be of interest to point out that, in certain industries which are dangerous or injurious to the workmen, the Court of Industrial Arbitration or the Wages Boards appointed under the Industrial Arbitration Act have limited the hours of work much more than the Act itself.

All the principal industries in the Dominion come within the scope of the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act, 1908, which enables the unions of workers or employers to enter into industrial agreements or apply to the Court of Arbitration for an Award fixing the conditions of employment in the industry. Voluntary agreements outside the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act are very few and the conditions respecting hours



of work, wages, &c., are usually on the lines of similar industries covered by Awards of the Court or by industrial agreements.

A list of the industries, including transport, in which the limit of 8 hours per day or less, or 48 hours a week or less is enforced is to be found on p. 81.

Provision is made to exempt certain industries from the provisions fixing a limit to the hours of work at 48 per week or 8 per day, and includes the following:—

- Freezing works.
- Dairy factories.
- Fellmongeries and pelt works.
- Fish-curing and preserving.
- Jam factories.
- Bacon factories.
- Sausage-casing factories.

The above are seasonal trades and the handling of perishable goods renders it necessary to work longer hours during the season.

*South Australia.* See p. 80.

*New Zealand.*

A 48-hour week has been adopted generally throughout the Dominion in all the manufacturing and transport industries. The Factories Act, 1908, provides a 48-hour week for all males over 16 years of age, and a 45-hour week for females and boys under 16 years of age.

A list of industries covered by awards of the Court of Arbitration or in industrial agreements is to be found on pp. 83-84.

*South Africa.*

The 48-hours limit is generally observed but is not enforced by law (50 hours is the limit in factories). The principle of the 8-hours day has been accepted for railways and harbours service, but the 48-hours limit is regarded as preferable.

*Chili.*

The limit of 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week is enforced by law for sanitary workers in Providencia, and by Decree in the workshops of the State Railways.

The 8-hour day is also worked in some manufacturing industries.

*Denmark.*

The 8-hour day has been introduced in pursuance of the Act of February 12, 1919, in industries in which regular work is carried on by day and night, and which are subject to control in accordance with the Factory Act of April 29, 1913, which fixed the maximum weekly working time at 60 hours.

By work carried on by day and night is understood work which is carried on by day and night without any other interruption than that which occurs in consequence of the rest periods of the different shifts. Consequently only the industries which work regularly day and night are subject to the law, but it covers all such without distinction. On the other hand, industries which only work day and night temporarily or provisionally, that is to say, for less than one month in the course of a year, are not subject to the law.

The Government has appointed a Commission to prepare a draft bill for establishing the 8-hour day for all the workers in trade, industry, commerce, agriculture and navigation. It should be possible for the Commission to suggest a shorter working time for those trades in which consideration of the health of the workers would justify it. It should also endeavour to lay down the special rules for those trades in which it would be advisable to fix the hours of work as an average for a longer period, as for example, in agriculture.

The 8-hour day has been introduced by an Administrative Order in State establishments for railways workers and for the postal, telegraph and customs staff, as well as in the Municipality of Copenhagen, and in some of the larger communes of the province.

Agreements drawn up between unions of employers

and employed provide for the introduction of the 8-hour day in most trades. See pp. [84-85].

*France.*

By the law of April 23, 1919, it is left to public administration regulations (decrees drawn up, after hearing by the State Council) to determine for any given trade, industry, commercial employment or class of occupation, for the whole of France or for a single district, the time limits and conditions under which the principle of an 8-hour day, 48-hour week, or an equivalent limitation based on some other period shall be applied.

At present (June 30, 1919) public administrative regulations are in preparation for several industries; textile, building and metal industries.

A special law of June 24, 1919, regulates the working time in mines.

The 8-hour day is already established in fact (June 30, 1919) without a public administrative regulation having yet been drawn up, in a very great number of industries. In certain of them the 8-hour day has been established either as a result of national agreements between the workers' unions and employers' organisations (metal and engineering industries; building industry and public works; tanning, currying, tawing, wool pulling and varnishing industries; book industry) or as a result of district or local agreements (particularly for the clothing trade and for the footwear industry in various districts of France).

According to the agreement signed April 17, 1919, between the Union of the Metal and Mining Industries, of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering, Machine Construction and Industries Allied Thereto, and the Federation of the Metal Workers of France, the 8-hour day came into force on June 1, 1919.

*Italy.*

*State Railways.*—A normal working day of 8 hours for State railway workers is established by Decree.

1. An 8-hour day and a weekly day of rest must be

*Roumania.*

The 8-hour day is enforced by Administrative Order in the State Printing Works, match and tobacco factories, and on the State railways.

In the Province of Ardeal it is enforced by decree in all industries, mines and quarries, in commercial enterprises and factories, whether State or privately owned. Agriculture, forestry and seasonal industries are excepted, as well as the work of personal servants and work connected with national defence.

Collective agreements provide for an 8-hour day in the metal, carpentry and printing trades in Bucharest, and it has been recently decided to introduce the 8-hour day in the whole of the petroleum industry.

*Serbia.*

The 8-hour day is enforced by regulations on the railways in Serbia; in Croatia and Slavonia, on railways, and in large-scale industries and moderately important industries and mines; in Bosnia, Vojvodine, in all industries, mines, trade and commerce.

It is observed in printing works, according to agreement, and in mines according to custom.

A Bill which is now under consideration provides for the introduction of the 8-hour day in all factories, workshops, mines, and in general, in all industrial enterprises, commercial enterprises, mines, and means of communication, &c., excepting agriculture.

*Siam.*

It has never been deemed necessary to introduce legislation, apart from the Common Law, to enforce the limit of working hours in the various industries. In practically all the Siamese industries the 8-hour day is observed in fact, and in some of the seasonal industries (e.g., rice growing) the average daily working-time is much inferior to the proposed limitation.

The usual working hours are exceeded in cases of emergency, and in most cases the men get extra pay for work in excess of the daily routine.

Agreements between employers and employed are often verbal, and in the larger industries a foreman acts for the workers; undertaking to supply such number of men as is necessary and being held by them responsible for obtaining satisfactory terms and conditions.

*Spain.*

The 8-hour day is enforced as follows :—

By a Royal Decree of March 11, 1902, establishing the 8-hour day in the establishments of the Ministry of Finance.

By a Royal Decree of March 15, 1919, establishing the 8-hour day limit for workers in the building trade.

By a Royal Decree of April 3, 1919, establishing as a general rule the legal 8-hour day or 48-hour week from October 1, 1919.

Any exceptions must be suggested to the Institute of Social Reforms by Joint Industrial Committees to be set up, on the understanding that the Committees which, by October 1, have not applied to the Institute shall be considered to have accepted the legal daily limit.

If the Committees suggest exceptions the Institute when in possession of the necessary information, shall fix before January 1, 1920, without possibility of appeal, the day to be established in the excepted trades.

In mining and certain continuous industries, 8-hour shifts are worked. An 8-hour day has been adopted in a large number of agreements (pp. 81-82).

The "delays" for the application of the 8-hour day or the 48-hour week have been mentioned by the Royal Decree of April 3, 1919. Art. 3 provides that the Institute, when in possession of the necessary information, shall decide definitely before January 1, 1920, the working day to be established for the excepted kinds of work, and Art. 4 states that the Joint Committees which shall not have reported to the Institute by October 1, shall be considered to have accepted the established legal working day.

*Switzerland.*

The 48-hour week has already been applied, or its

application provided for within a period of "delay" which expires this year (1919), in most factories, sometimes on the employers own initiative, but in most branches as the result of agreements entered into by organisations of employers and employed. Discussions are now taking place on the question of the reduction of working hours in a number of branches (of industry), particularly in the building industry.

The agreements cover the members of the organisations which are party to them, but they exert an influence on undertakings which are not affiliated to these organisations. The 48-hour week has been adopted in a large number of isolated undertakings which are not connected with any organisation, as well as in certain unorganised industries. See pp. [68-69].

The agreements apply to all workers in the undertakings concerned, without distinction as to age or sex.

The law of June 12, 1919, which has amended Part II of the law of June 18, 1914, which lays down the normal 10-hour day, fixes working time *in factories* at 48 hours per week.

This law applies to all workers without distinction as to age or sex.

Railways, post, telegraph and telephone administration and the means of transport and communication subsidised by the Swiss Confederation are covered by a Decree of the Federal Council dated June, 1919, in force July, 1919. This Decree states that the daily working time shall not exceed an average of 8 hours for a number of not more than 14 days, either consecutive or interrupted by isolated holidays, and that for work, which, for a great part, involves only the presence of the worker, the average daily working time may be extended to 9 hours. Final legislation on this subject is contemplated.

For *Czecho-Slovakia, Ecuador, Greece, Norway, Panama, Portugal, Uruguay*, the only information available is that supplied in Chapter 1A, "Limitation by Law."

## CHAPTER II.—ATTITUDE OF GOVERNMENTS.

The Governments of the different States were asked by the Committee to state whether they were prepared to adopt for industrial employment generally the limit of 8 hours a day exclusive of rest time, or, alternatively, the limit of 48 hours a week exclusive of rest time. The attitude of certain of them was already indicated by the laws passed by them, enforcing one or other of these limits in industry generally; in this class as is shown above were:—Czecho-Slovakia, Netherlands, Norway, Switzerland, France, Spain, Poland, Portugal, Panama, Uruguay, Ecuador, New Zealand, the Australian States. It is known that Russia, Germany, German-Austria and Finland have similar laws.

The attitude of others was indicated similarly by Bills which they had in draft with the same object; this class as is shown above included:—Belgium, the United Kingdom and Italy.

The statements received supplement this information as follows:—

### *United States of America.*

A number of States have laws making 8 hours a day's work in the absence of an agreement or understanding to the contrary, and this might be construed as a declaration of policy, though such laws are of slight actual effect. States having such laws are: California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin, although two States have 10-hour laws for all classes of employees in general manufacturing industries, and these have been upheld by the State Courts. No political subdivision has undertaken to establish a general 8-hour day of compulsory observance in industry except the territory of Alaska, which adopted a law to that effect in 1917, but it was on account of general application held unconstitutional there. No practical method of observing an 8-hour day in transportation or in agriculture has yet been found, and perhaps other exceptions and variations must be provided for.

*Argentine Republic.*

The Government considers that the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week (exclusive of a rest period of 2 hours at mid-day) should be adopted in a general manner. Freedom must be allowed to arrange the distribution of the working hours, provided that not more than 48 hours per week are worked.

The only exception to the 8-hour day must be work in connection with agriculture and breeding.

*Belgium.*

The Belgian Government is preparing a bill fixing the average length of the day at 8 hours, and of the week 48 hours excluding rest periods.

*British Empire.**United Kingdom.*

The Government is prepared to adopt the limit of 48 hours a week exclusive of rest-time.

*Canada.*

The whole question of hours of labour has been regarded as falling generally, if not wholly, within the jurisdiction of the provinces, as replies to other questions will have indicated, the provinces have enacted legislation freely on the subject. Questions 4 to 9 relate to legislation which may be enacted by the provinces some time in the future, or, should it be established that the powers of the Dominion Government are less limited in those matters than they are at present held to be, then on the part of the Dominion Government. The whole subject of hours of labour is at the present time one of increasingly active discussion in the public press, and also of increasing contention as between employers and workmen. The time allowed for replying to the *questionnaire* is too brief to permit communication with the provinces, but information to hand in the Department of Labour would not lead to the view that the several provinces have yet formulated any distinct policy on such points as those enumerated in questions 4 to 9.



*Australia.**Commonwealth.*

The Commonwealth Government has no jurisdiction to legislate for ordinary occupations, but has adopted the Australian standard of eight hours for all Government Departments exclusive of rest time, except such exceptional occupations as telegraphists and telephone attendants where reduction of hours is granted.

*Queensland.*

The Government of Queensland is prepared to adopt the 48-hour week, exclusive of rest time, in certain industries to which the limitation does not at present apply.

*Victoria.*

The State Government of Victoria does not propose to go further in this direction as far as Victoria is concerned.

*New South Wales.*

As the Eight Hours Act covers all industries specific answers are unnecessary. It may perhaps be of interest to point out that, in certain industries which are dangerous or injurious to the workmen, the Court of Industrial Arbitration or the Wages Boards appointed under the Industrial Arbitration Act have limited the hours of work much more than the Act itself.

*South Australia.*

No legislation is proposed. The 48-hour week is in operation practically throughout industry.

*New Zealand.*

Generally speaking, the hours of employment do not exceed 8 per day, excepting for those employed in shops, restaurants, hotels, or in seasonal industries where the nature of the employment is such that an 8-hour day is not practicable.

The 48-hour week is generally adopted throughout the Dominion, except in regard to those employed in shops, restaurants, hotels, or in seasonal industries, such as shearing, fruit-picking and dairying.

*Denmark.*

The Government has appointed a Commission to prepare a Draft Bill for establishing the 8-hour day for all the workers in trade, industry, commerce, agriculture and navigation. It should be possible for the Commission to suggest a shorter working time for those trades in which consideration of the health of the workers would justify it. It should also endeavour to lay down the special rules for those trades in which it would be advisable to fix the hours of work as an average for a longer period, as, for example, in agriculture.

*France.*

The Government has adopted the two limits of 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week concurrently, and is prepared to agree to a convention on that basis.

*Poland.*

The Government has adopted the limit of 46 hours per week.

*Roumania.*

The Government is considering the introduction of a Bill to enforce the 8-hour day.

*Serbia.*

The Government is prepared to adopt the limit of 8 hours per day for all enterprises in which it is possible.

*Siam.*

The Royal Government contemplates taking no legislative measures in the present circumstances.

*Sweden.*

The Government is prepared to adopt both limitations at the same time.

*Switzerland.*

The Government prefers the 48-hour week system (not including rest periods), and is prepared to adopt this limit for factories.

In *Czecho-Slovakia, Norway, Spain*, the laws in force represent the attitude of the Government.

### CHAPTER III.—APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLE.

If the Conference decide to adopt the principle of a statutory limitation of working hours for industrial occupations and to embody it in a draft Convention, it will be necessary to consider the following questions connected with its practical application :—

(i) The modifications of the principle to be allowed generally in respect of particular industries, branches of industry or classes of work. These modifications may take the form of complete exemption, variation of the number of weekly or daily hours, supplementary hours or overtime, or delay in bringing the law into operation.

(ii) The administrative and other measures which will be necessary to secure the due observance of the principle.

(iii) The modifications which may be required to meet the special circumstances of countries "in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organisation or other special circumstances make the industrial conditions substantially different." (Article 405 of the Treaty of Peace.)

#### A. MODIFICATIONS OF THE PRINCIPLE IN RESPECT OF PARTICULAR INDUSTRIES, &c.

Industries, branches of industry or classes of work in which modification will be required.

The Committee in its *questionnaire* invited the States to say whether in the opinion of the Government it would be necessary :—

(1) To except any industries, branches of industry or classes of workers from the 8-hour daily or 48 hours weekly, and if so, on what grounds and what other limit could it be proposed.

(2) To allow overtime for seasonal industries, exceptional circumstances, in case of accidents or otherwise, and if so, what limits could be imposed on such overtime and whether a reduction of hours at other times could be allowed in compensation.

The replies of the Governments on these important questions are quoted in full :—

#### UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Transportation, agriculture, and seasonal employments may call for exemptions generally or for special consideration.

The whole subject of this question seems to fall within the field of experiment and adjustment rather than any *a priori* determination or settlement by argument. Many books and articles on the subject are in existence, and no valuable contribution can be made thereto without a wide study of facts.

The adoption of the basic day may be regarded as generally feasible, even if the absolute limitation is not always practicable.

Emergencies should always be allowed for where they actually arise in spite of suitable precautions. Certain classes of so-called seasonal occupations are capable of adjustment by the exercise of care ; others (as where perishable products are concerned) may demand exceptional treatment.

Maximum work periods should be set for each day, and for the week and the season or year, dependent upon the character of the employees and the work.

Compensatory reduction of hours should not as a rule be made.

#### ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

The only exception to the 8-hour day must be work in connection with agriculture and breeding.

Overtime must be authorised for seasonal and occasional industries without its being possible to exceed 2 hours per day on 90 days, subject to extra remuneration without reduction in compensatory hours.

#### BELGIUM.

Several inspectors admit exceptions for certain industries, such as metal foundries, brick works (hand manufacture), manufacture of footwear, the textile and provision trades, laundries, branches of the clothing trade.

Certain inspectors consider that in industries with continuous processes permission should be given to exceed the 8 hours so that there should be no break between the outgoing and the incoming shift.

Several inspectors advocate exceptions for cutters in glass works where tumblers, &c., are manufactured.

Other exceptions required are firemen and engineers in the textile industry; certain workers engaged on preparatory or complementary work, such as engine men engaged on the starting, control and the upkeep of engines, gas engines, &c.; the workers responsible for the carrying to the yards or taking back to the stores the tools used by themselves and their work mates; night-watchmen.

The reasons for these exceptions are the impossibility of interrupting work in foundries; the special increase of orders at certain times of the year for the seasonal industries; the climatic conditions which may stop or impede work in brick works (hand manufacture).

Some inspectors suggest exceeding the limit of 48 hours without however exceeding 54 hours, and only for certain periods, for not more than 5 weeks in the year, in the chocolate and confectionery trades, the manufacture of gingerbread, of ice, and aerated waters.

In the building trade, the limit of 54 hours during the months from April to September is suggested. Brick Works.—Two hours overtime.

For the trades (chocolate, &c.) mentioned above, a week of not more than 54 hours for 5 weeks in the year is suggested. For constructional works the same régime during the months of April to September.

For the trades (chocolate, &c.) mentioned above the special increase of orders during certain periods of the year.

For the building industry the reason for this exception is the fact that the carrying on of this work depends on climatic conditions, and is consequently exposed to interruptions and stoppages.

#### BRITISH EMPIRE.

##### UNITED KINGDOM.

In certain industries processes are necessarily carried on continuously, either because of the immense economic loss and injury to material which would follow from allowing a cessation of manufacture, or because, as, for example, in the case of chemical processes, it is impossible to interfere with the natural action by which the process is effected. At present the men engaged on these processes work 7 days a week, and it is clear, therefore, that unless some system of relief shifts can be devised, it will unquestionably be necessary to allow exemptions from the 48 hours limit. There is a growing demand for relief shifts from the workers in trades which are carried on for 7 days a week, and in a number of instances (e.g., in the case of persons engaged in electrical generating stations and water works) such shifts have already been partially established. But there are difficulties in the way of the immediate universal adoption of such a system. It would, for example, involve very complicated arrangements in industries where there are a considerable number of different classes of workers employed on three 8-hour shifts; it would necessitate a considerable increase of labour, and in some cases of skilled labour, it is doubtful whether such labour is available; again, in small works, where the persons employed

are few, a relief shift would necessitate a large proportionate increase of staff, and there would not be sufficient work to keep the men employed during the week. There are also certain occupations which must be performed by persons who come in to work before the normal hour of commencement, and stay to complete their work after the end of the normal period of employment, for whom it would be impracticable to find relief substitutes.

It will be necessary, therefore, to provide for exemptions from the limit of 48 hours under each of the three headings in the question raised in the following instances :—

**(I). INDUSTRIES TO BE EXEMPTED.**

Included under this heading are works in which the *majority* of the workers are employed for 7 days a week.

A. Trades in which work is necessarily carried on day and night for 7 days a week, *e.g.* :

(i) *The extraction of metal from the ore, or the recovery of metal by blast furnaces or other processes.*

NOTE.—Metal is extracted from the ore by five principal methods : (a) by means of blast furnaces ; (b) by means of reverberatory furnaces ; (c) by retorts, and (d) by electric furnaces ; (e) by electrolytic processes.

*Blast furnaces.*—The metal is extracted by the reduction with the aid of a strong air blast, of the ore placed in vertical cylindrical furnaces. The process is essentially a continuous one to prevent loss of fuel and damage to material and plant. Where the furnace is very large, as in the case of those used for the smelting of iron ore, once the furnace is “blown in” or started up, it remains continuously in operation for a number of years, day and night, 7 days a week, until the lining is worn out and requires reconstruction. For smelting, of other kinds of metal, such as copper, lead, antimony, smaller furnaces are used, and they are kept in blast for shorter periods. For example, in the case of lead and antimony, the furnaces are kept in operation for a period of three or four weeks only, and then are allowed to stand for a few weeks ; but while they are in operation the process is continuous. In the smelting of copper, the furnaces being small it is the custom for work to cease on Saturday afternoon (the hour of stopping varying according to the progress of the work) until Sunday evening, when the smelters return to start up the furnaces for the day shift on Monday morning.

As the ore is reduced the metal collects at the bottom of the furnace and is tapped off at intervals. The great majority of the men employed on these furnaces must work 7 days a week.

*Reverberatory Furnaces.*—The ore, either untreated or calcined and mixed with fuel or other reducing agents is placed on a hearth, where it is subjected to the furnace flames produced from coal, gas or oil. The metal from the ore thus reduced is tapped off at intervals.

The principal ores smelted by this method are copper, tin, lead, antimony. It is necessary to keep certain men at work on these furnaces during the week-end, but the practice as regards actual smelting varies in different localities and for different ores. The reason for such variation is not at present clear, and the question is one which might properly be enquired into. In the meanwhile, it would not be possible to make an immediate alteration in existing practice, and some exemption appear therefore to be necessary.

*Retorts.*—The principal metal produced by this method is zinc. The calcined ore is mixed with anthracite, the mixture is put into retorts and the metals distilled and collected in condensers. The operation is carried on day and night and at the week-ends to prevent waste of fuel and material. The majority of the persons employed work 7 days a week, the remainder being employed only in preparatory processes, such as drying and crushing. The men in charge of the furnaces are skilled; the majority of the remainder are semi-skilled (*see also* electrolytic process).

*Electric furnaces.*—These are used in smelting aluminium. The raw material, which is in the form of a fine white powder when it reaches the factory, is placed in a series of small electric furnaces, each about 4 ft. square, in which an intense local heat is maintained by passing through a powerful electric current. The process is continuous, and the charging and tapping of the furnaces one by one goes on all the time. The furnaces, therefore, are never all empty together and stoppage at the week-ends is impracticable. Electric furnaces, moreover, cannot be damped down.

*Electrolytic process.*—Zinc and copper are also produced by an electrolytic process. An electric current is passed by means of poles of suitable material through a solution of a salt of the metal. The metal is deposited on one of the poles, and is afterwards scraped off, or otherwise removed and melted and cast into ingots. The work is continuous; and it is stated that stoppage of the process causes breakage of the cells.

The ores of many metals, before being smelted, are subjected to a preliminary calcining treatment in order to remove impurities such as sulphur, arsenic, &c. It is necessary to keep these running continuously in some cases in order to maintain a sufficient supply of ore for the furnaces.

In some works the waste heat from the furnaces is used to raise steam to drive the plant, including fans used in connection with the furnaces themselves. This affords an additional reason for maintaining the heat in the furnaces, since otherwise stand-by steam or electric plant would have to be provided.

(ii) *Manufacture of coke and recovery of coal by-products from coal.*

Coke is formed by the destructive distillation of coal in retorts, by heat applied to the exterior of the retort, the volatile products being driven off as gas. When distillation has been carried sufficiently far,

## (II.) BRANCHES OF INDUSTRY REQUIRING EXEMPTION.

Under this heading are included certain branches of industry which necessitate continuous work, but which form only a portion, and generally a small portion of the main work of the factory.

A. Continuous processes necessarily carried on day and night for seven days a week in the manufacture of (*e.g.*)

(i) *Chemicals, including synthetic dyes.*

NOTE.—The processes in these works are very varied; some must be kept in constant operation since they are performed by chemical action, and to suspend operations would upset the whole process, besides causing serious waste of fuel. The proportion of men employed in this work would not exceed 10 per cent. of the total employed. The men are generally skilled, and some highly skilled, and they are assisted by a few unskilled labourers. Relief shifts might be practicable where skilled labour is available.

(ii) *Sugar (char-house).*

The char cisterns have to be kept running whilst their life lasts (about 10 days), otherwise loss occurs through fermentation, &c. Even in a large works only one liquor man and his mate are required.

(iii) *Condensed milk (receiving department and vacuum pan, pasteurising and cooling department.)*

The milk is received in the ordinary milk churns, weighed, emptied into channels leading to the storage tanks, from which it is pumped, as needed, to the heaters or pasteurisers, which are steam-heated vessels. From these the milk is conveyed to the vacuum pans and, after evaporation, the condensed milk is run into churns, which are placed in groups on a revolving apparatus and rotated round fixed vanes for the purpose of cooling. After this is completed the milk is conveyed as required to the automatic filling and soldering machines. The work is continuous, milk cannot be left overnight as it deteriorates. In the summer time very long hours are worked on week days; there is also Sunday employment but no night work. In the winter very short hours are worked. The work at the pasteurising and vacuum pans is semi-skilled, requiring a few months' training.

(iv) *Cement (Schneider Kiln and Rotary Kiln processes).*

*The Schneider Kiln.*—Dried and wet slurry is formed into briquettes and continuously fed with coke into the top of a vertical kiln, which is kept constantly under fire, the cement chamber being drawn away from the bottom. In one works employing 300 men, about nine only are required on each shift to keep the kilns in operation—two being skilled (the burner and engine driver) and the rest semi-skilled. In two works, these kilns are actually left banked up for 24 hours at the



week-end, but this is said to be undesirable, owing to the waste of heat and to the risk of under or over heating.

*Rotary Kiln.*—This is also a continuous process, the slurry being introduced at the upper end of a rotating kiln placed in a sloping position. The kiln is fired by powdered coal at the lower end from which the cement clinkers drop. One skilled burner and an assistant are required on each shift.

(v) *Steel (Smelting department).*

Where Siemens process is used and the metal used *hot* from the blast furnaces, week-end work is necessary either to complete the conversion of the metal into steel or to watch it and keep it at a proper temperature where storage for this purpose is available.

Where the metal is used cold, the only men employed at the week-end are furnace men (to keep the furnaces heated up) and the metal mixers. The latter do not work during the day on Sunday but start on Sunday evening. Thus through the week men are employed during the day on six shifts and during the night on seven shifts. The furnaces are very large, in some cases holding as much as 160 tons, and they cannot be allowed to cool down without serious loss in fuel and possible damage to material.

(vi) *Works of construction—Tunnelling, &c., by compressed air.*—It is often necessary to keep the pressure up during the week end to prevent the workings from being flooded. The only workers required would be the pump and engine attendants.

(vii) Lamp men and wallers in salt works (open pans). (The hours are necessarily long and irregular, but with long spells during which the worker is idle).

(viii) Founders, teasers, casters, drawers, Lehr kiln men and cave men in sheet and plate glass works.

(ix) *Mines:* Winding Enginemmen.

(III) PARTICULAR CLASSES OF WORKERS NEEDING EXEMPTION.

In practically all industries there are certain classes of workers who will need to be exempted from the general limit of 48 hours, because of the special conditions of their employment. The following instances may be given :—

(a) Persons who have to come in before the normal hour for beginning work, or to remain after the day's work is over, *e.g.*, boiler attendants, engine-men, electricians, oilers and greasers, cleaners, time-keepers, and checkers.

**NOTE.**—It would be possible in factories working on a shift system to limit the hours in these cases to approximately 48 per week, but, in factories working with a single shift only, such men must necessarily be employed both before and after the normal period of employment, and even during the rest interval.

(b) Persons who have to come in early to prepare material, e.g., sponge-makers in baking trade, moulders' labourers in foundries.

NOTE.—In some cases persons who come in early may leave earlier and the hours of work can be limited, but in others the worker often performs other operations as well and so cannot leave before the normal hour for stopping. Thus in the case of moulders' labourers, the worker comes in early to prepare for the moulder, but must also remain with the moulder to assist him during the whole of the normal working hours.

(c) Works maintenance staff, whose duty it is to carry out repairs much of which can only be done after the day's work.

(d) Laboratory chemists and persons engaged in research work and testing work. It is impossible to break off such work until it is completed.

(e) Persons who hold positions of supervision or management, or are employed in a confidential capacity, including foremen and overlookers.

(f) Furnace men (including glass tank men and teasers), retort men men employed on works gas plants.

(g) Annealers engaged on continuous work (i.e., on work where the annealing takes several days to perform) and kiln-men. Oven men and stove men.

(h) Day and night watchmen and caretakers.

It is not possible to propose any alternative limits at present. Under the English Bill the question is left to be settled when the Bill becomes law by agreement between the various trade organisations with the concurrence of the Minister concerned, or where there is no agreement by the Minister acting independently. A period of six months is allowed by the Bill before the limit of 48 hours becomes operative in order to give time for the necessary arrangements in this and other respects to be made.

It is not possible at present to give a full and definite answer to this question. Under the English Bill, as it stands at present, it is proposed to allow the question whether overtime shall be allowed in any trade and if so to what extent and under what conditions to be settled when the Bill becomes law either by agreement between the organisations of employers and workers concerned, subject to the approval of the Minister, or by the Minister acting independently. The National Industrial Council may, however, lay down the general principles which should govern overtime and regard is to be had to any recommendations they may make on the subject.

#### PROVISION FOR OVERTIME.

There are certain trades in which by reason of the special conditions under which they work or the special nature of the material dealt with or the like, in which it is certain that some provision for overtime

will be required; and there are also certain circumstances which are liable to occur in all trades in which the normal limit must occasionally be exceeded. These may be provisionally summarized as follows:—

(1) Industries liable to press of work at certain recurring seasons of the year, *e.g.*, aerated water making, beer-bottling, printing and book-binding, preparation of food, malting, manufacture of ice, seed cleaning and grading, making and repairing of agricultural implements or machinery, manufacture of artificial manure.

(2) Industries liable to sudden press of orders arising from unforeseen events, *e.g.*, making-up of wearing apparel, job-dyeing and dry-cleaning, biscuit-making, warehouses in which goods are made up for shipping orders, packing-case making for shipping orders, farriers, ship-repairing, dock labouring.

(3) Industries in which the article manufactured or material used is of a perishable nature, *e.g.*, fishcuring, preserving of fruit, preserving of meat, manufacture of condensed milk, extraction of whale oil, manufacture of glue and gelatine.

(4) Industries in which the time for the completion of the work or process cannot by reason of the nature thereof be accurately prescribed, *e.g.*, bleaching and dyeing, textile printing, metal rolling mills and foundries, lead-pipe making, copper refining, wire drawing, paper-mills, baking of bread or biscuits, tanneries, starch and cornflour works, vulcanising of rubber, sheathing or covering of electric cables.

(5) Works in which sudden emergency arises through circumstances over which the employer has no control, *e.g.*, in case of a breakdown of premises, machinery or plant, or factories driven by waterpower only, which are liable to be stopped by drought or flood.

(6) Emergency work which must be done without delay in order to avoid dislocation or interruption in employment, *e.g.*, the replacing or repairing of plant or machinery (by persons other than the maintenance staff), the loading, unloading, moving or handling of goods at industrial establishments, employment on a second shift to replace an absentee.

(b) It is not possible at present to say what limits to overtime can be imposed. This question is left to be settled when the Bill is passed—see under (a) above.

(c) It is not anticipated that it will be possible to arrange for a compensatory reduction of hours at other times except in the case of certain seasonal trades, *e.g.*, fishcuring, malting, fruit preserving, or in the case of water-mills.

#### CANADA.

The time allowed for replying to the *questionnaire* is too brief to permit communication with the provinces, but information to hand in the Department of Labour would not lead to the view that the several provinces have yet formulated any distinct policy on such points as those enumerated in questions 4 to 9.

## COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

These are primarily matters for the states, as the Court constituted by the Commonwealth Government has only been called on to deal with these matters in exceptional cases, such as journalists, telegraphists, telephone attendants and miners working in metalliferous mines where a reduction of hours has been granted, and station hands in pastoral industry, and carters and drivers in all industries where up to 52 hours have been awarded. These are practically the only exceptions to the 8-hour day. Seasonal trades have not been dealt with to any great extent, and there has not so far been any necessity to grant special conditions as to hours.

*Queensland.*

It is presumed that the limit of 8 hours per day is the limit of workers' hours. There are very many industries in which, though it may be possible to confine workers to 8 hours to be worked within from 9 to 12 hours, it would be impossible to confine the hours of industry to those periods. There is, of course, no case in which an 8-hour limit of workers' hours cannot be applied if the general provision is made that overtime may be worked. It is merely a matter of expense. Overtime should be paid for at a higher rate than ordinary time. Unless a living wage is required to be fixed for ordinary working hours, the wage for ordinary hours may be fixed so low that the employee would gain no benefit from an 8-hour day. In some industries the working of overtime in excess of 8 hours is absolutely necessary. For instance, in the case of the running staff of a railway it is impossible to adhere strictly to the 8-hour limit, even apart from emergencies. On the Government of Queensland railways efforts to eliminate overtime have been made by altering the times of running trains, and by fixing fresh depots at which the men running the trains are changed, but though their overtime is reduced, it cannot entirely be eliminated.

Stock men, particularly on large stations, when engaged in such work as mustering, cannot be confined to an 8-hour day.

No limit for adoption can be suggested. There are many industries in which, though an 8-hour day is possible, its enforcement would entail great expense in relieving employees (*e.g.*, station-masters in small railway stations or drivers of stationary engines where such engines are at remote places). In other industries it will be very inconvenient to relieve employees, and will require an increasing supply of casual labour (*e.g.*, wharf labourers and coal lumpers, and others engaged in connection with loading ships). These men are accustomed to working long hours when the opportunity offers, and frequently have long intervals between jobs. In some industries the work of particular employees is so light that an 8-hour day seems unnecessary (*e.g.*, caretakers and watchmen). In some industries, such as those relating to hotels, restaurants and boarding-houses, it might be well to permit employees to work more than 8 hours per day, and to receive time off

on other days (?). The Asylum Employees of Queensland agreed to accept a 48-hour week, but a 12-hour day. Prison employees agreed to accept a 48-hour week with no daily limitation.

Where work is continuous and done by 8-hour shifts, it will be found that at the change over of shifts a man will be working two 8-hour shifts within a period of 24 hours, that is, more than 8 hours per day. In railways where shifts are irregular, even although a shift is confined to 8-hours, two shifts may occur within 24 hours, unless intervals of 16 hours between shifts are prescribed, and if a 16-hour interval is prescribed, it will in many cases be impossible to give the worker six 8-hour shifts in a week.

To sum up the industries which cause special consideration, these include dairying, agricultural and pastoral industries, railways and shipping, industries relating to the supply of meals, also institutions such as hospitals, asylums, gaols, fire brigades, where employees ordinarily reside on premises. Two branches of industries which call for special consideration are those wherein cooking and the tending of animals are concerned, also traffic branch railways. Some classes of workers who require special consideration are carters, domestic servants, cooks, restaurant employees, stockmen, drivers, running staff, railway shift workers. Generally the limitation of hours of work should not apply to men engaged on management works and superintendants. A provision might be made enabling some administrative body to certify that it is necessary in the public interest that an 8-hour limit may be exceeded in the above industries without payment of overtime, and a general provision that the 8-hours limit may be exceeded on payment of overtime might be inserted. There might be absolute prohibition of more than 4 hours overtime except in connection with mustering and droving stock.

General provision should be made enabling the employees to work 48 hours in 5½ days or 44 hours in 5 days.

The reasons are set out or are sufficiently indicated by the nature of the industry.

Very few industries or branches of industries or classes of workers need to be exempted from the 48-hour limit. The only classes of workers that suggest themselves are men doing work that must be done on seven days of the week, such as milking cows, attending to stock droving and processes involving work in which machinery or plant must be kept going continuously or on every day of the week. Even in these cases in most instances relief for one day per week is possible except in dairying, droving or work in isolated places.

For droving no limit can be adopted. It will also be very difficult to limit dairying except by mutual arrangements between employer and employees.

Reasons sufficiently indicated above. In droving stock continuously on the move, employees must move with plant.

Elasticity in working overtime must be allowed in cases of accident or emergency. For instance in shift work, an employee may fail to

report for work without giving notice to his employer. It may be necessary for the working of the plant that one of the employees who has completed his shift should work overtime in order to ensure the running of the plant until the relieving man is found. Also, in cases of a sickness of an employee, of breakdowns, urgent repairs and work done under adverse circumstances when advantage must be taken of every available minute.

It is practically impossible to limit them in cases of extraordinary emergency, but, generally speaking, the 12-hours per week that it is proposed to authorise (2 hours per day) should be ample.

As a general rule compensation should be in money.

#### *Victoria.*

It will be in the interest of industry to exempt such persons as domestic servants and similar workers employed in hotels, restaurants and boarding-houses, rural workers, drivers of motor-cars or cabs plying for hire, and which necessarily involve waiting for a call, and watchmen.

The best limitation is the provision that there shall be higher pay for overtime. This is found quite effective.

Reasons given—requirements of trade in each case and nature of work.

No limit to overtime has been found necessary. Higher pay provides sufficient discouragement of excessive overtime.

Compensatory reduction of hours has never been asked for nor contemplated.

#### *New South Wales.*

Overtime is permitted in the terms of the award or industrial agreement. It shall be remunerated at the rate fixed by the Court or Board of Arbitration in the industrial agreement, but the Court may, for good and sufficient reason, prohibit or restrict the working of overtime in any industry or calling. (These provisions are subject to restrictions in certain specific cases, *e.g.*, overtime in factories and shops which is expressly controlled by the Factories and Shops Act, 1912, and the Early Closing Acts, 1899—1915).

The number of days or hours to be worked in any industry or calling may be increased beyond those limited in the Act if the Court considers that it is in the public interest that this should be allowed.

The provisions of the 8-Hours Act worked in conjunction with the Industrial Arbitration Act are sufficiently elastic to enable the needs of a particular industry to receive consideration of settlement upon the merits of its particular case. As previously pointed out it is necessary to establish public interests before the hours fixed by the Act may be exceeded, while conditions of danger or injury to health are usually factors which induce the fixing of hours less than those established by the statute. Domestic service is not regulated by the Industrial Arbitration Act, but the hours fixed for employees of hotels, clubs and

restaurants suggest that in their case the 48-hours are exceeded. In restaurants, tea shops and oyster shops the hours range from 56 for females to 58 for males. In hotels, from 48 to 57. In all cases the maximum daily limit is fixed, also the margin within which the daily hours are worked. In the transport industry carters, trolley draymen, brakesmen, etc., exceed 48 hours, in some instances working 55½ hours. (See Restaurants, Hotels, Carters Awards). In the case of domestic and semi-domestic workers probably the lighter nature of their occupation as well as "public interest" accounts for the hours being extended somewhat.

It is not found necessary to extend the hours permitted by the Act in seasonal industries, but it is pointed out that a great mass of rural workers are subject to the control of the Federal Arbitration system. In cases of accident, emergency or other inevitable contingencies workers in mines are not restricted to statutory hours. The fact that the fairly general practice of awards and industrial agreements is to authorise the working of overtime at special rates no doubt makes any general provision as to the extension of hours in cases of emergency unnecessary. Overtime rates vary from quarter extra to double ordinary rate, and in some cases amounts clearly prohibitive are fixed in respect of working on special holidays. Purpose is to make overtime unproductive to the employer, and the servitude is undertaken only in cases of necessity or emergency.

In some industries the limitation of overtime is secured, fixing the rate at progressively increasing amounts. The practice of permitting time off in lieu of extra payment for overtime worked is adopted in very few instances, and it is suggested that the imposition of higher rates, and, if necessary, progressively increasing rates, is a more effective check than long hours.

#### NEW ZEALAND.

Provision is made to exempt certain industries from the provisions fixing a limit to the hours of work at 48 per week or 8 per day, and includes the following:—

- Freezing Works.
- Dairy factories.
- Fellmongeries and Pelt Works.
- Fish-curing and preserving.
- Jam factories.
- Bacon factories.
- Sausage-casing factories.

The above are seasonal trades, and the handling of perishable goods renders it necessary to work longer hours during the season.

It has been found necessary in this country, when a 48-hour week and 8-hour day has been generally adopted, to exempt the above-mentioned industries. If a limit is to be placed on the number of

TABLE No. 2.

Designation of work.	Limit of increase of actual daily hours of work.
1. Urgent work which must be immediately carried out in order to prevent accidents which are apprehended, to organise measures for salvage or to repair damages which have occurred, either to material, to machinery or to the buildings of the establishment.	Unlimited for one day, at the option of the employer; on the other days, two hours longer than the limit prescribed for the general work of the establishment.
2. Work carried out in the interest of the national security and defence or of a public service on a Government order certifying the necessity for the exemption.	Limit to be fixed in each case by arrangement between the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry ordering the work.
3. Urgent work which has to be met by the establishment (special increase of work)	Not more than 150 hours annually.

## NORWAY.

For *bakeries* the working time may be increased to 9 hours a day (24 hours) on the working days preceding Sundays or holidays.

Working time may be extended on the day preceding Thursday in Holy Week and Christmas Eve, and at certain special times occasioning an unforeseen amount of work.

The following provisions apply to undertakings falling under the law of July 11, 1919.

In undertakings which are dependant to an essential degree upon the seasons, the climate or other natural circumstances the ordinary period of employment may, with the King's consent, be so arranged as to be longer in the summer than in the winter half-year.

Work which in view of natural occurrences, accidents or other occurrences which could not be foreseen must be carried out in order to avert danger or injury to life or property, may be performed on the first four days of the week regardless of the provisions of section 1A.

Where natural occurrences, bad weather or accidents which could not be foreseen or which the particular undertaking was powerless to avert, have caused a reduction of the ordinary period of employment, the reduction may be made good by increasing the ordinary period of employment fixed in Article 23 by not more than 2 hours a



day. The Inspecting Authority shall determine the number of weeks during which the work required may be performed.

Working time may be extended by overtime. In this connection, Articles 26 and 27 of the Law of July 11, 1919, contain the following provisions :—

1. Where in the cases of any workers the work extends beyond the time fixed for their ordinary period of employment, the work performed in the extended period shall be regarded as overtime whether the work is carried on by night or by day.

2. Overtime is prohibited except in the following cases :—

(a) When unforeseen occurrences or the absence of certain workers have interrupted or threaten to interrupt the carrying on of the undertaking ;

(b) When overtime is necessary to avoid the deterioration of raw material or products ;

(c) When periods of unforeseen pressure occur ;

(d) When the undertaking can only be successfully carried on if certain workers commence work before their colleagues and finish later than their colleagues.

(e) When it is necessary in the public or social interest. For workers to work overtime longer than one day (24 hours), the employer must obtain authority from the Inspectorate.

3. Overtime is forbidden for workers under 18.

In so far as the worker proves by means of a medical certificate that his health will suffer by longer hours of work than his ordinary hours, the employer shall not require him to work overtime.

Overtime may be worked up to 10 hours a week. Inspecting Authorities may for a particular occasion or for a period not exceeding six months at a time, give permission for overtime to be worked up to 15 hours a week.

II Overtime shall not in any case exceed 30 hours for any worker in four consecutive weeks.

III In the case of undertakings which, in view of the nature of the product or for other reasons, need a longer period of employment at certain seasons of the year, the Government Department concerned may, after consulting the Inspecting Authority, lay down rules for overtime other than those contained in Nos. (1) and (2) above.

The total number of hours of overtime in the calendar year shall not, however, exceed that fixed in No. (II) above.

For undertakings carried on day and night throughout the week the King may consent to an arrangement of shifts, which, during the period of the shifts, will allow to each worker an *average* working time of 48 hours a week, and an average rest period of 24 consecutive hours a week.

The regulations respecting the general working time do not apply to workers of 18 years and over, who are employed in loading and

unloading. However, the working time may not exceed 192 hours in four weeks.

#### POLAND.

The application of the 8-hour day has not in practice caused any considerable difficulty, except in certain industries, particularly seasonal industries, such as the sugar industry. All these questions are now being studied by the Government.

#### SERBIA.

It will be necessary to except agriculture, seasonal trades, means of communication, factory workers who have to clean and prepare machinery.

It is necessary to permit overtime in all seasonal trades, in commerce, &c. Overtime should be limited to 2 hours a day.

A compensatory reduction of hours is not recommended because it would be technically very difficult to apply it, and from an economic standpoint very dangerous in view of the degree of industrial development in our country.

#### SPAIN.

It would only be natural that, at the time of instituting the legal working day, overtime should be allowed for seasonal industries or those which, because of their particular character, are affected by the seasons.

In Spain this opinion has already been accepted by several laws and bills.

#### SWEDEN.

*Exceptions.*—(a) Home-work, where it cannot be considered incumbent on employer to watch over working arrangements.

(b) Work done by members of employer's family.

(c) Irregular work for which times cannot be fixed.

(d) State enterprises.

(e) Care of health and sick-nursing.

(f) Seamen's work—ship's service, whether on board or not—and fishing.

(g) Forestry, charcoal burning, lumbering (except at place of separation).

(h) Agriculture and its subsidiary occupations; care of animals.

(i) Traffic staff on railways open for general traffic.

(j) Shop-assistants, hairdressers, &c., bath attendants.

(k) Hotel, restaurant café work.

The principal reasons of the exceptions here dealt with may possibly be said to be :—

*Article 1.*—(a) The impossibility of exercising control and the regard of the inviolability of the home and the personal liberty.

(b) the assumption that the solidarity of the family will prevent undue exploitation.

(c) The limitation of the working time might cause unreasonable inconveniences and often also be inapplicable owing to the long intervals without work.

(d) As to the work of the State, the limitation is already now applied to a large extent, but under certain circumstances it may be desirable for the State not to be bound by any legal regulation.

(e) The irregularity of work and humanitarian considerations; moreover, other provisions are proposed.

(f) Other regulation requisite and proposed with regard to service on board of ships; fishing is too irregular an occupation to be considered.

(g) and (h) Work too irregular.

(i) Other regulation required.

(j) Other regulation carried through and to a certain extent requisite owing to the demands of the general public.

(k) Regulation inapplicable owing to the demand of the public in general.

#### SWITZERLAND.

It is expedient to make provision for the granting of permission, in certain industries and when urgent reasons justify such action, to exceed the 48 hours, but not to exceed 52 hours. This exemption, which may not become necessary, is justified chiefly by reason of international competition.

It is necessary to grant overtime. It is expedient, however, to limit overtime to a certain number of days per year, authorised only in case of duly justified need and subject to official permit.

Attention is also called to the fact that modifications of the normal working time are also indispensable for subsidiary work which must precede or follow the manufacture proper. (See Art. 65 of the Federal Law of June 18, 1914.)

It is recommended that provision be made that the extension of the working time may exceed 2 hours per day only in cases of urgency. (Compare Art. 48, para. 2 of the Federal Law of June 18, 1914, and of the amending law.)

A compensatory reduction of hours at other periods is not recommended.

#### CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

In accordance with Art. 7, para. 3, of the law, in undertakings serving a public need, the hours of work of particular groups of workers may be extended, if the actual work does not occupy more than 6 hours, although the worker has to remain on duty for longer hours.

This extension shall only be allowed in the cases of collective agreements drawn up between employers and workers if the said agreements have been ratified by the Minister of Social Welfare in agreement with the other Ministers concerned.

The determination of the question of the modifications to be allowed under an international convention, if adopted by the Conference, for particular industries or in particular circumstances presents considerable difficulties. It is essential to any international arrangement that there should be general uniformity in the application of the principle of the 8-hours day or 48-hours week. If States are left free to adopt whatever modifications may seem desirable for their own industries, or if employers and workers are left free to extend the hours of work by *agreement* among themselves, the purpose of the Convention will be defeated. So far as possible, therefore, the cases in which modifications may be allowed by the State Governments in carrying out any Convention that may be adopted by the Conference, and the limits of such modifications, should be defined in the Convention.

It may not be possible to specify in a Convention this year all of the particular industries, processes, &c., for which exceptions from or variations of the law may be permitted; but it is possible to specify with some degree of precision (a) the grounds (such as continuity of process) which may be held to justify a modification of the limit and the permissible limits of such modification; (b) the circumstances which may be held to justify overtime and the limits of such overtime.

It follows that the Convention should also require that the national law of each State, or administrative Orders to be issued under the law, should specify precisely the modifications that may be allowed and should contain provisions for the regulation of the application of such modifications. It is, of course, desirable that any modifications sanctioned by the national law should carry the consent of the workers and for this reason the procedure of collective agreement approved by the responsible Minister which is recognised in the French and English laws deserves attention.

## B. MEASURES NECESSARY TO SECURE OBSERVANCE OF THE LIMIT.

Except where the workers are very highly organised and strong enough to prevent any encroachments by the employer, enforcement of a statutory limitation of working hours is impossible unless the daily hours of work are ascertained and published beforehand. An outside authority such as a Government inspector cannot check effectively the hours that are being worked in a particular factory, unless the times for work each day are definitely fixed and work outside those times (except duly authorised) made illegal.

This may be effected in one or other of the following ways :—

1. The hours at which work is to commence and finish may be definitely fixed by the law or by administrative order. This is the system in the British Factory Acts in regard to the regulation of the hours of women and young persons—certain definite periods of work are fixed between which the employer is allowed to make a choice.

2. The hours may be left to be fixed by the employer, subject to the condition that they are notified in advance and may not be altered without due notice.

3. The hours may be left to be fixed by agreement between the employer and the workers (Switzerland, Germany and Czecho-Slovakia).

The discretion given in 2 and 3 is in some cases limited by the law laying down certain limits within which the hours of work have to be fixed.

The Governments of Belgium, France, Poland, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, Queensland, have expressed themselves as being in favour of the definite fixing of hours of work.

It is important that not only the hours of work should be definitely fixed in advance but also that the hours fixed should be duly notified to all concerned. An effective and common method of providing for this is to require the

employer to post in a prominent position a time-table or time-tables showing the hours at which each class of worker commences and ceases work, the rest periods allowed, and the arrangement of shifts. This requirement is of special importance where discretion is left to the employer as to the hours to be fixed.

This provision is found in the laws of Germany, Switzerland, Finland, France, and in the Bill now under consideration in Belgium.

In Portugal, employers are required to forward their time tables to the Government's inspectors. In the Bill under consideration in Holland\* the employer is required to keep a "Labour List." This list is to show with regard to all the persons employed in the undertaking the time for beginning and ending work, the intervals for rest, the period allowed for the weekly rest, the age of each worker, and the address of the inspector responsible for enforcing the law. The form of this list may be laid down by administrative order; it must be dated and signed by the head of the undertaking and posted in a prominent place. The English Mines Act requires the employer to fix (in conformity with the requirements of the Act) the times for the lowering and raising of each shift and to post the times at the pit-head, and also to keep a daily record in a prescribed form of the times at which men are lowered and raised and particulars of any cases in which a man is below ground for a longer period than allowed by the Act. A similar provision is found in the Mines Acts of Alberta and Queensland and the Factory Act of New Zealand.

In order to keep a check on the use of the exception which allows additional hours to be worked in the case of emergencies, breakdowns, &c., some laws require a record to be kept by the employer of any additional hours so worked and the grounds on which they were worked, *e.g.*, the British Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1908.

The rest or meal times must be fixed as well as the times for commencing and ending work. This is really

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\* This Bill has now become Law.

consequential to the requirement that the hours of work should be fixed—the period of work is usually broken by one or more intervals for food and rest, and as these are not counted as part of the hours of work, it is necessary (for the same reasons) that they should be fixed and notice given of them. It is also necessary in order to ensure that the workers actually get the intervals which are necessary to prevent undue fatigue and safeguard their health.

A “rest-period” is variously defined as follows in the replies received from the various States :—

*United States of America.*—Rest time as an interruption of the working day would imply the cessation of labour with the right to absent one's self from the working place and freedom to attend to personal wants and inclinations.

The rest period or time off duty prescribed by statute for railroad employees indicates freedom from obligation to respond to calls for service and nothing less than this could be regarded as a real rest period.

*Belgium.*—By rest periods is understood the time during which the worker is not required to be on duty whether directly or indirectly.

*United Kingdom.*—It is proposed that rest time should be defined as meaning an interval (of not less than minutes) in the course of the daily period of work for the purpose of taking a meal or for rest, which is fixed and known to the workers beforehand, and during which the workers are allowed to be absent from their work.

*France.*—The time during which the worker may leave his place of work.

This time must, in principle, be determined beforehand.

*Norway.*—By the term “rest period” must be understood intervals of at least fifteen minutes during which the worker may leave the machines and the workshop, and which are laid down in the time-table.

*Spain.*—“Rest time underground and the intervals for meals and the periodical ‘rests’ of the workers are not

included in the working day, and shall be fixed by the regulations of each concern or by agreements; but it is permitted to include in the working day interruptions of work independent of the will of the workers, and which are brought about by the needs of the undertaking.

"In surface work the working day shall be reckoned from the time of the call or commencing signal until the finish of the work in the yard, deducting the intermediary rest periods and including the interruptions brought about by the needs of the undertaking."

*Switzerland.*—(c) Any interruption of work during which the worker may leave his post (Art. 1, para. 42 of the amending law of the 12th June, 1919).

#### C. MODIFICATIONS FOR COUNTRIES WHERE CLIMATIC CONDITIONS, &C., MAKE INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS SUBSTANTIALLY DIFFERENT.

Article 405 of the Treaty provides that in framing any recommendation or draft Convention of a general application, the Conference shall have due regard to those countries in which climatic conditions, imperfect development of industrial organisation or other special circumstances, make the industrial conditions substantially different, and shall suggest the modification if any which it considers may be required to meet the case of such countries. In their Questionnaire the Organising Committee invited any countries to which this provision might apply to indicate in their reply a limitation of the hours of work which would be equivalent in the special circumstances of the country to the daily limit of 8 hours or weekly limit of 48 hours in other countries, and to furnish information with regard to the points included in the Questionnaire on the basis of the equivalent limit proposed. Up to the time of the framing of this Report, no replies have been received by the Committee from such countries and the Committee are unable therefore at present to submit any definite suggestions to the Conference. If the information asked for from the countries in question is received in time, the



Committee will circulate a Supplementary Report. In the meantime they make the provisional suggestion that countries to which the special provision quoted above from the Treaty applies might be able to accept one or other of the following alternatives.

(a) A country might engage itself to accept a limit of say, 10 hours or 9 hours a day, or the corresponding week limit of 54 or 60 hours.

(b) A country might feel itself able to reach the standard proposed in the Convention of 48 hours a week by a succession of stages over a course of years.

(c) A country might engage itself to apply the limitation of working hours to women and young persons employed in industrial undertakings in which more than 10 men or women are employed, and to extend the limitation to other categories within a term of years.

In either case modifications of the detailed provisions of the Treaty would require to be considered.

#### CHAPTER IV.—RECOMMENDATIONS.

The Organising Committee submit as a basis for the discussion of the subject by the Conference the draft of a Convention which is annexed to this chapter.

The draft embodies the principle of the 48 hours week. The Committee suggest the adoption of this principle, rather than the principle of the 8 hours day, for two reasons. First, it allows more elasticity in the arrangement of the hours of work, and it facilitates the adoption of a half-holiday, or even a whole holiday, on Saturday or some other day of the week by enabling a longer period than 8 hours to be worked on other days. Secondly, it helps to secure the weekly rest day, whereas the principle of an 8 hours day by itself does not.

It is clear that, whichever principle is adopted, some modifications will be necessary, at any rate for the present, in certain industries or branches of industry or classes of work. The Committee have given very careful consideration to this question. It is of great importance, if uniformity of conditions is to be secured between different States, that the limits within which these modifications may be granted should be laid down in any Convention that may be adopted. The mere affirmation of the principle of a 48 hours week, while leaving a wide discretion to each State to allow such exceptions as it considers desirable in the circumstances of its country, would not, so it seems to the Committee, fulfil the purpose for which the International Labour Organisation has been created. It must be recognised, however, that the consideration of the question is hardly yet sufficiently advanced in the different industrial countries to enable the cases in which, and the limits within which, modifications should be allowed to be laid down in exact detail. The Committee have only found it possible to suggest in general terms the

conditions which appear to justify an exception being made to the principle of the 48 hours week, and the general limits within which the variations from the principle might reasonably be confined. As experience is obtained by the different States of the working of the provisions, it is hoped that it may be possible at a subsequent Conference to make the provisions more precise, and they recommend that the Conference should instruct the International Labour Office to pursue the enquiries into the subject and report in due course to the Conference.

The most important case to be considered by the Conference is that of the continuous industries, that is, industries which by reason of the nature of the work require to be carried on continuously for seven days in the week. It is customary in these industries to carry on the work by a succession of shifts working seven days a week. A typical case is that of the blast furnaces in the iron smelting industry. It seems clear that at present there would be great difficulties in limiting the hours in this industry to 48 in the week by international regulation, and that an extension of hours must be allowed. A reorganisation of the industry, by the adoption of a system of relief shifts or some other measure, would be necessary to enable the work of each individual worker to be limited to six days in the week. Such a reorganisation has already taken place in some cases, for example, in the supply of electricity and gas in certain English towns; but the shortage of trained hands and other difficulties will have to be surmounted before its general adoption is possible. The Committee, however, think that the question is one which urgently requires solution in order that the benefit of periodical rest days—which is one of the principles laid down in the Treaty of Peace—may be secured to the workers in these industries; in some cases such workers have already secured a minimum number of holidays during the course of the year, and it is understood, of course, that these will not be affected by the reduction in the number of weekly hours now proposed. They have considered whether it

would be possible to recommend that the length of shift in the continuous industries should be limited to eight hours. They understand, however, that in some instances, *e.g.*, work at the winding engines in mines, the length of the shift is graduated according to the intensity of the work—the shift is shortened during the busy part of the day when winding is going on continuously, and lengthened during the night when the work is much less heavy. It is also common where men change periodically from one shift to another, so as to take it in turns to be on duty during the day and during the night, for the change over to be effected by one of the shifts being dropped and the other shift or shifts being correspondingly lengthened. The Committee therefore recommend for these industries a provision that *on an average* over one month or less the hours of work shall not exceed 56 in the week.

Another important case for consideration is that of the workers, such as caretakers, repairing staff, boiler attendants, &c., whose duties require them to attend before and after the ordinary working hours or whose duties are of an intermittent or exceptionally light kind. A list of such cases is given in Schedule B to the draft convention, which has been drawn up on the basis of the information supplied to the Committee. The list may not be exhaustive and further information will no doubt be forthcoming at the Conference. The wages of such men are usually calculated with reference to the exceptional nature of their duties. It is important, however, that some limit to the number of hours they may be employed should be laid down, and the Committee suggest not more than 60 in the week.

The last, and most important, question under this head is that of overtime. The cases in which overtime is worked at the present time fall mainly into two classes:—

(a) Cases in which overtime is made necessary by the special conditions of the industry. These are summarised in Schedule C to the draft Convention. The most noteworthy cases in this class are those where the conditions are governed by the weather or the materials handled are of a perishable nature, and those where *unforeseen* pressure of work is liable to arise from time to time. In cases

falling under this class it would be difficult, if not impossible, to meet the temporary need by temporary additions to the staff, nor could a system which depended on a supply of casual labour be generally recommended. To some extent it may be found possible in the future by re-organisation of work, careful arrangement and planning in advance, and standardisation of products, to meet the needs in those classes of industry which are subject to unforeseen and irregular pressure of orders, without resort to overtime; but in others, especially those which are liable to be affected by the weather or the seasons, the need for occasional overtime will probably always remain. It is suggested by the Committee that the number of hours overtime in the year should be limited in the case of these industries to 150, and that payment at an increased rate, say 25 per cent. at least above normal rates, should be made compulsory for all overtime.

(b) Cases in which overtime is worked to expedite or increase production, or to meet pressure of orders, but where the pressure is not due to anything special in the nature of the business itself. The need may arise from the fact that the employer has undertaken more work than his works can get through in the normal working hours, and it may happen that overtime in one factory, and short time in another, occur simultaneously. Some check is placed upon the working of this kind of overtime by the demand which labour makes to-day that the additional hours shall be paid for at higher rates of wages; but notwithstanding this, a large amount of such overtime is undoubtedly worked. The decision of the Conference as to the proposal they shall put forward in regard to this class of overtime is perhaps the most important the Conference has to make. It may be urged on the one hand with force that in the circumstances of the present time, when the greatest possible production is needed to make good the losses caused in almost every country by the war, no check should be placed on the amount of overtime that may be worked, at any rate in industries producing essential articles. On the other hand, it is evident that unless the power to work overtime is strictly controlled by the

provisions of the Convention, uniformity of working hours between the different industrial countries and the security for the leisure of the workers, which it is the main object of the Convention to secure, will not be attained, and the principle of the 48 hours week will to a great extent be rendered nugatory. It must also be remembered that both actual experience and the researches which have been made into the question of fatigue show that overtime is not an economical means of increasing production; that though in times of great emergency, such as the late war, when a large increase of output is needed for a short period, the use of overtime is justified, in the long run the efficiency of the worker is affected and the general rate of production is lowered. The Committee therefore venture to suggest that power to work overtime should be limited to industries in Schedule C. If, however, the Conference think it necessary to decide that, in present circumstances at any rate, the power to work overtime in other cases cannot be entirely taken away, the Committee recommend for the consideration of the Conference that the following limits and conditions should be imposed:—

(i) That the number of hours overtime in the year should be definitely limited, say to 150 hours a year for the next five years and afterwards to 100 hours.

(ii) That payment at an increased rate, say 25 per cent. at least above normal rates should be made compulsory for all overtime.

The administrative arrangements to be adopted in each country for enforcing the observance of the provisions of the Convention when embodied in the national law will necessarily vary with the organisation of the national administration, but there are certain rules which appear to the Committee to be essential in order to secure an effective supervision over the observance of the law. These are indicated in Article 8 of the draft. The chief of these is that the working times in each establishment shall be fixed and notified beforehand, and that it shall be made an offence against the law to employ anyone outside the time so fixed. Unless this is done, it is almost impossible for the Government inspectors

to check the number of hours which are being worked in the establishment. Different times, of course, may be fixed for different branches of work or sets of men, though conditions will probably need to be imposed to prevent evasion of the law by the transference of men from one set to another and in other ways. The Committee have not thought it necessary to make any suggestion as to the manner in which the times should be fixed. In some cases it may be found necessary for the State to fix the times, or alternative times between which a choice may be made by the employer (as in the existing British Factory Act): in others, they will be fixed by agreement between the organised employers and workers or the individual employer and his employees: in others again, it will be necessary to leave a discretion to the employer.

The Committee have not been able, on the information before them, to consider exhaustively the question of the date when the Convention should be brought into operation and the question whether it may be necessary to allow delays in the case of certain countries or certain industries. This will, they think, have to be fully examined at the Conference; but they suggest that, in view of the progress that has been made recently with the adoption of the 8 hours day or 48 hours week, it should be possible to bring the Convention into operation generally (subject to such exceptions as may be decided on) at an early date, and they suggest the 1st July, 1921, *i.e.*, six months after the end of the period allowed by the Treaty (Article 405) for the passing of the necessary legislation.

#### DRAFT OF A CONVENTION TO LIMIT THE HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRIAL UNDERTAKINGS TO FORTY-EIGHT IN THE WEEK.

1. The present Convention applies to all industrial undertakings, other than undertakings in which only the members of the family are employed.

Industrial undertakings shall be deemed to include the following:—

(a) Mines and quarries.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, repaired, ornamented, finished or adapted for sale, or materials are transformed (including the generation and transformation of electricity, shipbuilding, laundry work).

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland navigation, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, water work or other work of construction, and the preparation for and laying the foundations of any such work or building.

(d) The transport of passengers or goods by road or rail, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves, and at warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

The national law shall define the line of division which separates industry on the one side and commerce and agriculture on the other.

2. The working hours of employed persons shall not exceed 48 in the week, with the exceptions hereinafter provided; but the provisions of this Convention shall not apply to persons holding positions of supervision or management or employed in a confidential capacity who are not usually employed in manual labour. Where persons are employed in shifts, it shall be permissible to employ persons in excess of 48 hours in any week if the average number of working hours over a period of one month or less does not exceed 48.

3. The limit of 48 hours may be exceeded in case of accident, breakdown of machinery or plant, or other emergency, but so far only as may be necessary to avoid serious interference with the ordinary working of the undertaking.

4. The limit of 48 hours may be exceeded in those industries or processes which are required by reason of the nature of the industry or process to be carried on continuously by a succession of shifts, subject to the condition that the working hours shall not exceed 56 in the week on



the average. The limitation of the hours of work shall not affect any holidays which may be secured to the workers in such industries by the national law in compensation for the weekly rest day.

The industries included in Schedule A shall be regarded as industries to which this Article applies.

5. The limit of 48 hours may be extended to 60 in the case of any of the classes of workers included in Schedule B.

6 (a). In industries in which the conditions specified in Schedule C exist, overtime for not more than 150 hours in the year may be worked, subject to the condition that a worker when employed overtime shall receive a rate of pay which shall be higher by at least 25 per cent. than his normal rate of pay.

(b) In other industries overtime for not more than 150 hours in the year during the next five years and afterwards for not more than 100 hours may be worked subject to the same conditions as in (a).

7. If any of the contracting States claims that any industry other than those specified in Schedules A, B or C carried on in its territory comes within any of the foregoing Articles, it shall notify the same to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.

8. In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every employer shall be required :—

(a) To notify by means of a notice posted in the works or other suitable place, or by such other method as may be approved by the Government, the times at which the employment of his workers commences and ends, or where work is carried on by shifts, the times at which the employment of each shift commences and ends. The times shall be so fixed as not to exceed the limits provided for under this Convention, and when notified 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 times observed 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 the national law or order of the Executive Government 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 times fixed in pursuance of paragraph (a) or during the times fixed in pursuance of paragraph (b).

9.\* In those countries in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organisation or other special circumstances render the industrial efficiency of the workers substantially different, the following modifications of the provisions of this Convention may take effect:—

10. The provisions of this Convention may be suspended in any country by order of the Government, in the event of war or other emergency endangering the national safety.

11. The provisions of this Convention shall be brought into force not later than the 1st July, 1921.

#### SCHEDULE A.

I. (a) Industries in which work is necessarily carried on by all or the great majority of the workers night and day for seven days a week:—

(i) The extraction of metal from the ore, or the recovering of metal by blast furnaces or other processes, including blast furnaces, reverberatory furnaces, retorts, electric furnaces, electrolytic process and the preliminary process of calcining ores.

(ii) The manufacture of coke and recovery of coal by-products from coal.

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\* NOTE. It will be necessary in accordance with Article 405 of the Treaty to consider the modifications necessary in the case of special countries, but as the replies of Japan, China, India and other countries had not been received when this report was drafted, the Committee have not yet been able to make any recommendations in regard to them. [Cf. p. 134]

(iii) The production and refining of mineral oil, including oil from shale.

(iv) Public Utility services (gas, electricity, water).

(b) Branches of industry in which work is necessarily carried on night and day for seven days a week, but which constitute a portion only, and generally a small portion, of the work of the establishments in which they are carried on :—

(i) Continuous processes in the manufacture of chemicals, including synthetic dyes.

(ii) Sugar refining (char-house).

(iii) Manufacture of condensed milk (receiving department and vacuum pan, pasteurising and cooling departments).

(iv) Cement manufacture (Schneider kiln and rotary kiln processes).

(v) Steel manufacture (smelting department).

(vi) Works of construction (tunnelling by compressed air, work of pump and engine attendants).

(vii) Salt works (work of lump men and wallers).

(viii) Glass manufacture (founders, teasers, casters, drawers, Lehr kiln-men and cave-men in sheet and plate works).

(ix) Mines (minding of pumps, fans, furnaces, winding).

(x).....

(xi).....

II. Industries in which work, though not carried on day and night, is necessarily carried on seven days a week, *e.g.*, manufacture of milk products, other than condensed milk.

#### SCHEDULE B.

Classes of work common to most industries which require to be exempted from the limit of 48 hours because of the special conditions of the employment :—

(i) Persons who have to come in before the normal hour for beginning work, or to remain after the day's work is over, *e.g.*, boiler attendants, engine-men, electricians, oilers and greasers, cleaners, time-keepers and checkers.

(ii) Persons who have to come in early to prepare material, *e.g.*, sponge makers in baking trade, moulders' labourers in foundries.

(iii) Works maintenance staff, whose duty is to carry out repairs.

(iv) Laboratory chemists and persons engaged in research work and testing work.

(v) Furnace men (including glass tank men and teasers), retort men, men employed on works gas plants.

(vi) Annealers engaged on continuous work (*i.e.*, on work where the annealing takes several days to perform), and kiln-men, oven-men and stove-men.

(vii) Day and night watchmen, caretakers, pointsmen on works railways.

(viii).....

(ix).....

## SCHEDULE C.

(i) Industries liable to press of work at certain recurring seasons of the year, *e.g.*, aerated water making, beer-bottling, printing and book-binding, preparation of food, malting, manufacture of ice, seed cleaning and grading, making and repairing of agricultural implements or machinery, manufacture of artificial manure.

(ii) Industries liable to sudden press of orders arising from unforeseen events, *e.g.*, making-up of wearing apparel, job-dyeing, dry cleaning, biscuit making, warehouses in which goods are stored, for shipping orders, packing-case making for shipping orders, ship-repairing, dock labouring.

(iii) Industries in which the article made or material used is of a perishable nature, *e.g.*, fish-curing, of fruit, preserving of meat, manufacture of condens, of whale oil, manufacture of glue and gelatin.

(iv) Industries in which completion of the work or process cannot by reason be accurately prescribed, *e.g.*, bleaching and dyeing, metal rolling mills and foundries, lead pipe making, wire drawing, paper-mills, baking of bread or biscuits, starch and cornflour works, vulcanising of rubber, sheathing or covering of electric cables.

(v) Factories driven by water power only which are liable to be stopped by drought or flood.

(vi).....

(vii).....

## APPENDIX.

*[Letter issued by the Organising Committee.]*

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May 10th, 1919.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE,  
OFFICES OF THE ORGANISING COMMITTEE,  
53, PARLIAMENT STREET,  
LONDON, S.W. 1.

Sir,

THE Peace Conference at its plenary sitting on the 11th April approved the draft Convention submitted to it by the Commission on International Labour Legislation. The text of the Convention as accepted by the Peace Conference is enclosed herewith. The Convention provides for the institution of an International Organisation, to which all the Members of the League of Nations will belong, and which will consist of an International Labour Conference and an International Labour Office, as part of the machinery of the League of Nations. It further provides in Article 38\* and the Annex† that the first meeting of the International Labour Conference shall take place at Washington in October of this year, and that an International Organising Committee should be appointed to assist the Government of the United States of America in making the necessary arrangements. At its plenary sitting the Peace Conference approved the immediate appointment of the Organising Committee and authorised it to proceed

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\* ARTICLE 38, paragraphs 1 and 2.

The first meeting of the Conference shall take place in October, 1919. The place and agenda for this meeting shall be as specified in the Annex annexed hereto.

Arrangements for the convening and the organisation of the first meeting of the Conference will be made by the Government designated for the purpose in the said Annex. That Government shall be assisted in the preparation of the documents for submission to the Conference by an International Committee constituted as provided in the said Annex.

† PROTOCOL, paragraphs 1, 2, and 3.

The place of meeting will be Washington.

The Government of the United States of America is requested to convene the Conference.

The International Organising Committee will consist of seven members, appointed by the United States of America, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, and Switzerland. The Committee may, if it thinks necessary, invite other members to appoint representatives.

with its work at once. In accordance with the terms of the Convention the Committee has been constituted as follows:—

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

Dr. J. T. Shotwell (provisionally), Professor at Columbia University.

GREAT BRITAIN:

Sir Malcolm Delevingne, K.C.B., Assistant Under-Secretary of State, Home Office.

FRANCE:

Mr. Arthur Fontaine, Councillor of State, Director of Labour.

ITALY:

Mr. di Palma Castiglione, Inspector of Emigration.

JAPAN:

Dr. M. Oka, formerly Director of Commercial and Industrial Affairs at the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

BELGIUM:

Mr. E. Mahaim, Professor at Liège University.

SWITZERLAND:

Mr. W. E. Rappard (provisionally), Professor at Geneva University.

Mr. Arthur Fontaine was elected Chairman, and Mr. H. B. Butler, C.B., Assistant Secretary of the Ministry of Labour, was appointed Secretary.

The offices of the Committee will for the present be at 53, Parliament Street, London, S.W. 1, but will be transferred to the Ministry of Labour, Washington, at the beginning of September, 1919. All communications should be addressed to the Secretary at the London office.

The Organising Committee now has the honour to transmit a questionnaire in regard to the Agenda for the first Conference laid down in the Annex to the Convention\* and to bring to the notice

\*ANNEX. *Agenda*:—

1. Application of principle of the 8-hours day or of the 48-hours week.
2. Question of preventing or providing against unemployment.
3. Women's Employment:—
  - (a) Before and after child-birth, including the question of maternity benefit.
  - (b) During the night.
  - (c) In unhealthy processes.
4. Employment of children:—
  - (a) Minimum age of employment.
  - (b) During the night.
  - (c) In unhealthy processes.
5. Extension and application of the International Convention adopted at Berne in 1906 on the prohibition of night work for women employed in industry, and the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

of your Government certain other points dealt with in the Convention, to which their attention is desirable in view of the forthcoming Conference at Washington.

#### *Agenda.*

In drawing up the questionnaire, the Committee have aimed at obtaining the most complete information available in regard to the existing legislation and practice in the different countries in respect of the subjects referred to in the various items of the Agenda, and the proposals of the respective Governments as to how they should be dealt with by the Conference. When this information is received, the Committee propose to collate and tabulate the results in a printed statement, and to draw up suggestions for draft conventions or recommendations, based on the information received, for submission to the Conference as a basis for discussion. These documents will be communicated to the Delegates appointed to take part in the Conference through their respective Governments.

In view of the short time at the Committee's disposal, if the work of collating and circulating the results of their present enquiry is to be completed in time to enable the Delegates to study them before departing for Washington, the Committee respectfully request that the answers to the questionnaire may be forwarded to them at the earliest possible date, and in any case that they should not reach London later than the 30th June.

In order further to facilitate the work of collating and tabulating the answers, it is also requested that they may, where possible, be accompanied by a translation into either English or French, unless one of these languages is used in the original. In order further to save time, and in the spirit of Article 11 of the Convention,† it is suggested that the Government Department entrusted with the collection of the necessary information in each country should be instructed to forward it direct to the offices of the Organising Committee.

#### *Preliminary Business.*

The Organising Committee would also point out that the following items of business relating to the internal procedure of the Conference will have to be dealt with by the Conference.

1. The appointment of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.

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#### † ARTICLE 11.

The Government Departments of any of the Members which deal with questions of industry and employment may communicate directly with the Director through the Representative of their Government on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, or failing any such Representative, through such other qualified official as the Government may nominate for the purpose.

2. The approval of rules of procedure, of which a draft is being prepared by the Committee and will be circulated with the documents above mentioned.

*Appointment of Delegates and Advisers.*

As regards the points in the Convention itself which require attention in view of the forthcoming Conference, the Committee desire respectfully to call attention of your Government to the following provisions of the Convention :—

Article 3 provides that the Conference "shall be composed of four Representatives of each of the Members, of whom two shall be Government Delegates and the two others shall be Delegates representing respectively the employers and the workpeople of each of the Members.

"Each Delegate may be accompanied by advisers, who shall not exceed two in number for each item on the agenda of the meeting. When questions specially affecting women are to be considered by the Conference, one at least of the advisers should be a woman.

"The Members undertake to nominate non-Government Delegates and advisers chosen in agreement with the industrial organisations, if such organisations exist, which are most representative of employers or workpeople, as the case may be, in their respective countries.

"Advisers shall not speak except on a request made by the Delegate whom they accompany and by the special authorisation of the President of the Conference, and may not vote.

"A Delegate may, by notice in writing addressed to the President, appoint one of his advisers to act as his deputy, and the adviser, while so acting, shall be allowed to speak and vote.

"The names of the Delegates and their advisers will be communicated to the International Labour Office by the Government of each of the members.

"The credentials of Delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference, which may, by two-thirds of the votes cast by the Delegates present, refuse to admit any Delegate or adviser whom it deems not to have been nominated in accordance with this article."

Your Government will accordingly in due course be requested by the Government of the United States of America to forward through its Foreign Office the names of the Delegates who will represent it, together with those of the Delegates representing its employers and workpeople, and at the same time to forward the names of the advisers who will accompany the Delegates. The Committee would be much obliged if the names of the Delegates and advisers could be communicated to them at the same time.

Each Delegate may be accompanied by two advisers for each item on the agenda of the meeting, but where it is feasible advisers might well be appointed who can deal with more than one item. It should



also be pointed out that as several of the questions on the agenda affect women, one at least of the advisers appointed should be a woman.

The last paragraph of Article 3 provides that the credentials of the Delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference. It is accordingly requested that the nomination of each Delegate and adviser may be accompanied by a statement giving his qualifications, and also giving the names of the organisations in agreement with whom the Delegates and advisers of employers or workpeople were chosen.

The Committee respectfully suggest that it is of great importance for the success of the Conference that steps should be taken by each of the Governments to make widely known among associations of employers and workers the nature and objects of the International Organisation, and to secure their interest and co-operation in the matter.

#### *Expenses.*

Under Article 13 each Government participating in the Conference will pay the travelling and subsistence expenses of its four Delegates and their advisers. Under Article 38\* it is provided that all other expenses connected with the First Meeting will be borne by the Members of the League of Nations in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union. The United States Government, having agreed to undertake the convening of the Conference, will make the necessary arrangements, and will in due course furnish the necessary information in regard to them to the Members.

We have to add that this letter is being addressed to the Governments of all the original Members of the League as set out in the Annex to the Covenant.

We have the honour to be, Sir, with great truth and respect,

Your obedient servants,

ARTHUR FONTAINE,  
*Chairman.*

H. B. BUTLER,  
*Secretary.*

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\* ARTICLE 38, paragraph 3.

The expenses of the first meeting and of all subsequent meetings held before the League of Nations has been able to establish a general fund, other than the expenses of Delegates and their advisers, will be borne by the Members in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

## QUESTIONNAIRE.

A.E. 1.

NOTE 1.—*The Government is asked, if possible, to give its answers to the questions in French or English, and also to supply a translation in one of those languages of all essential documents.*

NOTE 2.—*For Federal States the answers should be given not only for the central Government, but also for the principal local Governments which have legislative authority in labour matters.*

## INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.

OCTOBER 1919.

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*Item 1 of the Agenda: Application of the principle of the Eight Hours' Day or 48 Hours' Week.*

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*I.—Present Law and Practice.*

1. (a) In what industries\* is the limit of eight hours a day or 48 hours a week already enforced by law or administrative order?
- (b) Please state the extent of the application of the laws or orders in each industry, i.e., whether they apply to all workers or only to certain classes, and, in the latter case, to which classes.
- (c) Please state whether the limit of eight hours a day or 48 hours a week is allowed to be exceeded in certain circumstances and under certain conditions, and if so, in what circumstances and under what conditions.
- (d) Please attach the text of any laws or administrative orders.

---

\* The term "industry" should be interpreted in its most general sense and as including transport.

2. (a) In what other industries is the limit in fact observed without legal obligation, whether under general agreement between the employers and the workers in the industry or by custom?
- (b) Please state the extent of the application of the agreement or custom in each industry, i.e., whether it applies to all workers or only to certain classes, and, in the latter case, to which classes.
- (c) Whether the limit of eight hours a day or 48 hours a week is allowed to be exceeded in certain circumstances and under certain conditions, and, if so, in what circumstances and under what conditions.
- (d) Please attach a summary of the chief provisions of any general agreements.

*II.—Proposals for Legislation under consideration at present time.*

3. It is asked that full particulars of any proposals for legislation which have been introduced by the Government in the legislature may be furnished, with the text of the Bill or Bills.

*III.—Observations.*

4. (a) Is the Government prepared to adopt the limit of eight hours a day exclusive of rest time?
- (b) Is the Government prepared to adopt the limit of 48 hours a week exclusive of "rest time"?
- (c) How should "rest time" be defined?

5. (a) Should the actual hours of work for each day be fixed in advance? If so, should they be fixed—
  - (i) By the employers, or
  - (ii) By agreement between employers and trade unions, or
  - (iii) By administrative order?
- (b) If the actual hours of work are not fixed in advance, how is the limit of eight hours a day or 48 hours a week to be enforced?
6. (a) Will it be necessary to except from the limit of eight hours a day, if proposed to be adopted—
  - (i) Any industries.
  - (ii) Branches of industry.
  - (iii) Particular classes of workers?
- (b) What other limit is proposed for adoption in each case?
- (c) What are the reasons in each case which make the exception necessary?
7. (a) Will it be necessary to except from the limit of 48 hours, if proposed to be adopted—
  - (i) Any industries.
  - (ii) Branches of industry.
  - (iii) Particular classes of workers?
- (b) What other limit is proposed for adoption in each case?
- (c) What are the reasons in each case which make the exception necessary?

8. (a) Will it be necessary to allow supplementary hours (overtime) in excess of the limit for seasonal industries, for exceptional circumstances, in case of accidents, or otherwise? It is asked that as full particulars as possible may be given.
- (b) What limits will it be possible to impose on such supplementary hours?
- (c) Will a compensatory reduction of hours be provided at other times?
9. Will it be necessary to allow any "delays" before the limit of hours is applied?
- (a) Generally.
- (b) For particular industries.
- (c) Particular districts.

The dates should be specified in each case.

**NOTE.**—In the exceptional case of the countries indicated in article 19, paragraph 3, of the Convention establishing the International Labour Conference, an equivalent limitation of the hours of work suitable in the special circumstances should be indicated, and the basis on which it is calculated explained. The replies to the above questionnaire should be given on the basis of the equivalent proposed.

LIST OF COUNTRIES FROM WHOM REPLIES TO QUESTIONNAIRE HAD  
BEEN RECEIVED UP TO THE TIME OF GOING TO PRESS.

United States of America.	Italy.
Argentine.	Netherlands.
Belgium	Norway.
Bolivia.	Panama.
Great Britain.	Persia.
Canada.	Poland.
Australia.	Roumania.
New Zealand.	Serb-Croat-Slovene State.
South Africa.	Siam.
Chili.	Spain.
China.	Sweden.
Denmark.	Switzerland.
France.	Czecho-Slovakia.
Hedjaz.	

A reply has been received from Greece since the Reports were compiled, and replies are understood to be on their way from India, Japan and Peru.

REPORT II.

2

# LEAGUE OF NATIONS

## REPORT

ON

## Unemployment.

(Item 2 of the Agenda.)

X : 922 - 1

PREPARED BY THE ORGANISING  
COMMITTEE FOR THE INTERNA-  
TIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE,  
WASHINGTON, 1919.

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## PREFATORY NOTE.

At the Plenary Sitting of the Peace Conference of the 11th April, 1919, the following Resolution was adopted :—

“That the Conference approves the Draft Convention creating a permanent organisation for the promotion of the international regulation of labour conditions which has been submitted by the Labour Commission, with the amendments proposed by the British Delegation ; instructs the Secretariat to request the Governments concerned to nominate forthwith their representatives on the Organising Committee for the October Conference, and authorises that Committee to proceed at once with its work.”

The Committee having been constituted in accordance with the provisions in Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, issued a letter and series of questionnaires dealing with the Items of the Agenda specified in the Treaty. This letter together with the questionnaire dealing with the second item of the Agenda will be found on page 133.

The present report analyses and summarises the material contained in the replies to the questionnaire received from the different Governments, and the Committee present as a result of their examination of this material certain conclusions and recommendations which they suggest may afford a basis for the discussion of the subject by the Conference.

A list of the Governments from whom replies had been received up to the time of going to press is given on page 143, and the Committee desire to express to them their thanks for the information they have furnished and their appreciation of the trouble they have taken to render all assistance possible in the limited time available.

The Committee regret that it was not possible to allow a longer time for the preparation of the replies, and they fear also that their report may suffer from deficiencies and errors, which might have been avoided, if the time at their disposal had been longer. They trust, however, that it may prove of assistance to the Conference in dealing with the problems before it.

H. B. BUTLER,  
*Secretary.*

ARTHUR FONTAINE,  
*Chairman.*

18th August, 1919.

# UNEMPLOYMENT..

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## INTRODUCTION.

Information with regard to the problem of Unemployment has been specially supplied by a large number of the Governments to whom the questionnaire\* was addressed; and many of them have forwarded official documents and periodicals from which supplementary information has been obtained. In addition, material of a more general character has been used, such as the Bulletin of the International Association on Unemployment. The information supplied by the Governments covered three subjects—the nature and extent of the problem, the prevention of unemployment, and the provision against unemployment. These, therefore, will be treated as the chief sections of the Report.

The Committee has confined itself to an examination or information drawn from the above sources and to recording the conclusions which such examination would appear to indicate. It has not considered its function to be the maintenance of any particular thesis or the expression of any opinions of a theoretical character.

The official information received is generally confined in regard to each State, to the problem as it appears within the frontiers of that State, and in all industrial States the problem of unemployment is reported to be serious; but the fact that the same problem appears in many different States does not prove necessarily that its solution should be attempted by international action. It may, however, be expected that the nature of unemployment may be better understood by a comparison of the experience of many peoples and that information as to the methods of treating unemployment used in one State may provide suggestions for the improvement of methods in other States.

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\* See page 133.

There are, however, certain aspects of unemployment of an international character to which reference is made in the replies and these chiefly have regard to the economic forces which cross frontiers, as, for example, the fluctuations of trade, financial crises originally local or even artificial spreading to industry and becoming international, thus affecting employment in all countries, and the effect of unemployment in decreasing exports or imports, and therefore causing distress in foreign countries. These international issues are described in greater detail below. It is not implied that the international aspects of the problem can be dealt with separately from those other aspects which are chiefly national or local; but the international aspects can be distinguished from others, and may become the subject of international agreement or conventions. It is accordingly to such aspects that the following Report has been chiefly devoted.

Further, the Committee has not considered it to be necessary to deal with certain kinds of unemployment, and therefore, for the purpose of this Report the unemployed person is regarded as one who is seeking work for wages, but is unable to find any suited to his capacities, and under conditions which are reasonable, judged by local standards. This will exclude:—

- (1) Those who are unemployed through old age, illness or physical defect; and
- (2) Those who are unemployable through aversion to work or unfitness for work.

The kinds of wage-earners covered may be classified as follows:—

- (1) Those who are normally in permanent employment (*e.g.*, engineers, cotton spinners, &c.).
- (2) Those who are normally employed on irregular or seasonal work (*e.g.*, builders and men on construction of works.
- (3) Casual labourers (*e.g.*, dock and wharf workers, porters and the “fringe” in large industries).

## CHAPTER I.

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### NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM.

It has already been stated that the first part of the questionnaire issued by the Committee related to the nature and extent of the problem. The replies received include a general survey of the situation; they naturally deal in many cases with the fundamental causes involved and some are of considerable length. It was accordingly not thought desirable to quote them in full, particularly as to have done so would have involved considerable repetition. An analysis of them, however, brings out the following main considerations.

It is pointed out, notably in the reply of the French Government, that the character of the problem of unemployment is such that it cannot be viewed in isolation from the wage-system as a whole and the social and industrial organisation at the moment prevalent in most countries. Unemployment is stated to be inevitable so long as the organisation of the work of wage-earners remains what it has been; and therefore relief of distress is irrelevant to the solution of the problem, however necessary it may be for social welfare in general.

Attention is also drawn to the fact that the character of the problem in the various countries of the world has probably been changed considerably by the war and the subsequent transition to peace. It is suggested that no evidence exists which can indicate what will be the nature and extent of unemployment in five or ten years' time; for, although the deeper currents of finance, commerce and industry continue to be what they were before the war, although the wage-system and large-scale industry still exist, so much has been changed that the pre-war figures and the experience of war-time are very unreliable indications of what the new situation will be.

Certain definite changes are noted which will perhaps permanently affect the problem of unemployment and its solution. The chief changes are as follows :—

(a) *New Institutions.*—Entirely new governments have been established in Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, the regions of the former Russian Empire, Germany, Austria, &c. These have new laws and new methods of administration. Besides new governments, new social institutions have been set up under old governments. New employment offices, new methods of organising public works, new regulations of hours, &c., will all affect unemployment. Further, the franchise is now different in many States, and the rate of labour legislation may be much greater than it was before the war.

(b) *The Position of the Workers.*—The industrial position of manual and other workers is changing in many countries ; and better organisation of the workers, as well as closer co-operation between Trade Unions and Employers' Associations, may tend to stabilise employment.\*

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\* The French Government refers to Joint Industrial Councils as a possible means of assisting to solve the unemployment problem. In this connection it is worthy of note that the Report of the Committee on Scientific Management advises the Industrial Council for the Building Industry in Great Britain as follows :—

When all other methods of providing steady and adequate employment for the operatives have been exhausted, then the Industry is faced with the question of its responsibility towards its employees during possible periods of unemployment. We are convinced that the overhanging fear of unemployment must be finally removed before the operative can be expected whole-heartedly to give of his best. Considerations of humanity and efficiency alike, therefore, demand that provision shall be made by the Industry itself adequately to maintain the operative and his family during any period of unemployment arising from causes outside his control.

This accomplished, we believe that the whole atmosphere of industry will experience a great and vitalising change, and that efficiency of production will be much increased.

We accordingly suggest that termination of employment upon any job should be subject to one week's notice instead of one hour (except in the case of a strike or lock-out), and that the local Employment

(c) *After-war Conditions.*—Although the conditions prevalent in the transition from war to peace may not be permanent, it seems unlikely that there will ever be a return to the economic conditions of July, 1914. The relation of States has been altered. Some industrial nations will have fewer exports than in 1914. The transport system is changing. Consumable goods will be in abnormal demand for a considerable time. On the other hand, there are enormous public works to be undertaken, large government loans, a large amount of paper money, and very fluctuating exchanges. The features of the war period will probably survive at least for many years in regard to rates of wages and prices. These are totally diverse from those of the pre-war period. The casualties due to the war, the partial cessation of emigration, the decrease in the birth-rate, and the conditions of military service will certainly affect employment for many years.

All these facts will have to be considered in estimating the probable nature and extent of unemployment in the future.

Attention is drawn in most of the replies to the fact that there are certain prevailing features in all unemployment. Inasmuch as persons desirous of working are unable to find work, a loss of industrial energy and potential wealth is involved which affects all nations. A defective organisation of industry is thus indicated. The nature of unemployment, however, is best understood not by reference to

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Committee should be immediately notified of such approaching terminations, and also of all vacancies occurring.

The machinery for filling vacancies already exists in the Trade Union organizations, and should be developed to the greatest possible extent, in order to supplement the State Employment Exchanges so far as the Building Industry is concerned.

We further recommend that in cases of unavoidable unemployment, the maintenance of its unemployed members shall be undertaken by the Industry through its Employment Committees, and that the necessary revenue shall be raised by means of a fixed percentage on the wages bills, and paid weekly to the Employment Committee by each employer on the joint certificate of himself and a shop steward or other accredited Trade Union representative.

effects on industry and commerce, but by reference to the social consequences—disease, premature death and incompetent citizenship—which affect unemployed persons, their dependents, and indeed the whole of the society of which they form a part. These consequences follow mainly from the fact that the unemployed wage-earner has no reserves of wealth. The problem, therefore, is closely connected with that of the rates of wages, and cannot be adequately understood without constant reference to the wages normally received by the class of persons, some of whom may be unemployed.

In addition to those who are periodically without work, it is pointed out that a large number of workers are *under-employed*, that is to say, their time is never fully occupied, the wages for the time occupied are too low to maintain their efficiency in times during which they are unoccupied, and yet they have just as much work in their chief occupations as to prevent their seeking other occupations. The waste of energy and industrial ability involved in under-employment seems to be due largely to the tendency of each industry, as at present organised, to have its own reserve of labour.

The general character of unemployment, therefore, appears to be such that, although there is a variation in the number unemployed in a series of years or in different seasons in different countries, there is in most countries at all times a permanent residuum of workers whose need for work is not met. The existence of this permanent residuum of unemployed or under-employed persons does not, however, imply that there is not or cannot be a demand for more labour, but that (i) the surplus may be in the wrong district, or may be of the wrong class for the purpose of employment; and that (ii) the conflicting "pulls" of great numbers of independent employers may render the worker "immobile." There are also certain human factors, such as the reluctance of the worker to move his home, which restrict the opportunities of re-employment for those who are unemployed.



### KINDS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

In many of the replies classifications are given of the kinds of unemployment. Four chief classes are generally mentioned and, so far as statistical material is available, these have been illustrated in the tables and charts attached.

#### *(a) Cyclical Unemployment.*

In certain periods during a series of years, all countries show a larger proportion of unemployed, and these are times of general depression of trade. The figures in Table I (see page 13) and Chart I show the percentage of unemployed persons in certain trade unions in certain countries during a series of years. It should be noted, however, that (i) the figures for trades not covered, if they were known, might increase or decrease the percentage, and there is no means of ascertaining which result would follow; (ii) the figures of each country cannot be compared with those of the others, for the trades covered are different in each case and the principles on which the figures are calculated are different; (iii) the number covered by the trades making returns varies through different years; (iv) the unemployment recorded may differ in character in the different countries, since in any country unemployment may not be due to lack of work in that country, but to the immobility of labour. For example, the unemployment percentage in France in agriculture is noticeable in the census of 1911, which was taken in the spring, although in the summer many thousands of Belgians, Spaniards and Italians were brought in for the corn harvest and the gathering of grapes. Again, in Belgium, in 1912, 60,000 francs were paid in Ghent in unemployment insurance, and in the same year the Committee of the Chamber of Commerce of Ghent reported a lack of workers.

Although the percentage of unemployed in different countries cannot be reduced to a single scale, the variations in the percentages can be compared. These variations are set out in Chart I, from which it is seen that the rise and fall in the numbers unemployed during a

series of years is very similar in all countries for which statistics are available ; and it may, therefore, be concluded that in most countries there was probably less unemployment in 1906 and 1907 than in the years immediately before and after,\* and that the percentage of unemployment was again falling in 1911 and 1912. These facts would appear to show that cyclical fluctuations in unemployment are international in character and probably in their causes.

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\* References are made in many of the replies to the general industrial crisis of 1907 and 1908. The following is a summary of the main effects of that crisis on employment based on the replies and on various official publications.

One of the consequences of the American financial crisis of 1907 was that throughout the following year unemployment was exceptionally acute both in the United States of America and in the chief industrial countries of Europe.

In all the great industrial centres of the United States vast numbers of people were thrown out of employment. One Philadelphia firm of locomotive builders alone discharged 4,000 workpeople during the first month of the year. It is estimated that in the United States industrial areas the number of people who lost employment was 25 per cent. of the total number employed prior to the crisis. Works were partially closed down, number of working days per week reduced, and the general level of wages fell. Immigration was strongly discouraged by the Authorities, and there was a great exodus of foreign workpeople from the country.

In Europe similar effects were felt almost in the same degree, especially in the textile trades. Throughout the year the English cotton trade reported severe depression. Works were partially closed down and output greatly reduced. In April the visible supply of American cotton was 400,000 bales less than that of the previous April. The woollen industry, and practically all the major industries, reflected the same depression. The rate of pauperism throughout the country was 6 per cent. higher than that of the previous year.

In France there was a great depression throughout the year, particularly with regard to the textile industries. In Holland there was exceptional unemployment in all the textile trades. The autumn revival of the tailoring trade was much less marked than that of the previous year ; and both diamond cutting and printing were much below the normal. In Belgium the general level of unemployment was much higher than that of the preceding year. A comparison of trade union unemployment figures for October, 1907, and October, 1908, shows a rise of 4·2 per cent. In Sweden, the number unemployed in 1909 was about 60,000, and the depression had been so great after

**TABLE NO. I.—CYCLICAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.**  
**MEAN PERCENTAGE OF WORKPEOPLE IN CERTAIN TRADE UNIONS**  
**UNEMPLOYED IN EACH OF THE YEARS 1904-13.**

Year.	New York State (U.S.A.).	Bel- gium.	United King- dom.	Aus- tralia.	France.	Den- mark.	Nor- way.	Ger- many.
1904	12.1	3.0	6.0	*	10.8	*	4.0	2.1
1905	8.5	2.1	5.0	*	9.9	13.3	4.4	1.6
1906	6.8	1.8	3.6	6.7	8.4	6.1	3.2	1.1
1907	13.6	2.0	3.7	5.7	7.5	6.8	2.5	1.6
1908	28.0	5.9	7.8	6.0	9.5	11.0	3.6	2.9
1909	14.9	3.4	7.7	5.8	8.1	13.3	5.0	2.8
1910	13.6	2.0	4.7	5.6	6.4	11.1	2.9	1.9
1911	18.7	1.9	3.0	4.7	6.3	9.2	1.9	1.9
1912	15.2	1.9	3.2	5.6	6.0	7.6	1.3	2.0
1913	20.9	2.7	2.1	5.3	5.3	7.3	1.9	2.9
Mean	15.2	2.7	4.7	5.7	7.8	9.5	3.1	2.1

\* Not available.

**TABLE NO. II.—SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN EMPLOYMENT.**  
**PERCENTAGE OF WORKPEOPLE UNEMPLOYED IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS**  
**IN THE BUILDING TRADE (monthly averages for the periods stated).\***

Month.	United Kingdom, 1913-14.	Germany, 1912-13.	Holland, 1911-12.	Belgium, 1911.
January	8.7	12.3	14.9	23.1
February	6.8	13.8	12.1	21.9
March	4.9	11.4	4.1	4.1
April	3.8	11.3	2.0	1.1
May	3.5	7.8	1.5	0.9
June	3.7	6.9	1.6	1.3
July	3.9	5.2	2.2	0.9
August	4.9	5.1	2.2	0.4
September	5.2	5.7	2.6	0.7
October	5.1	6.7	3.0	0.8
November	5.7	7.7	5.9	2.9
December	6.0	11.6	8.8	7.0
Yearly Average	5.2	8.8	5.1	5.4

\* The occupations covered in the case of the different countries do not completely correspond. For the United Kingdom the whole building trade is included (insurance figures). The others are trade union figures in certain occupations.

The trades which suffer most from cyclical fluctuations are the constructional trades, such as engineering and shipbuilding; that is to say, the workers unemployed in this manner are chiefly those who are normally in permanent employment. The statistics for British engineering trade unions show cyclical fluctuations. (*See Chart II*).

If the figures relating to unemployment in the different countries are compared with the figures relating to trade, it is seen that the variations are similar. The fluctuations in the export and import trade of various countries during the years 1903 to 1912 are shown in the chart annexed (*see Chart III*). This is some indication of the fluctuation which accompanies the fluctuation of employment. The conclusion suggested by some of the replies is that the problem of unemployment cannot be adequately studied in isolation from the facts regarding international commerce and finance, and that probably no international agreement regarding unemployment is likely to be effective until there is more knowledge and a greater control of the commercial and financial forces which operate internationally.

#### *(b) Seasonal Unemployment.*

In most trades there are fluctuations in the numbers employed in any one year, owing to variations of climatic conditions or social habits; but in all countries there are certain trades which may be called "seasonal" because the yearly variation in employment in them is more pronounced.

The figures in Table II. show the mean percentage of un-

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1907 that the Government found it necessary to institute two unemployment censuses, in January, 1909 and 1910.

In Germany a decline in the general level of employment was indicated by the fact that for the first time in four years the membership of sickness insurance funds (which is accepted as a rough measure of persons actually employed in industrial occupations) showed a decrease instead of an increase in comparison with the previous year. A number of industries, particularly cotton, woollen and iron, were reported as being adversely affected by the conditions prevailing in the American money market. Government relief measures were taken with regard to the hand-loom workers and engineering trades.

employed in certain occupations in the building trade in four countries for the twelve months of certain years. Chart IV indicates the fluctuation in the case of three of these countries. These figures show a greater mean percentage of unemployment during the winter months in all the countries named. It is suggested that in some countries (*e.g.*, the United Kingdom), the percentage of unemployment in *all* occupations taken together does not vary very much with the seasons, since what is a slack time for one trade is often a time of pressure for another.

The fact, however, that there is a slack season for each trade tends to create a "pool" or "reserve" of labour for each trade. Thus seasonal unemployment results in permanent unemployment or under-employment for a certain number of workers.

#### (c) *Casual Labour.*

In most countries there are employments which are in their nature discontinuous (labour in docks, &c.). The number of workers required for such occupations varies from day to day, and there is a tendency to create a reserve in view of the highest possible number needed on the best days.

Again, on the "fringe" of every large industry, there is employment during periods of high pressure which draws in such persons as carters, porters and assistants. This surplus is often left unemployed in "slack" times, and although unskilled labour is more "mobile" than skilled, the unskilled tend to wait for the chance of employment where they have been at some time employed.

#### (d) *Unemployment due to Changes in Industry.*

The introduction of new machinery or new processes tends to create, at least for a time, a body of unemployed from among those who are displaced. This, however, is not in normal times a very large class, nor is this unemployment as serious in itself as that of those who are permanently without sufficient employment, because (1) the introduction of new processes has been generally followed

siderably throughout the year. Drought, high freight-rates, and general or specific trade depressions re-act immediately on the labour market.

*Queensland.*—Unemployment varies largely throughout the year owing to the seasonal nature of the principal industries.

*Victoria.*—The problem of unemployment is not acute, but unemployment occurs in the seasonal industries.

### France.

Before the war there was not a surplus of labour in France, and many foreigners came in both for seasonal work from Belgium, Italy and Spain, and for permanent residence. The lack of labour, however, did not prevent the occurrence of unemployment. There was little "cyclical" unemployment, as France is largely agricultural; and there was little unemployment owing to casual labour, even in ports. The unemployment which occurred was largely due to (1) the defective organisation for placing workers; (2) the lack of technical training; (3) chronic maladjustment of production and demand, slack seasons, &c. During the war, except for the first months when industry was disorganised by mobilisation, there has generally been a deficiency of labour in France, because of the development of war industries. France had therefore to introduce a large number of workers from Italy, Spain, Portugal, North Africa, China, &c. Since the armistice, there has not been a large amount of unemployment in France, although the discharge of munition workers and demobilisation of the forces compelled a great number of persons to search for new employment. There has, however been (1) unemployment in certain localities, owing to deficient transport, material, &c.; (2) in North-Eastern France, owing to the ruin of towns, factories and mines; (3) and in Alsace-Lorraine, owing to political changes. In Paris, the number of unemployed to whom assistance was given did not exceed 70,000, whereas there were 300,000 in 1914. At Toulouse, there were 10,000 unemployed, almost all of them women.

These were the two places, with the exception of Alsace, where there was most unemployment. The situation, which has never been serious, does not tend to become so.

### Japan.

The peculiar circumstances affecting the problem are (1) the very recent introduction of the industrial system; (2) the occupation of the land by small farmers and the large population within the comparatively restricted area of the islands.

The alternation of labour between agriculture and industry is easy and frequent whenever there is trade fluctuation; and as the members of the same family or kindred assist the unemployed, no public attention was devoted to unemployment before the war. Some employment offices, however, have been established in the large cities.

### Poland.

The new state has since its foundation been faced with a double difficulty in regard to unemployment. Machinery and material have been largely destroyed by the retreating Russians and the invading Germans; and secondly, great numbers of prisoners of war from both sides entered the country, and were without work or food.

### Siam.

The Government reports that no unemployment problem exists, because (1) "the cost of living is small and opportunities for obtaining a livelihood are abundant"; (2) the Chinese workers are organised in guilds; and (3) the Buddhist tradition still protects the worker from distress.

### Sweden.

Unemployment is chiefly seasonal owing to the cold and the short days of the winter months. The greater part of those unemployed are the unskilled labourers in the cities, who have to depend on casual labour during the winter. Unemployment outside the cities is prevented by

lumbering, which provides winter work for the agricultural population and unskilled workers from industrial districts who migrate into the forest regions.

### Switzerland.

Unemployment is chiefly in the building trades and in the lace and embroidery trades. It exists chiefly in the German-speaking districts of Switzerland.

### Czecho-Slovakia.

There was little pre-war unemployment ; but at present general unemployment has resulted from rapid demobilisation, the return of emigrants, the lack of raw material, manufactured goods and food, and their consequent high prices. It is further intensified by inadequate transport, as a large amount of rolling stock was destroyed during the war, which it is at present impossible to replace.

### CAUSES OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

The replies of the Governments suggest that some of the causes of unemployment are fundamental to the whole structure of the social and economic system, and that others are accidental, transitory, and occasioned by defective organisation. The chief causes suggested may be summarised as follows :—

(a) *Fluctuations of Trade*.—These are the chief causes of cyclical unemployment. The recurrence of depressions in trade has been supposed to be due to over-investment or over-production, but the phenomenon is not yet finally explained. Whatever the ultimate cause may be, clearly at certain periods, production is decreased at first in constructional industry, and consequently, in other industries. The control of cyclical unemployment can, therefore, only be secured when the general fluctuation of trade is more fully understood and regulated.

The seasonal fluctuations of trade are due to climate, weather conditions (e.g., in regard to shipping), social habits, &c. These cannot be eliminated, but they need not create unemployment if labour is better organised.



(b) *Large Scale Industry*.—The increase in the size of manufacturing units may have two contrary effects. On the one hand, it may make employment more secure and continuous than it would be in dependence on large numbers of small employers; on the other hand, it may displace workers by the syndication of firms and the shutting down of inefficient works. The tendency in large factories to produce only "to order" results in periods of rush succeeded by slack times. The monotony of industrial processes also makes workers desirous of change and willing to risk unemployment.\*

(c) *Immobility of Labour*.—Certain workers tend to become highly specialised, and, therefore, unable to transfer from trade to trade. The call for workers in one district hardly affects another district, unless there is an adequate system of employment offices; and even then the displacement of the worker often leaves him still tied to a particular home or surroundings.

(d) *Industrial Changes*.—The rate of change has been rapid in the last century as compared with more stable economic periods. Changes affecting employment have occurred in—

(i) *Machinery* (e.g., the introduction of electricity has displaced gas-workers; motor transport has displaced horse transport, &c.).

(ii) *Marketing and finance* (e.g., working to orders creates slack periods, syndication shuts down some works).

(iii) *Tariffs, &c.* (e.g., the McKinley-Dingley tariff of the U.S.A. caused unemployment in the Yorkshire woollen trade).

(iv) *Large town areas*. The growth of large towns under the industrial system creates a class of unattached and incompetent workers who are attracted to these centres and used as a reserve in times of pressure.

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\* Of the number of about 40,000 women registered as wanting places in the United Kingdom in 1917, about 10 per cent. were already in employment and simply desired to change.

(e) *Inadequate Management*.—The works manager is only now beginning to study the fitness of labour for selection. In many factories a large labour turnover is necessary to maintain a comparatively small permanent staff. This implies a defective organisation. The organisation of industry by large numbers of independent employers tends to create a reserve for each works or each firm, each being on the look-out for possible expansion.

(f) *Industrial Disputes*.—Stoppage due to industrial disputes creates unemployment in other industries. The coal dispute of 1912 in England can be shown to have affected (i) employment in other industries, and (ii) exports and imports of the United Kingdom.\*

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\* One of the best examples of the effects of an industrial dispute on employment is to be found in the records of the coal trade dispute in Great Britain in March, 1912. On March 1 a general strike of coal-miners commenced in support of the men's demands for an individual district minimum wage for all men and boys employed underground. The effect of the strike on other industries was as follows:—

The *pig-iron* industry came to a standstill early in the month; 10 per cent. of the blast-furnaces were stopped by March 2, and nearly two-thirds by March 9. At the end of March only 13 per cent. were still working. In *iron and steel* works nearly 60 per cent. of the men were unemployed by March 23, and more than half the *tin-plate* mills had ceased work by March 9, and by the end of the month only 76 mills at 13 works were still working, as compared with 489 mills at 80 works at the end of February. The *sheet steel* works in connection with the tin-plate trade were practically at a standstill by March 9, only 8 mills out of 68 being then working, and before the 23rd all stopped. In the *pottery* trade in North Staffs. 50 per cent. of the potters were out of work by March 9, and 80 per cent. by March 23. In the *brick* trade nearly 25 per cent. were unemployed by March 23, and many more were on short time. The *glass-bottle* trade, especially in Yorkshire, was almost at a standstill by the end of March. In the *engineering* trades there was a large amount of unemployment and short time. The dispute ended with the promise of the Government, on March 15, that a Bill would be introduced, and the second reading of the Bill (Coal Mines Minimum Wage) was carried on March 22. The dispute, however, affected more than British labour. The exports of raw materials, &c., and of manufactured articles suddenly decreased in April and May, 1912, owing in great part to the coal dispute and the consequent cessation of work in other countries. Foreign countries therefore suffered and, in so far as employment there was dependent upon imports from the United Kingdom, unemployment abroad resulted from the diminution of imports.

### RESULTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

The following results of unemployment are pointed out in various replies :—

(a) *Within Each Nation.*—The normal results of unemployment are poverty, overcrowding, disease, incompetence and lack of energy, expense to the State, and unrest. These have been described in reports and books.

(b) *International.*—The results of unemployment in each country diminish the market for foreign goods in that country and weaken the power of exporting from every country in which unemployment is serious. This leads in some cases to the advocacy of tariffs and protection, with a view to diminishing the imports from abroad ; and this may create unemployment abroad. The productive capacity of each nation is weakened because the material from abroad is lessened by unemployment there. Unrest and revolutionary feeling due to unemployment spread from country to country. These are a few of the most obvious and immediate international results of unemployment ; but clearly there are innumerable other and more distant results affecting the whole structure of society, which necessitate the treatment of unemployment on an international scale, as one of the most subtle and pervading diseases of the present industrial system.

### EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM.

In most countries the unemployment percentage in certain trade unions and the numbers dealt with by relief systems appear to be the only definite indications as to the extent of the problem in this or that country. But in no case is it a complete account of the numbers of persons unemployed. First, great numbers of the unemployed are not in any unions and do not come under any public or voluntary system of relief. Secondly, in most countries the trade unions giving figures for unemployment include only a very small proportion of the industrial population, in some they are unions of workers not much affected by unemployment, and even as regards the members of unions

not all are able or willing to have their names registered during the whole period of their unemployment. Further, the figures are collected on different bases and sometimes, even for the same country, include different types of persons in different months or years. For these reasons the number unemployed is probably much larger than is indicated by the available statistics, but there are no means of obtaining at present any more exact knowledge.

Apart altogether from the numbers affected by unemployment, in order to estimate the extent of the problem it would be necessary to know the *length of time* during which they are unemployed. But there are no means of discovering this with regard to most of those who are recorded in the statistics of particular countries as unemployed. In some countries records are kept of the numbers of days per week on which work was carried on in mines and iron works, and the fluctuation in these numbers indicates in some measure the amount of time unoccupied; but here again, the indication is vague, and no classification exists to show what is time wasted and what is a justifiable lessening of time employed.

In judging the extent of the problem it would be also necessary to allow for those who are under-employed. But the criterion of under-employment is difficult to fix exactly and there can be no record of the amount a given man can possibly do in excess of what he actually does. The practice of short-time with a view to spreading employment among a large number of workers may sometimes result in under-employment for most of them.

Therefore, although a more exact knowledge could be obtained if there were statistics kept by each State in a form agreed to by all, it is impossible to base action upon the mere extent of the problem. The nature of unemployment and the classification of the persons usually unemployed is a more suitable ground for action; but it is clear from the figures already available, that the extent of the problem is great enough to constitute a grave social menace.

## STUDY OF THE PROBLEM.

*Introductory.*

The first International Conference on Unemployment was held at Milan in October, 1906, under the auspices of the Società Umanitaria; and a second at Paris in September, 1910, which resulted in the formation of the Association internationale pour la lutte contre le Chômage, established on September 21, 1910. The head office is at Ghent. There were before the war sixteen national sections of the Association, namely in the United States of America, Belgium, United Kingdom, France, Italy, Denmark, Holland, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Finland, Luxemburg, Austria, Hungary, Germany. There were also correspondents in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Roumania, Argentine, and Japan. This voluntary association was assisted by the 21 Governments, and through its agency, international conferences were held on Unemployment and kindred subjects. Meetings of the Association were held in 1911, 1912, and a general meeting at Ghent in September, 1913. The Association published a quarterly bulletin, which ceased to appear after July, 1914, but the library and organisation remain in existence and the Association still unites students and others who are specially interested in unemployment.

The problem is also studied by government officials in the different States, generally under the Ministry or Department which deals with Labour problems; and information is periodically published by the Departments both in their official gazettes and in pamphlets and reports. Special commissions have been established in some States, as indicated below.

*Notes on the Various Countries.***United States of America.**

The problem is studied by the Department of Labor, the Bureau of Labor in the several States, Industrial Commissions, and thirty free State Employment Bureaux.

### Belgium.

A Royal Decree of January 30, 1911, established a permanent Commission to develop trade unions, employment offices, unemployment funds, and measures for relieving distress due to unemployment. The Commission consists of 15 members nominated as representing the various interests concerned. The two industrial censuses of 1896 and 1910 contained a question on unemployment. The *Revue du travail* gives figures as to the number of trade unionists unemployed, unemployment funds, employment offices, and reports on trades and texts of labour laws.

### British Empire.

*United Kingdom.*—In December, 1916, a Ministry of Labour was set up for the purpose of dealing with all questions connected with Labour. This Department absorbed the functions previously performed in this connection by the Board of Trade. It publishes a monthly journal, "The Labour Gazette," which contains all the statistics on unemployment collected by the Department. These figures consist principally of :—

i. Returns from employers or employers' associations as to the numbers employed and total wages paid at different dates. These returns cover the textile trades, boot and shoe, and glass trades. Returns are also received for coal and iron mining (weekly number of days worked), pig-iron (number of furnaces in blast), tin plate (number of mills in operation), iron and steel works (number of shifts worked).

ii. Returns from trade unions paying unemployed benefit. Returns are received from trade unions covering about 1,000,000 workpeople, showing the number unemployed at the end of each month.

iii. Returns from local and trade correspondents covering the principal trades.

iv. Returns of the employment offices showing the number applying for work, the number finding work, and

the number remaining unemployed at the end of each month.

v. Returns under the National Insurance Act showing the number of insured workers who have lodged their unemployment books on becoming unemployed, the amount of benefit paid and the duration of unemployment.

vi. Returns from distress committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905.

Other bodies primarily interested in unemployment are the Labour Research Department founded by the Fabian Society, and the National Committee for the Prevention of Destitution.

*Australia.*—An Act of December 24, 1912, of the Commonwealth Government, set up an Inter-State Commission which (para. 16) investigates "labour, employment and unemployment," among other subjects. In New South Wales the Board of Trade, under the Industrial Arbitration Act, 1912-18 (Part 9, Sections 74-89), is definitely directed to "combat the evils of unemployment," to "propound schemes for insurance," and also to "report and publish statistics on unemployment."

### Denmark.

The Ministry of the Interior, the Central Employment Office and the Bureau of Statistics study the problem.

### France.

The *Répertoire technologique*, 1910, published by the French Government in three languages, provides a possible basis, in their opinion, for the international classification of occupations. The questionnaire for the censuses of 1896, 1901, 1906, 1911, contained a question on unemployment. From 1895 to 1914 there was a monthly return in regard to trade union members unemployed; this, however, covers only 250,000 out of 10,000,000 wage-earners. Quarterly returns from employers' associations, Chambers of Commerce and *Conseils de prud'hommes* show seasonal fluctuations in employment. A monthly return is made of time worked in coal-mines; and statistics are published in regard

to unemployment funds and employment offices. Special reports and enquiries are made.

### Netherlands.

The State service of assistance against unemployment, together with the Central Bureau of Statistics collect unemployment statistics. These are published in the monthly review of the Bureau of Statistics.

### Norway.

The Inspector of Employment Offices and Insurance Funds observes the fluctuations of the labour market, and issues reports, in conjunction with the Central Bureau of Statistics and the Ministry of Social Welfare.

### Sweden.

The Royal Social Board includes a Bureau which deals with all questions concerning unemployment, and it has local representatives in forty districts through whom the quarterly reports of the Social Board are prepared.

### Switzerland.

The Federal Office for Unemployment, created in March, 1919, studies special questions in regard to the problem.

### Czecho-Slovakia.

The Minister of Social Welfare and also the Public Employment Offices devote themselves to the study of the unemployment question.

### OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS.

Statistical information regarding unemployment in the different countries is to be found in the following publications, issued periodically by the respective governments :—

United States of America : *Monthly Labour Review.*  
*Employment Service. Bulletin.*

Belgium : *Revue du Travail.*

United Kingdom : *Labour Gazette.*



Canada : *Labour Gazette*.

Australia : *Labour Bulletin and Quarterly Summary of Statistics*.

New Zealand : *Monthly Abstract of Statistics*.

Denmark : *Statistiske Efterretninger*.

France : *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*.

Italy : *Bollettino dell' Ufficio del Lavoro*.

Netherlands : *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek*.

Norway : *Sociale Meddelelser*.

Spain : *Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*.

Sweden : *Sociala Meddelanden*.

Switzerland : *Monats-Berichte der Zentralstelle. Verband Schweizerischer Arbeitsämter*.

Germany : *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger. Reichsarbeitsblatt*.

### *General Considerations.*

The general considerations put forward in the replies may be summarised as follows :—

The study of the problem of unemployment is still undeveloped in most countries ; and its range does not appear to be adequate even where it exists. The material for the study does not appear to include a reference to commercial and financial facts, although it is recognised by the Governments that unemployment is often due to these. The administrative departments which are reported to be concerned with the study of the problem would appear to be mainly occupied with actual administration and therefore to be unable to devote much attention to methods of study or to special investigations. There is no plan common to the several States : it is impossible to co-ordinate on an international scale the material collected by each government ; and it is therefore desirable from the point of view of the International Labour Office that the several governments be requested to make further investigations and reports.

It appears from the information furnished that the prevention of unemployment and the provision against it should be considered as parts of the larger problem of

industrial organisation as a whole, and that this involves the need for information in regard to finance and commerce. The problems of casual labour, of seasonal work and of cyclical fluctuations in employment are stated to be, in varying degrees, problems of the organisation of the Labour reserve, of the dovetailing of occupations and of the crises in investment, manufacture and credit. The organisation of industry is always being further elaborated for other reasons than the prevention of unemployment, and this better organisation may lead to the gradual diminution of unemployment. Apart altogether from measures adopted for this purpose, some changes of industry or social life may diminish, and others may increase, unemployment; and the problem becomes one of employment and not of unemployment. Thus, it is suggested in some reports, that the solution of the problem of unemployment as regards casual labour is along the lines of alternative occupations; and the possession of small holdings or the work at small industries, as well as a better system of engaging workers, is having its effect in decasualisation. Seasonal unemployment is made less probable by the migration of workers, which took place in many countries before the war.\*

Again, in regard to unemployment of the cyclical type, the more stable organisation of credit, the better knowledge of the world market, the co-ordination of industry in larger units, may all gradually lead to a lessening of the fluctuations in employment by diminishing the number or the extent of world crises.

### CONCLUSIONS.

The Committee is of opinion, after reviewing the information supplied as to the nature and extent of the problem

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\* For example, many Italians go to the Argentine to assist in the harvest there, some remaining only from two to three months, some remaining from October to April. In April these harvesters could find agricultural work again in Italy. Movements of agricultural workers also take place to the fields of northern France from Belgium, and to the fields of Germany from Poland and Galicia; but in these cases the workers have only one full season in agricultural employment.

of unemployment in its international aspects, that *more information is needed*. A first necessity for the solution of the problem is a correct diagnosis of its character. But this is hardly possible at present. There is no agreement between the States as to the method of collecting statistics of unemployment. No country appears to have an exact knowledge of the problem within its own frontiers; and the international aspects have hardly been considered hitherto. For the adoption, however, of methods of preventing unemployment and of providing against it, the governments would find further information useful; and this can only be adequate if it is collected and published on an international scale. The consideration of the method of collecting information would naturally be one of the tasks of the International Labour Office, since the publication of information is already recognised in the Treaty of Peace as a function of this office.

The Committee therefore suggests that arrangements should be made to secure the co-ordination and extension of information on the subject of unemployment and its communication to the International Labour Office. These suggestions are dealt with more fully at the conclusion of this Report.

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## CHAPTER II.

## PREVENTION OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

## INTRODUCTION.

THE information supplied by the Governments indicates that there are two methods generally used for preventing unemployment; one is the better organisation of the normal demand for workers and the engagement of workers, the other is the creation of new demands in periods of slackness.

In so far as unemployment is due to the immobility of labour it is diminished in all countries by a better organisation for the engaging of workers; and, therefore, *bureaux de placement* or employment offices have been organised with a view to shortening the period during which a displaced worker is without work. The regulation of the migration of workers also has some bearing on the prevention of unemployment (*see below* p. 66).

Reorganisation of working hours is practised in some industrial states for the purpose of increasing the number of persons employed.

An entirely different principle is the basis of the distribution of contracts for public work so as to modify the fluctuations in employment; and this is accepted by most Governments as a possible policy.

## EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

The information received indicates that the situation in the various States is as follows:—

## United States of America.

(i.) Federal employment offices developed under the Immigration Acts, 1907–17, and were organised by the Bureau of Immigration and taken over by the United States Employment Service of the Department of Labor in 1917. The United States Employment Service had

offices in 1918 numbering about 850. Vacancies notified were 8,799,798; placings, 3,099,295. Special offices dealt with professional men, older men and women (Handicap Bureau), &c.

(ii) State and city employment offices in 1916 numbered 96. State offices: California, 3; Colorado, 4; Connecticut, 5; Illinois, 6; Indiana, 5; Iowa, 1; Kansas, 1; Kentucky, 1; Massachusetts, 4; Michigan, 10; Minnesota, 3; Missouri, 3; Nebraska, 1; New Jersey, 2; New York, 5; Ohio, 7; Oklahoma, 4; Pennsylvania, 5; Rhode Island, 1; Wisconsin, 4. The controlling authority was the State in the case of 60, City in 15, State and city in 11, County and city in 2, State, county and city in 1. The co-operation of the Federal Government was given in the case of 7; and in 1918 the whole system, including all the above offices was co-ordinated under the Department of Labor.

The work of these offices is not confined to a mere waiting for workers or employers to apply. Efforts are made by officials to find places for workers, and signs and advertisements are used.

(iii) Non-public registries. In most States these registries are licensed.

### Argentine.

State employment offices were established by a law of September 25, 1913: two were set up in Buenos Aires and one in each of provincial capitals. The regulations show that these offices are to be under control of the National Labour Department for free service and open to all. Subsidies are given to free employment agencies opened by friendly societies and trade unions and private employment agencies are supervised. There are also regulations governing the co-operation of the National Labour Department with national immigration agencies and municipal and subsidised employment agencies.

### Belgium.

Public employment offices (*Bourses du Travail*) open to all workers and with free service, have been set up in

all the important towns. They receive State subventions on the conditions that :—

(a) Their administrative committees are composed equally of workmen's and employers' representatives ;

(b) They are subject to governmental control and supervision.

There are also considerable numbers of employment offices created by trade unions for the benefit of their own members ; a few set up by employers' associations ; and a few profit-making registries devoted chiefly to domestic service.

In 1913, there were 49 public employment offices in the country. The number of workers seeking employment amounted to 88,188, number of offers of employment 74,700, and number of workers placed 43,739.

Before the war there was a loose federation of public employment offices, but no close administrative connection between them. Since the war, however, it has been decided by the Government that the various offices should be directly attached to the Ministry of Industry and Labour. The present aim is to create a national system of industrial employment offices.

*Promotion of the Mobility of Labour by use of Railways.*—In addition to the system of employment offices the mobility of labour is greatly increased in Belgium by a special organisation of the railway system.

Practically the whole railway system belongs to the State, which has instituted special workmen's weekly zone tickets at greatly reduced prices. These tickets, which are of several types, may provide for daily journeys to and from work, or may facilitate week-end travel when the workman lives near his work during the working days of the week. Holders of these tickets must be certified as manual workers either by the employer or by the burgo-master. These workmen's tickets are used to such an extent that in 1913 the number of workmen's tickets almost equalled the number of all other tickets issued.

The greater part of the weekly zone tickets are held by occasional travellers, among whom figure largely un-

employed workmen seeking work ; and it is beyond question that these tickets have facilitated the recruitment of labour. The mobility of labour was to a certain extent inimical to agriculture because labour could easily move into the towns, but, on the other hand, it had the inestimable advantage of allowing the industrial worker to live in the country. The numbers of semi-industrial and semi-agricultural workers were considerable, and also there was less congestion round the industrial centres. It is especially advantageous from the unemployment point of view, because the unemployed instead of accumulating in the towns can scatter into the country where there is an opportunity for agricultural employment. It is certain that employment in Belgium has been organised to a remarkable extent by this system of zone tickets ; and the fact that unemployment in Belgium has always been small must in part be attributed to the same cause.

## **British Empire.**

### *United Kingdom.*

A State system of employment offices now administered by the Ministry of Labour was established by the Labour Exchanges Act of 1909, which took effect in February, 1910. There is now a complete network of employment offices covering the whole of the country. In July, 1919, there were 414 employment offices and 1,159 branch employment offices.

It is not compulsory for employers to notify their labour requirements to the employment office and it is not compulsory for workpeople who desire employment to register their names at the employment office (except in so far as they may wish to claim unemployment benefit or out-of-work donation). Nevertheless the employment offices are widely used both by employers and workpeople.

The employment offices normally operate locally, but when demands cannot be satisfied locally, they are circulated if necessary throughout the kingdom by means of a departmental newspaper which is published once a

week; additions, cancellations and alterations being notified to all offices daily. In order still further to increase the mobility of labour the employment offices advance railway fares to workpeople travelling to take up employment at a distance from their homes. The cost of tickets is afterwards recovered from the workmen.

The services of the employment offices are free, and special regulations are framed concerning strikes and lockouts, which ensure that no person shall suffer any disqualification on account of refusing to accept employment on the ground that a trade dispute affecting his trade exists.

In 1917 a system of Local Employment Committees was established. Each committee consists of an equal number of representatives of employers and employed, nominated locally, together with a small number of additional members nominated by the Ministry of Labour. The functions of these committees include the consideration of any matter arising in connection with the working of the employment offices. They form a means of bringing the employment offices into touch with the local employers and workmen.

In 1913 there were 423 employment offices and 1,061 branch offices open. Two of these were for special trades, 19 for men only, 2 for women only, 2 for adults only, and 1 for juveniles only. The number of workpeople registered was 1,877,221, the number of vacancies filled 921,853 in addition to 204,629 casual jobs.

It may also be noted that the employment offices are used as distributing centres in the administration of:—

- (a) National Unemployment Insurance.
- (b) The temporary scheme of out-of-work donation.

There is also in existence a considerable number of private registries devoted chiefly to servants, clerks, &c.

Various schemes for the regularisation of employment at docks have been attempted in the United Kingdom. The largest and most successful has been that of the Liverpool Dock Labour Scheme, which embraces nearly all the dock labour of the port (including Birkenhead), about 20,000 to 30,000 men. This scheme is administered



by the Ministry of Labour, assisted by a Joint Committee of employers and workmen. The offices consist of:—

- (1) The Central Clearing House.
- (2) Six subsidiary Clearing Houses.
- (3) Fourteen surplus stands.

All dock labourers are registered by the issue to them of metal tallies. Employment in the docks is limited to the men provided with such tallies, and every employer who is a party to the scheme agrees to employ only men holding Ministry of Labour tallies. Tallies were originally issued to all men commonly employed by the firms, and further tallies are only issued with the approval of the Joint Committee.

The men attend for employment in the first instance at their usual "taking-on" place, and, if unsuccessful, they go to one of the fourteen "surplus stands," which are in fact telephone offices in communication with all the employers in the docks and with other clearing houses. By this means men are directed to any place where there may be a deficiency.

Wages are paid by the Ministry of Labour on behalf of the employers every week, in a single sum and in one place. The wage sheets of each employer are sent to the Central Clearing House and the amounts due to each man are brought together. The Health Insurance cards of the men are also kept at the Central Clearing House, and the workmen's contribution deducted from the wages paid to him. The employers' contributions are pooled according to the amount of labour employed by them. By this means employment is spread over the registered men, who are also protected from the necessity of stamping their health cards themselves in order to secure employment at the end of the week.

Since the Armistice, registration or tally schemes have been introduced into nearly every port for the purpose of decasualising labour. Under these schemes employment is restricted in the first place to men employed in the port before the war. Tallies are issued to such men by the Port Labour Committee, who only issue further tallies to

men first employed since the war, if their employment will not prejudice that of the original workers. Temporary tallies (for one week) are issued to other men provided that all registered men are employed. In some cases the Trade Union badge is used in lieu of a tally. By this means the drift of unemployed men towards the docks is prevented, and the chance of employment for men who have been serving in the Forces is not prejudiced.

### *Canada.*

The Employment Offices Co-ordination Act, 1918, has led to the establishment of the Employment Service of the Department of Labour, and one of its duties is "to compile and distribute information received from employment offices and other sources regarding prevailing conditions of employment."

The Employment Offices Co-ordination Act aims at encouraging the organisation and co-ordination of employment offices, under the Dominion Government. The provincial employment offices are now co-ordinated, but are still under the direction of the Provincial Governments. Advisory councils of employers and workers are attached to all employment offices, and there is a central council. There are 84 employment offices, together with six provincial and four Dominion clearing houses.

Before the 1918 Act Quebec and Ontario had employment offices in their more important cities. In Saskatchewan and Alberta there were employment offices under the Department of Labour and of Agriculture respectively. British Columbia established one in 1917 and Manitoba one in 1918.

### *Australia.*

*New South Wales.*—A Government employment office was established in 1892. When the Ministry for Labour was constituted it took over the employment office. State employment offices have now been established under Part 10 of the Industrial Arbitration Act. Their operations are carried on at the expense of the State and their services

are gratuitous. Railway fares for workmen are advanced and terms of repayment arranged according to circumstances. In 1916 the total registrations were 17,502, and the total number sent to employment, 11,519.

*Queensland.*—An employment office system was initiated under an Act passed in 1915. The head office is at Brisbane with eight central district employment offices and a number of sub-offices. There is constant intercommunication between these offices, and also co-operation with the trade unions, to ascertain current labour conditions. Their services are free and conditional advances of workers' railway fares are made.

There are 50 private employment offices registered under the provisions of the Labour Exchange Act.

In 1916 the registered supply of labour was 30,759, the registered demand was 14,967, and numbers sent to employment 13,716. In the year ending June 30, 1918, the registered supply of labour was 17,158, and the number sent to employment 14,641.

*South Australia.*—The South Australian Government Employment Offices were established by Order in Executive Council, July 20, 1911. The employment offices are operated under regulations issued by the Commissioner of Public Works. Their services are gratuitous; fares of workmen are advanced to be recovered under certain conditions; penalties are imposed for not keeping the engagement to work. In 1917 there were 9,299 applications for employment, and 5,485 workers placed. Co-existent with these public employment offices are private registries of considerable activity.

*West Australia.*—The employment office system has been in operation in West Australia for about 20 years. It is under the administration of a central office at Perth, with 14 branch offices at important centres. The employment office collects reports as to the condition of the labour market; its services are free; railway fares to workers are conditionally advanced. In 1918 the total number of applicants registered was 5,659, and the total number of engagements 5,077.

*Victoria.*—A State employment office has been instituted. Its services are gratuitous, and railway fares are conditionally advanced to workers. In 1917 there were 14,121 applications for employment and 3,895 positions filled.

#### *New Zealand.*

The Government has established employment offices in all the cities and secondary towns in the Dominion for the purpose of assisting workers to employment. Workers are also assisted by advancing railway or steamer fares at reduced rates when travelling to employment. Women's employment offices are also established in the larger centres.

#### **Denmark.**

An Act of April 29, 1913, which came into operation on July 1, 1913, gave power to communes severally or jointly to establish employment offices. There are about 70 communal employment offices controlled by the central office at Copenhagen. They work in connection with the offices for unemployment funds, of which the 3,000 branches also act as employment offices.

Employment offices are free and State-aided to the extent of one-third of their total expenses. They also publish all information regarding employment; and pay half travelling expenses to persons assigned work at a distance from home.

#### **France.**

*I. Public Employment Offices.*—A law was passed on March 14, 1904, by which all towns of over 10,000 inhabitants were to have free municipal employment offices. But as the voting of funds supporting these institutions was optional very little notice was taken of the law.

In 1911 the Ministry of Labour tried to revivify the scheme by granting subventions, proportional to the numbers placed, to all municipal offices working on the lines of equal representation; but the results were not very important.

Since the outbreak of war, however, the free public employment offices have developed great activity. In October, 1914, a central unemployment office (at first chiefly covering refugees) was set up. The principal agricultural societies have also, under the control of the Ministry of Agriculture, set up a national agricultural labour office. Workmen are allowed to travel to their new employment at reduced fares. These central offices, however, which were of great assistance, especially to mining, agriculture and the metal trades (munitions) could not be a substitute for a regional and local system. Each of the two central offices, therefore, has created local offices. The central employment office of the Ministry of Labour, which deals with the problems of employment for the whole country, is now the centre of a complete system; in each department a departmental office has been set up connecting the municipal offices; and the departmental offices have been grouped under six regional offices acting as clearing houses. The Ministry of Labour publishes every week in the official journal a record of the labour market, giving the operations of the employment offices and the insurance funds, and reviewing the present and prospective labour situation in each region. The number of workers placed in employment by the offices of the Ministry of Labour varies from 19,000 to 20,000 each week. For comparison with the present activity (1919) of public offices, statistics are given below of the free offices in existence some years before the war; but these free offices under associations have been disorganised by the war.

II. *Other Types of Employment Offices.*—(a) Workmen's Employment Offices.—Many trade unions have organised employment offices for their members. These offices are usually in the *bourse du travail*, which, except at Paris, have a single employment office centralising the activities of the affiliated unions.

(b) Employers' Employment Offices—these made the largest returns of workers placed in pre-war periods.

(c) Mixed Employment Offices (employers and workmen).

(d) Friendly societies and charitable societies.

## STATISTICS FOR 1911 (FRANCE).

	No. of free Employment Offices. •	Number placed.
Employers' ... ..	149	324,751
Workmen's ... ..	306	244,174
Mixed ... ..	70	128,127
Communal ... ..	162	99,333
Others ... ..	67	16,432
Total ... ..	754	812,837

III. *Private Profit-making Registries.*—In 1898, there were 1,455 licensed private registries filling on an average over 900,000 places each year. They dealt chiefly with domestics and waiters. The law of March 14, 1904, gave the municipalities power to close these registries, but not much use was made of this right, except at Paris, because pseudo-associations were founded with the assistance of the suppressed registries, which really continued to operate. The law of 1904, however, was a distinct advance, for it forbade payment by workers and charged all expenses to the employer.

## Italy.

A Decree of April 6, 1916, assigned subventions for employment offices (a) founded by provinces or communes, (b) founded by joint action of workers' and employers' associations, (c) dependent on a workers' organisation in communication with a corresponding employers' association, or (d) founded by charitable associations.

A Decree of November 17, 1918, made provision for the establishment of an organised system of employment offices, and a State grant was set aside for this purpose.

Existing employment offices are to be supervised by the State and subsidised. Where no employment offices exist, Government employment offices are to be set up if labour conditions warrant their establishment. All employment offices are supervised by commissions representing equally employers and workers. In districts where the Government is not prepared to open employment offices, communal authorities may form a commission for collection and registration of applications from employers and workers. A central employment office is to be established by the Ministry of Industry. These arrangements are to be effective for 12 months after the publication of the peace treaty.

The Società Umanitaria of Milan has a system of employment offices. In 1913 its offices registered 12,663 applicants and placed 6,674.

### Japan.

There have been long in existence numerous private registries. Since 1901 registries for workers (men and women) have developed from charitable and religious institutions. There are now four municipal employment offices in Tokio and two in Osaka. The scheme at first was to apply only to unskilled labour; but it was afterwards applied to all types of labour. The offices are worked on a free basis.

### Netherlands.

A Department of Unemployment Insurance and Employment Offices was set up by Royal Decree on September 19, 1916. One of its chief functions is the organisation of a national system of employment offices. The country is divided into 30 districts, each with a district employment office to link up the communal offices of the district. A central employment office is established to link up district employment offices. There are special departments for waiters, commercial travellers, &c.

The expenses of the central employment office are borne by the Government, which will contribute with the

Communes to the cost of the district employment offices. In 1909, 14 employment offices placed 22,419 workers; in 1913, the 26 employment offices giving statistics placed 62,666 workers; and in 1918 the 34 employment offices giving statistics placed 112,111 workers of the 327,105 who applied.

The reply also points out that a special method of preventing unemployment has been established in Amsterdam, and is being attempted in Rotterdam. In 1919 the employers of the port of Amsterdam guaranteed a minimum wage to a special reserve of port workers, payable whether or not they were employed. The city authorities of Amsterdam have created a similar reserve of workers in communal enterprises. The *bourse du travail* "calls up" the worker when necessary, but regular payment is made even when the worker is not employed.

### Norway.

A law setting up public employment offices in certain communes designated by the Government was passed on June 12, 1906. The regulations for public employment offices were issued by the Department of Commerce and Industry on July 5, 1907.

The services of the employment offices are gratuitous and they apply to all trades. They are placed under the management of joint supervisory committees chosen equally from employers and workmen. They are assisted by State and municipal subventions. The State pays half the railway or steamboat expenses of unemployed workers when their new employment is at some distance.

In 1909 the number of employment offices was 17; number of applications for work, 51,174; number of situations offered, 38,737; and number of situations filled, 26,371. In 1919 there were Public Employment Offices in 41 towns and 5 rural communes.

### Peru.

Employment offices in Lima and Callao were established by Decree of January 30, 1911, Section 9, &c.



### Poland.

A Decree of January 29, 1919, established employment offices under the Ministry of Labour in the chief towns. These dealt with the placing of the unemployed besides fulfilling other functions. Local committees and a central committee of advisers representing labour, employers and those with a special knowledge of labour problems were also created. There are now (June, 1919) about 49 such employment offices. The offices continue to act during strikes and lockouts, but give notice of the situation.

The administrative order of the State Office for Employment, para. 5, establishes connections with (1) all other State employment offices; (2) trade unions or employers' employment offices; (3) communal offices; (4) offices of a public character; (5) communal committees.

### Portugal.

A Decree of July 27, 1912, set up a State employment office in Lisbon. It was placed under the management of the Industrial Department of the Ministry of Trade and Public Works. The service is gratuitous and of universal application, and it publishes an annual report.

State employment offices may, under the same Decree, be established in other places.

### Serb-Croat-Slovene State.

Official employment offices exist in Croatia, Slovenia and Bosnia, and a *bourse du travail* is being organised in Serbia.

### Spain.

A free employment office was set up by Royal Decree on May 25, 1917, in the Ministry of Agriculture and Industry, for the placing of workers in the Public Works, Mines and Agriculture Departments.

A Decree of June 12, 1919, establishes 22 *bolsas de trabajo* (employment offices) in various towns, under joint

committees of employers and workers, in connection with agricultural chambers established in 1890. These *bolsas* have the duty of acting as employment offices for agricultural labour. All work done for the State must depend on workers hired through these *bolsas*. The *bolsas* receive a Government subsidy.

The *bazar del obrero* has for its aim the provision of work for unemployed workers of both sexes. It receives a State subvention.

### Sweden.

Public employment offices were opened on a large scale in 1906. They were subsidised by the State on the following conditions :—

- (i) Services were to be gratuitous.
- (ii) They were to apply to all trades and both sexes.
- (iii) They were to be under the joint management of committees of employers and workmen.
- (iv) Methods of filling vacancies were to be approved by the Labour Department.

The municipal offices are attached to departmental offices; and these departmental offices are grouped into six districts. The Labour Department is the central authority. There is a subsidy from State funds to cover part of the travelling expenses of persons without means seeking work—to be paid through the employment offices.

In 1918 the number of central employment offices was 35, and the whole number of employment offices was 126; the number of applications for employment, 367,000; offers of employment, 255,000; and the number of situations filled, 189,500, of which 109,300 were men and 80,200 women. Of these 43,200 went into agriculture, 26,800 to skilled industry, and 40,200 to casual labour.

### Switzerland.

A Federal Decree (Arrêté) of October 29, 1909, creates *federal subsidies* for :—

- (a) Public institutions for placing workers (labour offices or employment offices of cantons and communes).

(b) Cantonal societies for assistance in so far as they assist the public labour offices.

(c) The Association of Swiss Labour Offices.

A further Decree of the Federal Council of March 21, 1919, creates a Federal Office of Assistance against Unemployment, in connection with the Department de l'Economie Publique. Among other duties this Office is to develop employment offices and act as a central office for public and private employment offices.

*Organisation.* — Under the 1909 Decree the offices receiving subsidies must (1) deal with all classes of workers and contain a women's section; (2) serve gratuitously; (3) be impartial as between employers and workers; (4) continue to act during strikes or lock-outs, but give information on the subject to applicants; (5) act as part of a single system with a central office; (6) assist in publishing information with regard to the labour market.

Voluntary organisations have established employment offices, of workers' and employers' associations, &c.

### Czecho-Slovakia.

Employment offices are established in Bohemia and there are some in Moravia. In each district of Bohemia there are employment offices and there are in addition five supplementary offices which also act as special offices. The central office is at Prague. There are also in each district night-shelters which act as employment offices. Expenses of the district bureaux and night-shelters are met by the district and the State (each contributing 50 per cent.). The State maintains the central establishments.

### UTILITY OF EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

It is pointed out in many of the replies that as methods of preventing unemployment the systems reviewed above have only a very limited effectiveness. The reasons for this criticism are indicated in the following summary:—

The employment office (a) lessens the time unemployed for those for whom places can be found in new works, new trades or new districts; and (b) it increases the knowledge of the situation as a whole. Wherever the officials are active in promoting employment, something more is achieved by the system; but no such system can seriously affect the recurrent periods of unemployment or the possible increase of the numbers of those displaced from industry and of those who fall from under-employment into pauperism. The unemployment problem is intimately bound up with problems of industrial fluctuation, trade cycles, commercial and financial organisation and many other issues which extend beyond the sphere generally covered by what are known as labour problems. Merely to organise the supply of labour in view of the existing demand at any moment is, therefore, hardly likely to affect the solution of the problem. No employment office can create places for workers in slack periods nor make the workers who apply competent for the work offered by employers. The utility of the employment office system is, therefore, strictly limited. Within limits, however, an employment office system does lessen unemployment and is indeed necessary for the better organisation of industry.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

The systems described in the replies may be classified and the extent to which they are in operation may be indicated as follows :—

The outstanding distinction is that between public employment offices, voluntary employment offices and private registries.

*Public Employment Offices* are now organised on a national scale in almost all industrial States, and a more or less centralised system has been recently established in several of the States whose replies are summarised above. The system in the United Kingdom is, however, the most highly centralised, for in the other States mentioned

above the system is comparatively new and has been in operation only in the abnormal years of the war. The conditions in the United Kingdom are, however, unique in that (1) it is a small, densely populated, industrial country ; (2) the municipal or other public employment office system, already in existence when the State system was established, was not on a large scale.

The looser organisation of many municipal or local employment offices with a national federation or under general supervision of the Central Government is by far the most common system. It exists in slightly different forms in Belgium, France, Italy, Denmark, Argentine, Holland, Sweden, Switzerland, &c. In these cases the offices are under local control, but they do not generally effect the movement of workers from one locality to another.

The most striking distinction, therefore, in the public systems now established is that between the centralised organisation of the United Kingdom and the United States of America Federal system and the control by joint committees of employers and workers which is most common elsewhere. In the United Kingdom the system has been recently modified by the institution of Local Employment Committees in the different districts ; but the Committees have no administrative control. In most countries the local committee reviews the finance of the office, is responsible to the local council and often appoints the officers of the employment office. The character of the employment offices, therefore, is very different even in the same country, whereas under a unitary system the methods of all the offices tend to be similar.

*Voluntary Employment Offices* are either assisted and partly controlled by the public authorities, or are in the hands of trade unions, employers, joint committees or charitable associations. Trade union employment offices exist in most countries. Their organisation is part of the general organisation of the unions. There is, however, in most trade unions in all countries an informal method of

spreading knowledge among members of any places which may be open.

In the case of workers' employment offices, the trade union organisation through them gives direct assistance in the organising of industry ; but, on the other hand, they are useful only to trade unionists, and these are not usually more than a minority of the workers. Further, in the case of strikes, the workers' employment office naturally ceases to operate.

Employers' employment offices are generally reserved for one or two particular trades, and are controlled by the Employers' Association of this or that trade. They are generally distrusted by the workers, as it is alleged that they are used in the case of industrial disputes to recruit "black-legs."

Joint committees of employers and workers control a few voluntary employment offices in some countries, but the industrial situation is not generally such that these offices can be either important or effective.

Charitable associations generally of some one religion, control employment offices which are used by workers or employers of that particular religion ; but these institutions affect very little the organisation of the labour supply.

*Private Registries* represent an earlier form of organising the mobility of workers. They are generally carried on for private gain, and generally charge fees either to the employer or to the worker, or to both. Their services are now used chiefly for workers in non-industrial employment, of which domestic service is the chief ; and even in countries where public employment offices have been established, private registries are still believed by many to give more "personal" attention to applicants. On the other hand, the feeling against the private registry has led to their regulation by law, and in most countries they can be operated only under a special *licence* from the Governments. Scandalous exploitation of unemployed and impoverished workers has been practised in many

countries by private registries, when these are not under the supervision of public authorities.

#### COMPARISONS OF ESTABLISHED SYSTEMS.

References are made in the replies to the advantages and disadvantages of public and private systems. These may be summarised as follows :—

*Public and Private Employment Offices.*—The evident advantage of a public system primarily results from the fact that it is not conducted for gain ; and, therefore, those seeking employment are not further distressed by the demand that they should pay. When private registries remain open, the recognised evil of the system has been the chief cause of establishing rival institutions under public control. There is, however, a tendency to regard an official system as too inhuman in its operations.

The second great advantage of public employment offices is that their communications are wider. A public system can assist the transfer of workers over large distances ; the knowledge that there are vacancies and unemployed persons in any one place can be easily communicated to many other places. The mobility of workers is increased also under a public system of employment offices by the practice of providing money for journeys. On the other hand it is stated that a large system involves that the officials are ignorant of the fitness of workers for this or that employment, and officials have hardly any means of discovering the character of a place offered in some distant district.

*State and Municipal Systems.*—In most countries, as already indicated, the employment offices are local in their control and their operations. The most important contrast, however, that can be made is on the basis of the comparative values of a system organised on a large scale, and one organised only by and for a restricted district. Intermediate between the extremes of a State system on the one hand and a city system on the other are various types of departmental or cantonal employment offices.

The following are given as the chief advantages of a *large-scale* system, on a national basis or on the basis of a very large area and population :—

(1) *A large view of the problem.*—Industry is now organised on a non-local basis, and workers in one trade may find work in many different towns ; but the knowledge of such work and the moving of workers for long distances can only be effected by a single system of employment offices operating over a large area. Adequate information on unemployment cannot be given by separate districts ; a single view is necessary, covering a wide field.

(2) *A single policy and method.*—Only in a large scale system can many employment offices act in accordance with the same rules. The speed and effectiveness of the organisation for placing workers depends on the parts of the organisation working together ; but this is not achieved if local habits or local interests cause differences of policy or method between the employment offices of different towns.

(3) *Larger reserves.*—A large-scale system is able to pay for better officials ; and it is also able to undertake larger experiments in placing or training.

The disadvantages urged against a large-scale system are the tendency to centralisation of all the brains and imagination in the service, the officialism of a large machine, the lack of contact between policy and specific local needs, and the loss of local interest in the offices.

The chief advantages claimed for a *small-scale* system are :—

1. *More personal and humane treatment.*—It is felt by workers that displacement from an occupation should not involve the uprooting of a home ; but a large-scale system tends to treat the worker as mere material to be moved from one mill to another. A localised system of employment offices will more readily recognise the attachment of the worker to his home.

2. *Democratic control.*—The control of employment offices by representatives of workers and employers is



only possible in a decentralised system. What is lost in homogeneity of organisation in the different offices may be compensated for by a closer touch between the officials and the inhabitants of the locality. The organisation will be less bureaucratic.

3. *Exact knowledge of problem.*—The large view taken under a centralised system is often less valuable than an exact acquaintance with local conditions. The most complete records of unemployment have been made in specific towns—Ghent, Nuremburg, Verona, York.

The disadvantages urged against a small-scale system are the restrictive effect upon industrial development of local habits or interests, the tendency to segregation in methods and policy, and the ineffectiveness of mere communications between independent local offices.

#### FUNCTIONS OF EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

The activities of an employment office show a certain amount of diversity in the different countries. In most countries, in addition to the primary function of adjusting the supply and the demand for labour, a more vigorous policy is pursued. In certain cases, for example, officials of the employment office go out to discover personally from employers what places can be filled ; and advertisements of the employment offices are circulated among the workers. In Boston and Milwaukee, United States of America, seasonal occupations have been so arranged by the employment offices that the same workers have through the year continuous employment, passing from one kind of work to the other.

Employment offices in some cases also serve as a means for the dissemination of information ; and this information may be given either to those seeking work (as to the conditions, moral, &c., in the place offered), or to those seeking workers (as to the fitness, &c., of the person unemployed), or, again, it may be information published generally, as statistics, &c. Particularly in regard to labour disputes, the regulations of most public employment offices make it

obligatory that a worker who is offered a place should be told if there is a strike at the works concerned.

#### CONCLUSIONS.

It is evident from the information available and from the expressed opinions of some Governments that the established systems of employment offices have not been as effective as it was hoped that they would be. Information as to the conditions of work or the ability of the applicant is essential to the effective working of a system of employment offices, but such information it is often difficult to obtain. This tends to make the employers and the better class of worker distrustful of the system.

It is clear, nevertheless, from the information furnished that, even allowing for all limitations to the possible value of public employment offices, the system should be extended in every country in which there is unemployment. Each State or large district within a State is still an economic unit in regard to the supply of labour, except in regard to the possibilities of migration. The normal movement of the majority of workers from one to another employment is still within a frontier; and, therefore, as a general rule, the organisation of employment offices is a task for each State acting separately. The information supplied by some Governments, however, and their expressed opinions, indicate that in the case of workers moving to countries anxious for immigrant labour, it should be possible to establish close relations between the public employment offices of the States concerned. Apart from this no international administrative action appears possible with regard to the movement of labour, and the social circumstances in the different countries are so different that no one system can be shown to be best for all. It seems, however, to be generally agreed that a public system is better than private registry offices, and that where private registry offices exist they should operate only under a licence. Further, it appears to be agreed that there should be in every State some central State supervision of the whole system of employment offices.

## THE REGULATION OF HOURS.

### DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS ON EMPLOYMENT.

*Overtime.*—In the replies made by the Governments with regard to the prevention of unemployment by the regulation of hours, reference is generally made to regulations limiting the amount of overtime and laying down the conditions under which overtime is to be worked, which are often included in the "Eight-Hour Day" legislation. In no instance, however, is it explicitly stated in the laws that the aim of the regulation of overtime is the decrease of unemployment. There are also many collective agreements between workers' and employers' associations, regarding overtime, which have for their object the decreasing of unemployment.

*Short Time.*—State action instituting short time in private concerns as a means of decreasing unemployment is unusual. The institution of collective agreements between workers' and employers' associations, regulating short time for the purpose of lessening unemployment in periods of depression, appears to be the common practice in most industrial countries. The following examples are given by different governments to show how far the regulation of hours is intended to decrease unemployment.

### Belgium.

*Overtime.*—The official action restricting hours is not directly aimed at preventing unemployment, but this is one of the motives in the making of agreements or understandings between employers and workers. These agreements are many and, as the industries are seldom organised on a national basis, there are sometimes 20 to 50 such agreements in the same industry. They are often tacit and not written. Since the Armistice there has been a more general movement for restricting overtime.

*Short Time.*—Many agreements exist in regard to short time during periods of depression; but action is sometimes taken by the trade unions when depressions actually occur to induce employers to organise short time. On the

other hand, employers often initiate short time (especially in the textile, glass, and mining industries), in order to retain a complete and homogeneous staff of workers.

## **British Empire.**

### *United Kingdom.*

*Overtime.*—In a number of trades, provisions restricting overtime, which were temporarily suspended during the war, were embodied in voluntary agreements prior to the war between employers and workpeople. Such agreements are most frequent in the engineering and shipbuilding trades. The examples given in the note below illustrate the nature of these provisions.\*

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#### *\* Engineering Trade. United Kingdom.*

The (Employers') Federation and the trade unions are agreed that systematic overtime is to be deprecated as a method of production, and that when overtime is necessary the following is mutually agreed as a basis, viz. :—

That no union workman shall be required to work more than 32 hours' overtime in any four weeks after full shop hours have been worked, allowance being made for time lost through sickness, absence without leave, or enforced idleness.

In the following cases overtime is not to be restricted :—

Breakdown work, repairs, replacements, or alterations for the employers or their customers' trial trips and repairs to ships ; urgency and emergency.

#### *Iron and Steel Dressers, West of Scotland.*

The agreement regulating the conditions of employment of iron and steel dressers in the West of Scotland foundries stipulated that overtime should be limited to 12 hours per week per man, except in the case of breakdowns or other urgent circumstances.

#### *Boilermakers. South Wales.*

The agreement between the Engineers and Shipbuilders Employers' Association and the United Society of Boilermakers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders in force at Cardiff, Newport and Swansea, in relation to ship and boiler work executed in graving or floating docks, or in basins, or on vessels lying in rivers, provides as follows :—

“ No member of this Society shall work more than one whole night or two half turns as overtime, in addition to the usual working days, between Monday, 6 a.m., and Saturday, 12 noon, in any one week, whilst competent men are idle in the port on finishing jobs which can be completed in not exceeding three hours' labour.”

*Short Time.*—The practice of meeting trade depressions by the adoption of organised short time to prevent or mitigate unemployment has been very generally recognised in the past by both employers and workpeople in most of the important industries.

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“ If more overtime be required on particular jobs, such overtime must be given to the unemployed members of the town. They shall, however, leave off work at 6 a.m. when the original hands will return to their jobs. Workmen who are engaged as substitutes on overtime or night work must not work more than three whole nights or make more than 54 hours in any one week, except on finishing jobs, as provided in the previous clause.”

“ It is agreed that the rule restricting overtime may be suspended temporarily whenever the demand for men is in excess of the supply.”

*Boilermakers. Port of London.*

An agreement between the Shipbuilders and Engineers Employers' Association and the District Committee of the Boilermakers and Iron Shipbuilders' Society lays down the following “ Limit of Hours for Working Continuously ” :—

“ That no member be allowed to work more than 24 hours continuously, unless the same job can be finished in another half day ; and where a day and night shift are engaged, neither shift, under any circumstances, to work more than 24 hours, including meal times. All members having worked 24 hours must cease work for the next 24 hours, it being understood that the District Committee will see that no workmen leave their employment, even though they should have worked 24 hours, when it could be shown that men could not be obtained to take their places.”

*Fitters' Helpers, Ship Painters and Other General Labourers, Cardiff, Penarth, and Barry.*

“ It is agreed that a reasonable amount of overtime will not be objected to by men whose services may be required, but no member shall work two entire consecutive nights whilst suitable men are out of employment and applying for work at the time, except on finishing jobs, which can be completed before midnight of the second night, when the men on the job will be allowed to continue to its completion. In no case shall the men in employment cease work until the relief men are ready at hand to take their places.”

*Printing Machine Managers, London.*

“ In all cases where a machine manager has been on for at least 24 hours, and there is work to justify it, another machine manager shall be employed during his absence.”

In the later stages of the war the method of organised short time was adopted in dealing with the restricted supply of raw material, *e.g.*, by the Cotton Control Board.\* No written agreements reducing the hours of labour are, however, known to exist, but agreements have been made dealing with the distribution of work during slack seasons, which, in a sense, are agreements for organised short time.†

\* The Cotton Control Board was a body containing at the beginning of 1918 a Chairman, 4 representatives of employers, 4 of trade unions, 3 of commercial interests, and 2 of the government.

† In the tailoring trade, which is subject to very considerable seasonal fluctuations, there are several instances of this kind, one of which is a general agreement as to the distribution of work in slack seasons. This agreement was entered into in 1892, between committees representing respectively the Master Tailors' Association of Great Britain and Ireland (now termed "the National Federation of Merchant Tailors") and the Amalgamated Operative Tailors' Association, and affects about 15,000 workpeople. The Tailors' Trade Union had passed a rule that "during slack seasons a fair equitable division of trade should be compulsory in all shops." And it was agreed that this rule was not meant to imply "the distribution of the work in turns: nor are the employers called upon to surrender the discretion they have always exercised in the selection, that work ought to be fairly shared during the slack seasons in harmony with the above, and we urge upon our members throughout the country to carry these principles into effect."

At a joint meeting of the Scotch Committee of the National Federation of Merchant Tailors and the Executive of the Scottish Operative Tailors' Society, held on September 17, 1903, the following arrangement was made, subject to the approval of the Branches of the operatives affected:—"That in quiet seasons they (the employers) use their own discretion, as at all other times, in giving work to such workpeople as they consider best capable of turning it out, but the principle of job about shall be recognised."

The agreements in the glass bottle trade provide for the arrangements to be made in times of depressed industry. In Lancashire, if workmen are ordered to cease work owing to a furnace being put out on account of depression of trade, the agreement provides that an additional furnace shall not be started within three months unless half wages are paid to these men for the time which they have lost through the stoppage; while, in Yorkshire, the agreement between employers and employed stipulates that, in the event of any furnace being out for repairs, slack trade, or stopped from any other cause, the workmen shall be allowed, as far as practicable, to share work, provided, nevertheless, that after a furnace has been out for four months, "the master can discharge the surplus workmen."

*Australia.*

It is reported from New South Wales that "Darg" (the fixed working day) is practised by coalminers; and that engineers have refused to work overtime, "in order to ensure wider distribution of work."

**France.**

Before the war it was customary in such industries as coalmining and textiles to shorten the working day rather than dismiss a number of the workers.

During the war this principle spread over many industries, and shortening of hours and stoppage of work for two or three days a week has become a frequent practice. After the Armistice, this system was recommended as applicable to all public and private war industries. The Ministry of Industrial Reconstruction issued a circular on November 25, 1918, reducing temporarily the hours of work in these establishments to five hours a day. This measure has led to the dismissals from munition work being less rapid and sudden than they would otherwise have been.

**Netherlands.**

There is no State regulation regarding hours which is for the purpose of preventing unemployment. In agreements, however, between employer and workers the regulation of hours is in some cases intended to lessen unemployment. For example, it is agreed in some trades that a worker shall not be dismissed because of lack of work before the working day has been reduced. Some agreements stipulate that a committee of employers and workers must decide whether the working day can be shortened in view of a trade depression. In the woman's clothing trade it is agreed that if a worker is dismissed in a slack period the employer shall pay a certain sum to him.

**Poland.**

The Decree of December 23, 1918, establishing an eight-hours' day, aims at regularising the fluctuation of industry, reducing the working day, and fixing conditions for overtime.

### **Serb-Croat-Slovene State.**

Agreements limiting overtime have been arrived at by the workers in the printing trades in Serbia, and in the metal and textile trades in Slovenia.

### **Switzerland.**

A Decree was issued by the Federal Council, August 5, 1918, regarding the payment of compensation to workpeople unemployed owing to economic conditions arising out of the war.

Where it is necessary to restrict the output of a factory the employer must, if possible, reduce the length of the working day, or in some way reorganise the work rather than discharge the workpeople. If the time lost by such reorganisation is more than 10 per cent. and less than 40 per cent. of normal working hours, the employer is to add 50 per cent. of the wages due for the time lost. If the time lost is more than 40 per cent., or if the factory is closed down, the worker is to receive in addition to his pay (if any) compensation for 50 per cent. of the time lost minus the original 10 per cent. deduction for which no compensation is made. The total wage shall not be less than 60 per cent. of the full wage, or if the worker is married and not in receipt of public relief, not less than 70 per cent. One-third of the cost of compensation is defrayed by the employer, one-third by the Canton, and one-third by the Federal Government.

### **Czecho-Slovakia.**

Overtime is regulated by law of December 19, 1918. The Minister of Social Welfare may approve of collective contracts between employers and workers regarding overtime in certain industries. (See "Eight Hours" Report.) Agreements concerning reduction of hours existed before the law of December 19, 1918, was passed.



## GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The replies of the Governments indicate as the chief results of regulating working hours with a view to lessening unemployment, that (1) more workers will be drawn in than can normally be employed in the industry, and (2) in times of bad trade the workers will share some hours of unemployment rather than that the whole unemployment in the industry should be borne by some who are dismissed.

The dangers in regulating hours with a view to restricting unemployment are generally recognised. Briefly they are indicated as follows:—(1) The prevention of overtime may cause the introduction into a trade, during a time of pressure, of workers who could not be normally dependent on the trade; and (2) the working of overtime by the already established workers, thus restricting the introduction of new labour, may prejudice the flexibility of an industry.

It is also pointed out that with regard to short time, the retention of workers on short time during a period of depression in a trade may (1) prevent their possibly fuller employment in some other occupation, and (2) cause them to suffer the evils of under-employment. It is generally recognised that under-employment of a great number and for a considerable time may cause industrial inefficiency and personal distress, which is more serious than the results of the unemployment of some while others are fully employed; but the balance of advantage as regards the two policies involved is difficult to estimate. It is agreed, therefore, that all regulation of hours in view of unemployment should have regard to the adequate maintenance of the workers. Apart from considerations of health or general policy as to the utility of leisure, the working of *overtime* should evidently be considered from the point of view of employment; and the belief that the reduction of hours would reduce unemployment was in some countries an important factor in securing legislation on this matter. It appears to be the opinion of the Governments, however, that changes from year to year and from season

to season are best organised by voluntary agreements between the parties directly concerned, and not by state action. Thus, state action in regard to overtime may be more directly concerned with the normal objections to overwork.

The evidence shows that in most countries the working of short time, with a view to steadying employment, is also regarded as a matter for agreement between the workers and employers directly concerned. It is regarded as a matter so intimately bound up with the organisation of industry that it is difficult for any general regulation to be varied sufficiently in regard to differences between industries. The practice varies in utility and effectiveness in the different industries. For example, in mining the practice is usual and has been successful; and in cotton spinning it is usual to work short time during a depression in trade.

The practice of short time to avoid dismissals would appear to be possible in nearly all industries, and in most industrial countries it is so used, although on a limited scale and usually only when the depression of trade is acute. For example, in the severe depression which, as we have seen above (p. 12, note), occurred in 1908, short time was worked in the United States in engineering, meat packing, and all the major industries; during September, 1908, short time was worked in the United Kingdom in engineering and metal trades, and in the linen, jute, hosiery, silk, carpet, dyeing, leather, printing, glass, pottery, brick and tile, boot and hat trades. In Belgium, during 1908, there was short time in textiles, glass-making and mines; in France, during the autumn of 1908, short time was worked in the cotton and silk trade; and in Germany, in the textile and engineering trades.

It is therefore generally agreed that overtime should be regulated and short time organised in view of unemployment, but the subject does not appear to be one for legislation; and in any case it is outside the sphere of direct international action.

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## ALLOCATION OF PUBLIC CONTRACTS.

The allocation of public contracts with regard to unemployment may perform two entirely different functions.

(a) It may act as a measure of relief in times of actual distress :

(b) It may act as a preventive measure before unemployment in a particular area becomes acute.

The allocation of public contracts for the prevention of unemployment is based on the close study of periodic fluctuations of employment, either of a cyclical or of a seasonal character. In times of prosperity when there is a large private demand for labour, public contracts are as far as possible withheld ; but when the demand for labour tends to fall, the public authorities place their contracts on the market. It is estimated that the judicious release of public contracts in such times as these would have a tonic effect upon the whole labour market, and that the tendency to unemployment would be considerably lessened.

There is at present no example of this scheme working in its entirety, although several countries have made tentative efforts in this direction. One modification of the scheme is working with considerable success both in the United States and in Canada. It is the application of the scheme to seasonal fluctuations. Certain states and municipalities in the two countries reserve the carrying out of public works (road construction, drainage, building, &c.) as far as possible for the winter months when there are large numbers of lumberers, harvesters and general field-workers out of employment. These men, as soon as their summer occupation is over, are employed on public works until the spring comes, when they can resume their previous occupations. This dovetailing of occupations can, of course, only be applied to seasonal trades.

## SUMMARY OF MEASURES REGARDING THE ALLOCATION OF PUBLIC CONTRACTS IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

### United States of America.

*Idaho.*—The Act of March 1, 1915, respecting prevention of unemployment through public work, recognises to a certain degree "the right to work." Citizens, subject to residential and monetary qualifications, are entitled to 60 days emergency employment in road mending or some other public work.

*Pennsylvania.*—An Act passed in 1917 created an Emergency Public Works Fund and established an Emergency Public Works Commission. The legislature voted a small appropriation to serve as a nucleus for larger sums to be devoted to public works in bad times, and by a recent amendment the legislature is empowered to borrow 50 million dollars for construction of roads. Consequently, Pennsylvania is now in a position to undertake larger enterprises and thus lessen unemployment.

Bills similar to the Pennsylvanian Law are being prepared for introduction into the legislatures of several other States.

### Belgium.

An investigation made, in view of the discussion of the allocation of public contracts at the meetings of the International Association on Unemployment, showed that the method was not developed; but that it was customary to place contracts with small contractors in localities where unemployment existed. This was practised with success in the province of Liège. A commission on the development of uncultivated land was established by the decree of September 5, 1912, and this may lead to allocation of work in slack times.

### British Empire.

#### *United Kingdom.*

The Ministry of Labour keeps in touch with the Supply Departments of the Central Government with a view to their allocating contracts so far as possible to firms in

areas where serious unemployment exists, and a list of these areas with statistical details is supplied to those departments. So far as local authorities are concerned, little is done with regard to the direction of contracts to particular areas. In periods of considerable unemployment, however, the Ministry of Health, until lately the Local Government Board, (the Department immediately concerned) urges local authorities to carry out necessary works.\*

#### *Canada.*

The Employment Service Council directs that public contracts should be allocated in slack periods. Apart from special measures taken in view of the after-war situation, some cities have been accustomed to allocate contracts seasonally. *e.g.*, Winnipeg, Galt, Peterborough, St. Thomas, Stratford and Windsor build sewers in winter months.

#### *France.*

The idea of a better time distribution of public contracts was officially adopted in 1902. The Minister of Public Works advised industrial firms to distribute their contracts with regard to periodic depressions, both in their own and in the national interests. At the same time the Ministry advised the railway authorities to follow closely the monthly traffic fluctuations as well as commercial, industrial and agricultural phenomena in order to foresee and cope with periods of traffic congestion. In 1907, an enquiry into the effect of crises upon railways was made by the Ministry of Public Works and it was reported that it was feasible for the railways to distribute their orders over the full period of a trade cycle so as to increase the volume of orders in slack years. This plan would steady

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\* The Port of London Act, 1907, contains a clause requiring the Port Authority to take steps with regard to its employment of casual labour in order to avoid the evils of under-employment. There is also a provision in the Development and Roads Improvement Funds Act, 1910, which requires that in sanctioning or proceeding with schemes of work under the Act, regard shall be had to the state of the labour market.

employment in an important industry, and railways would find it cheaper to build in years of depression. The Minister in May, 1907, invited the railways to submit a definite programme for the purchase of rolling stock over the years 1907-10.

In March, 1908, a commission set up by Presidential decree reported on the possibility of allocation of public contracts so that they would compensate in some degree for the lack of private contracts in times of depression. The commission reported that the following financial reforms would to some extent remedy the evil: more flexible use of funds placed by public and private associations at the disposal of the State; authorisation to carry forward to the next financial year the budget vote for new works; creation of special reserve funds; eventual creation of a general reserve fund.

On the recommendation of the same commission, a permanent committee was set up in 1911, for the study of unemployment by reference to eight trade indices (the bank rate, bank reserves, general prices, foreign trade, etc.)

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## MIGRATION OF WORKERS.

The following considerations are put forward in various replies :—

Immigration is regulated by law or administrative order in most countries; but it can hardly be said that this has been done in the past with a view to the prevention of unemployment. The danger of epidemic disease, the difficulties due to uneducated, incompetent or mentally undeveloped aliens may all be adequate grounds for restricting immigration, quite apart from the possible danger of unemployment; and although some consideration has been given to the needs for labour in the country when the central Government or any State has limited or promoted immigration, so many other considerations have

entered in, that the action taken cannot be adequately treated under the head of the prevention of unemployment.

The opinions expressed by the certain Governments on the subject of migration are as follows :—

### **United States of America.**

“ While theoretically immigration could be checked if no work for the immigrant was in sight, yet practically it has not been effective.” In regard to international action “ exchange of statistics concerning the state of employment and general market conditions are of value as part of a comprehensive immigration policy. International co-operation is also suggested in the matter of prohibiting fraudulent statements as to employment conditions in the United States on the part of steamship companies.”

### **Belgium.**

“ In proportion as the market for products includes a greater number of nations, the labour market also becomes international. The recruitment of labour crosses national boundaries ; and thus arises the great problem of migration, which is most certainly of an international character.”

### **British Empire.**

*United Kingdom.*—“ The British Government doubt whether it would be possible, in their case at any rate, to limit or prevent unemployment by modifying the distribution of workpeople through international action. British workers are usually loth to seek work abroad unless they decide to emigrate, and it does not seem probable that any such shortage of labour will occur in the United Kingdom as to render the expedient of importing foreign workers in large numbers acceptable.”

### **France.**

“ The labour markets of different countries are no longer, in our time, independent. A world system of economic life is being super-imposed more and more on the national

system. As a result of this evolution, which nothing can hinder, a considerable number of workers every year, either temporarily or for permanent residence, pass from countries of emigration into countries of immigration, and therefore influence in the latter countries the existing relations between the supply and the demand for labour. This fact results then in certain rights; countries of emigration have the right of knowing the particulars in regard to openings for their nationals in foreign countries and, on the other hand, countries of immigration have the right to ask foreign countries to make the state of their labour market as healthy as possible before it begins to affect neighbouring markets. . . . Hence the suggestion here offered to compel, if not all countries participating in the international Labour Conference, at least the principal countries whose labour markets are connected, to create a system of public employment offices within each such country. . . . The International Convention would be limited to making the central authority responsible for the creation and successful operation of the system. . . . In order that there may be an international connection established between the different national systems, not only with regard to statistics, but above all with regard to effective operation, it seems that one might expect the creation within the International Labour Office of a special section dealing with migration" . . . "The task which, according to our opinion, should be confided to this new organisation would be twofold; first, the section should function as a central international service for the placing of workers . . . . The section would play the part among the national systems that the central offices of these systems play in regard to regional or local offices. . . . Secondly, the section should be charged with controlling, in conformity with the constitution of the International Labour Organisation, the supervision of migratory workers. . . . In order to conciliate national susceptibilities it is proposed to confide to the League of Nations, acting through the section on migrations, the guardianship and supervision of the migration of workers."



### Denmark.

In regard to international action—"One is inclined to the opinion that an interchange between countries of workers of certain trades might be, in certain circumstances, a useful remedy against unemployment, on condition that the interchange is made under the control of public authorities and trade unions."

### Netherlands.

In regard to international action—"The measures contributing to the best possible distribution of work are (a) the organisation, as completely as possible, of a system of international employment offices, providing connections between the central employment offices of the different countries; (b) facilitating the international movement of workers by giving complete information on the conditions of labour in other countries, paying the expense of voyages and making arrangements for the accompanying of workers who go to work outside their own country, especially in contiguous countries; (c) allowing free passage to workers and providing equal treatment for workers 'on the road' and other travellers, in so far as restrictions of immigration are not necessary for hygienic reasons or for the protection of workers against the dishonesty of persons interested in emigration."

### Norway.

In regard to international action—"Action can be taken above all by well developed systems of public employment offices co-operating internationally."

### Sweden.

In regard to international action—"A necessary knowledge of the situation of the labour market in the different countries might hereby be spread in an authoritative way to the public, and workmen be warned from going to countries where unemployment is prevailing."

## EXTENT OF MIGRATION.

Before the war the number of emigrants from Europe to countries outside Europe tended to increase, but there were certain years in which the number suddenly decreased. For the principal countries for which information is available the numbers are shown in Table III (p. 71), and the fluctuations are shown in Chart V. The chart also shows the total number of alien immigrants admitted into the United States of America in the same period. The fluctuations shown on the chart are undoubtedly due in part to the fluctuations in world-trade and, therefore, in employment. The greater part of those leaving Europe in the years immediately preceding the war came from Austria-Hungary, Russia and Italy, and the majority of these went to North America. There was, however, a large emigration from Southern Europe to South America.

Records of immigration exist outside Europe, especially in the United States. The number of immigrants from Europe rose from 619,068 in 1902 to 1,199,566 in 1907, and suddenly dropped to 691,901 in 1908, owing to the crisis which, as already pointed out, is reflected in the unemployment statistics.\* The decrease in numbers in 1908 was due partly to the general knowledge of the economic situation and partly to the fact that workers in the United States, owing to unemployment, were not able to send prepaid tickets to their friends in Europe. About 50 per cent. of European emigrants used to travel on tickets paid for by relatives and friends who had already emigrated. The immigrants into the United States from Europe had again increased in 1912 to 718,875, of whom 178,882 came from Austria-Hungary and 157,134 from Italy.

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\* See page 12 note.

TABLE III.—EMIGRATION FROM CERTAIN EUROPEAN TO  
NON-EUROPEAN COUNTRIES (FIGURES TO THE NEAREST  
THOUSAND).

Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.	Year.	Number.
1885 ...	505,000	1894 ...	406,000	1903 ...	902,000
1886 ...	560,000	1895 ...	620,000	1904 ...	799,000
1887 ...	710,000	1896 ...	638,000	1905 ...	1,163,000
1888 ...	800,000	1897 ...	447,000	1906 ...	1,322,000
1889 ...	707,000	1898 ...	424,000	1907 ...	1,368,000
1890 ...	624,000	1899 ...	464,000	1908 ...	702,000
1891 ...	752,000	1900 ...	460,000	1909 ...	1,095,000
1892 ...	653,000	1901 ...	667,000	1910 ...	1,286,000
1893 ...	681,000	1902 ...	797,000	1911 ...	976,000
				1912 ...	1,449,000

*Note to Table III.*—The countries of emigration included in the above table are :—

Austria-Hungary.	Portugal.
Denmark.	Spain.
Germany.	Sweden.
Italy.	Switzerland.
Norway.	United Kingdom.
Netherlands.	

For Scandinavia and Holland, however, the total number of emigrants is included as the majority of these went to non-European countries and it is not possible to say exactly how many did not. For Austria-Hungary, the total number of emigrants is included up to 1892, emigrants to the United Kingdom are included since 1899, and those through French Ports are excluded in 1900 and 1901. For Switzerland, the total number of emigrants is included up to 1892. For the United Kingdom, the "balance outwards," i.e., excess of inward passengers over outward passengers, is taken. The figures given in the above table must be taken as approximate only.

### CLASSIFICATION.

Two chief kinds of emigration can be distinguished—(1) seasonal and (2) permanent or quasi-permanent emigration, when the workers reside abroad for a few years without giving up their home in their native land.

*Seasonal emigration* occurs in Europe chiefly for the harvests. Before the war Germany depended on seasonal emigration from Poland for the harvests. One of the most striking phenomena in regard to seasonal emigration is the movement from Italy to Argentine and back which used to take place before the war.\*

*Permanent emigration* takes place from Europe generally to new countries, but there are some workers who go only to a neighbouring country and establish themselves there. In some cases of what is called quasi-permanent emigration the emigrant does not take his family with him.

### REGULATION OF MIGRATION.

The regulations hitherto in existence may be summarised first as regards emigration and next as regards immigration. Action has been taken by several states acting separately, but instances occur of (1) uniform action, as in the case when emigration to certain States of Brazil was forbidden by Italy, Spain, Hungary and Germany, and diplomatic pressure was used by several states in order to close the Brazilian Office for emigrants in Europe, the office being therefore closed on November 30, 1910.† Instances also occur of (2) special conventions as regards emigrants, entered into by the two States chiefly concerned, as for example, the French-Italian treaty of 1904, in which one clause makes specific reference to unemployment insurance. The following is a summary of the information furnished in the replies from various countries as regards the supervision of the migration of workers :—

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\* See p. 30 note.

† Spain restored Brazil to the same position as other countries as regards emigration by a decree dated 5.1.12.

(a) *Measures dealing with Emigration.***Belgium.**

A bureau was established in 1888 under the Ministry of External Affairs.

Emigration is only important in regard to the "Franschmans," agricultural workers who enter France every year to the number of about 40,000. Some industrial workers work in France and sleep in Belgium. There are no special regulations.

**Italy.**

Italy was the first country to have an organic law regulating emigration. The Commissariat General of Emigration was established by the Law of January 31, 1901. There is a Council of Emigration on which labour organisations are represented. Inspectors of emigration exist in Italy and there are also Italian inspectors in foreign countries. The law forbids the recruiting of labour in Italy without a special licence from the Commissariat: labourers recruited in Italy before going out of the country must have a contract in a prescribed form.

This and subsequent laws provide for the regulation of emigration agencies, for the supply of information, for medical service on emigrant ships, for legal protection of emigrants, and for regulation of the emigration of persons under age.

**Spain.**

An Act dated November 21, 1907, regulates collective emigration, and established a Central Emigration Office with a Central Council of Emigration. Emigration Committees are set up in the ports. A Decree of June 21, 1911, places the administration in the hands of the Ministry of Public Works. On the Central Council of 33, there are four representatives of the workers; and shipowners are also represented.

A Decree in 1910 prohibited emigration to Brazil by gratuitous ticket, on account of conditions prevailing there; but in 1912 Brazil was again placed in the same position as other countries as regards emigration.

*(b) Measures dealing with Immigration.***United States of America.**

Immigration into the United States is regulated under the Contracted Labor Law, 1885, the Immigration Laws of 1891, 1903, 1907 and 1917, and the Chinese Exclusion Act, 1882, which was extended to cover Hindoos, by agreement with Great Britain.

An Immigration Bureau has strictly regulated entry into the States since 1885, the principal restrictions being that no person may enter if in possession of less than 25 dollars; if unable to write any language; or if likely to become a public charge. Further, if within three years after landing the immigrant becomes dependent on public funds he may be deported at the charge of the shipping company on whose boat he arrived or at the charge of a special fund. Between June 30, 1910, and June 30, 1911, the number deported for all causes was 20,000; the number admitted in that year was 878,587.

The Act of February 20, 1907, established a Division of Information under the Bureau of Immigration "to promote a beneficial distribution of aliens."

**Argentine.**

Decrees prohibit the entry of dangerous or incapable persons.

**British Empire.**

*United Kingdom.*—There are Alien Acts of 1905 and of the war period; but these Acts, although restricting immigration have little bearing on unemployment. In regard to the entry of aliens for the purpose of taking up employment in the United Kingdom, an inter-departmental committee issued permits for aliens to enter the United Kingdom during the war under the Aliens Restriction Order, Article 22 B. This committee had regard to the possibility that such aliens might take over the business vacated by British subjects absent on war service; and its operation was continued after the Armistice, during a

time when unemployment was very extensive. The entry of aliens was then definitely prevented in any case in which it was thought that labour of the same kind could be supplied in the United Kingdom itself.

*Canada.*—An Act dated April 4, 1910 (in part amended 1919) prohibits the immigration of certain classes, and gives authority to the Governor-General in Council to prohibit or limit in number for a period or permanently the landing of immigrants of any class or race deemed unsuitable. This Act has been frequently used, as for example, "in view of the labour market in British Columbia" an order was issued that on and after May 15, 1918, no artisans or skilled or unskilled labourers might land in British Columbia.

The Alien Labour Act makes it unlawful for "contract labour" to enter. Permits are granted through the Immigration Department after consultation with the Department of Labour. An Order in Council dated June 3, 1908, requires certain Asiatics to have at least 200 dollars in their possession on entering Canada. A Chinese head-tax limits the entry of Chinese. In British Columbia immigrants are required to pass an education test, a knowledge of English or some European language being required.

*Australia.*—The Commonwealth Immigration Act, 1901–1912, prohibits the immigration of certain classes of persons and gives the Governor-General power to make further regulations.

*South Africa.*—An Act, on similar lines to the Natal Immigration Act, 1903, was passed on June 14, 1914. This Act excludes any persons who cannot write a European language. There are special restrictions in some of the Provinces of the Union.

*New Zealand.*—An Act, No. 78 of 1908, regulates immigration.

Immigration is also regulated in the Bahama Islands, Newfoundland, Barbadoes, Fiji Islands, British Africa, the Straits Settlement and Jamaica.

### Denmark.

Laws of August 21, 1908 and April, 1912, guarantee the status of foreign workers. Cartes de légitimation are instituted, and there is an obligation on employers to furnish information on conditions, &c.

### France.

The introduction of foreign labour into France is almost entirely in the control of a department of the Ministry of Labour, and a department under the Minister of Agriculture deals with agricultural workers. Both of these have local offices, in addition to the central offices in Paris, in order to keep an effective control over the placing of foreign labourers, due regard being had to the importance of seeing that the standard of living and the pay obtained by them should be equal to that of French workers, and also to the prior claim of Frenchmen to employment.

The only measures regulating the employment of foreign labour are the Act of 1893—requiring foreigners to register and pay a small registration fee ; and the Decree of 1899—permitting the limitation, where necessary, of the percentage of foreigners who may be employed by an employer working for the Government, and obliging contractors to pay to such aliens as are employed, the same rate of wages as those paid to French workers.

### Portugal.

A Decree dated July 17, 1909, regulates immigration from Angola, Mozambique, Cape Verde, the Indies and China, to St. Thome and Principe. Immigration is to be through official agencies set up in the country of emigration, and is to be regulated according to the need for labour.

### Sweden.

There is in Sweden no legislative regulation of immigration. The usual influx of about 1,200 labourers from Galicia to the sugar-beet culture in Skane has been considerably hindered during the war. Sufficient native work-



people have been procured for this purpose through the employment offices and through the soldiers' harvest furloughs. By means of a more severe scrutiny of passports the authorities have been able to avoid an invasion of unemployed Germans, especially musicians.

### Czecho-Slovakia.

When necessary employment offices control the influx of foreign labour.

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It is also noted in some of the replies that emigration is assisted by official bureaux, organised by countries of immigration, operating within countries of emigration as, for example, the Bureaux of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa in London.

The recruitment of labour abroad has been practised on a large scale by employers in France and Germany before the war. Seasonal immigration was largely the result of private effort on the part of employers.

### GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The following general considerations have been summarised from the replies.

In regard to emigration as a world-problem, the movement of workers to permanent employment in new countries affects unemployment, but the problem of emigration is so vast and has so many other connections that it cannot be dealt with adequately as a problem of unemployment. The numbers emigrating from European to non-European countries in 1885 were 505,000; in 1890, 624,000; in 1895, 620,000; in 1900, 460,000; in 1905, 1,163,000; and in 1908, 702,000. The increase in numbers emigrating was probably connected with the increase of population and with the improved methods of communication of recent years. The war has changed the political situation in most countries of emigration and there may be, therefore, less pressure inducing the worker to emigrate. On the other hand,

food, material, credit and settled Government may be all deficient, and this may increase emigration. The transport facilities will also probably improve.

Whether smaller or greater in amount, the character of post-war emigration renders it important. Post-war epidemics may result from the movement of population. Unrest may follow in all countries. And yet the resources of the world cannot be developed without a rapid increase of workers in new countries. Emigration is thus seen to be an increasingly important problem, and one which needs consideration on an international scale.

The International Labour Office can itself, without further international action, assist in the solution of some of the difficulties in regard to the emigration of workers. It may collect and distribute to all countries *information* in regard to (1) the amount and character of emigration and immigration; (2) existing regulations, laws, &c.; (3) the activities of private agents, shipping companies, banking houses, &c. This information may be made available for the use of intending emigrants. Further, if through the action of the Labour Office any collaboration can be arranged between the employment offices in various countries, unemployment due to emigration would be less likely; and the direct treatment of emigration by international action would still remain possible in the future.

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## REVIEW OF METHODS TENDING TO PREVENT UNEMPLOYMENT.

It appears from the replies that up to the present all methods for preventing unemployment leave quite untouched the fundamental causes of the problem. The changes in markets, the organisation or disorganisation of supply, the ignorance of the situation on the part of those who control industrial policy have been indicated in the replies as the chief causes of unemployment; and these are not directly affected by the preventive measures described above.

It is clear, therefore, from the information furnished by the Governments, and it is the expressed opinion of some of the Governments that the real problem is *employment* and not unemployment. Thus the organisation of labour, as in the Liverpool Docks Scheme (see p. 36) or in the formation of the Labour Reserve in Amsterdam (see p. 44), as well as the provisions of the Belgian railway system (p. 34), and the dovetailing of occupations in the United States (p. 53) or Canada (p. 65) are all positive contributions to a solution of the problem. The better organisation of employment is the true preventive of unemployment; and, in fact, all methods of regulating the changes in the number of workers required, whether through employment offices, by means of the allocation of public contracts or, again, by supervising migration, are fundamentally methods of organising employment.

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### PROJECTED LEGISLATION.

It is indicated in the replies of the Governments that the following measures regarding the prevention of unemployment are under consideration:—

#### **Roumania.**

The Government will organise a free public system of employment offices.

#### **Serb-Croat-Slovene State.**

A law is under consideration dealing with unemployment in conjunction with employment offices.

#### **Czecho-Slovakia.**

Legislation is projected for the purpose of setting up employment offices in all the districts of the Republic. Central offices are to be established at Prague, Brno and Bratislava.

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## CHAPTER III.

### PROVISION AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT.

#### INTRODUCTION.

The third section of the information received from the Governments, which related to the provision against unemployment and included references to free donations and relief works, is summarised below.

In spite of all efforts to prevent unemployment, it appears to be regarded as certain that unemployment will occur. The unemployed worker may be one accustomed to regular work or one in a seasonal trade or a casual labourer—but to whatever class he belongs, it is agreed that, while no suitable work can be secured, he should be maintained in health and efficiency. If this is not done, distress follows; and some of the consequences of this distress are international in character.

The relief of distress due to unemployment is of a unique kind. It is indeed comparable with relief of distress due to disease or old age, but as unemployment is a phenomenon of industrial malorganisation, so the relief of the special kind of distress due to unemployment ought to be part of industrial organisation. What is most important, therefore, in considering assistance or the provision against unemployment, is not possible distress but its cause—unemployment.

The provision of employment offices, although, from one point of view, preventing unemployment by lessening the time unemployed is, from another point of view, in minimising the expense of seeking work, a measure of assistance. The State, public authority, or voluntary association supplies freely or at a small cost in the case of a voluntary association, an office which may be used by the unemployed person. This considerably lessens the burden of distress in unemployment. But the assistance afforded is slight, and

more direct measures are necessary for supporting the worker who cannot earn wages because no work is to be found. The general idea of all such assistance is that the worker should be maintained in health during periods of unemployment. The methods adopted in the various countries consist chiefly of insurance, donations and relief works, which are the subjects of the three following sections.

### I.—INSURANCE.

The information received from the Governments indicates that, with regard to insurance against unemployment, whether by public authorities or by voluntary associations, the situation is as follows:

#### United States of America.

*Unemployment Insurance by Trade Unions.*—Of the 111 national unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor in 1916, 69 reported paying benefits of any kind, and of these, 35 had established only one form of benefit. Nine unions reported that they had made expenditures for the support of their unemployed. The expenditures for beneficiary features of the 69 unions amounted to \$3,545,823 for the year 1916. Of this sum \$120,770, or about 3 per cent., was for the relief of the unemployed. There were three American national unions which in 1916 paid out-of-work benefits—cigar makers, the Deutsch-Amerikanischen Typographia, and the diamond workers. Emergency funds for the unemployed are provided by various trade unions and are put into operation during general business depression. Typical examples of emergency funds for the unemployed are those of the plate glass workers and the glass bottle blowers. An indirect form of unemployment benefit is the exemption of those who are out of work in the payment of dues and assessments. This rule is found in the blacksmiths, boilermakers, brewery workers, cigar makers, diamond workers, glass workers, granite cutters, hatters, iron moulders, leather workers on horse goods, lithographers, locomotive firemen, machinists, metal polishers,

united mine workers, pattern makers, photo-engravers, piano and organ workers, pulp, sulphite and paper mill operatives, stove mounters and the Western Federation of Miners.

In the cigar makers' system, it is provided that unemployed members who have paid dues for two years are entitled to a benefit beginning with the second week of unemployment, not exceeding \$54 per year. A member thrown out of employment on account of intoxication, disorderly conduct or bad workmanship is not entitled to any benefit for eight weeks, but inability to hold a job does not deprive a member of his benefit. A member must register for the receipt of benefit. The system of the Deutsch-Amerikanischen Typographia is like that of the cigar makers. The diamond workers' system provides that the out-of-work fund shall be maintained by assessments of 10 cents per week upon all employed members. Members are entitled to benefit if they have been unemployed for four weeks. The weekly benefit is \$7.50.

### Belgium.

Insurance against unemployment in Belgium rests on a system of trade union and provident society unemployment funds largely assisted by grants from ~~communal~~ communal unemployment funds. The system of grants from communal funds originated in Ghent in 1899. The "Ghent Scheme" was so successful in its operation that it was adopted with slight modifications throughout the country and in various other countries.

The trade unions have a special fund set aside from the general trade union subscriptions which, under certain conditions, affords relief to members who are involuntarily unemployed. In 1913, there were 634 such funds covering 126,278 members. In the same year, 414 unemployment funds paid out a total sum of 422,177 francs for 316,440 days of unemployment to 37,779 unemployed members. The rate of relief and rate of subscription vary considerably.

The general conditions for the receipt of this unemployment benefit are :—The recipient must have paid an un-

employment subscription, the amount of which is more or less arbitrary. Relief will not be paid until the recipient has been out of work for a certain number of days (usually 3 to 8). In the majority of funds, time-limits are laid down for the period when the benefit will be paid.

*Communal and Inter-communal Unemployment Funds.*—Grants are made from the communal and inter-communal unemployment funds in the form of additional benefit to unemployed members of trade unions affiliated to the communal fund, and to members of provident societies. Certain communes pay subsidies direct to the trade union funds instead of to individual members.

In 1913 there were 29 such funds and 101 communes affiliated to the funds. The amount of subsidies paid to trade union members was 176,023 francs; the amount of subsidies to members of provident societies 677 francs; and the amount paid direct to trade unions 14,130 francs.

*Provincial Subventions.*—The majority of the provinces grant subventions to the various communal, trade union, or other unemployment insurance funds in their areas.

*State Subventions.*—Since 1907, the State has voted a special grant to the unemployment insurance funds. The grant is made to communal unemployment funds, provident societies, and trade unions not affiliated to any fund but issuing unemployment benefit to their members.

### **Bolivia.**

The workers have established societies for mutual assistance in the chief cities.

### **British Empire.**

#### *United Kingdom.*

*Compulsory State Insurance.\*—Permanent Scheme.*—This was established by the National Insurance Act (Part II) 1911, amended by the Acts of 1914, 1915 and 1918. Workpeople over 16 years of age in the following trades are insured :—

Building, construction of works, shipbuilding, mechanical

\* The system described here has been modified by the temporary scheme of out-of-work donation which has been in operation since November, 1918. (See below, p. 100.)

engineering and ironfounding, construction of vehicles, and sawmilling (including machine woodwork) carried on in connection with an insured trade.

The number of workpeople insured under this Act at the end of 1914 was about 2,500,000.

*Temporary Scheme.*—This was established by the National Insurance (Part II) Munition Workers Act, 1916. This Act does not substantially differ from the permanent scheme save that its duration is limited to 3 years from the end of the war, and the workpeople covered are :—

Workpeople employed on munition work, and workpeople employed in the manufacture of (1) Ammunition, fireworks, explosives ; (2) chemicals, oils, soap, candles, &c. ; (3) metals and repair of metal goods ; (4) rubber and goods made therefrom ; (5) leather and leather goods (excluding boots and shoes) ; (6) bricks, cement and building materials ; (7) sawmilling and machine woodwork (other than under the Act of 1911). About 1,000,000 are insured under this Act.\*

*Contributions.*—Contributions under the State system are payable (by means of stamps fixed to the worker's unemployment book) by both employers and workers. The rate of contribution is 5d. per week in respect of adults, and 2d. per week in respect of juveniles under 18. Half of these amounts are deducted by the employer from the workmen's wages. The State contributes an additional sum, equal to one-third of the total contributions of employers and workmen, and the total amount so accumulated forms the Unemployment Fund.

*Benefit.*—The conditions for the receipt of benefit under the State system by any workmen (including women)† are :—

(1) That he proves that not less than ten contributions have been paid by him ;

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\* In addition 1,500,000 workpeople are insured by trade unions in trades not covered by the above Acts, and therefore unemployment insurance covers about 5,000,000 people.

† In the Acts referred to, the word "workman" is used to include women.



(2) that he has made application for unemployment benefit in the prescribed manner and proved that since the date of application he has been continuously unemployed ;

(3) that he is capable of work but unable to obtain suitable employment ;

(4) that he has not exhausted his right to unemployment benefit.

It is provided, however, that a workman shall not be deemed to have failed to fulfil the statutory conditions by reason only that he has declined :—

(a) an offer of employment in a situation vacant in consequence of a stoppage of work due to a trade dispute ;

(b) an offer of employment at a rate of wage lower, or on conditions less favourable than those which he habitually obtained, or than those generally observed in the district.

*Disqualifications.*—A workman is disqualified for unemployment benefit :—

(1) For the duration of a stoppage of work due to a trade dispute which was the cause of his leaving employment ;

(2) for six weeks after losing employment as a result of misconduct or voluntarily leaving employment without just cause ;

(3) whilst he is an inmate of any prison or any workhouse or other institution supported wholly or partly out of public funds, and whilst he is resident temporarily or permanently outside the United Kingdom ;

(4) while he is in receipt of any sickness or disablement benefit or disablement allowance under Part 1 of the National Insurance Act, 1911.

Benefit may be obtained by a workman either direct through an employment exchange, or through an association of workmen (recognised under section 105 of the Act of 1911) of which he is a member. In the latter case he draws benefit in accordance with the rules of the association, which thereafter reclaims from the State the amount of benefit due to him under the Act. The number of associations of workers (trade unions) admitted under section 105 is 92, the total membership being 736,107.

*Rates of Benefit under the State System* are as follows :—

Workpeople over 18, 7s. a week or 1s. 2d. a day ; workpeople between 17 and 18, 3s. 6d. a week or 7d. a day : workpeople under 17 are not entitled to benefit, though contributions in respect of them must be paid. Benefit is not paid for the first week of unemployment, and cannot be paid for more than 15 weeks in any insurance year, or for more than one week for every five full weekly contributions paid by the insured persons. These rates, however, have been virtually suspended under the scheme of Out-of-Work Donation (*see* p. 100).

The amount of benefit paid by the State under the Act of 1911 during the year 1913-14 was as follows :—Direct to workpeople, £369,904 ; through associations, £163,112 ; total, £533,016.

*Subvention to Trade Union Funds.*—Under section 106, part II, of the National Insurance Act, 1911, associations paying unemployment benefit to their members, *whether in insured trades or not*, may recover from the State under certain conditions a proportion not exceeding one-sixth (during the war reduced to one-twelfth) of the expenditure on unemployment benefit which is paid under their own rules. If the weekly rate of benefit paid by the association, including State benefit, exceeds 17s., the State grant is subject to a special reduction.

The total number of associations or unions recognised under section 106 (latest figures obtainable) is as follows :—\* men, 321 unions, with a membership of 900,000 ; women, 162 unions, with a membership of 280,000.

The payments made under section 106 during the last six years were as follows :—

1913-14	..	£15,100	1916-17	..	£13,700
1914-15	..	£114,600	1917-18	..	£18,300
1915-16	..	£50,700	1918-19	..	£7,600

*Voluntary Provision against Unemployment.*—The voluntary provision against unemployment by associations of workers has been in force for a considerable number of years, but has been considerably affected by the provisions of the National Insurance Acts. Under section 105

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\* Unions recognised also under section 105 not included.

of the Act of 1911, workpeople in insured trades who are members of associations of workers which pay unemployment benefit, may draw benefit, not from the State, but from their associations; and the association recovers from the State the amount which those members would have been entitled to draw from the State had they claimed to do so. The effect of this provision has been that, in several cases, associations which previously had made no voluntary provision for unemployment among their members, commenced to do so, in order to qualify for admission under this section. A further provision was inserted in the Act of 1911 for the encouragement of voluntary insurance, not only in insured trades but in all trades (*see preceding paragraph*).

The appended table gives the latest figures available for the principal groups of trades. Broadly the position is that 776 associations with a membership of approximately 2,400,000 provide for unemployment among their members. The membership of all trade unions at the same date was about 5,250,000.

**TRADE UNIONS MAKING VOLUNTARY PROVISION AGAINST  
UNEMPLOYMENT.**

	Males.		Females.	
	No. of Associations.	Membership.	No. of Associations.	Membership.
Workpeople in compulsorily insured trades (§ 105 and 106 of National Insurance Act) ... ..	92	736,107	2	157
Workpeople not in insured trades (§106 of National Insurance Act) ... ..	321	900,386	102	279,642
Other associations ... ..	223	401,522	36	30,569
Total ... ..	636	2,038,015	140	310,368

The general conditions under which benefits are paid by trade unions are that the recipients should be unemployed, capable of work and available for employment in their own trades. In the cotton trade, however, a number of unions do not provide a benefit for workpeople out of a situation, but merely make provision for members who have been temporarily suspended by the mill at which they are employed, owing to break-down, fire or other temporary causes.

The methods of furnishing evidence of unemployment of members and of ensuring that they are put in touch with any suitable opportunities for employment, vary with the customs of the various trades. The general practice is to insist on their unemployed members signing a "Vacant Book" at daily or other intervals. In the mining industry large numbers are sometimes thrown out of employment at one time, and consequently a system of roll calls has been established; while in the cotton industry, where commonly whole mills or departments are temporarily closed, the evidence of unemployment usually takes the form of certificates signed by either the employer or the "mill collector," an official of the association normally employed at the mill concerned.

#### *Canada.*

*Unemployment Insurance by Workers' Associations.*—During 1918, 12 international\* labour organisations with a combined membership of 250,767 and a Canadian membership of 9,507, paid \$91,172 in out-of-work benefits. The proportion of this amount paid in Canada cannot be determined. For the same period Canadian local branches of 26 international organisations, having a membership of 92,207 in the Dominion, paid \$6,448 in out-of-work benefit. In addition, two local branches of non-international bodies and one independent unit paid \$12,500 as out-of-work benefit.

The conditions of payment of unemployed benefits vary considerably, but among the international unions,

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\* International organisations referred to are those which cover the United States and Canada.

the general provision is that benefits are paid only to regularly contributing members of a certain number of years' standing. Some of the bodies that report payment of out-of-work benefits have no provision in their constitution for such expenditure, and it may be assumed that strikes and lock-out benefits are sometimes reported as out-of-work benefits.

### *Australia.*

*New South Wales.*—Associations of workmen make provision for unemployment insurance. In 1918, 34 associations, with an aggregate membership of 59,329, paid £41,651 in unemployment benefit.

*Queensland.*—Certain trade unions provide unemployment benefits.

*Victoria.*—Members of the following trade unions are paid small sums ranging from 5s. to £1 per week when unemployed:—Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, Typographical Society, Bread Bakers' Society.

### **Denmark.**

Acts dated April 9, 1907, and April 8, 1914, provided for subventions by the State and by communal authorities to recognised unemployment funds. Memberships of unemployment funds may be limited to workers in one locality, or in one or more trades, the latter being the more usual form of organisation. Membership of a trade union ordinarily involves membership of a recognised unemployment fund. It was estimated in 1912 that 111,187 persons were insured against the risk of unemployment. The total membership of recognised unemployment funds (55 in number) had increased by March, 1914, to 131,113.

*Contributions.*—Recognised unemployment funds are entitled to a State subsidy to the extent of one-third of the total premiums, but in no case amounting to more than 250,000 kronen for any one fund. The Acts also fix the contribution which may be voted by the Commune at half that of the State, or one-sixth the total premiums of the fund. The total amount received in grants from the public authorities may in no case exceed 100 per cent. of the contributions of the members.

The percentage of the subventions to the total premiums of the fund, taking an average for the years 1907 to 12 are as follows:—

	Per cent.	Per cent.
Contributions of members		53.8
Subventions—		
State .. .. .	31.9	
Municipal .. ..	14.3	46.2
Total .. .. .		100

*Benefit.*—No member is entitled to receive benefit until he has contributed regularly to the fund for one year. No relief is granted in respect of unemployment due to a strike or a lock-out, or to infirmity or illness; or to any member leaving his work for insufficient reason, or undergoing imprisonment or receiving poor law relief, or serving on military service, or refusing suitable work offered him.

Benefit may be granted in the form of assistance in paying rent, in travelling benefit, or benefit in kind, or in daily allowances. The kind and amount of benefit to be accorded is left to the governing body of each fund, except in so far as it is laid down (1) that the daily allowance shall be at least 50 ore a day, and not more than 2 kr.; (2) that it shall not exceed two-thirds of the average wage in the trade and locality of the member; (3) that benefit shall be paid for at least 70 days in a year; and (4) that a member having received the maximum benefit for three successive years, shall be suspended from receiving further benefit for one year during which he shall pay the full contribution. No benefit is accorded for the first six days (in seasonal trades at certain seasons, 15 days) of unemployment, except with the consent of the Minister of the Interior.

The total amount of benefit paid for the year ending March, 1914, was £108,327. The amount of subsidies granted (in respect of year ending March, 1913) was: State, £49,508; Communal, £22,974; total, £72,482.

*Central Assembly.*—The supervision of recognised unemployment funds is entrusted to an inspector of unemployment. A central assembly to which every unemployment fund sends one delegate, chosen by the governing body of the fund from among the members, for every 1,000 members, meets annually, under the presidency of the inspector of unemployment, to discuss the operation of the funds and co-operation between them, and to elect the members of an unemployment insurance committee or jury, which issues rules for the co-operation of the funds.

The autonomy of the various funds is, however, maintained as far as is compatible with the provisions of the law and efficient organisation.

### France.

*Unemployment Insurance by Trade Unions.*—Unemployment insurance by private organisations had not been undertaken before the war on any considerable scale except by trade unions. In 1915 there were about 135 trade union unemployment insurance funds, those of most importance being five organised by trade union federations (three in the printing and publishing trades, two in the metal industry), with a total membership in 1913 of 18,000.

*State Subvention to Unemployment Insurance Funds.*—A Decree dated September 9, 1905 (amended in 1906, 1908 and 1912) provides for the granting to unemployment insurance funds of subsidies not exceeding 20 per cent. of the relief granted by them (30 per cent. for societies comprising more than 1,000 members and operating in three departments), the grant being calculated on the basis of benefit not exceeding two francs per day for not more than 60 days in any one year. A yearly credit of 110,000 francs is voted for this purpose.

#### *Operations of the Decree in 1913.*

Number of funds subsidised ..	117
Aggregate membership ..	50,815
Expenditure of funds on unemployment benefit ..	233,482 francs
Amount of State subvention ..	55,445 „

*Subvention by Departments and Municipalities.*—In addition to State subsidies, grants to unemployment insurance funds were voted in 1911 by 12 departments and 51 municipalities, amounting altogether to 130,973 francs, the amount actually allotted in subsidies being 96,834 francs.

The activities of unemployment insurance funds in France have decreased during the war, largely owing to the establishment of unemployment relief funds (see under Donations). The State subsidies granted in 1915 amounted only to 30,022 francs, as compared with 55,445 francs, in 1913.

### Italy.

In 1914, 45 associations, with a total membership of 35,000, paid unemployment benefit. In general, benefits are paid after a waiting period of three to eight days, and are limited to a maximum period of 90 to 120 or 180 days.

### Japan.

There are now 397 Friendly Societies, with a total membership of 216,873, which include in their activities insurance against unemployment.

### Netherlands.

*Voluntary Insurance by Workers' Organisations.*—About 95 associations, comprising 240,000 members, grant unemployment benefit to their members who ordinarily have paid the contributions. Payment is made for a maximum period of 24 to 91 days after a "waiting period" of 2 to 6 days.

The Unemployment Decree of 1917 provides for the subsidising of unemployment funds, half the amount of the subsidy being paid by the Commune and half by the State. The amount of the subsidy is fixed in relation to the amount of contributions paid by members, and may not ordinarily exceed 100 per cent. thereof.



### Norway.

An Act dated June 1906 (amended 1908) provides for the reimbursement by the State of one-third of the benefits paid by recognised unemployment funds, and fixes the maximum amount of benefit to be paid to any member in a year at 90 days relief at a rate not exceeding half the average wage in his trade. Since 1885 several workers' associations have organised voluntary funds to insure their members against unemployment: these associations now number 29, with a total membership of about 90,000.

### Roumania.

Trade Unions provide unemployment benefits. There are twelve societies for mutual assistance, of which ten contain 5,104 members.

### Serb-Croat-Slovene State.

Trade Unions with a membership of about 80,000 pay benefits of 2 or 3 francs a day. Subventions to Trade Unions have recently been introduced.

### Spain.

A Royal Decree of March 19, 1919, grants an annual State subsidy to workmen's benefit societies which exist for the sole purpose of insurance against involuntary unemployment, and to other such societies which have a distinct fund for unemployment and submit to regulations which are to be issued. The amount of the grant is to be equal to the subscriptions collected from their members. Societies claiming the State contribution must not pay unemployment benefits exceeding 60 per cent. of the daily wage, nor must such benefit be paid for more than 90 days in each year. The societies must also guarantee that the State subsidy will not be used to accumulate strike funds.

All mutual societies, either employers', workmen's or mixed, which are merely for insurance against unemployment, or which include other methods of provision, receive a Government subsidy. This subsidy is also granted to other social institutions which insure against unemployment.

### Switzerland.

*Federal Subsidy to Unemployment Insurance Funds.*—By a decree, dated March 24, 1917, an additional tax on war profits is to be levied equal to 20 per cent. of that already payable under the decree of September 18, 1916. The proceeds of this tax, together with 3 million francs of the proceeds of the war profits tax in 1915, are to be devoted to the formation of a Federal Unemployment Fund. The fund is to be used to subsidise efforts made by cantons, communes, or public utility enterprises for the purpose of relieving unemployment and distress.

The fund subsidises unemployment insurance funds to one-third of the extent of their expenditure on unemployment benefit in 1917 and 1918. In 1915 and 1916, the proportion was one-fourth. It is now proposed to bring forward legislation to make the co-operation of the Federal Government in unemployment insurance permanent.

(For further particulars with regard to the unemployment fund *see* under Donations).

### *Cantonal and Communal Unemployment Insurance Funds, or Subsidies to Unemployment Insurance Funds.*

*Basle Town.*—There is a cantonal unemployment fund, membership of which is voluntary. A yearly credit is voted to meet the expenses of the fund. Private unemployment funds are subsidised, the grant allowed being in two parts:—(a) A percentage (20 per cent. to 40 per cent.) on the contributions of members, to be devoted to the formation of a reserve fund; (b) a percentage (30 per cent. to 60 per cent.) on the benefit paid by the fund during the year, to be used as far as necessary to meet the expenditure of the fund. The rate of benefit allowed varies according to the member's earnings when in employment, and the number of his dependents, from 2.40–3.20 francs (rate fixed January, 1914). Benefit is paid to a member for not more than 70 days in any one year, 50 days being at the full rate, the remaining 20 at half rate of benefit.

*Berne Town.*—A municipal unemployment insurance fund was established in 1893, the membership of which was 500 in 1909. Certain classes of workers (*e.g.*, wood choppers, whose employment is very irregular) are excluded. The greater part of the members are unskilled workers, and the rate of contribution is low (2*d.* a week—1911).

An annual grant of about £480 is made by the municipality to meet the expenses of the fund, only about a quarter of which are met out of the contributions of members. Benefit is paid only in the months of December, January and February, and cannot be paid for more than 60 days in any year, or to a man who was not employed for six months in the previous year. The fund is under the control of a committee, on which the town council, the workers and the employed are represented in equal numbers. This committee also has charge of the employment offices.

The town of Zurich also has an unemployment insurance fund.

*Voluntary Organisations of Workers.*—There are twenty-seven associations of workers which insure their members against unemployment. Their total membership is about 140,000.

### Czecho-Slovakia.

*Workmen's Associations.*—Out of 50 workmen's associations, 45 assist their members in case of unemployment. The granting of benefit is in the hands of the committee, which also fixes the amount to be paid. Benefit is, in the majority of cases, only granted to members out of work through no fault of their own, and those who refuse work offered by an employment office lose their right to receive it. Unemployment benefit is granted for from 6 to 13 weeks in a year. The membership of the 45 associations in 1914 was 44,159.

*Other Associations.*—Private employment offices (either benevolent or for private gain) with State assistance issue unemployment benefit subject to statutory regulation.

*Subvention from Public Funds.*—The conditions of payment of subventions are laid down in the Budget in 1919. 160,000 crowns was set aside for this purpose.

## GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

It appears from the replies that the opinion is widely held that no system of insurance is desirable unless in conjunction with a system of publicly operated or co-ordinated employment offices. The reasons given may be summarised as follows:—The provision of relief or maintenance must be conditional. The chief condition should evidently be that no work can be found which is suitable for the applicant for assistance, and this condition can only be secured if there is an adequate system for registering the demand for workers. Again, unless there is an adequate system of employment offices, worked in conjunction with the organisation for distributing insurance or other funds there is no test of the genuineness of an application; the applicant may be “unemployable,” or he may not wish to work. Evidently, therefore, work must be offered if possible, and relief given only when work cannot be found. The purpose of unemployment insurance in all countries is the maintenance of the efficiency of genuine workers, and not the support of the diseased or the incompetent.

The chief distinctions between systems of insurance against unemployment, which appear from an examination of the replies, are (1) the contrast between voluntary and compulsory insurance and (2) the contrast between insurance by industries and insurance by the community as a whole. The distinctions are not in practice absolutely clear. Some systems appear to contain both the voluntary and the compulsory principles in different degrees, and it is sometimes difficult to say whether a particular system of insurance is based on industrial divisions.

*Voluntary Insurance.*—The most common system of public insurance is that by trade unions subsidised from State or communal funds. The best known example of this is the Ghent system. The principle involved is that if members of a trade union insure themselves, the public, either as a municipality, district or state, add to the fund out of which the worker draws maintenance when unemployed.

The advantages are that the trade union is used as the administrative machine, and since the officials are in close touch with the workers, there is usually less likelihood of fraud. Further, the rate of benefit can be more easily varied either in accordance with the trade or in accordance with the general fluctuations of industry and prices; and also the rate of contribution by the insured persons can be different in the different trades. On the other hand, the funds are not assisted by employers. It is pointed out in some of the replies that the maintenance of the reserve of labour is thus left to the members of the class from which the reserve itself is drawn, assisted by the public at large; but that the benefit of having this reserve accrues largely to the organisers or controllers of industry.

There are also schemes for voluntary insurance *provided* by public authorities without connection with trade unions or benefit societies. These schemes are for the benefit of those who do not belong to trade unions. Persons desiring to be insured under a "provided" scheme give in their names and become members of the system. But this attracts chiefly those who are most likely to be unemployed. There is little opportunity for ascertaining the genuineness of the unemployment of members, and therefore the provided schemes tend to become simply charitable relief for the lowest type of labour.

*Compulsory insurance* of all trades has been tried or proposed in St. Gall, Zurich and Basle. The British scheme under the Insurance Act of 1911, Part II, is compulsory; but it covers only seven trades, including about 2,500,000 workers. It was extended by the National Insurance (Munition Workers) Act, 1916, to cover about 1,000,000 more; and it is now in partial suspension, owing to the provisions made for unemployment during the period of transition after the war (*see below under Donations, p. 100*).

*Contrasts.*—In general it may be said that insurance against unemployment is conceived in most countries to be best organised upon a basis of distinction between the different industries or upon a local basis which allows of diversity of organisation in the different industries. It is

the usual practice to place the distribution of the benefits in the hands of the officials of organised labour; and in nearly every case the public purse adds to the funds available.

The *compulsory* system of unemployment insurance is regarded as desirable chiefly because under that system all workers can be included within the classes covered. Those who most need insurance are, therefore, not left unprovided for; although they may not belong to a trade union and may not desire to make provision for themselves.

The following questions, however, arise in regard to any compulsory scheme:—Can it be organised and administered on the basis of a distinction between industries? Can each industry be made to bear the cost of relieving its own unemployed? And to whose charge should be laid the cost of relieving those unemployed who are not members of trade unions, and may not be closely attached to any one industry? It cannot be said that the evidence at present available as to the practice in the several countries is enough to supply a solution of these problems. The systems of insurance are still in their infancy.

*Insurance as a means of preventing unemployment.*—A number of replies point out that unemployment means more socially than a mere risk for the worker, and that it is, in fact, in many of its forms a natural and inevitable result of the organisation of industry under the present system. A system of insurance against unemployment does accordingly secure the maintenance of a reserve of labour, and can be so devised as to be not only a provision against unemployment, but a means of preventing it.\*

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\* Thus, in the United Kingdom, although the contribution by the employer in respect of each person employed is 2½d. per week for every period of employment of one day or less 1d. is payable, and 2d. for every period of two days, i.e., at the rate of 6d. per week. By this means employers are induced to engage labour on a weekly basis as far as possible.

Another provision allows employers to hand over the custody and stamping of the workman's unemployment books to the labour exchange, in which case all the periods of employment of the same or different workmen engaged through the exchange may be treated as a single continuous period, i.e., an employer who uses the exchange may pay

There have been several recent instances of the acceptance of the principle that the maintenance of the reserve of labour should be a charge on the industry. In Switzerland a decree of August 5, 1918, established the principle that workpeople unemployed, or under-employed through prevailing economic conditions, should receive payment amounting to not less than 60 per cent. of the full wage, one-third of the compensation to be paid by the employer (*see p. 60 above*). In England the Cotton Control Board by the levy system raised a fund from employers which was used to maintain workers who were unemployed or under-employed: and in the Netherlands the principle of the maintenance of the labour reserve is applied in Amsterdam (*see p. 44*). It appears to be the opinion of some Governments that the same principle should be applied in regard to insurance against unemployment.

## II.—DONATIONS.

Many of the Governments indicate that money donations for unemployed persons have been instituted during the abnormal period following the Armistice. This, however, is not regarded by the Governments concerned as a normally desirable method of relieving distress due to unemployment; and, therefore, no principle of importance

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according to the amount of labour he has in fact used, even though it has not been continuous and though he has not always had the same man. Similarly, the men engaged pay at the rate of one contribution for each week of work however many separate engagements they had and the exchange sees that the men are employed as continuously as possible and with the same employer.

Another provision which aims at the diminution of seasonal unemployment is that any employer who has paid at least 45 contributions in one year in respect of any workman may claim a refund of 3s. per workman. In 1914, refunds were made in respect of over 30 per cent. of the workpeople insured. In addition, employers who keep their staff together during a period of depression by short-time working may apply for a refund of contributions.

Finally, every workman who has made 500 contributions and has reached the age of 60 becomes entitled to a refund of all contributions with interest thereon, less amounts paid in benefit. This provision is meant as an inducement to stay continuously in employment.

for the purpose of this report is involved in free donations. Particulars have, however, been given in the replies with regard to some of the systems applied. These are as follows :—

### British Empire.

#### *United Kingdom.*

In order to meet the general dislocation of industry and consequent unemployment at the termination of hostilities in November, 1918, and in view of the fact that the State scheme of unemployment insurance only applies to a limited number of trades, and further provides benefits which were obviously insufficient having regard to the increasing cost of living, it was necessary to make special emergency provision outside the ordinary scheme of unemployment insurance. Accordingly, a special scheme of "Out-of-Work Donation" on a non-contributory basis was brought into operation by the Government on November 25, 1918.

The scheme provides out-of-work pay for every civilian over the age of 16 years who could show by means of a Health Insurance record card (or otherwise in cases below 16 and over 70) that they had been employed at some time between July, 1912, and August 25, 1918, and for every discharged member of His Majesty's Forces. In addition, supplementary allowance were paid to applicants in respect of his or her dependent children.

The weekly rates of donation are as follows :—

			First 26 Weeks.	Subsequent Weeks.
Ex-members of H.M. Forces	...	...	29s. 0d.	20s. 0d.
			First 13 Weeks.	Subsequent Weeks.
Civilian men (over 18)	...	...	29s. 0d.	15s. 0d.
Women (over 18)	...	...	25s. 0d.	15s. 0d.
Boys (15-17)	...	...	14s. 6d.	10s. 0d.
Girls (15-17)	...	...	12s. 6d.	7s. 6d.



On May 24, the reduced rates shown in column 2 were paid to all applicants whether they had already drawn the full period of 26 weeks (or 13 weeks) or not.

Supplementary donation, 6s. per week for the first dependent child under 15 and 3s. per week for each additional dependent child under 15, is also paid. Generally speaking, the conditions for the payment of out-of-work donation are modelled on those contained in the Statutory Scheme of Insurance described above and the administrative procedure and machinery set up under the Unemployment Insurance Acts were adopted for the purpose of the scheme of out-of-work donation.

The out-of-work donation scheme is of a strictly temporary character. Apart from it and from the ordinary Poor Law Relief administered by Local Authorities, there is no public organisation for the relief of the unemployed.

The Insurance Acts described on pp. 83 etc., still remain in force and contributions are compulsorily payable by employers and workpeople in respect of "insured workpeople." The payment of benefit, however, is virtually suspended, as the rate of donation is much higher than the rate of benefit and workpeople can draw donation without exhausting their rights to Unemployment Insurance benefit.

### Denmark.

Special measures to deal with unemployment during the war period have taken the form of further development of the system of State subvention to unemployment funds described in the section dealing with insurance.

An Act dated October 27, 1917 (to operate until March 31, 1918) made provision for additional relief to members of recognised unemployment funds in the form of grants in aid of rent, and benefit in the case of partial unemployment amounting to at least one-third of the normal weekly working hours.

The provision included in the Act of April 8, 1914 (see p. 89), that benefit is not to be granted to any one who has not contributed to an unemployment fund for at least

a year, is temporarily suspended. The State contribution thus assumes somewhat the character of a donation.

### France.

The French Government established early in the war a system of unemployment relief. Each department or town with more than 5,000 inhabitants was asked to set up an Unemployment Relief Fund (Fond de Chômage) under the control of a Commission, representing employers and workers in equal numbers, and working in conjunction with the labour exchanges. A third of the relief granted was repaid to the Local Authority by the State.

As the manufacture of munitions of war increased, the need for the unemployment funds became less, but with the increasing difficulty of provisioning, relief again became necessary, and in 1918, April, a decree was issued to promote the creation of funds to provide against partial unemployment. A State subsidy amounting to one-third of the expenses was granted, and the employers were obliged to contribute at least another third. After the Armistice the Government grant was raised to 60 per cent., then to 75 per cent. of the expenditure (until November 15, 1919). In addition, a gratuity equal to one month's pay was granted to women on their discharge from Government factories, or factories engaged on Government work.

The principal unemployment fund was that at Paris, the most important industrial centre. In October, 1914, the unemployment fund of Paris was distributed to about 300,000 persons: but the numbers gradually decreased, and at the end of 1918 was less than 10,000. Since then the number of unemployed rose to 70,000 in March and April, 1919, and then decreased. The unemployment donation did not prevent the workers from seeking employment.

### Italy.

A scheme of out-of-work donation was introduced to cover the transitional period from war to peace until December 31, 1919. A decree of January 5, 1919, regulates the distribution of 98 million lire, following on decrees of

November 17, 1918, and April 29, 1917. The provisions apply only to workers previously regularly employed, thus excluding seasonal workers. Donation is granted only to those able and willing to work who are unemployed through a shortage of work. Applicants must register at an employment office, or similar institution. Payment is made through employment offices where they exist. The amount of the donation varies from 2 to 3 lire a day for a man and 1.50 to 2.50 lire for a woman, according to the population of the commune where the worker lives, and additional allowance is made for dependents (children under 12). The additional allowance is given for illegitimate children under certain conditions. Donation is distributed through (1) workers' unemployment benefit offices; (2) Communal and provincial unemployment insurance offices; (3) employment offices; (4) Communal Commissions for finding work; and (5) other organisations authorised by the Minister of Commerce.

### Poland.

The European war affected Poland's economic life perhaps in a higher degree than any other country, and the winter of 1918 saw a huge amount of unemployment. On December 18, 1918, the Government made a grant of 20 million marks to meet the first most urgent needs. The machinery to deal with the problem was set up by the Ministry of Labour. The country was divided into 16 districts, each with a deputy directly responsible to the Ministry of Labour for the administration of the relief funds. Special Unemployment Relief Committees were formed in all the industrial centres. These committees consisted of representatives of central and local authorities, and of employers and workmen in equal proportions. The committees acted under the direction and control of the district deputy. The central authority for unemployment relief was the Department for the Relief of Unemployment, attached to the Ministry of Labour.

There are three different standards of relief according to the size of the town in which the recipients live. Wherever possible relief is given in kind.

### Sweden.

A Royal Proclamation, dated Sept. 28, 1914, provides for a scheme of joint State and communal unemployment donation. Where an unemployed person has applied to the local Unemployment and Relief Committee, \* (or failing such a body direct to the Local Authority), and obtained a communal grant, the State will, subject to certain conditions, make an additional grant equal in amount to that made by the Local Authority, but in no case exceeding certain specified amounts. Assistance is granted on the conditions that the recipient attends a training course laid down by the committee, that he reports daily at the employment office and accepts work offered him there.

### Switzerland.

The unemployment fund (described on p. 94) which was established by a Decree dated March 27, 1917, in addition to providing subsidies to unemployment insurance societies, is used to subsidise undertakings by cantons, communes or public utility enterprises, for the purpose of relieving distress due to unemployment, or other causes.

*Relief Fund: Lace and Embroidery Industry.*—A relief fund was set up by a Federal Decree dated December 19, 1916, to help necessitous manual and other workers in the lace industry. Contribution to this fund was to be in the first place voluntary, but if the amount subscribed by employers in the industry did not amount to at least 700,000 francs by January 31, 1917, a contribution was to be levied from each employer, in proportion to the average amount of business done by him in the years 1913, 1914 and 1915.

### Czecho-Slovakia.

In Bohemia there are in each district night-shelters giving food and lodging for the night to those unemployed who are "on the road." They also act as employment offices (*see* p. 47). They are supported by the State and Local Authorities, each contributing 50 per cent. of expenses.

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\* Set up in pursuance of a Royal circular of August, 1914.

*General Considerations.*

It is pointed out in the replies of the Governments that the donations of which mention has been made are distinct in character from payment made out of industrial funds to which the workers have not contributed. The distinction turns on the fact that in the one case there is an express or implied right to payment from an industrial fund of which the worker is aware when he is still at work. In the case of the grant from the cotton levy, for example, or from the Swiss fund for workers under the 1918 Decree, the payment is rather a retaining wage than a free gift. Such instances have therefore been considered under the head of insurance and not under the head of donation.

The replies indicate that the examples of donation to which reference is made involve only transitional policy for the solution of an urgent difficulty. In most countries it was not possible to evolve during the war a system of insurance which would cover all workers. In some countries, such as Poland, the present State system did not exist, in others such as Switzerland, the situation during the war was too abnormal to be made the basis of permanent policy.

### III.—RELIEF WORKS.

Attention is called in the replies of some Governments to the fact that the older view of unemployment has led in the past to the institution of special work for unemployed persons. This may be held to be an enlarging of the demand for workers; but the replies point out that it should be distinguished from the policy of allocating public contracts. The essential quality of relief works is that the works would not be undertaken except for the relief of unemployment. The consequent promotion of work is now recognised to be dangerous in normal times, as the replies of several Governments indicate; but in special cases recourse is had to the promotion of public works in order to increase employment.

The following is a summary of the provisions mentioned by certain Governments:—

### **British Empire.**

*Australia, New South Wales.*—The State undertakes relief works to absorb local unemployed. The usual method is to expedite anticipated public works (railways, &c.).

*New Zealand.*—During periods of depression the Government has found it necessary to proceed with public works, and those unable to find employment at their own trade have been taken on at these works. Similarly with regard to seasonal unemployment, work is found between the seasons by the provision of public works either by the Government or local authorities.

### **Denmark.**

A law was passed by the Danish Legislature, February 6, 1918, granting State subsidies to Communes to assist them in paying interest on loans raised for carrying out large public works calculated to diminish unemployment. The subsidy is a half-yearly grant not exceeding  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. of original amount of the loan, payable during eight years. When the work consists of building houses for the poorer classes, the half-yearly grant may amount to  $1\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. of the original loan.

### **France.**

The relief of unemployment by public bodies before the war was entirely voluntary. The method most usually adopted was the opening of work yards, and granting of relief work during the winter, but this was not done to any great extent.

### **Italy.**

A Royal Decree was issued on September 9, 1914, dealing with the inrush of destitute Italian emigrant families from neighbouring countries. Relief was to be achieved by carrying out a series of public works. Works were to consist of bridges and roads, hydraulic works, maritime works, alluvial and reclamation works.

### **Netherlands.**

Government measures in relief of unemployment were instituted in September, 1914. They were war measures to cope with anticipated abnormal unemployment. Authorities were to continue public works already commenced and undertake the execution of new works—particularly those requiring a considerable amount of manual labour (*e.g.*, canal making, harbour improvements, railway work).

### **Poland.**

A scheme was designed in November, 1918, to employ 200,000 men in public works, but at present only 30,000 men are employed.

### **Serb-Croat-Slovene State.**

The State grants the sum of 1,000,000 *dinars* annually for the relief of distress due to unemployment. In Bosnia the organisation of relief is under the control of a committee representative of employers and employed, and a similar system is being adopted in Serbia. In Slovenia the Prefects have charge of relief.

### **Spain.**

During periods of acute unemployment, the Ministry of Agriculture and Industry provides employment in specified public works. Municipalities also absorb a certain number of unemployed workmen in public works and municipal services.

### **Switzerland.**

A circular was issued on March 7, 1918, by the Federal Department of Public Economy stating that a housing programme should be undertaken in places where housing difficulties have arisen. Main and side roads should be constructed and streams and rivers controlled. If these measures are not sufficient the Federal Council is prepared to undertake execution of large works, and will conditionally raise the rate of subvention. Cutting wood and digging peat is also recommended. In all cases of relief, wages must be fixed in such a way that they will provide for subsistence of workmen. Decrees of the Federal Council issued in 1919, allot Federal grants in conjunction with

cantonal grants for promoting works for the relief of unemployment. They include regulations as to the financing and control of these activities.

### **Czecho-Slovakia.**

During crises local and central authorities carry out public works at public cost.

### **GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.**

The replies of the Government indicate that the chief characteristics of the provision of relief works are as follows:—The schemes come into operation only when unemployment becomes abnormal, and so act as palliatives rather than preventives. All types of labour (skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled) tend to be grouped together as undifferentiated manual labour, and as much of this labour as possible is absorbed in the relief works. The schemes are generally worked at a loss. Workmen are not paid on their respective merits but at a flat rate sufficiently high to avert distress. Most of the measures referred to above, however, are not intended to be permanent and, therefore, they have little bearing on the normal problem of unemployment. It is, therefore, agreed by all the Governments which have referred to the subject at all, that relief works do not in normal times constitute a satisfactory method of maintaining the unemployed.

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### **REVIEW OF MEASURES TAKEN FOR PROVIDING AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT.**

It appears from the replies of the Governments that some form of insurance or other similar provision against unemployment is now established in all industrial countries, and the methods of insurance have been already discussed above. It remains only to contrast those methods with the provision of works or the free donation, which has been the practice of many States in periods of severe depression. No principle, however, appears to be



involved. All the Governments imply or assert that free donation and the provision of relief works are ephemeral measures not intended to be taken as permanent policy. The only question, therefore, is one of practical judgment, whether the circumstances are such as to warrant resource to these exceptional methods; and this would appear to be a matter for the several Governments acting separately.

In the only case in which State unemployment insurance has been developed on a large scale, it may be noted that something more is aimed at than the mere provision for the maintenance of unemployed workers. The method of contribution in the United Kingdom is so devised that the employer finds it more costly to employ casual than continuous labour.\*

The information furnished seems to point to the conclusion that some form of social insurance against the distress due to unemployment is a necessary part of the organisation of any industrial society. This, however, is effective only if established on a large scale covering a great part of the industrial population.

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### PROJECTED LEGISLATION.

It is indicated in the replies of the Governments that the following measures dealing with insurance are under consideration:—

#### British Empire.

*United Kingdom.*—The question of extending the system of insurance against unemployment is at present under the consideration of the British Government, but they are not at present able to communicate any proposals for legislation.

*Australia. New South Wales.*—No definite legislative proposals have been yet introduced, but the matter of unemployment insurance is now receiving the consideration of the Cabinet. *Queensland.*—The Government is now considering legislation to deal with unemployment; but the proposals are not yet sufficiently advanced to enable a Bill to be submitted.

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\* See note on page 98.

**France.**

A proposal for the improvement of the system of employment offices was adopted by the Senate March 22, 1917. The proposal is to make the Departmental employment offices a definite part of the State machinery. It is also proposed to make the provision of communal funds for the setting up of communal offices compulsory.

The Labour Commission of the Chamber of Deputies has submitted a measure that will suppress all private employment offices whether profit-making or gratuitous.

**Italy.**

A system of State insurance against unemployment is at present being considered.

**Poland.**

A Bill dealing with unemployment relief is at present being prepared. The purpose of the Bill is to obtain legal sanction for the Government's policy of giving immediate relief to the unemployed.

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## CHAPTER IV.

### INTERNATIONAL ACTION.

The Governments were asked to express an opinion as to whether it would be possible to reduce or prevent unemployment by international action. The majority have replied that no direct administrative action in regard to unemployment can be initiated by an international authority. It is generally agreed that, in the main, the prevention of unemployment and the provision against it are (1) duties of the several States acting separately, and (2) necessarily diverse problems in the several States. It is pointed out, however, that indirectly international action can be of great use in assisting to solve the problems of unemployment. All Governments agree, for example, that there should be more and better *information* in regard to the facts, and that such information should be collected and distributed on an *international scale*.

It is suggested in several of the communications of the Governments that the method of collecting statistics should be on an agreed international basis, and that further investigation may be necessary as to the best practicable method, whether by a periodical census of occupations or by special reports. Several of the replies indicate that the unification of the existing statistics is still to be achieved ; and that there is at present no adequate means of estimating the exact effect of the organisations set up in the several States for the prevention of unemployment.

It appears to be the opinion of many of the Governments that a Commission representing the chief industrial States might be appointed for the specific purpose of investigating and advising on the best method of collecting and publishing information as to unemployment.

Beyond the general agreement that information should be collected and distributed, there is no agreement among the communications of the Governments as to the possibility of international action. Some governments suggest that no further international action is possible. There are, however, suggestions from some governments that there might be international agreement to the effect that

the several States should promote the establishment or co-ordination of employment offices and systems of relief or insurance.

Employment offices exist in some form in most industrial States, and the replies in many cases suggest that the operations of all employment offices should be co-ordinated on a national scale; but some Governments suggest, further, that there should be some form of international co-ordination of the operations of national employment offices.

With regard to insurance against unemployment, the only international action which is suggested is that following on the provision made in the Franco-Italian Convention of 1904, Article I (e), which allows emigrant workers to be included under the unemployment insurance systems of the country into which they enter.

It is also suggested by some governments that the whole question of the migration of workers needs to be considered on an international scale; and it is thought by some Governments that, at least in regard to seasonal migration, there should be a close administrative connection between the employment offices in the States directly concerned, where there is no national legislation to prevent such a measure.

## CONCLUSIONS OF THE ORGANISING COMMITTEE.

In view of the information summarised in the above report and of the expressed opinions of the Governments, the Organising Committee have arrived at the following conclusions:

Information in regard to unemployment should be collected and distributed on an international scale, since the information at present available is not adequate.

Thus, in the above report, attention has been called (on p. 11) to the fact that the figures giving the percentage of unemployed in the trade unions of certain countries are not comparable. They cover in the different countries quite different classes of workers; and in no country are

the figures an adequate indication of the extent of the problem. Again, in regard to unemployment of a seasonal character, it has been found impossible to compare even the building trades of more than a few countries (see above p. 14). For other seasonal trades there appear to be no adequate figures for comparison between any two countries; and the consequence is that although various kinds of unemployment are recognised to be international in character, both because they appear in every industrial country and because they are due to international causes, nevertheless it is impossible to arrive at any exact and statistical view of the problem on an international scale.

The establishment of the International Labour Office and the publication by it of information in regard to the several States will naturally promote the general knowledge of the situation; but with the material at present available the International Labour Office could not make progress in the study of the problems. The comparison of systems and the improvement of methods adopted would be easier if there were an agreed system of collecting and publishing information as to unemployment to be used by the several States.

The information which is desirable is broadly of the following kinds. There should be for all industrial countries *statistics* giving (1) the wage-earning population defined in some agreed way; (2) the numbers employed at certain dates in each industry, distinguishing males, females and children under some agreed age; (3) the membership of trade unions as well as the number unemployed and the number insured in them; (4) the numbers affected by strikes or lock-outs. The statistics should also have regard to employment offices, showing (1) the number of offices actually open, distinguishing kinds; (2) the number of places offered, workers registered and places filled. Finally, the statistics should show in regard to insurance and other measures of relief, (1) the number and kinds of insurance funds; (2) the amounts expended; (3) the numbers insured, and other similar information.

It is recognised that the unification of statistical records is a matter of great difficulty; but the necessity for it

is becoming increasingly important, not only as regards unemployment but as regards all industrial problems. In the case of unemployment, however, it is of special importance, as unless some such step is taken, no adequate description of the problem can be obtained. Moreover, the paucity of the existing records will allow a co-ordinated system of future statistics to be compiled with less disturbance of existing methods and records than would be the case in other fields. The Committee are, therefore, of opinion that the co-ordination of these statistics is of great importance because of the light which it may throw on the problem with which they deal.

Non-statistical information is also necessary and should be collected on an agreed system on an international scale. This information should include the texts of laws or regulations regarding unemployment, draft Bills, *projets de loi*, &c.: particulars ought also to be given of voluntary action in regard to the prevention or relief of unemployment. Information as to any sudden change likely to affect employment should be conveyed at once to the International Labour Office; for example, there may be calamities such as earthquakes and other unforeseen events involving the dislocation of industries on which employment in another country is dependent.

Further, it will probably be necessary that some arrangement should be made as to the *time* at which the information should be communicated by the Governments to the International Labour Office. An exact period should be fixed, in order that the information from the several States may be comparable. It is provided in Article 397 of the Peace Treaty that direct communication shall be established between the International Labour Office and the departments of the several States which deal with questions of industry and employment; and this will be of special importance in regard to unemployment.

With a view to promoting the international collection of information and its co-ordination, the Committee submit a draft clause which might be embodied in an International Convention and a Resolution suggesting that an International Commission should be set up to advise on the best

method of collecting such information. The Committee also consider that there should be agreements between States possessing systems of unemployment insurance to assure reciprocal benefits to emigrant workers.

The Committee consider that certain aspects of the migration of workers have a bearing on the problem of unemployment but that the whole subject is too complex for immediate treatment by international agreement. They accordingly submit a Resolution for the consideration of the conference, suggesting that an International Commission should examine certain portions of the problem.

One further measure in regard to preventive methods in the treatment of unemployment is the allocation of public contracts. This is dealt with in the above Report ; and although it is not yet practised on any large scale in any State, it is suggested that it should become the subject of a Recommendation to promote such allocation wherever possible.

The Committee have not been able to make any suggestions as regards the modifications which may be desirable in the case of those countries whose special conditions are referred to in Article 405 of the Treaty, as at the time when this Report was printed replies had not yet been received from the most important Governments likely to be concerned.

The Committee put forward for the consideration of the Conference the following draft Convention, Recommendation and Resolutions.

**DRAFT CONVENTION ON UNEMPLOYMENT.****ARTICLE 1.**

All information regarding unemployment shall be communicated by the States signatories of this Convention every three months to the International Labour Office. Such information shall include statistics and particulars of any measures taken in regard to unemployment.

**ARTICLE 2.**

Each State signatory to this Convention shall co-ordinate on a national scale the operations of the various agencies, public and private, through which the wage-earners now seek employment.

**ARTICLE 3.**

The States signatories of this Convention which have established systems of unemployment insurance, shall make arrangements whereby workers belonging to one such State and employed in another shall be admitted to the benefits of such insurance upon terms to be agreed between the States concerned.

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**RECOMMENDATION.**

It is recommended by the Conference of the International Labour Organisation that measures shall be taken by each State signatory to this Convention to promote the co-ordination of the orders for work or public contracts of all public authorities within its jurisdiction in such a manner that the said work or contracts may be undertaken as far as possible in periods of serious unemployment.



## RESOLUTIONS.

## I.

IT IS RESOLVED that the Governing Body of the International Labour Office be instructed to appoint an International Commission to consider and advise on the best method of collecting and publishing in each State all information directly relevant to the problem of unemployment.

## II.

IT IS RESOLVED that the Governing Body of the International Labour Office shall appoint an International Commission to consider whether any measures can be adopted to regulate the migration of workers so far as regards the conditions of their employment.

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## APPENDICES.

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## APPENDIX I.

TRAINING OF JUVENILES AND JUVENILE  
EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

One of the methods for the prevention of unemployment is the training of juveniles and an extended use of juvenile employment offices. The main reservoir of labour is fed by a continuous stream of juvenile labour; and if this juvenile labour is trained, supervised and organised, there seems to be a considerable probability that the mass of unskilled labour and the number of unemployables will be considerably diminished.

Juvenile employment offices are treated here in conjunction with juvenile training, because it is found that most juvenile employment offices go beyond the mere placing of applicants. They include schemes of "after care" and "choice of employment."

**United States of America.**

The Federal Employment Service has developed since December, 1918, a Junior Guidance and Placement Division, but it is only in New York City that the Service has instituted any special departments for dealing with juveniles. Children are advised as to the right sort of employment and the applicant is brought into touch with suitable employers. The progress of the applicant in the work in which he has been placed is followed up, and if it is not good, an endeavour is made to find him more suitable occupation.

There are vocational guidance agencies in most of the great cities, in which the work is done for the most part by the educational authorities in connection with the issue of working certificates to children who leave school under 16.

**British Empire.**

*United Kingdom.*—In 1909 an Act was passed establishing a national system of employment offices. Attached to each exchange there is a juvenile department which is concerned only with boys and girls under 17. The age

was raised to 18 in 1918. In each industrial district there is either a juvenile advisory committee set up by the Ministry of Labour or a Choice of Employment Committee established by local education committees to supplement the filling of vacancies by some means of effective supervision. The functions of the juvenile employment office and its committees are :—

- (1) To advise as to suitable employment ;
- (2) To endeavour to obtain such employment ;
- (3) To bring juveniles into touch with educational and other agencies and to exercise a general supervision over their careers ;
- (4) To leave the boy or girl at the end of the period of supervision as efficient as possible, and with a reasonable chance of continuing in employment.

In 1910 an Education (Choice of Employment) Act was passed, which enabled those local education authorities, who wished to do so, to set up the Choice of Employment Committees referred to above. The Education Act of 1918 establishes continuation schools for young persons. Subject to certain stated exceptions, attendance is compulsory for all young persons for a stated number of hours in the year. Explicit instructions regarding technical training are not laid down in the Act, but local authorities have wide discretionary powers. The Act will come into operation on certain dates defined in section 52 of the Act.

Temporary measures covering transitional period from war to peace. The out-of-work donation (*see above*, page 100), includes a donation to unemployed juveniles if between the age of 15 and 18. The Board of Education, acting in conjunction with the Ministry of Labour, set up in December, 1918, a considerable number of instructional centres for unemployed juveniles. Juvenile unemployment centres were established wherever there was any considerable measure of unemployment. The cost was met by the Board of Education, and the Ministry of Labour made receipt of out-of-work donation conditional on attendance at the centres for young persons between 15 and 18. The objects of these centres were :—(a) to keep young persons from aimless search after employment ;

(b) to give some useful mental and physical training. The first centres were opened in December, 1918. Numbers increased up to April, 1919, but have decreased rapidly since then. The decrease is primarily due to the fall in number drawing out-of-work donation, and the reduction of the amount of donation.

Apart from the temporary out-of-work donation scheme, it should be noted that the compulsory scheme of unemployment insurance, started in 1912, covers about 400,000 juveniles between 16-18 in certain specified trades.

### **Belgium.**

Apprenticeship offices have been set up, both for the placing and protection of apprentices. They are subsidised and controlled by public authorities; but little has been done by them in placing apprentices. In 1911 only 450 apprenticeship contracts were signed.

### **France.**

Care Committees for apprentices have been instituted in the Department of the Seine for the protection of apprentices and children employed in industry; and the development of their technical instruction. On October 24, 1911, two Decrees were issued which instituted in each Department and each Canton a technical education committee, and established certificates of technical capacity for young persons who had passed specified examinations. A new law was published in July, 1919.

### **Netherlands.**

The employment offices give indirect assistance in the choice of employment by publishing guides giving detailed information regarding the various trades. The technical schools which have been established for over 50 years direct the choice of employment in co-operation with the employment offices.

### **Spain.**

On June 8, 1910, a Royal Decree was issued for the purpose of establishing technical and industrial instruction. Art and Trade Schools with workshops at-

tached were to be set up for general technical instruction. Industrial Schools were to be set up for more specialised technical instruction. The Royal Decree of September 25, 1907, was directed toward the establishment of agricultural instruction; while the Royal Decrees of December 27, 1910, and December 7, 1911, concerned Domestic Schools for women. A law was passed on June 17, 1911, which laid down that the apprentice is to receive practical instruction in his trade; and that at the end of the term of service he is to be given a certificate of aptitude by his employer.

### Sweden.

The employment offices and the municipal schools are combining their efforts for the purpose of securing situations for juveniles after the school period.

### Switzerland.

In 1909 a Choice of Employment scheme was instituted at Zurich. The municipal employment offices and the school authorities co-operated in establishing a system of vocational guidance.

### GENERAL SUMMARY.

Steps have been taken to deal with the problem of untrained, unprotected juvenile labour; but at present all the recorded State action appears to be of a tentative character. The scheme which appears to be most effective is that which institutes a system of juvenile employment offices, acting in co-operation with municipal educational authorities, and with industrial protective organisations. The scope of these offices includes:—

- (a) The placing of juveniles in suitable employment;
- (b) Advice as to choice of employment;
- (c) Guidance and protection of juvenile workers after they have been placed;
- (d) Efforts to improve the conditions and quality of juvenile employment in their neighbourhood;
- (e) The promotion of legislation affecting juvenile employment.

An essential correlative of this scheme would appear to be a comprehensive system of municipal or State technical schools which will give any young person an opportunity to take up a skilled trade. The two other lines along which assistance to juveniles has been developed are not at all incompatible with the above scheme. The first is the activity of particular trade organisations in setting up regulations regarding apprenticeship in their own trades. They follow the old guild system of ensuring a high standard of workmanship. The second includes the various philanthropic and religious institutions set up for the training and protection of young people.

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## APPENDIX II.

NOTES ON THE COUNTRIES TO WHICH THE  
QUESTIONNAIRE WAS NOT SENT.**Austria.**

*Employment Offices.*—In addition to the private registries, press advertisements and hiring fairs, the public employment offices (*Arbeitsvermittlung*) take various forms. There is no Imperial Law regulating them. Only Bohemia and Galicia (in former Austrian territory) have regulated employment offices by legislation in 1903 and 1904 respectively. Public bureaux, due to private initiative, exist in practically all provinces, and are linked together, loosely and inefficiently by the Imperial Federation founded in 1906. There are also employment offices conducted by Corporations, employers' associations, trade-unions, trade guilds, and by charitable and social institutions.

The legislation on the subject of employment offices consists only of the Act of 1863 licensing private employment offices and the Act of 1907 which requires trade guilds to organise employment offices for their members unless they discharge the duty by entrusting it to a public institution.

In December, 1917, an official Ministerial Order was issued, the object of which was to organise a network of Employment offices for finding employment for discharged soldiers. The measure is apparently a temporary one, for the period of the war and of demobilisation. An Imperial Department of Employment Exchange is to be established. Existing offices are to be co-ordinated and expanded, and some are to be selected and declared public institutions enjoying certain privileges and receiving certain subventions.

*Relief Works.*—The German system of Relief Stations (see p. 130) by which assistance is given to workmen travelling in search of work has been largely copied by Austria. Otherwise relief for unemployed persons hardly exists. The State limits itself to organising a few relief works and inviting municipalities to do the same. Unemployed persons are granted reduced fares on railways when in search of work. There are no Labour Colonies in Austria.

*After War Developments.*—The German Austrian Department for Social Affairs issued in November, 1918, an Order making arrangements for dealing with unemployment. Industrial District Committees are to be set up arranging for (1) providing employment exchanges under "joint control"; (2) transport of workers to fresh employment; (3) supply of food to places where new work is started.

An industrial central commission of employers and workpeople is to make arrangements for relieving and maintaining persons out of work, which will also control movements of labour market. A central



clearing house for exchanges will be set up, managed by an employer and a worker. Every employer engaging or dismissing more than 20 workers in a week must notify the fact.

A law for the relief of unemployment came into force on November 18, 1918, which provided *inter alia*, that every worker domiciled in German Austria and within the scope of the Sickness Insurance Code shall be entitled to pay equal to the sickness benefit for every day on which he had a legal claim to unemployment pay. The payments began on November 18, for a period of three months. Ex-service men, if within the Sickness Insurance Code before they joined the army are included. All applicants must register at the employment office designated by the district committee, and must produce a certificate from their former employer that he is unable to give the applicant employment, and must attend at least twice a week at the Employment office. Employers refusing certificates are liable to a fine of 1,000 kronen. The cost will be borne by the State, but in so far as employers are to be called on to contribute, separate regulations are to be made.

*Compulsory employment of unemployed persons.*—A law passed in May, 1919, provides that every employer with 15 workers in his employ on 26 April, 1919, is compelled from 15 May, 1919, to employ 20% more on similar conditions as the original employees. Up to 31 August, 1919, each employer is compelled to engage one new employee for each one dismissed. As far as possible the services of the local unemployment bureau are to be used and unemployed persons refusing work offered them by the bureaux lose the right to unemployment relief.

*Finland—Study of the Problem.*—(a) Two enquiries on unemployment were undertaken in 1908: one by the Committee of Unemployment Insurance appointed by the Government, the other by the Department of Industry on the proposal of and in collaboration with the Central Office of the Trade Unions. (b) In 1912 a central bureau of urban districts was created and was instructed to study the problem of unemployment.

*Public Employment Offices.*—In 1902 the Municipal Council of Helsingfors called together delegates of the Municipal Councils of the seven most important towns for the purpose of studying the question of employment offices. A Report was issued and general regulations for the control of future offices were laid down. In 1903 and 1904 employment offices were opened in these towns. Their services are free they apply to every branch of industry; and are managed by committees of employers and workmen nominated in equal numbers by the municipal councils.

Their results, however, are not striking, principally because they are not yet properly organised and co-ordinated. In 1912 the number of applications for work registered by the seven municipal bureaux

amounted to 22,086, the number of situations offered 12,611, and the number of applicants placed 9,388.

**NOTE.**—In 1911 a law on employment offices was passed by the Finnish Landtag, forbidding the existence of any private registry and compelling boroughs of more than 5,000 inhabitants to establish employment bureaux. This law, however, was never promulgated.

**After-War Developments.**—A law as to Employment Offices came into force on June 1, 1918. Only Communes and Associations may establish Employment Offices. For towns of more than 5,000 inhabitants the establishment of an office is obligatory. When need arises, small towns and country parishes are also required to establish offices. The Employment Offices are to be free, and to continue their operations when disputes cause stoppage of work; but persons seeking employment must be informed concerning the nature and extent of the disputes. Trade Unions which are desirous of extending the operations of their Exchanges to include persons other than their own members must obtain official licence for this purpose. The activities of the offices must not be carried on in public houses or similar establishments.

**Unemployment Insurance.**—Some Finnish trade unions allow their members unemployed benefits. Thus since 1908 the Union of Textile Workers grants its members in case of involuntary unemployment a weekly allowance of 6 to 12 marks. For this purpose one-sixth of the fees collected is put into a special fund. The typographical union also maintains a special fund for the relief of its unemployed members. Amount of benefit varies according to length of membership and family charges. No allowance is paid unless a testimony from the labour exchange is produced stating that no work could be found for the applicant. Certain other unions also give unemployment benefit, but without having a fund specially devoted to this object.

Certain municipal funds supplementing the allowances of mutual unemployment insurance societies and of trade unions are also in existence.

In November, 1917, a Decree referring to unemployment insurance funds was issued. This Decree refers to unemployment insurance funds which assist members when unemployed and receive from them certain contributions. These funds may embrace whole districts (with branch offices), and they may also be connected with trade unions. When certain conditions laid down in the Decree are fulfilled, such funds may receive Government subsidies. These conditions lay down the form of constitution of the fund; the conditions of membership, and the conditions of the payment of the benefit.

**Relief of Unemployment.**—The able-bodied poor, including the unemployed, are only assisted by the vote of the communal Charity Board. There is no obligation to assist on the part of the commune. In 1891 the town of Helsingfors opened a communal labour yard for

men. This institution is above all a refuge for the homeless unemployed during the winter months ; but it can also admit unemployed persons living in Helsingfors without giving them hospitality. The persons admitted are employed in agriculture, or as blacksmiths, shoemakers, carpenters, &c.

Municipal relief works have been set up in Helsingfors during prolonged periods of unemployment. The work usually consisted of breaking stones for road construction ; but no great results have been obtained. The town also tried in 1903, a system of money loans to the unemployed, but out of the 584 persons who received loans only 30 paid their debts.

Certain provincial towns have also organised relief works and a certain amount of relief work is done throughout the country by various charitable organisations.

*Municipal Measures against Seasonal Unemployment at Helsingfors.*—Each year before the end of October, or at any time when action is thought to be necessary, the Commission of Labour Affairs should, in concert with the Municipal Employment Bureau and the Public Assistance Bureau, decide if it is necessary to appoint a Relief Committee and demand from the Municipal Council the necessary funds for the operation of this committee. The committee will be representative of the Municipal Council, Commission of Labour Affairs, Municipal Employment Bureau, Public Assistance Bureau, and the three workers' associations. Its work will include the collection of all useful information concerning unemployment ; assistance to public authorities in organisation of relief works ; taking of all necessary measures, in collaboration with the public services for the relief of the unemployed and their families. The committee will in addition collect all available statistics helping the study of unemployment and issue a report in the spring.

NOTE.—In 1908 the Diet addressed a petition to the Government asking for :—

- (i) A fairer distribution in the course of time of public works undertaken by the State.
- (ii) Payment of normal wages to workmen employed on relief works.
- (iii) Subsidies to municipalities organising relief works.

## Germany.

*Employment Offices.*—Employment offices (*Arbeitsnachweise*) in Germany may be classified into private (i.e., managed by employers, by workmen, or by both employers and workmen) and public (if established by municipal authorities or by voluntary associations with municipal subsidy). In 1911, the numbers of the various classes were :—

(1) *Employers' exchanges (Arbeitgeber Arbeitsnachweise)* managed by employers' associations, trade guilds (*Innungen*) or Chambers of Agriculture, &c. ... 686

These are more or less openly means of combating trade unionism. Guild registries are part of the statutory regulation and strengthening of small industry (*Handwerk*) against "large scale" industry.

(2) *Workmen's exchanges (Arbeiter Arbeitsnachweise)* maintained chiefly by trade unions, of which the bulk are in the seven large cities ... 616

(3) "*Joint*" exchanges (*Paritätische Arbeitsnachweise*), chiefly in the smaller industries; of these the printing trade is the most important ... 141

(4) *Municipal exchanges (Gemeindliche Arbeitsnachweise)* ... 323

(5) *Public corporations* ... 85

(6) *Public utility societies* ... 355

(7) *Others* ... 18

Total 2,224

Large numbers of private registry offices for domestic service, &c., also exist.

Public employment offices, it will be seen, are in a minority. The large number of different classes of employment offices results in a system which is a long way from realising the essential principles of a national system. Most of the private exchanges are run by "interested parties" and, in fact, hostility exists in many places between the "employers" and the "workmen's" exchanges. Centralisation has been attempted by the formation of federations, and the *Verband Deutsches Arbeitsnachweise* has been founded with that object. There is no Imperial or State law on the establishment of employment offices. The Imperial law of June, 1910, however, marks an important stage in the development of public employment offices. This law requires that private agencies should be licensed, but that licences should be refused when there is no absolute need for them. It further states that the need does not exist when a public exchange is working normally in the locality.

*Emigration* was regulated through the Berlin Central Office, set up on April 1, 1902.

*Immigration.*—Germany (before the war). Prussia (Ordinance, December 1, 1907) and several other German States established a system of *cartes de legitimisation*, but confided the administration to associations of private employers.

*Insurance.*—There is no State insurance against unemployment in Germany. The systems in force are:—

(7666—Report II.)

(1) *Mutual Insurance*, which is almost entirely the work of Trade Unions and commercial associations. The chief categories are :—

(a) Trade Unions.—The Independents (covering nearly 1½ millions), the Christian (covering 200,000), and the Hirsch Duncker Trade Unions (covering 100,000), are the chief. Insurance is generally compulsory on all members. German trade unionism is strongly in favour of the Ghent system.

(b) Commercial Associations (18) covering clerks and shop assistants.

(c) Co-operative Societies.—The only one of importance is the Hamburg Produktion, with 42,000 members.

(2) *Employers' Unemployment Funds* exist in a few cases, of which the only one of importance is the Zeiss Optical Works.

(3) *Subsidised Unemployment Insurance*.—Certain municipalities have adopted schemes, of which the chief one is at Cologne, whereby able-bodied men over 18, of one year's residence, may be insured on payment of 5½d. a week (4½d. unskilled). The fund also receives a grant from the municipality and voluntary contributions. Members must pay for 34 weeks in the year before entitled to benefits. Benefit is paid for involuntary unemployment during December, January, February, and March at rate of 2s. a day for first 20 days, and 1s. a day for following 28 days. Unemployed persons must report twice daily at Exchanges.

The congress of German municipalities in 1911 pronounced in favour of an imperial State unemployment insurance law.

*Relief Works*.—Relief works have been largely resorted to in Germany. The chief classes are :—

A. *For Resident Unemployed*.—These have generally been organised in times of distress. They have been confined usually to married men. In 1909, 150 districts organised relief works. The work done is chiefly navvies' work, road making, stone breaking, &c.

B. *Non-Resident Unemployed*.—(1) Relief Stations (*Verpflegungsstationen*).

The system which was introduced in 1854, is to meet the requirements of workmen travelling in search of work. They are maintained usually in Provinces (in Westphalia jointly by the Province, the district and the commune).

(2) Travellers' Homes (*Wanderarbeitstätten*) for accommodating workmen travelling in search of work. They are mostly organised by philanthropic agencies (chiefly the German Travellers' Homes Society). The number of "travellers" in 1902 was about 3,000,000, of whom 2,000,000 paid for their lodging and 1,000,000 were lodged for a limited time in exchange for work performed.

(3) Labour Colonies (*Arbeiterkolonien*).—These are chiefly found in rural districts and are largely used by the "tramp" class. In 1913, they were reported to be in a stagnant condition.

The Gesamt-Verband Deutscher Verpflegungsstationen was founded in 1892 to insure that the principle of work in return for benefits should

be carried out on uniform lines (i.e., by issue of vagrancy tickets, by uniform regulations, &c.). It has endeavoured to secure legal regulation which was secured in 1907 as regard Prussia.

*Donation.*—An official decree of the Imperial Demobilisation Office, of 13th November, 1918, empowers communes to organise schemes of relief. The expenses are borne as to one-half by the Empire, one-third by the State, and one-sixth by the Municipality. Maximum scales of payment are fixed by the Decree, and payments in kind may be made. The schemes originally adopted in Berlin and Frankfort are as follows:—

(1) *Berlin.*—The scheme of unemployment relief provides benefits to all persons over 14, willing and able to work, but in necessitous circumstances due to unemployment. Benefits are paid after six waiting days (except for ex-service men when it is paid at once) at the following rates:—

Males over 17	...	...	...	4 marks per day.
Males 14—17	...	...	...	2    "    "
Females over 17	...	...	...	3    "    "
Females, 14—17	...	...	...	2.50    "
Wives, children under 14 and others unable to work	...	...	...	1    "    "

Proportionate relief is proposed for short-time employment where earnings are less than 70 per cent. of average. Benefits are paid through Trade Unions in the case of members of the Social Democratic Hirsch-Duncker, and Christian Trade Unions, in other cases by communal officers through the employment exchanges. Free travelling is provided to the new place of occupation and unemployed persons must accept any job offered even if outside his own occupation if within his strength and capacity suitable and at a reasonable wage.

(2) *Frankfort.*—The municipal labour bureau grants unemployment benefits to the following workers engaged in full time employment:—

(1) Males over 16, who have lived in Frankfort for 26 weeks or up to August 1, 1914, and have not been merely temporarily unemployed.

(2) Females who are alone, manage a household or support a husband, parents, grandparents or relatives, or were engaged in full-time work before the war, if they have lived 26 weeks in Frankfort.

*Relief* varies from 3 marks to persons wholly unemployed to 2.20 marks and from 2 marks to 1 mark for children under 16. The subsidy is not as a rule to be continued beyond 6 months, and unemployment must not be due to incapacity, misconduct, strike or lock-out.

### Hungary.

*Prevention.*—The problem of unemployment in Hungary is not primarily an industrial question. Hence economic crises and seasonal fluctuations have not so much effect. The chief problems are the surplus agricultural population and the large emigration. "Small scale industry" is gradually disappearing.

The only State system of employment offices is in agriculture, which is a public service under the Minister of Agriculture. No figures are published as to the number placed in employment by this means. Workpeople travel at half-fares to their situations.

The only municipal offices are those in Budapest (founded 1900) and its suburbs (Pozsony and Temesvary). There are 5 offices managed by employers, 26 by trade unions and 2 by public corporations. Private employment agencies also exist which are licensed under the Act of 1884.

*Employment Offices.*—An Act dated March 19, 1916, requires towns and communes designated for the purpose to provide official *bureaux de placement* for industry, mining and commerce. No fees are chargeable. Subventions may be granted to bureaux, the operations of which extend beyond their own territory.

*Insurance.*—There is no State or municipal insurance against unemployment. The only provision is that by a few trade unions.

*After-War Developments.—Donation.*—A system of unemployment relief was instituted on December 7, 1918. Manual workpeople receive 10 kr. per day, other employees 15 kr. per day. Payment commences on the last day of the second week of unemployment.

## Russia.

*Relief.*—Soon after the Soviet Government took over the administration, a law was passed as to insurance against unemployment. All workers, including agriculture, were included. The law came into operation on March 1, 1918. Every employer pays a contribution of 4 per cent. of his total wages bill, or 5 per cent. for seasonal workers. The worker pays nothing. When unemployed, the latter receives from the fourth day, an amount representing the average usual wage paid in that occupation, but such amount is not to exceed 4/5ths of the wages actually received by him previously to becoming unemployed.

## APPENDIX III.

### QUESTIONNAIRE.

NOTE.—*The Government is asked, if possible, to give its answers to the questions in French or English, and also to supply a translation in one of those languages of all essential documents.*

NOTES 2.—*For Federal States the answers should be given not only for the central Government, but also for the principal local Governments which have legislative authority in labour matters.*

## INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.

OCTOBER, 1919.

*Item 2 of the Agenda : Question of Preventing or Providing against Unemployment.*

### I.—*Nature and Extent of the Problem.*

1. What is the nature and extent of the problem in your country ?
2. What organisation exists in your country for the systematic study of the question ?

### II.—*Prevention of Unemployment.*

3. What steps are taken to adjust the supply of labour to meet variations in demand by :—

(a) Promoting the mobility of labour either by means of a system of Public Employment Exchanges or otherwise.

(b) Regulation of overtime—

- (i) By means of administrative action, or
- (ii) By voluntary arrangements between associations of employers and workers.



- (c) Systematic short time by agreement between associations of employers and workers during periods of depression in trade.
- (d) Arrangements with regard to the allocation of public contracts by central and local authorities.
- (e) Regulation of immigration.

### III.—*Compulsory Insurance against Unemployment.*

- 4. Is there any scheme of compulsory insurance ?
- 5. If so, give full particulars, including classes of workers affected, rates of contribution, rates of benefit, &c.
- 6. What is the test of unemployment and inability to obtain work ?

### IV.—*Public Organisations.*

- 7. What Public Organisations exist specially for the relief of the unemployed ?

Please state—

- (a) Their organisation ;
- (b) The nature of their resources and the amount of their expenditure.

### V.—*Voluntary Provision against Unemployment.*

What voluntary provision against unemployment is made—

- 8. By associations of workers :—
  - (a) Please state the number of associations of work-people providing unemployment benefits and total membership.
  - (b) Please state the general conditions for payment of benefit.

9. By other associations, with particulars as above.

10. Is there any system of subvention from public funds ?

If so, what is the amount of the grants and under what conditions are they paid ?

#### VI.—*Observations.*

11. It is asked that full particulars of any proposals for legislation which have been introduced by the Government in the legislature may be furnished, with the text of the Bill or Bills.

12. Is it considered that any effective steps could be taken to limit or prevent unemployment by international action ?

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[*Letter enclosing Questionnaire.*]

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE,  
OFFICES OF THE ORGANISING COMMITTEE,  
53, PARLIAMENT STREET,  
LONDON, S.W. 1.  
10 May, 1919.

Sir,

The Peace Conference at its plenary sitting on 11 April approved the draft Convention submitted to it by the Commission on International Labour Legislation. The text of the Convention as accepted by the Peace Conference is enclosed herewith. The Convention provides for the institution of an International Organisation, to which all the Members of the League of Nations will belong, and which will consist of an International Labour Conference and an International Labour Office, as part of the machinery of the League of Nations. It further provides in Article 38\* and the Annex† that the first meeting of the International Labour Conference shall take place at Washington in October of this year, and that an International Organising Committee should be appointed to assist the Government of the United States

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\* ARTICLE 38, paragraphs 1 and 2.

The first meeting of the Conference shall take place in October, 1919. The place and agenda for this meeting shall be as specified in the Annex annexed hereto.

Arrangements for the convening and the organisation of the first meeting of the Conference will be made by the Government designated for the purpose in the said Annex. That Government shall be assisted in the preparation of the documents for submission to the Conference by an International Committee constituted as provided in the said Annex.

† PROTOCOL, paragraphs 1, 2 and 3.

The place of meeting will be Washington.

The Government of the United States of America is requested to convene the Conference.

The International Organising Committee will consist of seven members, appointed by the United States of America, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium and Switzerland. The Committee may, if it thinks necessary, invite other members to appoint representatives

of America in making the necessary arrangements. At its plenary sitting the Peace Conference approved the immediate appointment of the Organising Committee and authorised it to proceed with its work at once. In accordance with the terms of the Convention the Committee has been constituted as follows:—

**UNITED STATES OF AMERICA :**

Dr. J. T. Shotwell (provisionally), Professor at Columbia University.

**GREAT BRITAIN :**

Sir Malcolm Delevingne, K.C.B., Assistant Under-Secretary of State, Home Office.

**FRANCE :**

Mr. Arthur Fontaine, Councillor of State, Director of Labour.

**ITALY :**

Mr. di Palma Castiglione, Inspector of Emigration.

**JAPAN :**

Dr. M. Oka, formerly Director of Commercial and Industrial Affairs at the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

**BELGIUM :**

Mr. E. Mahaim, Professor at Liège University.

**SWITZERLAND :**

Mr. W. E. Rappard (provisionally), Professor at Geneva University.

Mr. Arthur Fontaine was elected Chairman, and Mr. H. B. Butler, C.B., Assistant Secretary of the Ministry of Labour, was appointed Secretary.

The offices of the Committee will for the present be at 53, Parliament Street, London, S.W. 1, but will be transferred to the Ministry of Labor, Washington, at the beginning of September, 1919. All communications should be addressed to the Secretary at the London office.

The Organising Committee now has the honour to transmit a questionnaire in regard to the Agenda for the first Conference laid down in the Annex to the Convention\* and to bring to the notice of your Government certain other points dealt with in the Convention, to which their attention is desirable in view of the forthcoming Conference at Washington.

*Agenda.*

In drawing up the questionnaire, the Committee have aimed at obtaining the most complete information available in regard to the existing legislation and practice in the different countries in respect of the subjects referred to in the various items of the Agenda, and the proposals of the respective Governments as to how they should be dealt with by the Conference. When this information is received, the Committee propose to collate and tabulate the results in a printed statement, and to draw up suggestions for draft conventions or recommendations, based on the information received, for submission to the Conference as a basis for discussion. These documents will be communicated to the Delegates appointed to take part in the Conference through their respective Governments.

In view of the short time at the Committee's disposal, if the work of collating and circulating the results of their

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\* ANNEX.

*Agenda :—*

1. Application of principle of the 8-hours day or of the 48-hours week.
2. Question of preventing or providing against unemployment.
3. Women's employment :—
  - (a) Before and after child-birth, including the question of maternity benefit.
  - (b) During the night.
  - (c) In unhealthy processes.
4. Employment of children :—
  - (a) Minimum age of employment.
  - (b) During the night.
  - (c) In unhealthy processes.
5. Extension and application of the International Convention adopted at Berne in 1906 on the prohibition of night work for women employed in industry, and the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

present enquiry is to be completed in time to enable the Delegates to study them before departing for Washington, the Committee respectfully request that the answers to the questionnaire may be forwarded to them at the earliest possible date, and in any case that they should not reach London later than 30 June.

In order further to facilitate the work of collating and tabulating the answers, it is also requested that they may, where possible, be accompanied by a translation into either English or French, unless one of these languages is used in the original. In order further to save time, and in the spirit of Article 11 of the Convention,\* it is suggested that the Government Department entrusted with the collection of the necessary information in each country should be instructed to forward it direct to the offices of the Organising Committee.

#### *Preliminary Business.*

The Organising Committee would also point out that the following items of business relating to the internal procedure of the Conference will have to be dealt with by the Conference :—

1. The appointment of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
2. The approval of rules of procedure, of which a draft is being prepared by the Committee, and will be circulated with the documents above mentioned.

#### *Appointment of Delegates and Advisers.*

As regards the points in the Convention itself which require attention in view of the forthcoming Conference,

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#### \* ARTICLE 11.

The Government Departments of any of the Members which deal with questions of industry and employment may communicate directly with the Director through the Representative of their Government on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, or failing any such Representative, through such other qualified official as the Government may nominate for the purpose.

the Committee desire respectfully to call attention of your Government to the following provisions of the Convention :—

Article 3 provides that the Conference " shall be composed of four Representatives of each of the Members, of whom two shall be Government Delegates and the two others shall be Delegates representing respectively the employers and the workpeople of each of the Members.

" Each Delegate may be accompanied by advisers, who shall not exceed two in number for each item on the agenda of the meeting. When questions specially affecting women are to be considered by the Conference, one at least of the advisers should be a woman.

" The Members undertake to nominate non-Government Delegates and advisers chosen in agreement with the industrial organisations, if such organisations exist, which are most representative of employers or workpeople, as the case may be, in their respective countries.

" Advisers shall not speak except on a request made by the Delegate whom they accompany and by the special authorisation of the President of the Conference, and may not vote.

" A Delegate may, by notice in writing addressed to the President, appoint one of his advisers to act as his deputy, and the adviser, while so acting, shall be allowed to speak and vote.

" The names of the Delegates and their Advisers will be communicated to the International Labour Office by the Government of each of the members.

" The credentials of Delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference, which may, by two-thirds of the votes cast by the Delegates present, refuse to admit any Delegate or adviser whom it deems not to have been nominated in accordance with this article."

Your Government will accordingly in due course be requested by the Government of the United States of America to forward through its Foreign Office the names of the Delegates who will represent it, together with those

of the Delegates representing its employers and work-people, and at the same time to forward the names of the advisers who will accompany the Delegates. The Committee would be much obliged if the names of the Delegates and advisers could be communicated to them at the same time.

Each Delegate may be accompanied by two advisers for each item on the agenda of the meeting, but where it is feasible advisers might well be appointed who can deal with more than one item. It should also be pointed out that as several of the questions on the agenda affect women, one at least of the advisers appointed should be a woman.

The last paragraph of Article 3 provides that the credentials of the Delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference. It is accordingly requested that the nomination of each Delegate and adviser may be accompanied by a statement giving his qualifications, and also giving the names of the organisations in agreement with whom the Delegates and advisers of employers or workpeople were chosen.

The Committee respectfully suggest that it is of great importance for the success of the Conference that steps should be taken by each of the Governments to make widely known among associations of employers and workers the nature and objects of the International Organisation, and to secure their interest and co-operation in the matter.

### *Expenses.*

Under Article 13 each Government participating in the Conference will pay the travelling and subsistence expenses of its four Delegates and their advisers. Under Article 38\* it is provided that all other expenses connected with the

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\* ARTICLE 38, paragraph 3.

The expenses of the first meeting and of all subsequent meetings held before the League of Nations has been able to establish a general fund, other than the expenses of Delegates and their advisers, will be borne by the Members in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.



First Meeting will be borne by the Members of the League of Nations in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union. The United States Government, having agreed to undertake the convening of the Conference, will make the necessary arrangements, and will in due course furnish the necessary information in regard to them to the Members.

We have to add that this letter is being addressed to the Governments of all the original Members of the League as set out in the Annex to the Covenant.

We have the honour to be, Sir, with great truth and respect,

Your obedient servants,

ARTHUR FONTAINE,

*Chairman.*

H. B. BUTLER,

*Secretary.*

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LIST OF COUNTRIES FROM WHOM REPLIES TO QUESTIONNAIRE HAD  
BEEN RECEIVED UP TO THE TIME OF GOING TO PRESS.

United States of America.	Italy.
Argentine.	Netherlands.
Belgium.	Norway.
Bolivia.	Panama.
Great Britain.	Persia.
Canada.	Poland.
Australia.	Roumania.
New Zealand.	Serb-Croat-Slovene State.
South Africa.	Siam.
Chili.	Spain.
China.	Sweden.
Denmark.	Switzerland.
France.	Czecho-Slovakia.
Hedjaz.	

A reply has been received from Greece since the Reports were compiled, and replies are understood to be on their way from India, Japan and Peru.

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③

REPORT III.

# LEAGUE OF NATIONS

REPORT

ON

**The Employment  
of Women and Children**

AND THE

**Berne Conventions of 1906.**

X:9110j91502922.

**PREPARED BY THE ORGANISING  
COMMITTEE FOR THE INTERNA-  
TIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE,  
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## PREFATORY NOTE.

At the Plenary Sitting of the Peace Conference of the 11th April, 1919, the following Resolution was adopted :—

“That the Conference approves the Draft Convention creating a permanent organisation for the promotion of the international regulation of labour conditions which has been submitted by the Labour Commission, with the amendments proposed by the British Delegation ; instructs the Secretariat to request the Governments concerned to nominate forthwith their representatives on the Organising Committee for the October Conference, and authorises that Committee to proceed at once with its work.”

The Committee having been constituted in accordance with the provisions in Part XIII of the Peace Treaty, issued a letter and series of questionnaires dealing with the Items of the Agenda specified in the Treaty. This letter, together with the questionnaires dealing with the 3rd, 4th, and 5th Items of the Agenda, will be found on page 66.

The present report analyses and summarises the material contained in the replies to the Questionnaires received from the different Governments, and the Committee present, as a result of their examination of this material, certain conclusions and recommendations which they suggest may afford a basis for the discussion of the subject of the Conference.

A list of the Governments from whom replies had been received up to the time of going to press is given on page 76, and the Committee desire to express to them their thanks for the information they have furnished, and their appreciation of the trouble they have taken to render all assistance possible in the limited time available.

The Committee regret that it was not possible to allow a longer time for the preparation of the replies, and they fear also that their report may suffer from deficiencies and errors, which might have been avoided if the time at their disposal had been longer. They trust, however, that it may prove of assistance to the Conference in dealing with the problems before it.

ARTHUR FONTAINE,  
*Chairman.*

H. B. BUTLER,  
*Secretary.*

20th August, 1919.

**REPORT ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND  
CHILDREN AND ON THE BERNE CONVENTIONS  
OF 1906.**

The following Report deals with Items 3, 4, and 5 of the Agenda as laid down in the Annex to the Labour Part of the Peace Treaty. It is mainly based on the replies received to the questionnaire\* issued by the Organising Committee to the States named in the Annex to the Covenant of the League of Nations. Reference has also been made to the published texts of laws and regulations bearing on the subjects concerned and to other generally available sources of information.

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\* See page 71

## CHAPTER I.

## WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN BEFORE AND AFTER  
CHILDBIRTH.

## (ITEM 3(a) OF THE AGENDA.)

The need for some regulation of the employment of mothers in relation to childbirth is generally recognised, though large variations between the laws on the subject in different countries indicate that great differences of opinion exist as to the kind and extent of the regulation which is desirable. There is widespread agreement as to the desirability of some period of exclusion from industrial work immediately after childbirth and, within the last ten years, an increasing tendency to recognise that such exclusion must be accompanied by measures safeguarding the interests of the woman excluded. It is also admitted by those who have approached the subject of the employment of mothers and its bearing on infant mortality in the spirit of candid enquiry, that the effects of employment both before and after childbirth on the health of mother and child are complicated by a number of other factors, and that careful investigation by scientific experts is needed to discover the part played by each and so to arrive at the proper remedies.

*Summary of Existing Laws.*

The object of existing provisions is :—

- (1) To protect the health of both mother and child by ensuring proper rest to the mother shortly before and after childbirth, and
- (2) To ensure the health of the child after the mother returns to work.

The most general method of attaining the first object is to prohibit employment for a certain term after, and in some instances before, the confinement. Since mere exclusion from employment fails to meet the needs of the

case, especially for the lower paid grades of women workers, many States have established some scheme of maternity insurance or allowances, providing pecuniary relief for the woman during her enforced absence from work.

Some laws go further and endeavour to ensure that the woman shall not be penalised under her contract of work for leaving without notice shortly before confinement and, moreover, that she shall be reinstated, if she desires to return to work, after the legal period of exclusion has expired.

Attempts are made to attain the second object of the legislation here considered (namely, to protect the health of the child on the mother's return to work) in a few countries by requiring the employer to provide opportunities for nursing mothers to feed their infants, in some cases in a special room attached to the workplace.

#### *Scope of Measures restricting Employment before and after Childbirth.*

Reference to Appendix III shows that the law on this subject with the widest scope is the Spanish, which applies to "any kind of work." Unless this phrase is further limited by the definition of "worker" occurring in another section of the regulations, which confines the description to "manual" workers, the scope thus indicated is wider even than that of the Belgian law, which covers mines, commercial establishments, restaurants and offices attached to industrial works, commercial establishments and transport undertakings, as well as factories and workshops. The next widest in scope is the Greek law, which is practically the same as the Belgian, with the omission of works' offices and offices attached to commercial establishments. Next in order of scope come several laws covering commercial as well as industrial workplaces (factories and workshops). These are the French (which include a special Decree prohibiting the employment of women after childbirth in carrying, hauling or pushing weights) and those of the four American States which have legislated on this subject: Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, Vermont. Then follow the Argentine, Great



Britain, Brazil, the Netherlands, Portugal (where mines and docks are specifically mentioned also), and New Zealand, where the regulation applies to all factories and workshops, but not to commercial or any other undertakings. Next we have a number of countries which have excluded small workshops by an arbitrary numerical limitation. These are South Africa (where workshops employing less than three persons are excluded), New South Wales (where workshops employing less than four persons are excluded), Norway (where workshops employing less than five persons are excluded), Italy, Denmark and Western Australia (where workshops employing less than six persons are excluded), Sweden (where factories using less than 3 h.p. and at the same time employing less than five persons, and workshops employing less than ten persons, are excluded), Germany (where industrial undertakings are excluded where less than ten persons are employed), Japan (where factories and workshops employing less than sixteen persons are excluded unless they are of an injurious nature). In Switzerland small workshops are excluded from the Federal Act, but there is no rigid definition of the boundary line. The old Austrian Industrial Code still applying in the new Austrian Republic, Czecho-Slovakia, and parts of Poland, excludes handicrafts, but does not more exactly define the workplaces covered by this description.

*Period of Exclusion from Work after Childbirth.*

The period of exclusion from work varies from four to eight weeks, of which six weeks must be after the confinement (Germany, part of Poland), and in one case (South Africa) to twelve weeks, eight of which must follow the confinement. In some countries the period of exclusion can be shortened by the production of a medical certificate that the woman is fit to return to work. On the other hand, the six weeks' period in Switzerland can be extended to eight at the request of the woman herself. Reference to Appendix III shows that out of 29 laws (including two for two different parts of Poland, there summarised, 14 provide for a rest of altogether 30 days or

less and 15 provide for five weeks or more. The Japanese regulations, although requiring the five weeks' rest as a rule, allow this period to be reduced to three weeks if the woman is medically fit. Spain allows the period of six weeks to be reduced to four in the same circumstances. Sweden, also, prescribing six weeks in general, allows an earlier return as soon as the woman is fit. The shortest period of exclusion is found in Italy and Denmark. The Italian law fixes four weeks as the general rule, allowing the woman to return to work three weeks after the birth of the child, if she is certified to be fit.\* In Denmark, by virtue of a medical certificate, a woman may return at any time in spite of the usual rule of four weeks' absence.

There is a tendency to increase the period of prohibition. Thus Spain in 1907 adopted six weeks in place of the former three weeks' exclusion from employment after childbirth. Germany in 1908 increased the old period of four weeks to eight weeks. The South African Factories' Act of 1918 provides for exclusion during a period of four weeks before the expected date of confinement, and eight weeks after the birth of the child. A Bill now under consideration in Holland increases the present period of four weeks to eight, six of which must follow the confinement.

Some of the laws fixing four weeks or a month as the limit are of old standing. The Belgian law dates from 1889, the Portuguese from 1891, and the British from 1891.† Most of the laws prescribing a longer term of rest are of comparatively recent date (Sweden and Greece, 1912; Switzerland, 1914; Norway, 1915; Japan, 1916).

One instance to the contrary is reported. The old Swiss Act of 1877 went further than the recent amending Act, in so far as it prescribed a period of two weeks' rest before confinement as well as six weeks after. This pre-natal period of exclusion from employment has disappeared, and the reason

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\* In the special case of cleaning (*Mondatura*) in rice-fields, the Italian law prohibits employment for a month before and a month after confinement.

† This standard remained unaltered when the British Factory Act was amended and consolidated in 1901.

for the change is given in the message of the Federal Council to the Federal Assembly on the proposed amendment of the law, in 1910 (page 77). "Experience showed that the object of this provision, which was to protect pregnant women, was hardly attained at all, because very often the worker could not herself be certain of the date of the confinement or because she did not wish to leave her work and lose her wages, or again because after leaving the factory she engaged in work which might be more laborious than the work she was leaving. It is not expedient to maintain a legal provision which in the unanimous opinion of the inspectors of factories, past and present, cannot be enforced."

*Right to leave Work before Confinement and to demand Reinstatement after the compulsory Rest.*

An attempt is made in some laws to safeguard the position of the woman worker, both as mother and wage-earner, by giving her the right to leave her employment either on medical certificate or without notice within a certain period before her confinement, and to claim reinstatement afterwards. France, Norway, Spain and Sweden expressly give a woman the civil right to leave work without the usual notice when in an advanced state of pregnancy (in Spain during the eighth month, in Norway during the last four weeks, in Sweden during the last two weeks.) In Switzerland a pregnant woman may leave at any time and may not be dismissed on that account. The laws of France, Greece, Norway, Rumania, and Spain expressly require the woman's place to be kept open for her. In Switzerland notice may not be given to a woman while absent on account of childbirth, nor may her notice be such as to expire during her absence.

*Provision of Facilities for Nursing Mothers to feed their Infants.*

Time must be allowed to nursing mothers during the hours of work to feed their infants in the Argentine,

France, Italy, Norway, Spain and Sweden. A Bill now before the Dutch Legislature contains a clause in the same sense. In Denmark a special room must be provided for the use of nursing mothers in workplaces where 25 women are employed; but the Act does not appear to give women employed in smaller places the right to leisure for the purpose of attending to their infants. In Italy a room must be provided in factories employing at least 50 women. In Portugal the same numerical limit is fixed, but the crèche need not be in the factory. Several factories may, instead, establish a joint crèche, provided that it is not more than 300 metres distant from any of them. In France large works employing over 100 women over 15 years of age may be required to provide nursing rooms.

*Insurance Benefits or Allowances Payable in respect of Enforced Absence from Work at the Time of Childbirth.*

Out of the twenty-eight States here considered, twelve have a system of benefits or grants to cover the legal period of exclusion from work at the time of childbirth. These benefits are in some cases directly connected with the legal exclusion, and in others have no ostensible relation with it. In seven countries the benefit here considered forms part of the benefits granted under a general system of sickness insurance. In Italy a special scheme of maternity insurance is in operation, and in France women without means are given special maternity allowances without any element of insurance. These allowances are paid from public monies, and administered by local authorities. In South Africa, an allowance during twelve weeks may, on the report of the inspector, be paid to a woman dependent on her earnings, out of a fund provided by Parliament. In Denmark, women without means may receive public relief in the circumstances, and it is expressly provided that such relief shall not have the effect of poor relief. In Norway necessitous women receive grants ranging from 17 to 45 kr. a month, from which money benefits under the Sickness Insurance

Act are deducted. These grants are allowed, from communal funds, during six weeks preceding the confinement and six months after the birth of the child, on condition that it is breast-fed. In Switzerland sickness insurance is the affair of the cantons. The Federal Act merely provides that sick funds, where instituted, must pay benefit for childbirth in the same way as for sickness. In Czecho-Slovakia, Germany, Norway, and Rumania, the maternity benefit is the same as that paid for ordinary sickness (usually 50 or 60 per cent. of wages). In Great Britain a maternity grant of 30s. is given to the wife from the husband's insurance where the husband is insured. Formerly an insured wife had the usual sickness benefit in addition. But an amending Act of 1913 substituted a second maternity grant of 30s. for the weekly sickness benefit in respect of the four weeks following the confinement. If the husband is not insured the wife has the double maternity benefit (*i.e.*, £3 altogether) from her own insurance. The British maternity benefit is paid as a lump sum, and is not limited to women who are employed in industry nor directly connected with the statutory exclusion of mothers from industrial employment after childbirth, although it is usually accompanied by the condition that the woman receiving it abstains from work during four weeks after confinement. In Holland, instead of the usual 70 per cent. of average wages (grouped in classes) paid as ordinary sickness benefit, the full amount of the average wage must be paid for the whole time of incapacity, both before and after the confinement. Full wages are also provided in Poland under a recent decree, subject to ratification by the Polish Legislature. The Australian Maternity Allowances Act of 1912 must not be overlooked in this connection, although it bears no relation at all to employment. The Act gives a grant of £5 to every Australian woman who gives birth to a child.

In a number of States medical attendance or the services of a "free" midwife are added to the money payment as part of the maternity benefit. Neither in Great Britain, Italy or Holland is the woman given the free services of a midwife or doctor for her confinement. But in Great

Britain, if a woman is rendered incapable of work during pregnancy, she has the right to sickness benefit and medical attendance as in the case of any other sickness. British women also benefit from various public services which may be established by local authorities, for providing advice, nourishment and nursing for pregnant and lying-in women. These services will be fostered and developed under the Ministry of Health recently established. In Belgium a new medical service instituted to safeguard conditions of health in industrial work is expected to devote particular attention to the interests of wage-earning mothers and their children. The Insurance laws of the other countries here considered provide the free services of midwife or doctor, as well as the pecuniary maternity benefit.

In America, the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor has recommended a plan for federal grants to the States in aid of public maternity and infant protection, such protection to take the form of provision of adequate medical and nursing care for the mother both before and after, as well as at the time of the birth of the child, and conference centres for the examination of all children. Legislation embodying this plan will be introduced at the next session of the United States Congress.

One of the chief difficulties that have been experienced in connection with the question of legal prohibition of employment is that of enforcing it. The fact or date of birth is in most cases not known to the employer or to the inspectors, and the Acts usually provide that an employer shall only be penalised for breach of the law if he "knowingly" employed the woman within the prohibited term. The replies received to the questionnaire issued by the Committee do not indicate that any satisfactory solution has yet been found. In one country (Switzerland) the law requires the official charged with the registration of births to send a copy of the certificate of birth of the child of any occupied woman to her employer. The Dutch have devised a very different method. Every married woman in Holland, when entering upon any occupation coming under the Act, must be provided

with a labour card by the local authorities, who are under obligation to keep a record of the cards issued. Each confinement must be recorded on this card and signed by the authority. The employer keeps the card in his possession, and must surrender it when the woman leaves his service. Where an inspector is suspicious of possible evasions of the law, he may require all the workers in any particular undertaking to carry with them duplicates of the cards in the employer's possession.

Neither of the above requirements would prove effective as a general rule. The main safeguard for due observance is the payment of a maternity grant or benefit which will remove the incentive to a too early return to work.

### *Need for Further Investigation.*

The subject of the employment of women before and after childbirth has recently received consideration in England from two Government Committees. The main conclusions at which these Committees arrived is that the question of the employment of women before and after childbirth still stands in need of further investigation by trained persons under conditions and on a scale which will enable them to arrive at a complete understanding of the problem.\* It is possible, if not probable, that the results of such study would show that the ideal period of prohibition varies for different countries, since it must depend to some extent on the nature of the industries carried on and the conditions of life in each.

### CONCLUSIONS.

Owing to the variety of the laws in force in different countries respecting the employment of women before and after childbirth, and in the present state of information, the Organising Committee thinks it only possible to propose

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\* Investigations into the subject have been made in France, in the United States of America, and doubtless in other countries, but the reports dealing with these were not before the Organising Committee.

as a basis for a draft international convention the following principles :—

I. Prohibition of the employment of women in factories and workshops for a period of at least four weeks after childbirth.

II. Adequate maternity benefit for such women to secure proper maintenance and care of both mother and child during the period of her necessary absence from work before and after childbirth. The Committee suggest that this period should be calculated at not less than six weeks.



## EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AT NIGHT.

## (ITEM 3(b) OF THE AGENDA.)

An International Convention dealing with the question of the employment of women at night was adopted at Berne in 1906, and has since been ratified by most of the important industrial states.

A list of the countries which have adhered to this Convention is given below, together with a table showing the position in those countries which have not given their adhesion, and their replies to the questionnaire which asked whether they were prepared to do so.

## CONCLUSION.

The Committee is of opinion that the Conference should recommend adhesion to the Convention to all States members of the League. The text of the Convention is as follows :—

INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION RESPECTING THE PROHIBITION OF NIGHT WORK FOR WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT, CONCLUDED AT BERNE IN 1906.

*Article 1.*—Night work in industrial employment shall be prohibited for all women without distinction of age, with the exceptions hereinafter provided for.

The present Convention applies to all industrial undertakings in which more than ten men or women are employed : it does not in any case apply to undertakings in which only the members of the family are employed.

It is incumbent upon each contracting State to define the term " industrial undertakings." The definition shall in every case include mines and quarries, and also industries in which articles are manufactured and materials transformed : as regards the latter the laws of each individual country shall define the line of division which separates industry from agriculture and commerce.

*Article 2.*—The night rest provided for in the preceding article shall be a period of at least eleven consecutive

hours; within these eleven hours shall be comprised the interval between 10 in the evening and 5 in the morning.

In those States, however, where the night work of adult women employed in industrial occupations is not as yet regulated, the period of uninterrupted rest may provisionally, and for a maximum period of three years, be limited to ten hours.

*Article 3.*—The prohibition of night work may be suspended—

1. 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.

2. 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.

*Article 4.*—In those industries which are influenced by the seasons, and in all undertakings in the case of exceptional circumstances demand it, the period of the uninterrupted night rest may be reduced to ten hours on sixty days of the year.

*Article 5.*—It is incumbent upon each of the contracting States to take the administrative measures necessary to ensure the strict execution of the terms of the present Convention within their respective territories.

Each Government shall communicate to the others through the diplomatic channel the laws and regulations which exist or shall hereafter come into force in their country with regard to the subject matter of the present Convention as well as the periodical reports on the manner in which the said laws and regulations are applied.

*Article 6.*—The present Convention shall only apply to a colony, possession, or protectorate when a notice to this effect shall have been given on its behalf by the Government of the mother country, to the Swiss Federal Council.

Such government, when notifying the adhesion of a colony, possession, or protectorate, shall have the power to declare that the Convention shall not apply to such categories of native labour as it would be impossible to supervise.

*Article 7.*—In extra-European States, as well as in colonies, possessions, or protectorates, when the climate or the condition of the native population shall require it, the period of the uninterrupted night rest may be shorter than the minima laid down in the present Convention provided that compensatory rests are accorded during the day.

*Article 8.*—The present Convention shall be ratified and the ratifications deposited with the Swiss Federal Council by the 31st December, 1908, at the latest.

A record of this deposit shall be drawn up of which one certified copy shall be transmitted to each of the contracting States through the diplomatic channel.

The present Convention shall come into force two years after the date on which the record of deposit is closed.

The time limit for the coming into operation of the present Convention is extended from 2 to 10 years in the case of—

1. Manufactories of raw sugar from beet.
2. Wool combing and weaving.
3. Open mining operations, when climatic conditions stop operations for at least four months every year.

*Article 9.*—The States non-signatories to the present Convention shall be allowed to declare their adhesion to it by an act addressed to the Swiss Federal Council, who will bring it to the notice of each of the other contracting States.

*Article 10.*—The time limits laid down in Article 8 for the coming into force of the present Convention shall be calculated in the case of non-signatory States as well as of colonies, possessions or protectorates, from the date of their adhesion.

*Article 11.*—It shall not be possible for the signatory States, or the States, colonies, possessions, or protectorates who may subsequently adhere, to denounce the present Convention before the expiration of 12 years from the

date on which the record of the deposit of ratifications is closed.

Thenceforward the Convention may be denounced from year to year.

The denunciation will only take effect after the lapse of one year from the time when written notice has been given to the Swiss Federal Council by the Government concerned, or, in the case of a colony, possession, or protectorate, by the Government of the mother country. The Federal Council shall communicate the denunciation immediately to the Governments of each of the other contracting States.

The denunciation shall only be operative as regards the State, colony, possession, or protectorate on whose behalf it has been notified.

In witness whereof the plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention.

Done at Berne this 26th day of September, 1906, in a single copy, which shall be kept in the archives of the Swiss Confederation, and one copy of which, duly certified, shall be delivered to each of the contracting States through the diplomatic channel.

## NIGHT WORK OF WOMEN.

*(a) States which have adhered to the International  
Convention of 1906.*

AUSTRIA.

BELGIUM.

BRITISH EMPIRE.—

Great Britain.

New Zealand.

Ceylon.

Fiji Islands.

Gibraltar.

Gold Coast.

Leeward Islands

Northern Nigeria.

Trinidad.

Uganda Protectorate.

FRANCE.—

Algeria.

Tunis.

GERMANY.

ITALY.

NETHERLANDS.

PORTUGAL.

SPAIN.

SWEDEN.

SWITZERLAND.

## NIGHT WORK OF WOMEN.

(b) *Table showing the Position in Countries which have not adhered to the Convention of 1906.*

Countries.	Date of laws, if any, prohibiting the Night Work of Women.	Replies of Governments to enquiry whether they were disposed to adhere to the Convention.
AMERICA ... ..	The Night Work of Women (between 9 or 10 p.m. and 6 a.m.) in some or all occupations is prohibited in Connecticut, Delaware, Indiana, Kansas, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Wisconsin.	The Federal Government has no jurisdiction in this matter except as regards Government work.
ARGENTINE ... ..	14.10.1907	The Government is prepared to adhere.
BRITISH EMPIRE— Australia—		
New South Wales	1912	—
Victoria ... ..	1915	—
South Australia	1907, 1908, 1910, 1915	—
West Australia ...	1904 and 1911	—
Tasmania ... ..	1910, 1911, 1917	—
Canada ... ..	—	The matter is presumed to lie within the jurisdiction of the Provinces, and has not been the subject of discussion between the Dominion Government and the Provinces.

NIGHT WORK OF WOMEN—*continued.*

Countries.	Date of laws, if any, prohibiting the Night Work of Women.	Replies of Governments to enquiry whether they were disposed to adhere to the Convention.
<i>South Africa</i> ...	1918	—
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA ...	The validity of the Austrian law has been recognised. (28.10.1918.)	—
DENMARK ...	—	A proposal to prohibit the night work of women was rejected by the Legislature in 1913.
JAPAN ...	28.3.1911	—
NORWAY ...	—	The question is at present under consideration by a Committee. Meanwhile the Government can express no opinion.
POLAND ...	—	The question of adhesion is to be considered.
RUMANIA ...	—	The Government is prepared to adhere.
SERBIA ...	—	The Government is prepared to adhere.
SIAM ...	—	The Government is prepared to adhere.

## EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN UNHEALTHY PROCESSES.

## (ITEM 3 (c) OF THE AGENDA.)

This Report has been divided into five sections. The first presents a summary of existing law as regards exclusion of women from unhealthy processes and regulation of their employment in such processes; the second shows the principles on which regulation has proceeded, together with some examples of special safeguards adopted in particular countries; the third contains examples of the beneficial effects of regulation in diminishing the death-rate from industrial disease and reducing the number and severity of cases; the fourth discusses remedial methods; and the fifth contains suggestions and recommendations for international action.

## 1. SUMMARY OF EXISTING LAWS.

Details of the regulations in force in different countries will be found in Appendices V and VII at the end of the volume. Many of these regulations contain both prohibitive and protective clauses; from certain processes women are excluded altogether, to others they are admitted on condition that certain precautions are observed, and these precautions may be binding as regards the entire *personnel* of the factory or workshop. In other instances there is no prohibition due to sex or even to age, but a standard of safeguards is imposed which holds good for every employee alike. Consideration of the different codes of regulation for unhealthy trades adopted in different countries shows that, on the whole, the higher the standard of safety and hygiene applied to processes involving the use of poisonous material, the stronger is the tendency to extend similar methods of protection from industrial disease to both sexes. Wherever there is special regulation of dangerous trades this tendency shows itself very plainly.



The task of setting out the different systems of exclusion and restriction on a tabular plan, which affords the most convenient means of reference and comparison, is not easy, owing to the widely differing methods of regulation adopted by different States. Some countries possess two parallel sets of provisions, the one applying exclusively to women or young persons, or to both, the other to every class of worker exposed to the danger of industrial disease. Under one factory code regulations for the protection of health are general in scope, dealing with types of industrial risk (*e.g.*, from dust, fumes, gases) as they are to be found in a great variety of trades. For example, in Belgium, France and Greece there are regulations, issued by certain authorities under powers given by the Legislature, as regards hygienic measures to be observed in industrial undertakings in general, while in Holland a large number of injurious trades are grouped in classes and regulated accordingly. Under other systems, the perils of each trade are dealt with separately and in detail. A close comparison of small points has therefore been impossible, but the relative extent and completeness of restriction will in general be apparent in the tables. The general and special methods are not mutually exclusive. We find long schedules of trades and processes from which certain groups of workers are excluded in the Argentine, Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Spain and the Canadian province of Quebec; and at the same time in some of these countries special regulations for particular trades applying to both men and women. Belgium, France and Greece furnish examples of this kind. In Great Britain, where there is no general schedule of trades from which women or young workers are excluded, such persons are excluded from various processes, in a few instances by the Factory Act itself, more often by means of special regulations for particular trades, and measures for the protection of health in injurious employments take the form of rules or regulations applying to specific trades. In the American States of Illinois, Missouri, New Jersey, Ohio and Pennsylvania, detailed regulations for certain lead trades are contained in the State Laws. In a number of American

States, including California, Colorado, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, West Virginia and Wisconsin, Industrial Commissions have been set up empowered to issue administrative orders having the effect of law.

### *Exclusion of Women.\**

Certain authorities have power to prohibit the employment of women for reasons of health in the Argentine Republic (as far as the Capital of the Republic is concerned) Austria, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Serbia, Sweden, Switzerland.† In the new Republic of Poland existing laws remain in operation, until modified by the Polish Legislature. At the time of writing this Report, power to prohibit women's employment in unhealthy trades exists consequently only in the Polish territories formerly under German and Austrian government.

In France a schedule of 50 dangerous trades in which the employment of adult women is prohibited was appended to the Decree of March 21, 1914. Of the trades included in this schedule those in which the workers are exposed to risk of poisoning from lead, mercury, phosphorus and arsenic are shown in Appendix V (a); the remainder are for the most part chemical trades or industries involving exposure to injurious fumes or dust of one kind or another [see Appendix V (b)]. Another schedule‡ appended to the same Decree contains a list of trades in which prohibition extends only to specified processes and is not in all cases absolute. Under this

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\* Exclusion from processes which are essentially unhealthy is alone dealt with in this summary. No consideration has been given to prohibition of employment of women and young persons where the ground of exclusion is the hot or heavy nature of work otherwise not injurious to health.

† In Belgium, Italy, and Spain the power of exclusion extends only to women under 21 and particulars of these laws are consequently included in the tables showing restrictions on the employment of young persons [see Appendix VI (a) and (b)]. In Norway the power extends to pregnant women only.

‡ Table C appended to the Decree of March 21, 1914.

schedule women are excluded absolutely from specified processes in 20 different trades and in 16 others they are excluded from certain workrooms if injurious dust or fumes (as the case may be) "are freely disseminated." These exclusions are included in Appendix V (a) or (b) as the case may be. In one case (electric accumulators) the exclusion only applies if the employer fails to carry out the special regulations that have been issued for that trade [see Appendix VIIA (iii)].

In Great Britain adult women are excluded from a number of processes involving contact with lead, shown in Appendix V (a). They are not excluded from any other trades.

In Germany, in those trades for which regulations have been issued, women are excluded from specified processes exposing the workers to the injurious effects of lead, chrome or dust.

The old Austrian regulations for the printing trades and for painting and decorating work which exclude women from certain lead processes still apply in Czecho-Slovakia and the new Austrian Republic, and also in the parts of Poland formerly under Austrian rule.

In Japan the unhealthy trades from which women are excluded are not closely defined. The prohibition extends to "work at places in which dust, fumes or gases are generated from arsenic, mercury, yellow (white) phosphorus, lead, prussic acid, fluorine, aniline, chrome, chlorine, or their chemical compounds or from other similar poisonous substances."

In Holland the Decree of December 6, 1911, which regulates the employment of women and young persons in all factories and workshops and especially in a number of classified dangerous trades, takes the form throughout of absolute or conditional prohibition of employment. The conditional exclusions are not included in Appendix V, since the conditions are such as to amount to detailed regulations. Roughly speaking, it may be said that women may only be employed if regulations on the lines summarised in Appendix VII are observed.

The classified trades from which adult women are

excluded absolutely are 18 in number (*see* Appendix V). All of these are either chemical trades or of an especially dusty nature. Those which involve contact with lead, mercury, phosphorus or arsenic are shown in Appendix V (a). Women are also excluded from certain specific lead processes in the ceramic industry, which is dealt with in a separate part of the Decree.

In Switzerland women are in general excluded from all processes which expose them to serious danger of poisoning. The drying of cigars is the only process from which they are specifically excluded.

In the United States, two instances of the absolute exclusion of women from a poisonous process exist in State laws. Both New Jersey and Pennsylvania prohibit women from handling any dry substance or compound containing more than 2 per cent. of lead. The two States of New York and Ohio forbid women to operate certain kinds of emery and other polishing wheels.

In the appended lists of trades and processes other than those involving risk of poisoning from lead, mercury, phosphorus and arsenic, from which women are excluded in the various countries, a rough classification into four groups (chemical industry, trades involving contact with poisonous dust or fumes, trades involving risk of injury from non-poisonous dust, and other unhealthy trades) has been adopted in order to facilitate comparison. Such classification is, however, necessarily imperfect as more than one risk often attaches to a trade. For instance, injurious fumes may be incidental to a trade, certain processes of which are dangerous by reason of non-toxic dust, or, again, more than one poison may be used at different times in a factory or in different factories coming under a single heading in the schedules from which the lists have been made out. These have, where the double nature of the risk was apparent, been repeated in the list under the corresponding headings.

### *Regulation of Employment.*

Regulation of the employment of women in unhealthy processes—as distinguished from exclusion—takes the form

of general preventive measures applicable to these processes.

In France the conditions attached to the employment of women in the second schedule\* of prohibitions referred to above may have the effect indirectly of improving conditions of work. For instance, women may not be employed in certain processes in ceramic chromolithography "when dust is disseminated in the workrooms." The rule of exclusion would consequently cease to have effect if adequate means were taken to prevent the dissemination of dust. In addition, special regulations have been issued for the protection of health in a number of trades. Those of particular interest for the purpose of this Report are the regulations for a group of lead trades, for the prevention of arsenical poisoning in the manufacture of aceto-arsenite of copper, for the prevention of mercurial poisoning in fur-cutting, and for the prevention of anthrax.

In Belgium there are regulations for the prevention of lead poisoning in house-painting, and in the manufacture of white lead and lead compounds; of mercurial poisoning in fur-cutting; of anthrax in brush factories; of phosphorus poisoning in match factories. The last-named will become obsolete when the Belgian Government has formally adhered to the International Convention of 1906 prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. Adherence to the Convention was made the subject of a Government Bill in 1914, which is expected to pass into law before the meeting of the International Conference at Washington.

In Great Britain there are regulations† for 10 different industries involving contact with lead (manufacture of white lead, brass casting, manufacture of electric accumulators, vitreous enamelling of metal or glass, file cutting by hand, lead smelting, manufacture of paints and colours,

\* Table C annexed to the Decree of March 21, 1914.

† In some cases these are technically "special rules" issued under the old Factory Acts of 1891 and 1895. In 1901 a new method of issuing "regulations" for dangerous trades was instituted. The distinction is, however, of no importance for the purposes of this Report.

manufacture and decoration of pottery, tinning of metal hollow-ware and the heading of yarn dyed by means of a lead compound). At present there are no regulations in force dealing with processes in which mercury is used, but draft regulations for the prevention of mercurial poisoning are under consideration. Protection from the risk of arsenical poisoning in the manufacture of paints and colours is provided for in the same regulations as those referred to above in connection with lead poisoning. Other injurious trades specially regulated in Great Britain are: the manufacture of nitro- and amido-derivatives of benzene, the manufacture of chromate and bichromate of potassium or sodium, bronzing, the spinning and weaving of flax and tow, the grinding of metals and racing of grindstones, the spinning and weaving of hemp, jute and hemp or jute tow, the vulcanising of india-rubber, the chemical group, and the manufacture of silica bricks. There are four sets of rules for the prevention of anthrax, applying respectively to various industries involving the handling of wool, hair, or hides. Regulations have also been issued in Great Britain under the Cotton Cloth Factories Act of 1911 for humid textile mills, and Rules (by the Ministry of Munitions under the Defence of the Realm Regulations 1914) for the use of trinitrotoluene, one of the derivatives of the benzene family.

In Germany regulations have been issued for the following trades involving the risk of lead poisoning: the manufacture of lead colours, painting and decorating work, the manufacture of electric accumulators, printing works and type foundries, and zinc smelting. There are also regulations for the vulcanisation of india-rubber, the manufacture of cigars, the manufacture of alkaline chromates, the grinding of slag, and for prevention of anthrax in horsehair and brush works.

The same regulations are still in operation in that part of the new Polish Republic which was formerly under German rule. In Polish territory formerly Austrian, the regulations under the old Austrian Industrial Code, namely, rules for printing works and for painting operations, remain at present in force. These regulations are

still in operation also in the new Austrian Republic and the Czecho-Slovak Republic.

In Greece special regulations have been issued for printing works.

In Holland injurious trades are regulated comprehensively by two separate decrees, one in pursuance of the Labour Act, applying exclusively to women and young persons, and the other in pursuance of the Safety Act, applying to all workers. The classification of processes is practically the same in the two cases. Class A includes workrooms where 18 different injurious trades are carried on. Most of these are chemical trades, but the list also includes the making of electric accumulators, lead enamelling, and work in places where crushing, grinding and other preliminary dusty processes in the manufacture of artificial manures, cement and other substances, or dry grinding of metals or glass, is carried on. Class B includes workrooms where persons are employed in (1) bronzing; (2) the mixing or using of poisonous colours; (3) the making of poisonous cyanide compounds, and (4) polishing with materials containing lead. Class C includes workrooms in which poisonous dusts or vapours are given off from a number of specified chemical substances (ammonia, benzene, mercury and many others). Class D includes seven processes involving risk of anthrax infection. Class E includes 15 trades involving the use of metallic lead. Class F consists of workrooms where lead is used in the diamond cutting and polishing industry. Class G includes a number of dusty trades not involving contact with any specific poisons. The tobacco industry constitutes Class H; the breaking, swingling, &c., of flax or hemp without mechanical power, Class J; Class K is made up of six processes in the textile industry. Class L consists of the different processes of the ceramic industry. In the regulations under the Labour Act a special chapter is devoted to this industry. It consists chiefly of provisions excluding young persons or women from especially dangerous processes. Provision is also made for women employed in certain processes to be medically examined every three months by a medical officer of the Department of Labour

Inspection. Technical measures for the prevention or removal of poisonous dust are included in the general Decree for Class L (ceramic industry).

A note of the statutory regulations issued by five State legislatures of the United States of America will be found in Appendix VII (p. 149 (i)). These regulations differ from those in other countries in that their detailed provisions form a part of the actual statute. A number of the American states, especially in the Western area, being practically wholly devoted to agriculture and stock raising are without special regulation of conditions in unhealthy trades, which, as far as these areas are concerned, can scarcely be said to exist. In other areas, already industrialised, or rapidly becoming industrial, standards of hygiene are being set up by Industrial Commissions after inquiry, and these, on publication, acquire the force of law. Owing to their number, and to the lack of any accessible compilation of these administrative orders, it has not been possible to include them in the tables appended.

In the statement received from the British Government the principal means of safeguarding the worker against injury in unhealthy trades and processes are summarised as follows :—

- (1) The periodical medical examination of the worker ;
- (2) The removal at the point of origin of poisonous dust or fumes, or the prevention of their escape into the air of the workplace ;
- (3) Provision for personal cleanliness such as washing accommodation, baths, cloakrooms, protective clothing ;
- (4) Mess rooms, entirely separate from workrooms ;
- (5) Strict attention to detail in the collection of waste material and the periodical cleansing of the workplace ; and
- (6) Construction and furnishing of workplaces.

These points have been taken as the main heads for the tables comparing the regulations of the different countries.

## 2. PRINCIPLES OF REGULATION.

Study of the regulations summarized in the preceding section show a general approximation on the part of the



States concerned in framing them to certain principles, coupled with considerable variety of method and application.

Of the four most important poisonous substances used in manufacture, *lead*, *mercury*, *phosphorus*, and *arsenic*, *lead* is by far the most important, both from the point of view of its value in manufacture and of its proved effect on the health of women workers. It was shown by the published evidence of medical and other expert witnesses before the British Government Pottery Committee appointed in 1908 that the attack rate of women employed in certain lead processes of that industry was considerably higher than the attack rate of men similarly employed, the average rates over a period of 11 years (1899-1909) being, for instance, more than three times as numerous among female as compared with male dippers' assistants. Again, the number of miscarriages among women who had worked in lead before marriage was found to be nearly three times as great as among artisan mothers; and in the case of lead workers after marriage the number was nearly four times as great. Since the date when this Committee reported (1910), the beneficial effect of the drastic code of Regulations which was the outcome of their Report and recommendations has materially reduced the special danger to women in the pottery industry, but it is still held to be so great where raw (unfritted) lead and its more dangerous compounds are handled, as in white lead manufacture, that from processes in this category they are excluded in Great Britain as in France, Germany and the Netherlands.

The belief that employment which involves contact with *mercury* and *mercurial compounds* is specially dangerous to women is reflected not only in the regulations of France, Holland and Japan, but also in those of Western Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand and South Africa.

The most important prohibitions of women's employment in the manufacture of compounds of *arsenic* occur in the French regulations.

Several States prohibit their employment also in the manufacture of *phosphorus* (as distinguished from its use

in the manufacture of matches); others have no prohibition under this head, doubtless because employment in this industry is with them limited, as in Great Britain, by custom to male operatives.

There are, then, considerable existing differences between State and State on the point of exclusion of women from processes scheduled as unhealthy, even where the dangerous material involved belongs to the first well-known group of four industrial poisons. Similar differences are to be found in connection with the "other processes" which constitute the second group. These belong largely to the chemical trades. In point of detailed safeguards—where not prohibition but regulation is in question—great variations in the scope and extent of special regulations applicable to women's employment also occur. A few particular provisions and methods are worth noting.

The foundation of the British system of regulation is laid upon the duty of the employer to notify the factory inspector of any case of lead, phosphorus, arsenical or mercurial poisoning, anthrax or toxic jaundice which occurs in his factory or workshop, and of a similar obligation on the part of the medical practitioner called to attend the case, to send notice of it to the Chief Inspector of Factories.

In the United States of America, beginning in 1911 with California, some fifteen States have enacted laws requiring physicians to report cases of certain occupational diseases. The reports serve to point out to factory inspectors and health officials some of the danger points in industry, and with the inclusion of disability due to occupational disease as a personal injury under several of the workmen's accident compensation laws still more information is brought to light.

The French regulations forbidding the actual handling of oxides and other lead compounds either in the wet or dry state, except by means of a tool, by any worker not wearing impermeable gloves, and forbidding dippers in potteries to work bare-handed where the glaze or other mixture contains litharge, red lead, alquifoux or white

lead, are the first of their kind. Those of 1913, dealing with the processes of mouth-blowing in glassworks and of "blowing out" in the manufacture of tin hollow ware, and those laying down precautions to be observed in the use of quick-setting cement, the introduction and working up in textile factories of used bandages, swabs, etc., from hospitals, and the manipulation of soiled linen in laundries also stand alone at present.

In Belgium, in addition to the general regulations as regards removal of fumes and dust, air space, and other like provisions of special importance in unhealthy processes which are applicable in workplaces scheduled (for purposes of public health) as dangerous, unhealthy, or noxious, there is a wider power taken under a general regulation of 1905 applying these provisions, together with certain others in respect of lavatories and protective clothing, to all industrial and commercial undertakings subject to the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1903. Among special regulations applying to the employment of women and young persons are:—The prohibition of their employment in the carotting of hare and rabbit skins, and Orders regulating conditions in fur-cutting, in the use of white lead in house painting, and for the prevention of anthrax in brush factories by disinfection of all bristles immediately on unpacking.

The Dutch regulations both under the Labour Act and under the Safety Act contain special detailed provisions for cubic space to be allowed in workrooms according to the nature of the trade, and, where women and young persons are employed, the exact height of such "injurious" workrooms is carefully fixed. Sufficiency and intensity of lighting, in processes likely to be injurious to the eyesight, is also provided for, and a separate and higher unit of lighting prescribed for such processes than that which is to obtain in ordinary workrooms.

The German regulations for the prevention of anthrax in works where horsehair, hides, bristles and wool are handled are framed on lines very similar to the British regulations of 1905, but they apply to brush works as well as to places in which wool, hides and skins, and hair

are handled. Special German regulations also apply to work on house painting (1905), manufacture (finishing) of cigars (1907), and to employment in printing works and foundries (1897).

Under the Federal Law of Switzerland, where no factories may be erected without permission from the Government, the competent authority may require suspension of work and even withdraw its sanction for the carrying on of the industry if this is found to affect unfavourably the health and life of the workpeople. There are wide general hygienic provisions, and, in addition, the factory inspectors are given special powers for special industries such as those in which lead and its compounds are used, printing works, and cigar factories.

*Classification of risks.*—There are four main classes into which, on the basis of the channel of absorption, industrial poisons may be divided: Those, like lead, where the danger is from dust or fumes absorbed by the air passages and carried into the blood: those which enter through the skin, as in the case of nitro- and amido-derivatives of benzene and its homologues, such as T.N.T.: those which affect the nervous system, such as sulphuretted hydrogen or carbon bisulphide: those which disorganise the metabolism of the body, such as tetrachlorethane.

*Classification of Safeguards.*—Where the danger is from dust or fumes, the remedy is removal at the point of origin by some system of mechanical exhaust ventilation, or prevention of escape into the air of the workroom by the use of closed machines in which work attended by production of dust, gases, or fumes may be done without affecting the purity of the air. Where the skin is the channel of absorption, means to ensure the maintenance of scrupulous cleanliness in the conduct of the processes and by the workers both in their persons and surroundings are required. Such means include provision for washing accommodation, baths, cloak-rooms, protective clothing and head coverings, messrooms entirely separated from workshops, and strict attention to detail in the collection of waste material, the periodical cleansing of the workplace, and its construction and fur-

nishing. These two classes cover the principal material precautions to be taken in connection with the employment of persons in poisonous or otherwise unhealthy processes. Another, which is needed in all cases, is the periodic examination by a medical practitioner with the power of suspending from employment in the dangerous trade or process any person who shows signs of being injuriously affected by the poisonous nature of the work. While the extraordinary fall in the number of cases—still more in the number of acute and fatal cases—among women employed in lead processes in the British Pottery Industry, must be attributed largely to the introduction of efficient systems of mechanical exhaust ventilation which remove the poisonous dust before it can reach the worker, no doubt is felt by experts that the regular monthly medical examination has also played a most valuable part in the achievement of this satisfactory result. The importance of detecting plumbism in its early stages cannot be overrated; and the fact that since 1898, when monthly medical examination of women and young persons became compulsory under Special Rules,\* suspension from work has taken place on the appearance of symptoms of lead poisoning has probably done more than any other regulation to reduce the average severity of attack—a reduction at least as remarkable as that in the number of reported cases. These are divided into three categories for the purpose of report, “slight,” “moderate,” and “severe.” “Slight” cases are those in which the symptoms are confined either to colic without complications and of short duration, or anæmia in adolescence aggravated by employment; “moderate” are those which show (1) combination of colic with anæmia, (2) profound anæmia apparently without complications, (3) incipient paralysis; “severe” are those in which the patient suffers either from (1) marked paralysis, such as total wrist drop, (2) encephalopathic conditions, such as convulsions, (3) loss of sight, or (4) mental affections. The proportion of cases falling into the first or second categories has been steadily increasing since 1900, and “severe” cases are now few in number.

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\* Since 1903 medical examination of adult men has also been compulsory.

### 3. EFFECTS OF REGULATION.

The Annual Reports of the Chief Inspector of Factories (Great Britain) show from year to year instructive examples of the value of protective regulation and improvement of the conditions under which unhealthy processes are carried on in particular trades. Tables setting out these examples will be found in Appendix V (c). They may be briefly summarised here.

The record, covering all reported cases of poisoning under the heads of lead, mercury, phosphorus and arsenic, together with cases of anthrax and toxic jaundice, for the period 1900–1918, shows a diminution in the number of cases as follows:—

*Men.*—From 909 with 38 deaths to 184 with 19 deaths (1914: 469 with 34 deaths).

*Boys.*—From 25 with 3 deaths to 8 with no death (1914: 10 with no death).

*Women.*—From 165 with 7 deaths to 66 with 10 deaths (1914: 26 with 2 deaths).

*Girls.*—From 29 with no death to 7 with 1 death (1914: 5 with no death).

In the most important group of unhealthy trades and processes—the lead group—the fall is even more marked:—

*Men.*—From 862 with 30 deaths to 123 with 11 deaths (1914: 415 with 27 deaths).

*Boys.*—From 21 with 3 deaths to 1 with no death (1914: 4 with no death).

*Women.*—From 150 with 5 deaths to 20 with no death (1914: 23 with 1 death).

*Girls.*—From 24 with no death to 1 with no death (1914: 3 with no death).

If a single trade employing a relatively large number of women and girls in dangerous lead processes—the pottery industry—be singled out of this group, the same results appear:—

*Men.*—From 86 with 4 deaths to 5 with no death (1914: 19 with 5 deaths).

*Boys.*—From 9 with no death to 0 (1914: 1 with no death).

*Women.*—From 93 with 4 deaths to 6 with no death (1914: 7 with 1 death).

*Girls.*—From 12 with no death to 0 (1914: 0).

The 1918 figures are not fully comparable with those of 1900 owing, on the one hand, to the introduction during the war of processes, largely carried on by women, giving rise to a great number of cases of toxic jaundice, and, on the other, of the shrinkage in number of persons employed in certain of the trades using lead in the form most dangerous to health. The 1914 figures are the more important and conclusive, being unaffected by the special circumstances of the war period.

It will be seen that the proportion of deaths to cases among adult male leadworkers remains apparently high; and this in spite of the fact that the new cases of later years are almost invariably of a much milder type than those occurring before the introduction of the amended Regulations of 1913 and the structural improvements in factories which have taken place since the beginning of the century. This apparent anomaly is explained by the fact that the great majority of deaths occur in the case of old workers who were exposed for years to lead absorption in the days of raw (unfritted) lead, when provision for removing poisonous dust by mechanical exhaust, for ensuring cleanliness and preventing contact between the poisonous ingredient and the food of the worker had not yet been made or enforced. In a considerable number of instances the men who thus die have been chronic sufferers for years from lead poisoning itself or one of the diseases which it sets up, such as nephritis.

It is not claimed that the whole of the improvement which has been effected is due to protective regulation. In the pottery industry some share in the steady shrinkage in the number of cases is no doubt due to increasing substitution of leadless glazes and low solubility glazes (containing not more than 5 per cent. of soluble lead) for glazes containing soluble lead in high proportion. In the North Staffordshire district the use of leadless glaze has more than trebled since 1913, and the same is true of low solubility glazes. Whereas the number of leadless glaze certificates issued in 1913 was 13, and of low solubility certificates 10, the number of firms working under

these two classes of certificates had risen in 1918 to 67 and 64 respectively.\*

Anthrax infection forms an exception to the reduction of cases under regulations. Reference to Appendix V (c) shows that not only is no tendency to fall shown, but in 1916 and 1917 there was in the class of worker mainly exposed to risk of infection a marked rise in the number of cases among adult men, the former year showing the highest total (66) on record, with 14 deaths (the highest number save in 1906). There was a corresponding rise of cases among boys (4 in 1900 with no death, to 11 in 1916 with no death, and 12 in 1917 with 2 deaths); and among women (5 with 2 deaths in 1900, 23 with 2 deaths and 19 with 1 death in 1916 and 1917 respectively), but these figures are less significant, owing to the abnormal number of women and young persons employed in the wool-combing industry as a result of temporary war exigencies. In this instance it is now recognised that a different remedy is required, and that nothing short of a complete elimination of the infection from the material is sufficient. Anthrax is not, like poisoning, caused by a known chemical compound or other substance used in manufacture, but by a living organism accidentally attached to the material and giving no indication of its presence there. A system of disinfection of dangerous wool and hides before they are handled by the operatives, which has been worked out as a result of five years' study and experiment by a Committee on Anthrax, is now to be applied in Great Britain.

#### 4. REMEDIAL METHODS.

While admitting the risk to all persons employed in processes involving the use of poisonous elements, it appears from the foregoing that in certain of these pro-

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\* These are certificates given by the Home Office which exempt a factory where (a) only leadless glaze or (b) low solubility glaze is used from certain requirements of the regulations. Although the number of leadless glaze certificates slightly exceeds those issued for low solubility, the advance in respect of low solubility is actually greater, since the low solubility certificates relate to some of the largest potteries in the country.



cesses the risk is particularly high for women. The question arises as to the best way of meeting and minimising this risk, or of removing it altogether.

There is, first, the way of exclusion from the trade, or of absolute prohibition of the employment of women in the process. This affords complete protection for the women who might otherwise have entered the industry to their hurt, and is so far satisfactory, but it is not without serious drawbacks. By its adoption, a number of avenues of employment, otherwise suitable for them, are closed to women; manufacture loses a valuable potential supply of labour; and—most unfortunate in its general effects—the unhealthiness of the trade or process is perhaps accepted as incurable, and its conditions are apt to become stereotyped for lack of incentive to improve them, with grievous results to the health of the men (and in some cases the boys) by whom they are exclusively staffed.

In the second place, there falls to be considered the less drastic, more difficult, but also more hopeful and fruitful way of regulation.

The British statistics given in Section 3 (see p. 37) and Appendix V (c) furnish a proof of the progress that can be made in the direction of securing safety for the worker's life and health, even in trades where the risk of poisoning is undeniably high; and probably figures from other countries, were they available, would tell a tale of similar results reached in differing degrees. Among the advantages of regulation may be counted the fact that no single set of rules is a hard-and-fast system established in perpetuity; it is, on the contrary, at all times susceptible of amendment and extension as knowledge of each special industrial disease increases and science provides us with better weapons of defence against it. Further, existing systems become more and more efficacious as they are administered with growing insight and experience by officials, and as employers and workers alike become better educated in the use of them. The limit of safety possible under efficient regulation has by no means been reached. In addition, the introduction of the special conditions required for safety tends to improve the general

conditions of the trade regulated, to the gain of the whole *personnel* employed.

There is, however, a still more excellent way—the substitution, for the poisonous element, of one that is harmless. Only along this road can the goal of complete safety be reached; unless, indeed, the danger is of a kind which can be eliminated by some form of preliminary treatment as in anthrax. It is legitimate to expect the reduction, under complete regulations, carefully observed and strictly administered, of lead poisoning to a very small annual minimum of cases; it is hardly conceivable, given the liability of mankind to err and machinery to break down and get out of order, coupled with the curious susceptibility of certain human organisms to toxic attack, that no cases would occur. Some constitutions respond with fatal quickness to the disintegrating effect of such an industrial poison as lead; others, having been saturated with the poison in days before protective regulation was, need only the smallest additional provocation—such as might, perhaps, pass a healthy new worker harmlessly by—to develop full-blown plumbism. The obligation to carry on the search for harmless substitutes is therefore still incumbent on governments, men of science, and employers in dangerous trades. Especially as regards fields where a possibility of substitution, partial if not complete, has been already proved, as in the glazing of certain kinds of pottery with leadless glaze and the decorating of buildings with paint in which another ingredient has been substituted for white lead, is the obligation strong and compelling.\* The possibility of co-ordinating national research on international lines, with international legislation for the dangerous trades as the final outcome of experiment and discovery, should make the several countries forward to take quick and effectual action in mobilising their scientific forces for this undertaking.

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\* The substitution for tetrachlorethane in dopes used for aeroplane wings (so fruitful in the production of cases of poisoning during the war) of other elements which, although not wholly without disagreeable effects, did not produce toxic jaundice, is an instance of successful substitution recently achieved by research.

## 5. SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL ACTION

### (a) *Prospective.*

If it be agreed, as in principle has already been admitted, that the conditions in unhealthy trades are a proper field for international action, especially where women and young persons are concerned, it follows that that line of action is to be preferred which promises the most fruitful results for industry and the worker in industry alike. It seems clear that this will be found, not in a more general or rigorous exclusion of special classes of workers from certain trades and processes, but in a successful endeavour to make these safe and harmless for all comers.

Here is a great task, laborious as well as lofty, demanding in most instances time for enquiry and experiment. While this preliminary part of the work can and should be carried out by each State within its own borders, working through its own officials and laboratories, the work as a whole would receive a strong stimulus if, when the International Labour Office is set up, there were constituted within it a branch charged with the duty of encouraging all study and experiment having as their end the elimination of the dangers attending employment in unhealthy processes. It should be a principal duty of that Office to ascertain the existing industrial conditions in the different countries, to stimulate research with a view to their improvement, and, where it may be necessary, to undertake research itself. The labour laws of the States taking part in the International Conference, in so far as they apply to dangerous and unhealthy trades, are at present extremely unequal in scope, and at times inconsistent in principle; the importance of extending their range where this is too narrow, and of giving them a common orientation on agreed lines, is obviously of great importance, alike on humane and on economic grounds. A co-ordinating international body could do much to achieve this desirable end.

It might also, from time to time, re-direct the attention of Governments to problems of protection attacked but left unsolved by earlier enquiry (the occurrence of scrotal

epithelioma or "pitch cancer" in makers of patent fuel will serve as an illustration of cases in mind). Science breaks fresh ground continually. The problem which appeared insoluble a few years ago may have its unsuspected solution waiting, ready-made, for it to-day, won by researches in other parts of the field of knowledge; or the enquiry baffled in one country may be transferred with success to another.

Again, where the most notable gains have been made, international action becomes necessary to place them at the service of humanity at large. Here an illustration is at hand in the newly devised British measures for dealing with anthrax infection.

(b) *Immediate.*

In respect of the questions touched on in the previous paragraphs, the necessity of time for enquiry and discussion before proceeding to international regulations may be granted. It does not, however, follow that there are no questions of this kind ripe for common action without delay. Certain steps in the promotion of means for diminishing effectively the risks of employment in unhealthy processes could be taken at once.

First, a comparative study might be made by the International Labour Office of the measures established in different countries to deal with unhealthy trades, the methods of administering them and their results. This would bring to notice any defects in these measures, any special points of excellence which could be recommended for general adoption, and the questions on which further investigation was needed. Where the need of continued research was shown, this could be organised by the International Labour Office.

Again, agreements might be promoted for putting into immediate force certain well-established principles, such as the prohibition of the use of raw or unfritted lead in manufacture and the carrying on of unhealthy processes in domestic premises, where it is impossible to apply necessary safeguards. The present exemption from regulations in some countries of factories and workshops

employing less than a certain number of workers might also with great advantage form the subject of early agreements with a view to its abolition. Experience shows that in small factories and workshops, owing to their frequently faulty construction and poor equipment, the worker engaged in an unhealthy process is often exposed to greater risks than in large ones, and in such establishments, therefore, stands in at least equal need of the protection which can be given by law. So long as the smaller class of workplaces remains exempted from the obligation to adopt the prescribed safeguards for health it is hopeless to anticipate the stamping out of industrial disease, especially in those countries and trades where the workplace employing a small personnel abounds.

In the case of anthrax common action will be needed to control the importation of infected wool, hides and skins, and hair, in order that the means now proved efficacious for disinfection before the materials are handled in the factory may be applied for general prevention of anthrax.

#### RECOMMENDATION.

The Organising Committee express the view that unhealthy processes can and ought to be made the subject of regulations based on the principles which the general experience of the different industrial countries has shown or may show to be effective. Some of these have already been indicated in general terms above, e.g., prevention of dangerous dusts and fumes entering the air of the workroom; provisions for personal cleanliness; substitution of harmless materials, etc. The processes to be dealt with are extremely complicated. The regulations in force in the different countries are elaborate and the Committee have not had sufficient time or information to prepare a satisfactory scheme. They accordingly recommend that the International Labour Office be instructed to continue their inquiries into the question as it affects all workers, male and female, and to prepare a report and recommendations for the next and subsequent Conferences.

## CHAPTER II.

### EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN.

#### MINIMUM AGE OF EMPLOYMENT.

(ITEM 4 (a) OF THE AGENDA.)

#### I.—SUMMARY OF EXISTING LAWS.

*Fourteen* is the age for admission to employment in industry in the following countries:—The United States of America\*, Belgium, Great Britain, Bulgaria, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Greece, Norway, Serbia, Sweden (girls only), Switzerland; five Australian States: New South Wales, Victoria (girls, 15), Queensland, Western Australia, Tasmania; seven provinces of Canada: Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba (girls, 15), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, British Columbia, Saskatchewan; and New Zealand. *Thirteen* is the minimum age fixed in France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden (boys only) and South Australia; *twelve* in the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Italy, Japan, Mexico, and Portugal; *eleven* in Rumania; *ten* in Spain; and *nine* in India. A few instances of a higher minimum limit are found in seven states of America: California, Maine, Michigan, Montana, Ohio, South Dakota and Texas; in one province of Canada, Alberta; and for girls in two other Canadian provinces: British Columbia and Manitoba; and the

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\* In the United States of America the national minimum for industrial employment is in effect established at 14 years of age by a tax of 10 per cent. on the entire net profits for the taxable year of any mill, cannery, workshop, factory or manufacturing establishment in which children under that age have been employed or permitted to work (Title XII of the Revenue Act of 1918). The Federal Child Labour Act of 1916, which prohibited the shipment in interstate or foreign commerce of the products of child labour was held unconstitutional by the American Supreme Court. The constitutionality of the tax on Employment of Child Labour has not yet been passed upon by the Supreme Court, but it has in the past taken a very liberal view of the taxation powers of Congress. Forty-five states establish by statute an age minimum of 14 or higher for employment in factories, &c.

State of Victoria in Australia, where the minimum age is *fifteen*. It is *sixteen* in one American State: Montana.

In five countries (Czecho-Slovakia, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden) and in thirty-six American States, children who have not passed an educational standard are excluded from industrial employment after reaching the age fixed for absolute exclusion.

In countries where the general age limit is fixed at *fourteen* there are cases in which a lower limit is allowed. This may include, as in Great Britain\* and Germany, children employed elsewhere than in factories and mines; or in special work connected with seasonal trades and in street trading, as in several of the provinces of Canada, where the age limit is *twelve* (*ten* in one case); or again, as in New Zealand, in special cases authorised by the inspector if the child has an educational certificate (age limit *thirteen*), or with educational and medical certificates, as in France (where the age limit is *twelve*). Moreover, in certain States permits are given for employment at *ten* in light agricultural and domestic work (Czecho-Slovakia, Japan) and with a school-leaving certificate at *ten* in Portugal.

It has been remarked that in general the age for employment in mines—employment being usually restricted to boys—is higher than that for employment in factories and workshops.† There are, however, some exceptions to this rule, the age for employment in mines in British Columbia (metalliferous mines only), Nicaragua, Nova Scotia, and the Yukon Territory, and in Portugal being *twelve* only. In France the minimum age for trammers is *thirteen*, for assistants, or apprentices at the face, *fourteen*, while for all other underground work a boy must have attained the age of *fifteen*. *Fourteen* is the usual minimum age in Europe, but instances of a higher age of entry are not wanting. The minimum is *fifteen* in two provinces of

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\* To a strictly limited extent out of school hours.

† A striking example is provided in Spain, where children under 16 are excluded from underground work in mines, and for actual extraction of minerals and the use of explosives the age-limit is 18, although children of 10 may be engaged in regular work in factories.

Canada (British Columbia and Quebec), Greece (underground work), and Sweden.

In America the Tax on Employment of Child Labour Act in effect prohibits the employment of children under *sixteen* in any mine or quarry.\* This is the statutory age in one province of Canada (Alberta, underground), South Africa (underground) and Spain, where also the minimum age for employment in extraction of minerals or work carried on by means of explosives is *eighteen*; *seventeen* in the parts of Poland formerly ruled by Russia and in the State of Texas; *eighteen* in the State of Arizona (underground), in Bulgaria and in the State of Wisconsin.

## II. ATTITUDE OF THE GOVERNMENTS ON THE QUESTION OF - RAISING THE AGE LIMIT.

In the matter of raising the limit of age two countries (Czecho-Slovakia and the Netherlands) have Bills before their Legislature proposing to increase the limit to *fourteen*. In France the Labour Committee of the Chamber of Deputies has recommended *fourteen* as the age limit, and the Government is disposed to adopt this for normal work. At the same time it considers that half-time employment should be allowed to school children at *thirteen* in the interest of industrial training, to be carried on in workshops giving certain guarantees. In America, the Children's Bureau Conference on Child Welfare Standards called by the Secretary of Labor adopted as the minimum standards for children entering employment an age minimum of *sixteen* for employment in any occupation, of *eighteen* for employment in and about mines and quarries, an educational minimum of completion of the elementary schools, and a physical minimum secured by a public health or school physician's determination as to whether each child is of the normal development of a child

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\* As in the case of employment of children under 14 in factories etc., referred to above, this Act levies a 10 per cent. tax on the entire net profits for the taxable year of any mine or quarry in which children under 16 years of age are employed or permitted to work (Title XII of the Revenue Act of 1918).



of his age and physically fit\* for the work at which he is to be employed before a work permit is issued.

Poland and Sweden† are prepared to adopt *fourteen* as the age limit. Rumania is also willing, on condition that necessary modifications are made in her educational law, under which primary school studies are completed at the age of twelve. Serbia is also prepared to adopt this limit where industrial conditions are favourable, but proposes *twelve* temporarily for more backward districts. Norway, which at present allows exemption at *twelve* with a medical certificate and permission from the factory inspector after consultation with the school authorities, has a Commission on Child Labour sitting, and can give no definite reply as to the abolition of this exemption pending the Report of that Commission. The Argentine Republic is willing to extend the limit from *twelve* to *thirteen*. There is no information as to the views of the Governments of Brazil, Italy, or Portugal on this point. The Government of Spain, where the present age limit is fixed at *ten*, states that it could not accept the proposed limit without previous study and extended enquiry, on account of the effect which the raising of the age limit might have on the training of workmen, in view of the absence of any suitable organisation of learnership and apprenticeship in Spain. It intimates that a higher limit of age of admission is at present held by employers and workpeople alike to be injurious to young persons and their families, and to industry. The Dominion of Canada presumes the question to be within the jurisdiction of the provinces, and states that it has not been the subject of discussion between the Dominion Government and the Governments of the respective provinces. The Government of Siam points out that the only children employed in that country are Chinese children who work under Chinese employers and usually begin work at the age of *eight*. It is intimated that the Siamese Government will probably agree to

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\* Certificates of fitness must be obtained by children before they are allowed to enter upon employment in several countries and in seven American States.

† For industrial occupations only.

follow, in such matters, the policy adopted by the other Far Eastern States, on condition that a sufficient delay is allowed them to carry out the reform without provoking racial troubles.

### III.—RECOMMENDATION.

The Committee submit for the consideration of the Conference a draft Convention prohibiting the employment in industrial work of children below the age of *fourteen* years.

#### DRAFT OF A CONVENTION TO FIX THE AGE OF ADMISSION OF CHILDREN TO INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT AT 14 YEARS.

1. Children under the age of 14 years shall not be employed or work in any industrial undertaking other than an undertaking in which only the members of the family are employed.

Industrial undertakings shall be deemed to include the following :—

(a) Mines and quarries.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, repaired, ornamented, finished or adapted for sale, or materials are transformed (including the generation and transformation of electricity, shipbuilding, laundry work).

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland navigation, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, water work or other work of construction, and the preparation for and laying the foundations of any such work or building.

(d) The transport of passengers or goods by road or rail, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves and at warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

The national law shall define the line of division which separates industry on the one side and commerce and agriculture on the other.

2. In the case of children between 13 and 14, whose education under the national law includes technical training, this Convention shall not prohibit such technical training being given by way of employment in industrial undertakings in accordance with the direction and subject to the control of the educational authority.

3. 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 children employed by him and of the dates of their birth.

4. In those countries in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organisation or other special circumstances render the industrial efficiency of the workers substantially different, the following modifications of the provisions of this Convention may take effect\* :—

5. The provisions of this Convention may be suspended in any country by order of the Government in the event of war or of imminent danger of war.

6. The provisions of this Convention shall be brought into force not later than the 1st January, 1922.

\* As in the case of the other subjects on the Agenda the Committee has been unable to make any suggestions as to the modifications required in the case of the countries mentioned in para. 2 of article 427 of the Treaty as the replies from Japan, India and some other countries had not been received, but they desire to record the following suggestion put forward tentatively by Mr. Oka (Japan) :—

(1) The limitation of the age of employment should be restricted to industrial undertakings in which more than 10 persons are employed, i.e., should be subject to the same restrictions as those provided by Article 3 of the draft convention drawn up at Berne in 1913.

(2) The minimum age should be fixed either at 13 or 14 years of age, allowing exceptions in the case of children who have completed their course of elementary education.

## EMPLOYMENT OF YOUNG PERSONS DURING THE NIGHT.

## (ITEM 4 (b) OF THE AGENDA.)

The replies received to the questionnaire issued by the Committee to the different Governments show that fifteen countries (including two of the British Dominions and five Australian States) have already adopted the age (16) recommended by the Berne Conference of 1913, as the general minimum for employment during the night in industrial work and in a number of cases (nine) have adopted a still higher age. Sixteen has also been adopted as the age limit in Germany.

In Brazil (Sao Paulo), Great Britain, Denmark, France, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and three American States, the minimum age is 18 ; in the Netherlands, and the parts of Poland formerly under Russian rule, 17 ; in the United States of America,\* the Argentine, Belgium, Germany, five Australian States, New Zealand, in the parts of Poland formerly under Austrian and German rule, in South Africa, and in Spain,† 16 ; in Italy, Japan, and Rumania it is 15.

There is also conformity in all these States (except France) with the proposal in Article 1 of the Berne Draft Convention that the prohibition of night work is to be absolute in all cases and no exceptions are to be permitted from the general rule until 14 years of age. In France, the age at present is 13. Belgium, Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, parts of Poland formerly under German and Austrian rule, Spain and Switzerland allow certain exceptions at 14 ; Denmark (for purposes of industrial training only), and the parts of Poland formerly under Russian rule at 15 ; and Norway and Sweden

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\* A federal minimum is in effect established in the United States of America by a tax of 10 per cent. on the entire net profits for the taxable year of any mill, cannery, workshop, factory or manufacturing establishment in which children between 14 and 16 years of age are employed after 7 p.m. or before 6 a.m. (Title XII of the Revenue Act of 1918.)

† In industries designated by certain authorities.

at 16. In most cases exception is allowed only for continuous industries; for trades dealing with perishable materials; and for newspaper printing works.

Of the Governments whose laws do not already fully conform to the provisions of the Draft Convention, the Argentine Republic and France are prepared to adhere. The Spanish Government expresses its willingness to discuss with the other Governments the question of applying the standard proposed in 1913. The Government of Siam is prepared to adhere to the draft convention under such reservations as the Far Eastern nations may agree to propose. Denmark, Italy and Poland have made no statements on the question of adherence. The Government of the Dominion of Canada presumes the question of adherence to lie within the jurisdiction of the several provinces. It has not been the subject of discussion between the Dominion Government and the Governments of the respective Provinces.

The British Government suggests the following amendments: (1) Substitution of 18 for 16 years as the age limit in Article 1; (2) withdrawal of the exception in Article 1 for works employing not more than 10 persons; (3) shortening of the "delays" allowed by Article 6. The Government of the Netherlands and the Swiss Government also consider that the International Convention should fix the age limit for the prohibition of night work at 18. This is the standard proposed in a Bill now before the Dutch Legislature. The Government of Czecho-Slovakia considers that a higher standard should be adopted than that recommended in the Convention. In America, the Children Bureau Conference (1919) called by the Secretary for Labor, recommended 21 years of age.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS.

The draft convention adopted at Berne in 1913 will require some alteration in drafting to make it correspond with the draft conventions submitted by the Organising Committee in regard to the 48-hour week and the age of admission of children, &c., particularly in respect of the definition of industrial processes. The Organising Com-

mittee also suggest that the Conference should consider the desirability of raising the age up to which the prohibition is to apply from 16 to 18, as recommended by several countries. They have therefore prepared for the consideration of the Conference the draft Convention below. As in the case of the other subjects of the Agenda they have been unable to make any suggestions as to the modifications required in the case of those countries whose special circumstances are referred to in paragraph 2 of Article 427 of the Peace Treaty since replies from India, Japan and some other countries had not been received. They include, however, as a note to the draft Convention, a tentative suggestion made by Mr. Oka (Japan).

**DRAFT OF AN INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION TO PROHIBIT  
THE NIGHT WORK OF YOUNG PERSONS EMPLOYED  
IN INDUSTRY.**

*Article 1.*—Young persons under 18 years of age shall not be employed at night in an industrial undertaking other than an undertaking in which only the members of the family are employed.

Industrial undertakings shall be deemed to include the following :—

(a) Mines and quarries.

(b) Industries in which articles are manufactured, altered, repaired, ornamented, finished or adapted for sale, or materials are transformed (including the generation and transformation of electricity, shipbuilding, laundry work).

(c) Construction, reconstruction, maintenance, repair, alteration, or demolition of any building, railway, tramway, harbour, dock, pier, canal, inland navigation, road, tunnel, bridge, viaduct, sewer, drain, well, telegraphic or telephonic installation, electrical undertaking, gas work, water work, or other work of construction, and the preparation for and laying the foundations of any such work or building.

(d) The transport of passengers or goods by road or rail, including the handling of goods at docks, quays, wharves and at warehouses, but excluding transport by hand.

The national law shall define the line of division which separates industry on the one side and commerce and agriculture on the other.

*Article 2.*—The period of rest during the night provided for in Article 1 shall comprise at least eleven consecutive hours, which shall include the period between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

In coal and lignite mines an exception may be made in regard to the period of rest provided in the previous paragraph, when the interval between the two periods of work usually amounts to fifteen hours, but in no case in which it amounts to less than thirteen hours.

In States where nightwork is prohibited by the national legislation for all workers employed in baking, the period from 9 p.m. to 4 a.m. may be substituted in that industry for the period from 10 p.m. to 5 a.m. provided in paragraph 1.

*Article 3.*—The prohibition of night work for young persons may be suspended—

(a) If the State or public interest requires it ;

(b) When some emergency which the employer could not control or foresee, and which is not of a periodical character, occurs to interfere with the normal working of the undertaking.

*Article 4.*—The provisions of the present Convention are applicable to girls of less than 18 years of age whenever these provisions involve greater restrictions on the period of employment than those provided by the Berne Convention on the night work of women of the 26th day of September, 1906.

*Article 5.*—In those countries in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organisation, or other special circumstances render the industrial effi-

ciency of the workers substantially different, the following modifications of the provisions of this Convention may take effect\* :—

*Article 6.*—The provisions of this Convention shall be brought into force not later than the 1st July, 1921.

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\* Mr. Oka (Japan) tentatively suggests that the following might be the provision for the States mentioned in the second paragraph of Article 427 of the Peace Treaty :—

(1) The extent of the application of this convention should be the same as that of the draft convention of Berne of 1913, i.e., it should only apply to industrial undertakings in which more than 10 persons are employed.

(2) The age limit should be 15 years for the first five years, and 16 years thereafter, as in the case of the Berne Convention.



## EMPLOYMENT OF YOUNG PERSONS IN UNHEALTHY PROCESSES.

### (ITEM 4 (c) OF THE AGENDA.)

#### 1. SUMMARY OF EXISTING LAWS.

The protection of young persons from injury to health in especially injurious trades and processes takes the form either of hygienic regulations or of the total exclusion of young workers. As regards regulations, reference should be made to the report on the employment of women in unhealthy processes, as generally speaking rules of the kind here in question do not affect young persons only. The only exceptions are to be found in the case of certain processes from which young workers are excluded unless some specified condition is satisfied. For example, it will be seen that in many cases young persons are only debarred from work in the trades and processes named in Appendix VI, "if dust is disseminated freely in the work-rooms." Adequate measures to prevent the worker from coming into contact with dust arising from the work would consequently release the employer from the duty of excluding young people from the workshop. But as far as detailed rules and regulations are concerned (*see* Appendix VII) no distinction is made between young persons and other workers.

The case of legal prohibition from work in unhealthy processes is different. The lists of trades from which young people are excluded [*see* Appendix VI, (a) and (b), page 109] are far more extensive than those relating to the exclusion of women.

The age limits for exclusion vary greatly. In Belgium, Italy and Spain, where adult women are not excluded at all, the employment of female young persons is prohibited up to 21 years of age, while the corresponding prohibition of boys' work extends only up to the age of 16 (15 in Italy). Male as well as female young persons up to the age of 21 are debarred from certain lead processes in the State of Pennsylvania. Both sexes are excluded

from certain injurious work up to the age of 18 in Great Britain, France, Germany, the Netherlands and part of Poland. The States of Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio and Wisconsin in America provide examples of the exclusion of boys as well as girls up to 18 from unhealthy processes.\*

Cases where the age limit for exclusion is 18 for girls and 16 for boys are found in Greece, and the Canadian Province of Quebec; 17 is the age limit for lads in certain trades in the Netherlands. The most common standard is that which admits boys to unhealthy processes after the age of 16, whether coupled with a higher limit for girls (as in the cases mentioned above, where young women up to 21 years of age are excluded) or with the same rule applying to both girls and boys (as in the case of a long list of trades in Belgium, of a few specially regulated industries in Great Britain, and a small part of the schedules of injurious trades in France, and in practically every case where young workers are debarred from injurious work in the United States of America). A lower age limit for boys is found in Italy, where 15 is the age generally fixed for the purposes here considered. In Japan and parts of Poland exclusion of young persons from unhealthy trades affects both girls and boys up to 15 only. In a few countries (Belgium, France, Great Britain, Germany) children under 14 are specifically excluded from certain unhealthy occupations. But provisions to that effect will become obsolete as the age limit for general admission to industrial work is raised. For example, in Great Britain, the few instances of exclusion from unhealthy work under 14 will become meaningless when, on Section 14 of the Education Act of 1918 coming into operation, children under that age are no longer admitted at all to employment in factories and workshops. The same classification of trades from which young persons are excluded has been adopted as in the case of women (*see page 27*).

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\* In twelve American States, Industrial Commissions or Boards of Health have power to raise the age of exclusion from unhealthy trades to 18. Regulations to this effect have been issued in some States.

## 2. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.

It seems probable that many of the more sweeping exclusions shown in the Tables were originally based on an unhopeful view of the future conditions of industry which the experience of the last few years has done much to dissipate. That experience encourages the belief that trades and processes which were at one time inevitably injurious to health may be made perfectly safe and wholesome by the observance of proper precautions, or the substitution of different elements in manufacture. This being so, it should become possible to exchange exclusion for regulation in certain instances, and it cannot be doubted that from the point of view of industry and employment this is most desirable. To take an example: the manufacture of scientific instruments offers the opportunity of a skilled career to the learner, and many of the processes are of a light nature, well suited to the capacities of young persons, whether boys or girls. But some of these involve the use of mercury and in many countries young persons are consequently excluded from them. At the present stage of efficiency reached by protective measures, it should be possible to remove this bar of exclusion, and under careful regulation, to open a fresh and promising field of labour to those just entering industry.

There remain certain groups of industries and processes which, for the present at least, cannot be made wholly safe. Research and experience have shown that in the most important of these—the lead group—there is a special risk for young persons, and that this risk is, in some instances, greater or extends to a higher age, in the case of girls than in that of boys. The advantage of arriving at a general standard—which would not necessarily be the same for both sexes—for the age of exclusion (in connection with an equally general standard of precaution and protection in the workplace) is manifest, and means of attaining this end might, with great profit, form the subject of study and enquiry in the International Labour Office.

### 3. RECOMMENDATION.

The recommendation which the Committee has made in regard to the employment of women in unhealthy processes for further investigation and report by the International Labour Office covers all classes of workers, including young persons. They accordingly do not think it necessary to make any special recommendation under the heading of this section of the report.

## CHAPTER III.

## EXTENSION AND APPLICATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS ADOPTED AT BERNE IN 1906 ON THE PROHIBITION OF NIGHT WORK FOR WOMEN EMPLOYED IN INDUSTRY, AND THE PROHIBITION OF THE USE OF WHITE PHOSPHORUS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF MATCHES.

## (ITEM 5 OF THE AGENDA.)

The question of the extension and application of the Berne Convention of 1906 on the prohibition of night work for women has already been dealt with under the section dealing with night work for women [Item 3 (b) of the Agenda, page 16].

A list of the States which have adhered to the International Convention concluded at Berne in 1906, respecting the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches, is given below, together with a table showing the position of States which have not adhered to that Convention, and the attitude of certain Governments towards the question of adherence.

The Committee is of opinion that the Conference should recommend adhesion to the Convention to all States Members of the League. The text of the Convention is as follows :—

## INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION ON THE SUBJECT OF THE PROHIBITION OF THE USE OF WHITE (YELLOW) PHOSPHORUS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF MATCHES, CONCLUDED AT BERNE IN 1906.

*Article 1.*—The High Contracting Parties bind themselves to prohibit in their respective territories the manufacture, importation and sale of matches which contain white (yellow) phosphorus.

*Article 2.*—It is incumbent upon each of the contracting States to take the administrative measures necessary to ensure the strict execution of the terms of the present Convention within their respective territories.

Each Government shall communicate to the others through the diplomatic channel the laws and regulations which exist or shall hereafter come into force in their country with regard to the subject matter of the present Convention, as well as the reports on the manner in which the said laws and regulations are applied.

*Article 3.*—The present Convention shall only apply to a colony, possession or protectorate when a notice to this effect shall have been given on its behalf by the Government of the mother country to the Swiss Federal Council.

*Article 4.*—The present Convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications deposited with the Swiss Federal Council by the 31st December, 1908, at the latest.

A record of the deposit shall be drawn up, of which one certified copy shall be transmitted to each of the contracting States through the diplomatic channel.

The present Convention shall come into force three years after the date on which the record of the deposit is closed.

*Article 5.*—The States non-signatories to the present Convention shall be allowed to declare their adhesion by an act addressed to the Swiss Federal Council, who will bring it to the notice of each of the other contracting States.

The time limit laid down in Article 4 for the coming into force of the present Convention is extended in the case of the non-signatory States, as well as of their colonies, possessions, or protectorates, to 5 years, counting from the date of the notification of their adhesion.

*Article 6.*—It shall not be possible for the signatory States, or the States, colonies, possessions or protectorates who may subsequently adhere, to denounce the present Convention before the expiration of 5 years from the date on which the record of the deposit of ratifications is closed.

Thenceforward the Convention may be denounced from year to year.

The denunciation will only take effect after the lapse of one year from the time when written notice has been given to the Swiss Federal Council by the Government concerned, or, in the case of a colony, possession, or protectorate, by

the Government of the mother country; the Federal Council shall communicate the denunciation immediately to the Governments of each of the other contracting States.

The denunciation shall only be operative as regards the State, colony, possession, or protectorate on whose behalf it has been notified.

In witness whereof the plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention.

Done at Berne this 26th day of September, 1906, in a single copy which shall be kept in the archives of the Swiss Federation, and one copy of which duly certified shall be delivered to each of the contracting Powers through the diplomatic channel.

#### PROHIBITION OF WHITE PHOSPHORUS IN MATCH FACTORIES.

(a) Table showing the position as regards the International Convention of 1906.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
States which have adhered to the Convention.	Date of adherence.	Date when the Convention came into Force.	Date of existing Legislation on the subject.
<b>BRITISH EMPIRE—</b>			
Great Britain ....	28.12.1908	28.12.1913	21.12.1908
Canada ....	20.9.1914	20.9.1919	27.5.1914
			Amended 23.3.1916
India ....	—	—	7.3.1913
New Zealand ....	27.11.1911	27.11.1916	17.9.1910
Union of South Africa	6.12.1910	3.5.1914	—
	retrospective from 3.5.1909		
Cyprus ....	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	11.6.1910
East Africa Protectorate	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	14.6.1910
			(Customs Order. Importation prohibited.)
Gibraltar ....	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	2.3.1910
Malta ....	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	28.6.1910
Mauritius ....	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	19.8.1911
Seychelles ....	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	Customs Order: 15.3.1910. (Importation prohibited.)
Southern Nigeria	4.1.1910	4.1.1915	27.1.1911
Uganda Protectorate	4.1.1910	21.2.1915	15.4.1910
Northern Nigeria...	24.2.1910	24.2.1915	15.4.1910
Leeward Islands ....	26.3.1910	26.3.1915	—
Virgin Islands ....	—	—	27.8.1910
St. Christopher and Nevis	—	—	25.10.1910

States which have adhered to the Convention.	Date of adherence.	Date when the Convention came into Force.	Date of existing Legislation on the subject.
<b>BRITISH EMPIRE—</b> <i>contd.</i>			
Montserrat .....	—	—	22.7.1910
Dominica ....	—	—	25.10.1910
Antigua ....	—	—	6.8.1910
Fiji Islands ....	20.6.1910	20.6.1915	18.6.1910
Gambia ....	22.10.1910	22.10.1915	27.3.1911
Gold Coast ....	22.10.1910	22.10.1915	13.5.1911
Sierra Leone ....	22.10.1910	22.10.1915	30.9.1910
			18.3.1911
Bermuda ....	19.12.1910	20.2.1916	6.6.1910
Southern Rhodesia	20.2.1911	20.2.1916	—
<b>* DENMARK—</b> (including Faroe Islands and Danish Antilles)	—	1.1.1912	14.2.1874
<b>* FRANCE—</b>	—	1.1.1912	Acts 17.12.1908 Acts 26.1.1910 (Government monopoly).
Somali Coast ....	26.11.1909	26.11.1914	—
Reunion ....	26.11.1909	26.11.1914	—
Madagascar and Dependencies	26.11.1909	26.11.1914	—
French West Africa	26.11.1909	26.11.1914	—
French Settlements in Oceania	26.11.1909	26.11.1914	—
New Caledonia ....	26.11.1909	26.11.1914	—
Tunisia ....	15.1.1910	15.1.1915	—
<b>* GERMANY—</b>	—	1.1.1912	10.5.1903
<b>ITALY—</b>	6.7.1910	6.7.1915	23.6.1910 (Owing to the war the measures for bringing the law into force have been deferred until the 60th day after the conclusion of peace).
<b>* NETHERLANDS—</b>	—	1.1.1912	28.5.1901
Dutch Indies ....	7.3.1910	7.3.1915	—
<b>NORWAY—</b>	26.6.1914	10.7.1919	25.7.1913
<b>SPAIN—</b>	29.10.1909	29.10.1914	(State monopoly)
<b>* SWITZERLAND—</b>	—	1.1.1912	2.11.1898

\* These States were the original signatories and were bound by Art. 4 to ratify the convention by December 31, 1908. The Convention came into force three years later.



(b) Table showing the position in countries which have not adhered to the International Convention of 1906.

(1)	(2)	(3)
Countries.	Date of Laws, if any, checking the use of white phosphorus.	Replies of Governments to inquiry whether they were disposed to adhere to the Convention.
AMERICA (UNITED STATES)	Act of 9.4.1912 (Prohibiting importation and exportation, and levying a tax on manufacture)	—
ARGENTINE REPUBLIC—	—	The manufacture is not prohibited but no white phosphorus matches are used. The Government has asked Congress to authorise adherence to the Convention.
AUSTRIA—	13.7.1909	—
BELGIUM—	—	The Government wishes to adhere to the Convention. A Bill prohibiting the manufacture, &c., of white phosphorus matches is now before Parliament and will probably be passed before the Conference at Washington.
BRITISH EMPIRE—		
Australia .....	8.12.1908	—
	(Prohibiting importation)	
New South Wales .....	9.2.1915	—
Victoria .....	Included in Factories and Shops Act, 4.1.1910	—
Tasmania .....	30.10.1911	—
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA—	Act of 28.10.1918 establishes validity of Austrian Act of 13.7.1909	—
HUNGARY—	23.1.1911	—
MEXICO—		
Federal District, Tepic, } .....	12.4.1912	—
Low California, } .....		
Quintana Roo } .....	17.10.1912	—
State of Mexico .....	26.6.1912	—
Tamaulipas .....	26.6.1912	—
Vera Cruz .....	26.6.1912	—

Countries.	Date of Laws, if any, checking the use of white phosphorus.	Replies of Governments to inquiry whether they were disposed to adhere to the Convention.
<b>POLAND—</b> Parts formerly under Austrian Rule Parts formerly under German rule	See Austria See Germany	— —
<b>RUMANIA—</b>	—	The Government is prepared to adhere.
<b>SERBIA—</b>		The Government is prepared to adhere.
		The manufacture and importation of matches are controlled by the State, and the use of white phosphorus is prohibited.
<b>SIAM—</b>	—	The Royal Government is prepared to adhere.
<b>SWEDEN—</b>	Royal Decree 30.3.1900 prohibits sale of white phosphorus matches in Sweden.	—

## APPENDIX I.

## LETTER ISSUED BY THE ORGANISING COMMITTEE.

*May 10th, 1919.*

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE,  
OFFICES OF THE ORGANISING COMMITTEE,  
53, PARLIAMENT STREET,  
LONDON, S.W.1.

SIR,

THE Peace Conference at its plenary sitting on the 11th April approved the draft Convention submitted to it by the Commission on International Labour Legislation. The text of the Convention as accepted by the Peace Conference is enclosed herewith. The Convention provides for the institution of an International Organisation, to which all the Members of the League of Nations will belong, and which will consist of an International Labour Conference and an International Labour Office, as part of the machinery of the League of Nations. It further provides in Article 38\* and the Annex† that the first meeting of the International Labour Conference shall take place at Washington in October of this year, and that an International Organising Committee should be appointed to assist the Government of the United States of America in making the necessary arrangements. At its plenary sitting the Peace Conference approved the immediate appointment of the Organising Committee and authorised it to proceed with its work at once. In accordance with the terms of the Convention the Committee has been constituted as follows :—

## UNITED STATES OF AMERICA :

Dr. J. T. Shotwell (provisionally), Professor at Columbia University.

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\* *Article 38, paras. 1 and 2.*—The first meeting of the Conference shall take place in October, 1919. The place and agenda for this meeting shall be as specified in the Annex hereto.

Arrangements for the convening and the organisation of the first meeting of the Conference will be made by the Government designated for the purpose in the said Annex. That Government shall be assisted in the preparation of the documents for submission to the Conference by an International Committee constituted as provided in the said Annex.

† *Protocol, paras. 1, 2 and 3.*—The place of meeting will be Washington.

The Government of the United States of America is requested to convene the Conference.

The International Organising Committee will consist of seven members appointed by the United States of America, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium and Switzerland. The Committee may, if it thinks necessary, invite other members to appoint representatives.

**GREAT BRITAIN :**

Sir Malcolm Delevingne, K.C.B., Assistant Under-Secretary of State, Home Office.

**FRANCE :—**

Mr. Arthur Fontaine, Councillor of State, Director of Labour.

**ITALY :**

Mr. di Palma Castiglione, Inspector of Emigration.

**JAPAN :**

Dr. M. Oka, formerly Director of Commercial and Industrial Affairs at the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce.

**BELGIUM :**

Mr. E. Mahaim, Professor at Liège University.

**SWITZERLAND :**

Mr. W. E. Rappard (provisionally), Professor at Geneva University.

Mr. Arthur Fontaine was elected Chairman, and Mr. H. B. Butler, C.B., Assistant Secretary of the Ministry of Labour, was appointed Secretary.

The offices of the Committee will for the present be at 53, Parliament Street, London, S.W.1, but will be transferred to the Ministry of Labour, Washington, at the beginning of September, 1919. All communications should be addressed to the Secretary at the London office.

The Organising Committee now has the honour to transmit a questionnaire in regard to the Agenda for the first Conference laid down in the Annex to the Convention\* and to bring to the notice of your Government certain other points dealt with in the Convention, to which their attention is desirable in view of the forthcoming Conference at Washington.

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**\* ANNEX.***Agenda.*

1. Application of principle of the 8-hours day or of the 48-hours week.
2. Question of preventing or providing against unemployment.
3. Women's employment :—
  - (a) Before and after childbirth, including the question of maternity benefit.
  - (b) During the night.
  - (c) In unhealthy processes.
4. Employment of children :—
  - (a) Minimum age of employment.
  - (b) During the night.
  - (c) In unhealthy processes.
5. Extension and application of the International Convention adopted at Berne in 1906 on the prohibition of night work for women employed in industry, and the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

*Agenda.*

In drawing up the questionnaire, the Committee have aimed at obtaining the most complete information available in regard to the existing legislation and practice in the different countries in respect of the subjects referred to in the various items of the Agenda, and the proposals of the respective Governments as to how they should be dealt with by the Conference. When this information is received, the Committee propose to collate and tabulate the results in a printed statement, and to draw up suggestions for draft conventions or recommendations, based on the information received, for submission to the Conference as a basis for discussion. These documents will be communicated to the Delegates appointed to take part in the Conference through their respective Governments.

In view of the short time at the Committee's disposal, if the work of collating and circulating the results of their present inquiry is to be completed in time to enable the Delegates to study them before departing for Washington, the Committee respectfully request that the answers to the questionnaire may be forwarded to them at the earliest possible date, and in any case that they should not reach London later than the 30th June.

In order further to facilitate the work of collating and tabulating the answers, it is also requested that they may, where possible, be accompanied by a translation into either English or French, unless one of these languages is used in the original. In order further to save time, and in the spirit of Article 11 of the Convention,\* it is suggested that the Government Department entrusted with the collection of the necessary information in each country should be instructed to forward it direct to the offices of the Organising Committee.

*Preliminary Business.*

The Organising Committee would also point out that the following items of business relating to the internal procedure of the Conference will have to be dealt with by the Conference.

1. The appointment of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
2. The approval of rules of procedure, of which a draft is being prepared by the Committee and will be circulated with the documents above mentioned.

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\* ARTICLE 11.

The Government Departments of any of the Members which deal with questions of industry and employment may communicate directly with the Director through the Representative of their Government on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, or failing any such Representative, through such other qualified official as the Government may nominate for the purpose.

*Appointment of Delegates and Advisers.*

As regards the points in the Convention itself which require attention in view of the forthcoming Conference, the Committee desire respectfully to call attention of your Government to the following provisions of the Convention :—

Article 3 provides that the Conference "shall be composed of four Representatives of each of the Members, of whom two shall be Government Delegates and the two others shall be Delegates representing respectively the employers and the workpeople of each of the Members.

"Each Delegate may be accompanied by advisers, who shall not exceed two in number for each item on the agenda of the meeting. When questions specially affecting women are to be considered by the Conference, one at least of the advisers should be a woman.

"The Members undertake to nominate non-Government Delegates and advisers chosen in agreement with the industrial organisations, if such organisations exist, which are most representative of employers or workpeople, as the case may be, in their respective countries.

"Advisers shall not speak except on a request made by the Delegate whom they accompany and by the special authorisation of the President of the Conference, and may not vote.

"A Delegate may, by notice in writing addressed to the President, appoint one of his advisers to act as his deputy, and the adviser, while so acting, shall be allowed to speak and vote.

"The names of the Delegates and their advisers will be communicated to the International Labour Office by the Government of each of the members.

"The credentials of Delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference, which may, by two-thirds of the votes cast by the Delegates present, refuse to admit any Delegate or adviser whom it deems not to have been nominated in accordance with this article."

Your Government will accordingly in due course be requested by the Government of the United States of America to forward through its Foreign Office the names of the Delegates who will represent it, together with those of the Delegates representing its employers and workpeople, and at the same time to forward the names of the advisers who will accompany the Delegates. The Committee would be much obliged if the names of the Delegates and advisers could be communicated to them at the same time.

Each Delegate may be accompanied by two advisers for each item on the agenda of the meeting, but where it is feasible advisers might well be appointed who can deal with more than one item. It should also be pointed out that as several of the questions on the agenda affect women, one at least of the advisers appointed should be a woman.

The last paragraph of Article 3 provides that the credentials of the Delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference. It is accordingly requested that the nomination of each

Delegate and adviser may be accompanied by a statement giving his qualifications, and also giving the names of the organisations in agreement with whom the Delegates and advisers of employers or workpeople were chosen.

The Committee respectfully suggest that it is of great importance for the success of the Conference that steps should be taken by each of the Governments to make widely known among associations of employers and workers the nature and objects of the International Organisation, and to secure their interest and co-operation in the matter.

### *Expenses.*

Under Article 13 each Government participating in the Conference will pay the travelling and subsistence expenses of its four Delegates and their advisers. Under Article 38\* it is provided that all other expenses connected with the First Meeting will be borne by the Members of the League of Nations in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union. The United States Government, having agreed to undertake the convening of the Conference, will make the necessary arrangements, and will in due course furnish the necessary information in regard to them as Members.

We have to add that this letter is being addressed to the Governments of all the original Members of the League as set out in the Annex to the Covenant.

We have the honour to be, Sir, with great truth and respect,

Your obedient servants,

ARTHUR FONTAINE,

*Chairman.*

H. B. BUTLER,

*Secretary.*

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\* ARTICLE 38, para. 3.

The expenses of the first meeting and of all subsequent meetings held before the League of Nations has been able to establish a general fund, other than the expenses of Delegates and their advisers, will be borne by the Members in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

## QUESTIONNAIRE.

A.E.3.

NOTE 1.—*The Government is asked, if possible, to give its answers to the questions in French or English, and also to supply a translation in one of those languages of all essential documents.*

NOTE 2.—*For Federal States the answers should be given not only for the central Government, but also for the principal local Governments which have legislative authority in labour matters.*

## INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.

OCTOBER, 1919.

*Item 3 of the Agenda : WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT.*

## (A)—EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH.

*I. Present Law and Practice.*

1.—(a) What restrictions are at present imposed by law or administrative order ?

(b) To what kinds of employment do the restrictions apply ?

(c) How is the period of restriction ascertained in each individual case ?

2. What provision, if any, is made for the care and maintenance of the mother and child during the period for which the restrictions apply ? It is asked that full particulars of such provision may be given, especially as to whether it is given by way of grant out of public funds, or under a system of State insurance, or otherwise ; the nature of the provision ; the conditions under which it is given, &c.

(It is asked that the text of the laws or orders bearing on the subject may be supplied.)

*II. Proposals under consideration at present time.*

3. It is asked that full particulars of any proposals for legislation which have been introduced by the Government in the legislature may be furnished, with the text of the Bill or Bills.



### III. *Observations.*

#### (B).—EMPLOYMENT DURING THE NIGHT.

4. Has the Berne Convention of 1906\* been ratified? If not, is the Government prepared to adhere to it?

#### (C).—EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN UNHEALTHY PROCESSES.

##### I. *Present Law and Practice.*

5. What restrictions are at present imposed by law or administrative order on the employment of women—

(a) In industries in which any of the following substances are manufactured or used?

- (i) Lead.
- (ii) Mercury.
- (iii) Phosphorus.
- (iv) Arsenic.

(b) In any other industries.

##### II. *Observations.*

6. Is it considered that any effective steps could be taken by international action?

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\* A copy is enclosed herewith.

## A.E. 4.

NOTE 1.—*The Government is asked, if possible, to give its answers to the question in French or English, and also to supply a translation in one of those languages of all essential documents.*

NOTE 2.—*For Federal States the answers should be given not only for the central Governments, but also for the principal local Governments which have legislative authority in labour matters.*

## INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.

OCTOBER, 1919.

*Item 4 of the Agenda : EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN.*

## (A.)—MINIMUM AGE OF EMPLOYMENT.

1.—(a) What is the limit of age fixed by law or administrative order below which employment of young persons is illegal ?

(b) To what kinds of employment does the limitation apply ?

(c) What exceptions or modifications, if any, are allowed under the laws and orders in force ?

2. It is asked that full particulars of any proposals for legislation raising the limit of age which have been introduced by the Government in the legislature may be furnished together with the text of the Bill or Bills.

3.—(a) Would the Government be prepared to adopt fourteen years as the limit for—

(i) Industrial occupations,

(ii) Other occupations ?

(b) If not, what age is proposed, and on what grounds ?

## (B.)—EMPLOYMENT DURING THE NIGHT.

4.—(a) Have the recommendations in the draft Convention\* adopted by the Berne Conference of 1913 been carried out?

(b) If not, is the Government prepared to adopt them?

5. Are any modifications in the text of the draft Convention suggested?

## (C.)—EMPLOYMENT IN UNHEALTHY PROCESSES.

*I. Present Law and Practice.*

6. What restrictions are at present imposed by law or administrative order on the employment of young persons—

(a) In industries in which any of the following substances are manufactured or used :—

- (i) Lead.
- (ii) Mercury.
- (iii) Phosphorus.
- (iv) Arsenic.

(b) In any other industries.

*II. Observations.*

7. Is it considered that any effective steps could be taken by international action?

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\* A copy is enclosed herewith.

A.E. 5.

NOTE.—*The Government is asked, if possible, to give its answers to the questions in French or English, and also to supply a translation in one of those languages of all essential documents.*

## INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.

OCTOBER, 1919.

*Item 5 of the Agenda:* EXTENSION AND APPLICATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONVENTION ADOPTED AT BERNE IN 1906 FOR THE PROHIBITION OF THE USE OF WHITE PHOSPHORUS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF MATCHES.

1. Are the manufacture, importation, and sale of white phosphorus matches prohibited, in accordance with the provisions of the International Convention of 1906?

2. If not, is the Government prepared to adhere to that Convention?

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*List of States from whom Replies have been received up to the time of going to press :—*

United States of America.	Hedjaz.
Argentine.	Italy.
Belgium.	Netherlands.
Bolivia.	Norway.
Great Britain.	Panama.
Canada.	Persia.
Australia.	Poland.
New Zealand.	Roumania.
South Africa.	Serb-Croat-Slovene State.
Chili.	Siam.
China.	Spain.
Denmark.	Sweden.
France.	Switzerland.
Czecho-Slovakia.	

A reply has also been received from Greece since the reports were compiled, and replies are understood to be on their way from India, Japan, and Peru.

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## APPENDIX II.

## SCOPE OF LAWS AND ORDERS RESPECTING THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

Countries and References to Laws and Orders,	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.— Act of 14 October, 1907.	<i>Age limit for employment.</i> No definition, merely "work" and "occupations" (Sections 1 and 2), but in the special provisions for the Capital of the Republic, "industrial occupations" (Section 9). <i>Employment of women after confinement.</i> Factory or workshop (Section 9). <i>Provision of time for nursing infants.</i> "Businesses where women are employed" (Section 9).
BELGIUM.— Acts of 13 December, 1889, and 26 May, 1914. Codified by Decree of 28 February, 1919.	Work in mines, pits, quarries and yards; in works, factories, workshops, restaurants, public-houses, offices of industrial and commercial undertakings, in establishments which are classed as dangerous, unhealthy or noxious; and establishments in which work is carried on by means of steam boilers or mechanical power; in docks, on quays and in railway stations; in connection with transport by water or land. The Act applies to both public and private undertakings even when they serve the purpose of trade training, or are of the nature of a charitable institution (Section 1). The provisions respecting the age limit for entering employment apply also to homework done on behalf of a contractor (Section 3 of Decree).
BRAZIL.— São Paulo. Act of 29 December, 1917.	Factories, workshops and industrial undertakings of any kind.
BRITISH EMPIRE.— Great Britain. (a) Factory Act, 1901.	(a) Factories and workshops—defined as all premises wherein or within the close or curtilage or precincts of which, any manual labour is exercised by way of trade or for purposes of gain in or incidental to the making, altering, repairing, ornamenting, finishing or adapting for sale of any article. Homework employing only members of the family is excluded.

Countries and References to Laws and Orders.	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
<p><b>BRITISH EMPIRE—contd.</b>  <i>Great Britain—contd.</i>            (b) Coal Mines Act, 1911.            (c) Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act, 1872 as amended by the Mines (Prohibition of Child Labour Underground) Act, 1900, and the Quarries Act, 1894.</p>	<p>(b) <i>Employment of women and young persons on the surface and of boys below ground.</i> Mines of coal, stratified ironstone, shale and fireclay.            (c) <i>Employment of women and young persons on the surface and of boys below ground.</i> All mines not coming under the Coal Mines' Acts, and quarries, defined as every place (not being a mine) in which persons work in getting slate, stone, coprolites or other minerals, and any part of which is more than 20 feet deep.</p>
<p><i>Australia.—</i>  <i>New South Wales.</i>            Factories and Shops Act, 1912.</p>	<p>Places (including laundries, bakehouses and dye-works) where four or more persons (or one or more Chinese) are employed, or where steam or mechanical power is used.</p>
<p><i>Victoria.</i>            Factories and Shops Act, 1915.</p>	<p>The same as in New South Wales, except that quarries, claypits, furniture workshops and gas and electric light works are specifically included.</p>
<p><i>Queensland.</i>            Factories and Shops Acts, 1900, 1908 and 1914.</p>	<p>Places (including bakehouses and laundries) where two or more persons including the occupier (or one Asiatic) are employed, or where steam or mechanical power is used.</p>
<p><i>South Australia.</i>            Factories Acts, 1907, 1908, 1910 and 1915.</p>	<p>Places where any one person is employed, including laundries and dyeworks specifically.</p>
<p><i>Western Australia.</i>            Factories Acts, 1904 and 1911.</p>	<p>Places (including bakehouses and laundries) where six or more persons (or one Asiatic) are employed, or where steam or mechanical power is used.</p>
<p><i>Tasmania.</i>            Factories Acts, 1910, 1911 and 1917.</p>	<p>Places (including bakehouses and quarries) where four or more persons (or one Asiatic) are employed, or where steam or mechanical power over 1 h.p. is used.</p>
<p><i>New Zealand.</i>            Factory Act.</p>	<p>Any building, office or place in which two or more persons are employed in any handicraft, including bakehouses and laundries whether two or more persons are employed or not.</p>

Countries and References to Laws and Orders.	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
<b>BRITISH EMPIRE—contd.</b> <i>South Africa.</i> Factories Act, 1918.	Any premises in which mechanical power is used for the purposes of preparing or making goods for trade or sale, or articles of food or drink for sale for human consumption; and laundries and dyeworks carried on for gain, if three or more persons are employed whole time; also any other premises in which there is carried on for gain any manufacture or preparation of goods for sale or transport if three or more persons are employed whole time.
<i>India.</i> Indian Factories Act, 1911.	"Factory" means any premises wherein, or within the precincts of which, steam, water or other mechanical power or electrical power is used in aid of any process for or incidental to making, altering, repairing, ornamenting, finishing or otherwise adapting for use, for transport or for sale any article or part of an article; but factories where less than 50 persons are employed are excluded.
<b>BULGARIA.—</b> Act of 5-18 April, 1917.	Industrial undertakings, handicrafts, commercial undertakings, building operations, transport. Homework employing only members of the family is excluded unless scheduled as injurious.
<b>CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.—</b> Act of 9 December, 1918.	Undertakings subject to the Industrial Code or carried on as factories. Also undertakings, works and institutions carried on by the State, by public or private associations, funds, societies and companies whether of a profit-making, public utility or charitable character, and mining undertakings (pits, coke works, calcining furnaces and blast-furnaces), and agriculture where the worker lives outside the employer's household. [The "Industrial Code" means the old Austrian Industrial Code, which applied as regards hours of work, &c., to "industrial undertakings carried on as factories." There is no statutory definition of this expression. But from various official instructions, &c., it appears that it includes undertakings having the object of making or decorating industrial products in large quantities, and for this purpose employing a number of workers in closed rooms, working chiefly by machinery and methods of division of labour not customary with handicrafts. Other characteristics of "factory" work are the comparatively large capital outlay.]





Countries and References to Laws and Orders.	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
FRANCE— <i>contd.</i>	<p>(b) <i>Women's employment after confinement.</i> Any industrial or commercial establishments or their dependencies of whatever nature, public or private, even if they serve the purpose of trade training, or are of the nature of a charitable institution (Section 54A); and the carrying, hauling or pushing of any kind of weight, in the places named under (c) below, except theatres, etc. (Decree of 1909 amended 1912.)</p> <p>(c) <i>Hygiene and safety.</i> Factories, mills, works, yards, workshops, laboratories, kitchens, cellars and wine stores, stores, shops, offices, loading and unloading operations, theatres, circuses and other shows, and their dependencies of whatever nature, public or private, lay or religious, even if they are of an educational or charitable character. Home-work employing only members of the family excluded. (Section 65.)</p>
<p>GERMANY.—</p> <p>(a) Industrial Code.</p> <p>(b) Employment of Children Act, 1903.</p>	<p>(a) Industrial undertakings in general (no exact definition). Establishments where at least 10 persons are employed.</p> <p>(b) All industrial work.</p>
<p>GREECE.—</p> <p>(1) Act of 24 January—6 February, 1912.</p> <p>(2) Decree of 14-27 August, 1913.</p>	<p>(1) <i>Age limit for children's employment and employment of women after confinement.</i> (a) factories, industrial concerns and workshops; (b) quarries, mines; (c) building work, &amp;c.; (d) transport undertakings; (e) commercial concerns and places of sale; (f) restaurants, &amp;c.; (g) hotels.</p> <p>(2) <i>Regulation of hours.</i> (a) to (c) above.</p> <p>(3) <i>Sunday work.</i> (a) to (c) and (e) to (g) above.</p> <p>(4) <i>Prohibition of night work.</i> (a) to (c) and (e) above.</p> <p>The Decree applies to "industrial factories and workshops" which it defines as all indoor establishments where work such as transforming primitive substances into complete or incomplete articles, or completing such articles when unfinished or simply changing the substance or shape of an object is carried on by machinery or handwork regardless of the number and sex of the workers. Some sections expressly apply to commercial firms and stores.</p>
<p>ITALY.—</p> <p>Act of 10 November, 1907.</p> <p>Regulations of 14 June, 1909.</p>	<p>Industrial workshops or workrooms, defined as every place where women or children perform work of an industrial nature with the use of machines which are not driven by the persons making use of them, and without regard to the number of paid workers employed. A place where no such</p>

Countries and References to Laws and Orders.	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
ITALY— <i>contd.</i>	<p>machines are used is deemed to be a workshop or workroom, if more than five persons are employed, regardless of their sex or age. Institutional workshops are included if conducted for profit or if actual manual labour preponderates over instruction and training (Section 2 of the Regulations). The Act applies to building works, quarries and mines, if any women or children are employed, even if there is no machinery and not more than five persons are employed altogether (Section 2 of Regulations).</p>
<p>JAPAN.— Act of 28 March, 1911. Order of 2 August, 1916. Regulations of 3 August, 1916.</p>	<p>Factories where more than 15 persons are employed, or where the work, from its nature, is dangerous or injurious to health. Factories to which it seems unnecessary for the Act to apply may be exempted by Decree.</p> <p>A list of dangerous trades is given in the Regulations (Section 3). The Order gives a list of exempted undertakings.</p>
<p>MEXICO.— Constitution of 5 February, 1917.</p>	<p><i>Employment of children.</i> Any contract of work.</p>
<p>NETHERLANDS.— Labour Act of 1911.</p> <p>Safety Act, 1915.</p>	<p>Factories and workplaces defined as all places, whether open or enclosed, where work is carried on, in or on behalf of some undertaking, in making, altering, repairing, decorating or finishing any articles or materials, or in preparing them for sale in any other manner; or where, in or on behalf of any undertaking, articles or materials are subjected to operations serving the same ends. Also electrical stations (Section 2). Excludes agriculture and homework by members of the employer's household. Peeling osiers, &amp;c., flax breaking, &amp;c., included. (Sec. 1).</p> <p>Same definition but covering only factories and workshops where there is machinery and at least five persons are employed. It expressly covers flax breaking, &amp;c., and land drainage installations. (Section 1).</p>
<p>NORWAY.— Act of 18 September, 1915.</p>	<p>(1) Factories and works where handicrafts or other industrial occupations are carried on, provided that such works have the character of factories, or that use is made in them of power other than human strength, or of steam boilers (except where the motor is of not more than 1 h.p.). Stone</p>

Countries and References to Laws and Orders.	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
<b>NORWAY—<i>contd.</i></b>	<p>quarries, chalk pits and stone hewing undertakings (where at least five persons are regularly employed). Mines, ore-dressing works, smelting works and other undertakings for the getting or refining of minerals. Works where explosives are manufactured or used in manufacturing processes.</p> <p>(2) Works where handicrafts or other industrial occupations are carried on, provided that at least five persons are regularly employed, and that such persons are employed by the occupier of the business in his workshop, or some other workplace not being any workman's home. Ice-cutting works.</p> <p>To an extent which is to be determined by Order the Act also applies to operations where warehousemen and packers are employed or where workmen are employed on building sites, demolition works, goods steamers, &amp;c., and in the building trades, water, gas and sewer works, bridge building and the construction of roads, harbours, telegraph and telephone installations, &amp;c. The Act does not apply to temporary operations of so limited a nature that they cannot be brought under organised management.</p>
<b>POLAND.—</b>	<p><i>Parts formerly under Russian rule.</i> No definition available.</p> <p><i>Parts formerly under Austrian rule.</i> See note as regards the scope of the Austrian Industrial Code under Czecho-Slovakia.</p> <p><i>Parts formerly under German rule.</i> See under Germany.</p>
<b>PORTUGAL.—</b> Decree of 14 April, 1891. Regulations of 16 March, 1893, and Act of 22 January, 1915.	<p>Industrial establishments belonging to private persons, to the State or to administrative bodies; trade schools or benevolent institutions; civil engineering works.</p> <p>"Industrial undertakings" includes mines and quarries, arsenals and dockyards, factories, workshops and premises or places in which any kind of industrial work is carried on. Homework excluded, provided there is no machinery or injurious work, and only members of the family are employed.</p>
<b>RUMANIA.—</b> Handicrafts Act of 25 January, 1912.	A long list of handicrafts.
<b>SERBIA.—</b>	No definition available.

Countries and References to Laws and Orders.	Scope of application of the various Laws and Orders regulating the Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children.
<p><b>SPAIN.</b>— Acts of 13 March, 1900, and 8 January, 1907. Regulations of 13 No- vember, 1900.</p>	<p>"Employer" is defined as a person who commands personal services by means of wages for work over which he exercises direction and supervision, the State, provinces and municipalities included. (Section 1 of Regulations).</p> <p>"Workers" are defined as all persons who habitually execute manual work outside their homes on behalf of others, whether for a remuneration or not, including apprentices and commercial employees. Agricultural work is excluded and also work done in domestic workshops, i.e., where only members of one family are employed under the direction of one of them (Regulations, Sections 2, 3, 4). Domestic workshops may be regulated if machinery is used or the work is injurious.</p> <p>Sections 1 and 9 of the Act relating to employment of children and of women after confinement apply to "any kind of work."</p>
<p><b>SWEDEN.</b>— (1) Acts of 29 June, 1912, and 17 June, 1916. (2) Act of 20 November, 1909.</p>	<p>(1) (a) <i>General provisions relating to accidents, hygiene, &amp;c.</i> Every occupation, industrial or otherwise, in which workpeople are employed on work for an employer, including the building of houses, roads or waterworks, or any similar special undertaking. Excludes shipping and work undertaken in the worker's home or elsewhere under such conditions that it cannot be considered as the employer's responsibility to supervise it. In agriculture, applies only as regards use of machinery (Section 1).</p> <p>(b) <i>Employment of women and children.</i> Industrial work carried on in a workshop where at least 10 workmen are regularly employed or motor power of at least 5 h.p. is used; or five workers, together with motor power of at least 3 h.p. (Section 15).</p> <p>(c) <i>Hours of young persons.</i> Mines, ironworks and factories, handicrafts or other industrial work, building operations (Section 13 as amended).</p> <p>(2) <i>Night work of women.</i> Industrial undertakings carrying on the business of a mine, ironworks or factory, a trade or any occupation of like nature, where more than 10 persons are employed.</p>
<p><b>SWITZERLAND.</b>— Act of 18 June, 1914.</p>	<p>Factories defined as industrial undertakings where several workers are employed away from their homes, either on the premises of the undertaking or in workshops annexed thereto or elsewhere, on work connected with the industrial working of the undertaking.</p> <p>The Act may be extended by the Federal Council to industrial undertakings which are not factories in case this is necessary in order to cover the scope of international agreements.</p> <p>Employments not carried on in "factories" are regulated by the Cantons.</p>

## APPENDIX IV.

### SUMMARY OF PROVISIONS GRANTING BENEFITS OR ALLOWANCES TO WOMEN DURING THEIR ENFORCED ABSENCE FROM WORK BEFORE AND AFTER CONFINEMENT.

Country and Acts, &c., and References.	Scope.	Amount of Benefit.	Duration of Benefit.	Outline of System by which Benefits are Secured.
ARGENTINE.—				A Bill now before Congress provides for the payment of full wages by the employer during four weeks' absence.
BRITISH EMPIRE.— <i>Great Britain.</i> — (1) National Insurance Acts, 1911-18. (2) Maternity and Child Welfare Act, 1918.	All employment with a few specified exceptions. Out-workers included.	Married women receive 30s. from their husband's insurance and 30s. from their own; or 2 benefits of 30s. each from their own insurance if the husband is not insured. Unmarried mothers receive 30s. from their own insurance.	If a woman is unfit for work before confinement or more than 4 weeks after she can claim sickness benefit at the rate of 7s. 6d. a week.	Compulsory sickness insurance, contributions paid partly by employer, partly by worker and partly by the State.
<i>Australia.</i> Act of 10-1912.	All women regardless of employment.	£5.		This grant is made from Commonwealth funds to every woman who gives birth to a child.

# APPENDIX IV.—continued.

Country and Acts, &c., and References.	Scope.	Amount of Benefit.	Duration of Benefit.	Outline of System by which Benefits are Secured.
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.— Law of 30 March, 1908, amended 20 November, 1917, and Act of the Czecho - Slovakian Republic, 15 May, 1919.	Industrial and Commercial work. Agriculture, Home Work, Domestic Service.	Free medical attendance, medicine, midwife, &c. Amount varies: as a rule, about 80 per cent. of daily earnings; may rise to 6k.; with benefit for nursing child to 7.60 k. a week.	From the third day of illness until 6 weeks after confinement, but may be extended to 4 weeks before and nursing benefit to 26 weeks after.	Compulsory sickness insurance; contributions paid $\frac{1}{2}$ by worker and $\frac{1}{2}$ by employer.
DENMARK.— Act of 29 April, 1913	Same as Factory Act. (See Appendix II.)			Relief may be allowed through the communal authorities in cases of necessity, and the Act provides that such relief shall not have the effect of poor relief.
FRANCE.— (1) Act of 17 June, 1913. (2) Finance Act of 30 July, 1913. (3) Circular of 15 August, 1913. (4) Decree of 17 December, 1913.	Frenchwomen without means, habitually employed by others at a wage, either as workers, employees or domestic servants; women homeworkers are included.	Fixed in each commune by the communal council, but must not be less than fr. .50 a day or more than fr. 1.50, unless the commune pays the extra itself exclusively. An extra fr. .50 a day is paid after the confinement, if the mother nurses the infant herself. Benefit paid only on condition that the woman refrains from working.	Before confinement on production of medical certificate of unfitness for work. After confinement for 4 weeks. Not more than 8 weeks altogether.	The funds are raised by charity, communal rates, and subventions from the Departments and the State. The relief is administered chiefly by the communal authorities.

GERMANY.— Insurance Code, 1911	All employments, including homework.	Half wages. Sick funds may also provide midwives' services and medical attendance.	8 weeks, 6 of which must be after confinement.	Compulsory insurance; contributions paid, $\frac{3}{4}$ by worker and $\frac{1}{4}$ by employer.
ITALY.— Act of 17 July, 1910.	Same as Act of 10 November, 1907. (See Appendix II.)	40 lire for each confinement (including miscarriages)		All women workers between 15 and 20 years of age pay 1 lire p.a., and between 20 and 50, 2 lire p.a., to the Maternity Fund. The fund is administered by a committee appointed by the National Provident Invalidity and Old Age Pension Fund for Workers, including one-third representatives of the workers. The State pays 10 lire of the benefit in each case.*
NETHERLANDS.— Act of 5 June, 1913.	Covers all employment with a few exceptions, such as persons receiving high salaries or with private incomes, &c	Full amount of the average wage in classes, i.e., 50 fl.; 80 fl.; 1.20 fl.; 1.60 fl.; 2.20 fl.; 3.00 fl.; or 4.00 fl. a day.	For whole time of incapacity for work.	Compulsory sickness insurance; contributions paid half by employer and half by worker.

\* During the war the Fund was authorised to give extraordinary bonuses of 20 lire in addition to the 40 lire.



# APPENDIX IV.—*continued.*

Country and Acts, &c., and References.	Scope.	Amount of Benefit.	Duration of Benefit.	Outline of System by which Benefits are Secured.
<b>NORWAY.</b> — (1) Factory Act of 18 September, 1915.  (2) Sickness Insurance Act, 6 August, 1915.  (3) Children's Protection Act, 10 April, 1915.	(1) See Appendix II.  (2) All wage-earners and employees in public or private service. "Wage-earners" are persons whose wages are paid wholly or partly in money.	(2) Free midwife's services and benefit equal to 60 per cent. of the average wage, estimated according to wages classes; the benefit must never be less than 1 kr. It thus amounts to 1·00 kr., 1·50 kr., 2·10 kr., or 2·70 kr. a day. (3) Necessitous women receive grants ranging from 17 to 45 kr. a month.	(2) 2 weeks before and 6 weeks after confinement.  (3) 6 weeks before and 6 months after, provided the woman nurses the infant.	(1) Relief given from public funds in necessitous cases is not to be regarded as poor relief (Section 23). (2) Compulsory sickness insurance; contributions paid six-tenths by the insured person, one-tenth by the employer, one-tenth by the commune, and two-tenths by the State.  (3) Grants from the commune.
<b>POLAND.</b> — Decree re Sickness Insurance, 1919. (Subject to ratification by the Polish Legislature.)		Medical attendance and money benefit equivalent to the whole wages, also if ordered by the doctor, benefit in kind for 12 months, during which the woman nurses her infant.	8 weeks, 6 of which must be after confinement.	Compulsory sickness insurance.

<p><b>ROMANIA.</b>— Act of 25 January, 1912.</p>	<p>See Appendix II.</p>	<p>Medical attendance and 50 per cent. of the average wages, if head of the family, 35 per cent. otherwise. The average wages are estimated in wages classes, so that the daily benefit works out at ·25 lei, ·75 lei, 1·25 lei, 1·75 lei, or 2·25 lei, for heads of families, and ·175 lei, ·575 lei, ·875 lei, 1·225 lei, or 1·575 lei for other persons.</p>	<p>6 weeks after, or 3 months if the woman nurses the infant herself.</p>	<p>Compulsory Sickness Insurance through Trade Guilds; contributions paid half by the workers and half by the employer.</p>
<p><b>SWITZERLAND.</b>— Act of 1911.</p>				<p>Sickness Insurance is regulated by the Federal Act of 13 June, 1911, but does not become compulsory unless so decreed in any canton. The Act provides that sick funds must pay benefits in case of childbirth, as if it were sickness. Also that if the mother is nursing her child herself after a certain period, she must have a bonus of 20 francs.</p>

# APPENDIX V (a).

TRADES FROM WHICH ADULT WOMEN ARE EXCLUDED ON ACCOUNT OF THE RISK OF  
POISONING FROM LEAD, MERCURY, PHOSPHORUS AND ARSENIC.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
AMERICA : <i>Pennsylvania, New Jersey</i>	Handling any dry substance or compound containing lead in excess of 2 per cent.			
ARGENTINE ...	Preparation of white lead. Annealing of glass. Manufacture, smelting and finishing of lead and the manufacture of litharge, red lead, massicot, white lead, and other oxides of lead.	Mercurial silvering of mirrors. Gilding and plating.	Preparation of chemical matches. Manufacture of phosphorus matches : departments where the igniting paste is manufactured and in dipping and drying rooms.	

BRITISH EMPIRE :

Great Britain ...

Manufacture of *electric accumulators* : in manipulation of dry compounds of lead and in pasting.

Manufacture of *paints and colours* : in manipulating lead colour.

*Brass casting* : in any casting shop.

*Lead smelting* : in any lead process.

*White lead* manufacture : in the white beds, rollers, wash becks, or stoves, or in any place where dry white lead is packed, or in other work exposing her to white lead dust.

Manufacture and decoration of *pottery* : in stopping biscuit ware with material containing more than 5 per cent. of a soluble lead compound ; weighing out, shovelling or mixing unfritted lead.

Compounds in the preparation or manufacture of frits, glazers or colours ; lawning of glaze ; preparation or weighing out of flow material ; cleaning of

APPENDIX V (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
BRITISH EMPIRE: <i>Great Britain—</i> (contd.)	boards used in the dipping house and glost-placing shop; cleaning of mangles; cleaning of floors; washing saggars with a wash containing more than 5 per cent of a soluble lead compound; in glost placing, except in the placing of china, furniture, and electrical fittings.			
<i>Australia (Western Australia and Tasmania.</i>	Manufacture of white lead ...	Silvering of mirrors by mercurial process.		
<i>New Zealand ...</i>	Manufacture of white lead ...	Silvering of mirrors by mercurial process.		
<i>Canada (Alberta and Ontario).</i>	Any room where paint, white lead, &c., is exposed, unless	... ..	... ..	Any room where arsenic is exposed,

		workers are prevented from taking food into such rooms and suitable drinking water is provided.			unless workers are prevented from taking food into such rooms and suitable drinking water is provided.
<i>South Africa</i>	...	Making of <i>white lead</i> , grinding of <i>paints</i> , or articles containing white lead.	Silvering of mirrors by mercurial process.		
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA (The same in AUSTRIA).		<i>Painting works</i> , with the use of <i>white lead</i> or lead compounds. <i>Printing works</i> : in treading platen machines, type-casting, stereotyping or type-setting machines, at work with dry lead colours, and on any other work at which the operator cannot avoid being dirtied by lead colours already ground.			

APPENDIX V (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
FRANCE ... ..	<p>Treatment of <i>gold and silver-smiths' ash</i> by lead.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>white lead</i>.</p> <p><i>Bleaching of lace</i> by white lead.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>litharge</i>.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>massicot</i>.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>minium</i>.</p> <p><i>Chloride of lime</i> foundries.</p> <p>Demolition of <i>furnaces and cleaning materials</i> from the furnaces in <i>crystal and enamel</i> works.</p> <p><i>Casting and rolling</i> of lead.</p> <p>Demolition of <i>furnaces in glass</i> works.</p> <p><i>Vitreous enamelling</i> of glass.</p> <p>Dry powdering and <i>colour-dusting</i> in <i>ceramic chromo-lithography</i>: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p><i>Enamelling of metals</i> and the manufacture of <i>enamels</i> with furnaces which do not consume their own smoke: in workrooms where substances are ground.</p>	<p><i>Silvering of mirrors</i> by mercurial process.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>fulminate of mercury</i>.</p> <p><i>Carotting hare and rabbit skins</i>.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>sulphate of mercury</i>.</p> <p><i>Gilding and silvering</i> in workrooms where there are mercurial vapours.</p>	<p>Manufacture of <i>phosphorus</i>.</p>	<p>Manufacture of <i>arsenic acid</i> by means of <i>arsenious acid</i> and <i>nitric acid</i>.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>arsenate of potash</i> by means of <i>saltpetre</i>.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>arsenic sulphide</i>.</p>

		<i>Glass and crystal works</i> : work-rooms where poisonous substances are used and the workers are exposed to dust.			
GERMANY ...	...	Manufacture of <i>lead colours</i> and other compounds of lead (oxides, &c.); in any process exposing them to lead dust or fumes. Various processes in <i>zinc smelting</i> . Manufacture of <i>electric accumulators</i> : in any occupation involving contact with lead.			
JAPAN ...	...	Where dust, fumes, or gases are generated from <i>lead</i> or its chemical compounds.	Where dust, fumes or gases are generated from <i>mercury</i> or its chemical compounds.	Where dust, fumes or gases are generated from <i>yellow</i> (white) <i>phosphorus</i> , or its chemical compounds.	Where dust, fumes or gases are generated from <i>arsenic</i> or its chemical compounds
NETHERLANDS ...	...	The preparation of <i>white lead</i> . . . <i>sugar of lead</i> , <i>oxide of lead</i> , <i>red lead</i> . The burning (reducing) of <i>lead ashes</i> . The manufacture or repair of <i>electric accumulators</i> . The further manipulation of all	The preparation of <i>colours</i> containing <i>mercury</i> . The manufacture of <i>mercuric chloride</i> . The manufacture of <i>mercury</i> or <i>mercury foil</i> .	The manufacture of <i>white phosphorus</i> . The further preparation of white phosphorus in order to prepare it for delivery or use.	The manufacture of <i>arsenic</i> or compounds of <i>arsenic</i> . The manufacture of <i>verdigris</i> (Spanish green). The further preparation of the above in



APPENDIX V (a)—continued).

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
NETHERLANDS— (contd.)	<p>the above substances in order to prepare them for delivery or use.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>enamels or enamelled goods</i>, if the enamel contains lead to an extent of more than <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> per cent. of its weight in a dry state.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>zinc</i> from ores.</p> <p>The following places and processes in the <i>ceramic industry</i> where lead compounds are used containing more than <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> per cent. of lead of the dry weight, in a form other than sulphide of lead (<i>galena, lead-ore</i>):—</p> <p>(1) Rooms where the preparation of glaze takes place, including grinding, sifting, mixing and making of glaze.</p> <p>(2) Glazing (dipping into the dipping tub, or applying glaze in any other manner, <i>e.g.</i>, by spraying).</p>	<p>The further manipulation of all the above substances in order to prepare them for delivery or use.</p>		<p>order to prepare them for delivery or use.</p>

(3) The preparation, grinding and mixing of ceramic colours.

(4) The decoration of glazed articles and the application of ceramic colours to articles by spraying or dusting, when done in a dangerous manner.

*Married women* and also unmarried women, if more than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of soluble lead is used :—

(1) Putting-up (the handing of articles to the dipper).

(2) Taking-off (the receiving of dipped articles).

(3) The giving of finishing touches to the coating of glaze or the removing of superfluous glaze, in so far as this is not done in glost-placing.

(4) Carrying away (taking dipped articles to the glost-placing shop).

(5) The washing of boards and cleaning of tubs.

(6) The taking of saggars with glazed articles to the oven.

APPENDIX V (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
NORWAY ... ..	<p><i>Pregnant women only.</i>  <i>Porcelain and earthenware works:</i> in workrooms where poisonous substances are used.  <i>Manufacture of substances containing lead:</i> in workrooms where poisonous substances are used.  <i>Enamelling works:</i> in galvanising rooms.</p>	<p><i>Pregnant women only.</i>  Plating: in galvanising rooms.</p>		
POLAND ... ..	<p>The Laws in force in the parts of the new Polish Republic hitherto under Austrian, German and Russian rule remain in operation respectively until modified by the Polish Legislature. See consequently, under Czecho-Slovakia and Germany. There were no regulations of the kind under the old Russian régime.</p>			
SERBIA ... ..	... ..	... ..	Manufacture of phosphorus.	
SWITZERLAND ...	Any work exposing workers to a serious danger of poisoning.			

## APPENDIX V (b).

LISTS OF TRADES AND PROCESSES FROM WHICH WOMEN ARE EXCLUDED, OTHER THAN THOSE INVOLVING CONTACT WITH THE POISONS NAMED UNDER (a).

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
AMERICA ... (New York and Ohio)	—	—	Operating certain kinds of Emery wheels.	
ARGENTINE ...	<p><i>Absolute exclusions.</i></p> <p>Refining and distillation of petroleum and hydrocarbons used for lighting and heating purposes.</p> <p>Manufacture of bisulphide of carbon.</p> <p>Manufacture of sulphuric ether and acetic ether.</p> <p>Manufacture of sulphuric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of picric acid.</p>	<p><i>Absolute exclusions.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of thick varnishes.</p> <p>Manufacture of collodion and its compounds.</p> <p>Manufacture of water-tight fabrics.</p> <p>Polishing of precious metals (gold and silver).</p> <p>Manufacture of aniline dyes.</p> <p>Manufacture of celluloid.</p> <p>Distillation of tar products (paraffin, creosote,</p>	<p><i>Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.</i></p> <p>Carding in textile factories.</p> <p>Tanneries: departments where the workers are exposed to dust from a tanning process.</p> <p>Glass work and crystal and looking-glass factories; blowing without the use of blow-pipes: departments where the ingredients are ground and sifted; cutting the</p>	<p><i>Absolute exclusions.</i></p> <p>Storehouses for animal refuse.</p> <p>Storehouses for animal manure.</p> <p>Gathering and washing bones and rags.</p> <p><i>Exclusion from specified rooms.</i></p> <p>Tripe works: places where the gut is washed and prepared.</p>

APPENDIX V (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
ARGENTINE— * contd.	<p>Manufacture of oxalic acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of salicylic acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of murexide or ammonium hydrogen purpurate.</p> <p>Manufacture of chlorine.</p> <p>Manufacture of chloride of lime.</p> <p>Manufacture of nitric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of chromates.</p> <p>Manufacture of oxide of zinc.</p> <p>Manufacture, grinding and treatment with acids of copper compounds.</p> <p>Manufacture of soda salt by sulphuric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of potash and salts of potash.</p>	<p>phenol, benzene, commercial naphtha).</p> <p><i>Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of varnished skins (patent leather), varnished fabrics; departments where varnishing is carried on.</p> <p>Manufacture of india-rubber and india-rubber articles: departments where bisulphide of carbon and benzene fumes are given off.</p> <p>Chemical manure: places where fumes are given off by the use of acid.</p> <p>Dyeing establishments:</p>	<p>glass in a dry condition, and departments where poisonous substances are used.</p> <p>Tobacco factories: departments where bundles of tobacco are opened and broken up and where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Lime kilns; breaking up and sifting limestone.</p> <p>Plaster mills: departments where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Hat factories: departments where varnish is used and where the treatment of the nap gives rise to dust.</p>	

Manufacture of prussiate  
of potash (cyanide of  
potassium, Prussian  
blue).  
Manufacture of animal  
black.

rooms where poisonous  
substances are used.  
Manufacture and dyeing  
of paper: departments  
where soiled rags are  
sorted, prepared and cut  
up, and where poisonous  
substances are handled.  
Glass works and crystal  
and looking-glass fac-  
tories: blowing without  
the use of blow-pipes:  
departments where the  
ingredients are ground  
and sifted; cutting the  
glass in a dry condition,  
and departments where  
poisonous substances are  
used.  
Hat factories: depart-  
ments where varnish is  
used and where the treat-  
ment of the nap gives  
rise to dust.  
Alcohol distilleries: in  
the fermentation and  
yeast rooms.

Hair industry: wherever  
the workers are exposed  
to dust.  
The *pottery* industry:  
where grinding and sift-  
ing are carried on.

APPENDIX V (b)—*continued.*

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non- poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
	<i>Absolute Exclusions.</i>	<i>Absolute Exclusions.</i>	<i>Absolute Exclusions.</i>	<i>Absolute Exclusions.</i>
FRANCE	<p>... Manufacture of hydro-fluoric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of nitric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of oxalic acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of picric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of salicylic acid by means of carbolic acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of chlorine.</p> <p>Manufacture of hypochlorite of potash.</p> <p>Manufacture of chloride of sulphur.</p> <p>Manufacture of cyanide of potash and Prussian blue.</p> <p>Manufacture of red cyanide of potash or red prussiate of potash.</p>	<p>Manufacture of colouring matters with the use of aniline and nitro-benzine.</p>	<p>Dry polishing of crystal.</p> <p>Rag cutting.</p> <p>Sharpening and polishing metal.</p> <p>Making of millstones and grindstones.</p> <p>Decoration of glass by cutting.</p> <p>Dry polishing of glass.</p>	<p>Depôts of skins and refuse from slaughter houses.</p> <p>Storage of animal manure—and manufacture thereof.</p>

<p>Calcining of sulphuric minerals.</p> <p>Manufacture of murexide in closed vessels by the reaction of nitric acid and of uric acid from guano.</p> <p>Manufacture of methyl nitrate.</p> <p>Manufacture of Prussian and English red.</p> <p>Manufacture of sodium sulphide.</p> <p>Manufacture of potassium.</p> <p>Manufacture of nitrobenzene, aniline and substances derived from benzene.</p>			
<p><i>Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of metallic nitrates obtained by the direct action of acids : in workrooms where fumes are given off, or where acids are handled.</p> <p>Manufacture of soda salt : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p>	<p><i>Exclusions from Specified Processes or Rooms.</i></p> <p>Work on rubber using spirits and bisulphide of carbon, and application of indiarubber coatings : in workrooms where fumes of bisulphide of carbon are given off.</p> <p>Treatment of rags by</p>		<p><i>Exclusions from Specified Processes or Rooms.</i></p> <p>Gut works : in blowing.</p> <p>Wet-spinning : unless arrangements are made to ensure that the water shall run off.</p> <p>Leather-dressing : in unhairing the skins.</p> <p>Workrooms for blowing out and drying blad-</p>



APPENDIX V (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
FRANCE— (contd.)	<p>Manufacture of ferric sulphate by action of nitric acid on ferrous sulphate : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Manufacture of ferrous sulphate (copperas) by the action of sulphuric acid on scrap iron : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Manufacture of sulphate of soda by action of sulphuric acid on sea salt : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Depôts of bisulphide of carbon : in workrooms where injurious fumes are given off.</p>	<p>hydrochloric acid fumes : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Cleaning of waste from cotton : in workrooms where bisulphide of carbon is handled.</p> <p>Pickling copper by acids : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Extraction of fat from grease liquors for the manufacture of soap and for other purposes ; in workrooms where bisulphide of carbon is used.</p> <p>Scouring of wool and cloth by a wet method : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Pickling and galvanising</p>		<p>ders cleaned and with all membrane removed : in blowing.</p>

Manufacture of super-phosphate of lime and of potash : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off and the workers are exposed to dust.

of iron : in workrooms where fumes are given off, or where acids are handled.

Roasting of sulphurous ores when gases are condensed, and where the mineral contains no arsenic : in workrooms where roasting is carried on.

Singeing fabrics : when the products of combustion are given off in the workrooms.

Refrigerating apparatus by means of sulphuric acid : in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.

Manufacture of mustard plasters with the use of hydrocarbons : in workrooms where solvents are handled.

Dye works : in workrooms where poisonous materials are used.

Manufacture of painted

APPENDIX V (b)—*continued.*

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non- poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
FRANCE— <i>contd.</i>	—	fabrics: in workrooms where poisonous mate- rials are used. Manufacture of varnished sheet-iron and metals: in workrooms where poisonous materials are used. Treatment of olive oil cake: in workrooms where bi- sulphide of carbon is handled.		
JAPAN ...	...	Work in which dust fumes or gases are generated from prussic acid, fluo- rine, aniline, chrome, chlorine or their chemical compounds, and from other similar poisonous substances.		

GERMANY ...	Manufacture of alkaline chromates: operations involving contact with chromates.	Glass works: where raw material or waste glass is crushed or where liquid hydric fluorine is used, and at the sand blast apparatus.	Slag works: places where slag or ground slag is brought in packed.	
NETHERLANDS	Manufacture of chromates. Manufacture of poisonous cyanide compounds. Manufacture of oxide of zinc. Further treatment of the above for preparing them for delivery. Preparing, &c., of chloride of lime.	—	Work in which the workers are exposed to dust in the grinding or sifting of cement, lime, chalk, slag, glass, shells, or brass. Dry grinding and cutting of metals and glass.	
NORWAY ...	<i>Pregnant Women only.</i> Works for the manufacture of substances containing basic zinc carbonate: in workrooms where poisonous substances are used.	<i>Pregnant Women only.</i> Silvering, enamelling: in galvanising rooms.		
SWITZERLAND...	—	—	—	The drying of cigars.

To follow 107 (a).

(The small figures are those of deaths.)

(1) **MALES.**

[illegible]

## REPORTED CASES OF INDUSTRIAL POISONING IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1900-1918.

(The small figures are those of deaths.)

## (2) FEMALES.

	ADULTS.																					YOUNG PERSONS.																									
	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	—	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.	1918.	Total 1900- 1918.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	—	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.	1918.	Total 1900- 1918.					
LEAD POISONING .....	150 <sup>5</sup>	82 <sup>1</sup>	82 <sup>2</sup>	90	94 <sup>3</sup>	77	76 <sup>2</sup>	77 <sup>3</sup>	92 <sup>2</sup>	58 <sup>2</sup>	} Tinning of Metals. Vitreous Enamelling. Red Lead.  Coach and Car Painting.	49 <sup>7</sup>	69 <sup>1</sup>	66 <sup>2</sup>	65	23 <sup>1</sup>	22	30 <sup>1</sup>	44 <sup>2</sup>	20	1,266 <sup>34</sup>	24	9	12	9	18	11	12	18	9	5	} Tinning of Metals. Vitreous Enamelling. Red Lead.  Coach and Car Painting.	5	4	4	3	3	3	—	1	—	150					
Smelting of Metals .....	—	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	—	1		—	2	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Brass Works .....	—	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Sheet Lead and Lead Piping .....	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	—	1	—		—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			
Plumbing and Soldering .....	1	3	2	6	6	4	—	2	2	4		—	—	1	2	4	3	—	1	4	2	47	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Printing .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	—		—	—	1	3	—	—	—	—	1	1	10	—	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2			
File Cutting .....	3	6	9	5	6	2	—	1	1	1		—	1	2	4	2	2	—	1	—	1	47	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3			
Tinning and Enamelling of Hollow-ware.	—	3	—	3	—	3	7 <sup>1</sup>	10	—	5		—	2	3	1	—	3	1	1	2	1	45 <sup>1</sup>	3	1	3	2	4	—	2	4	1		2	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	23			
Enamelling of Iron Plates .....	3	1	1 <sup>1</sup>	3	2	1	1	1	1	—		} Vitreous Enamelling.	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	18 <sup>1</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	
White Lead .....	33 <sup>1</sup>	14	7	8	7 <sup>2</sup>	1	3	4	1	3 <sup>1</sup>			—	1	1	1	5	2	4	2	2	—	99 <sup>4</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Red and Yellow Lead .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
China and Earthenware .....	93 <sup>4</sup>	44 <sup>1</sup>	45 <sup>1</sup>	50	57	43	53 <sup>1</sup>	46 <sup>3</sup>	55 <sup>2</sup>	28 <sup>1</sup>			—	35 <sup>7</sup>	45 <sup>1</sup>	36 <sup>1</sup>	21	7 <sup>1</sup>	12	8 <sup>1</sup>	7 <sup>2</sup>	6	691 <sup>26</sup>	12	5	2	4	10	5	7	5		6	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	68		
Litho Transfers .....	—	1	2	1	1	3	4	4	2	—			—	—	1	1 <sup>1</sup>	1	1	—	—	—	—	22 <sup>1</sup>	3	—	—	—	2	—	1	4		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11		
Glass Cutting and Polishing .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Electric Accumulators .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—			—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Paints and Colours .....	5	2	3	3	3 <sup>1</sup>	2	2	1	—	—			} Coach and Car Painting.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	29 <sup>1</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coach Making .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2				—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	2	2	6	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Shipbuilding .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Use of Paints in Other Industries.	—	3	3	3	1	3	3	3	9	6				—	3	4	5	3	3	—	2	3	3	60	—	—	—	—	1	3	—		—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	
Other Processes .....	12	5	8	5	10	15	3	3	16	9				—	3	9	10	28	2	5	11	18	4	176	6	1	6	3	1	2	2		5	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	36	
MERCURY POISONING .....	2	4	1	1	—	—	—	3	3	—				—	—	—	2	1	—	—	6	11	1	35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Barometers & Thermometers .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Furriers & Felt Hat Workers .....	2	4	1	1	—	—	—	3	3	—				—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	1	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Other Industries .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				—	—	—	—	1	—	—	6	11	—	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	
PHOSPHORUS POISONING .....	2	1	—	—	1 <sup>1</sup>	1 <sup>1</sup>	—	—	1	3				—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9 <sup>2</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
ARSENIC POISONING .....	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3	1				—	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	1	—	1	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	
Paints, Colours and Extrac- tion of Arsenic.	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3	1				—	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	1	—	1	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	
Other Industries .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
ANTHRAX .....	5 <sup>2</sup>	2 <sup>1</sup>	4 <sup>1</sup>	7 <sup>1</sup>	4 <sup>2</sup>	10 <sup>4</sup>	12 <sup>3</sup>	11 <sup>2</sup>	6	5				—	7 <sup>3</sup>	8 <sup>2</sup>	5	8	3 <sup>1</sup>	4	23 <sup>2</sup>	19 <sup>1</sup>	18 <sup>2</sup>	161 <sup>27</sup>	4	1	—	1	1	3	1 <sup>1</sup>		7 <sup>1</sup>	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	46 <sup>3</sup>	
Wool Sorting .....	2	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—				} 4 <sup>1</sup>	6 <sup>2</sup>	7 <sup>1</sup>	3	6	—	3	21 <sup>1</sup>	13	16 <sup>2</sup>	109 <sup>11</sup>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	33 <sup>1</sup>
Wool Combing .....	—	1 <sup>1</sup>	2	3	2	6 <sup>3</sup>	—	—	—	—					—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Horsehair .....	2 <sup>2</sup>	1	2 <sup>1</sup>	3	2 <sup>2</sup>	3 <sup>1</sup>	—	3	5 <sup>2</sup>	3					—	—	1 <sup>1</sup>	1	1	1	—	1 <sup>1</sup>	3 <sup>1</sup>	1	34 <sup>11</sup>	2	1	—	—	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9 <sup>2</sup>
Hides and Skins .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 <sup>1</sup>	—	—	—					—																																

# APPENDIX VI (a).

## LIST OF TRADES AND PROCESSES FROM WHICH YOUNG PERSONS ARE EXCLUDED ON ACCOUNT OF THE RISK OF POISONING FROM LEAD, MERCURY, PHOSPHORUS AND ARSENIC.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
AMERICA* ....	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p>Manufacture or packing of <i>paints, colours, white or red lead</i>: (Delaware).</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Manufacture or packing of <i>paints, colours, white or red lead</i>: (Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Utah, Vermont, Wisconsin, Wyoming).</p>	—	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Dipping, drying or packing <i>matches</i>: (Arizona, Missouri, Nevada, New York, Oklahoma, Tennessee).</p> <p>Manufacture or preparation of <i>phosphorus or phosphorus matches</i> (under 18, unless proved to be harmless): (Pennsylvania).</p> <p><i>Boys under 16, Girls under 18.</i></p> <p>Dipping, drying, packing <i>matches</i>: (Indiana).</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p>Manufacture or packing of <i>paints and colours</i>, and manufacture or use of <i>poisonous dyes</i>: (Delaware).</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Manufacture or packing of <i>paints and colours</i>. (See under Lead.)</p> <p>Manufacture or use of <i>poisonous dyes</i>: (Alabama, California, Connecticut, Maryland, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin).</p>

\* In 12 States, a State Board of Labor or Health has authority to determine whether any particular trade, process, or occupation is injurious to children under 18 and prohibit their employment therein; in 5 States, a State Board or other authority can do this with reference to children under 16.

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
	<p><i>Soldering</i>: (Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio): Any process in which <i>lead or its compounds</i> are used: (New Jersey).</p> <p>Preparation of composition in which <i>dangerous leads</i> are used: (Pennsylvania).</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 21.</i></p> <p><i>Lead works</i>: in stripping stacks, repairing ventilating systems.</p> <p>Dry packing of <i>carbonate of lead, red lead</i> (litharge), basic sulphate of lead, or sublimated white lead: (Pennsylvania).</p>	—	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>white or yellow phosphorus</i>, or of <i>phosphorus matches</i>: (Maryland, Massachusetts, Ohio).</p> <p>Dipping, drying or packing <i>matches</i>: (Wisconsin).</p> <p>(Exclusions from processes in the manufacture of matches are becoming obsolete in view of the measures taken by the Federal Government to suppress the use of white phosphorus.)</p>	
ARGENTINE ....	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>The same as for adult women. (See page .)</p>	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.



BELGIUM	....	....	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Treatment of goldsmiths' and silversmiths' ash by lead. Reduction of lead ash. Manufacture of white lead. Manufacture of massicot and minium.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Workrooms for the desilverising of copper.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i></p> <p>Lead foundries: in workrooms where the metals are melted.</p> <p>Printing on fabrics in general; manufacture of coloured papers and waxed taffeta or waxed or varnished cloth; in workrooms where the pastes or colours containing poisonous matters are prepared.</p> <p>Glass works: in glass cutting rooms, or where polishing is carried on by means of a lead base.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Workrooms where the carotting of rabbit and hare skins is carried on; in the work of applying nitrate of mercury to the skins.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Silvering of looking-glasses.</p> <p>Workrooms where the skins of rabbits, &amp;c., are prepared before carotting; and all processes involving the manipulation of the skins after carotting.</p> <p>Silvering and gilding of metal: rooms where the electrolytic process or gilding by heat is carried on.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of phosphorus.</p> <p>Manufacture of chemical matches: Workrooms where pastes containing white phosphorus are prepared; drying rooms; dipping the matches.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i></p> <p>Filling boxes with matches containing white phosphorus.</p> <p>[These exclusions will become obsolete as soon as the intended prohibition of white phosphorus in match factories comes into operation.]</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of arsenic products.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Leather dressing works: workrooms where skins are treated by lime and by arsenic sulphide.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i></p> <p>Printing on fabrics in general: manufacture of coloured papers and waxed taffeta, or waxed or varnished cloth; printing on coloured cloth: in workrooms where pastes or colours, containing the poisonous materials, are prepared.</p>
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APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
<b>BELGIUM—contd.</b>	<p><i>Copper, brass and lead casting (the melting of these metals).</i></p> <p><i>Manufacture of lead shot: places where melting is carried on.</i></p> <p><i>Tinning of metals on a large scale by the dry process.</i></p> <p><i>Manufacture of tin plate and casting of iron hollow-ware; in cleaning and tinning workrooms.</i></p>			
<b>BRITISH EMPIRE— Great Britain</b>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p><i>White-lead factories.</i></p> <p><i>Electric Accumulator Works: in manipulation of dry compounds of lead or in pasting.</i></p> <p><i>Paints and Colours: in manipulating lead colour.</i></p> <p><i>Manufacture and Decorating Pottery, in stopping biscuit ware with material containing more than 5 per cent. of a soluble lead compound; in weighing out,</i></p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Silvering of mirrors.</i></p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i></p> <p><i>In dipping of lucifer matches. (This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.)</i></p>	

shovelling or mixing of unfritted lead compounds in the preparation or manufacture of frits, glazes or colours; in lawning of glaze; in preparation or weighing out of flow material; in cleaning boards used in the dipping house and glost placing shop; cleaning mangles; cleaning floors; in washing saggers with a wash containing more than 5 per cent. of a soluble lead compound; as a dipper; as a glost placer (with certain exceptions).

*Girls under 17, Boys under 16.*

As dippers' assistant or ware-cleaner in potteries.

*Girls under 18, Boys under 16.*

Lead smelting works: any lead process.

*Young Persons under 16.*

Tinning of metal hollow-ware: in tinning.

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
BRITISH EMPIRE—cont. Great Britain— cont.	Young Women under 16. Vitreous enamelling of metal or glass: any enamelling process. Heading of yarn dyed by means of a lead compound.			
	Girls under 18, Boys under 14. Melting or annealing of glass.			
	Girls under 18. Brass casting: in a brass- casting shop.			
Australia— New South Wales	Young Persons under 16. Casting from molten lead.	Young Persons under 18. Silvering of mirrors by mer- curial process.	Young Persons under 16. Match dipping. [This has been rendered ob- solete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]	
	Boys under 16, Girls under 18.			
	Melting or annealing of glass.			

	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i>			
	<i>Manufacture of white lead.</i>			
<i>Victoria ....</i>	<i>Girls under 18,</i> <i>Melting or annealing glass.</i>	<i>Ditto.</i>	<i>Ditto.</i>	
	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Manufacture of white lead</i> <i>Boys under 14, Girls under 15</i> <i>Type-setting</i>			
<i>South Australia ....</i>	<i>Boys under 14, Girls under 18.</i> <i>Melting or annealing glass.</i>	<i>Ditto.</i>	<i>Match dipping.</i>	
	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Manufacture of white lead.</i>			
<i>Western Australia</i>	<i>Girls under 15.</i> <i>Type setting.</i>	<i>Ditto.</i>		
	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Manufacture of white lead.</i>			

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
BRITISH EMPIRE—cont. Australia—cont. Tasmania	Girls under 18. Melting or annealing glass Young Persons under 18. Manufacture of white lead.	Young Persons under 18. Silvering of mirrors by mercurial process.	Match dipping. [This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]	
Canada— Quebec	Boys under 16, Girls under 18. Canning works (soldering of boxes). Can manufacture (soldering of boxes). Brass and lead smelting. Boxing and canning paint. Tinning of sheet-iron utensils. Tinning of wire. White lead works. Dry polishing of crystal.	Boys under 16, Girls under 18. Plating of mirrors. Fulminate of mercury.	Boys under 16, Girls under 18. Mixing and dipping department in match factories. [This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]	Boys under 16, Girls under 18. Arsenic (white) works. Boxing and canning paints. Boxing of Paris green.
South Africa	Young persons under 18. Making of white lead. Grinding of paints or articles containing white lead. Young persons under 18.	Young persons under 18. Silvering of mirrors by the mercurial process.	Young persons under 16. The dipping of matches in which white or yellow phosphorus is used. [This is rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]	Young persons under 18. Grinding of paints.

	<i>Type-setting.</i> Any room where type or type-metal is being cast or melted. Any room in which there is carried on the melting or annealing of glass.			
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA (Austria is the same).	Boys under 16 (unless apprenticed). <i>Printing works:</i> treading platen machines, type-casting, stereotyping on type-setting machines, all work with dry lead colours, and any other work at which the operator cannot avoid being dirtied by lead colours already ground. Young Persons under 16. Paint work with the use of white lead or lead compounds.	....	....	....

	The same as the prohibitions for women, (see page 94), with the following additions:—			
FRANCE	Young Persons under 16. Soldering boxes for preserves. Copper casting (in casting the metal).	Young Persons under 18. Gilding and silvering: in workrooms where mercurial fumes are produced. Manufacture of mirrors: where poisonous substances are used.	Young Persons under 18. Manufacture of chemical matches: the melting of the paste, and dipping. [This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]	Young Persons under 18. Painted fabrics: workrooms where poisonous materials are used.

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
FRANCE—cont.	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i>  Melting lead, and the manipulation of oxides of lead in <i>electric accumulator</i> factories.  Ceramic <i>chromolithography</i> (dry powdering and colour dusting).  <i>Porcelain factories</i>: when the workers are exposed to dust.  <i>Painted fabrics</i>: workrooms where poisonous materials are used.  Manufacture of <i>pottery</i>, with furnaces which do not consume their own smoke: ditto.  <i>Glass works</i>, crystal works: where poisonous substances are used.</p>			
GERMANY	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i>  The manufacture of <i>lead colours</i> and other lead compounds.  Manufacture of <i>electric accumulators</i>: work involving contact with lead or lead compounds.</p>			



	<p><i>Zinc-smelting</i> : various processes involving exposure to lead fumes and dust.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i>  <i>Zinc-smelting</i> : removing waste ashes and other dusty processes.</p>			
GREECE	<p><i>Young Persons under 16, Girls under 18.</i></p> <p>Factories for the preparation of <i>lead or lead alloys</i> and lead colours.</p> <p><i>Glass</i> and crystal factories : glass polishing, &amp;c.</p> <p>Rooms in which <i>electric accumulators</i> are manufactured.</p> <p><i>Printing works</i> : in type-setting rooms, stereotype and linotype rooms.</p> <p><i>Smelting works</i> : in cleaning lead flues.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Girls under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Gilding and silvering</i> factories.</p> <p>Factories where <i>mercury</i> and <i>mercurial compounds</i> are used.</p> <p><i>Hat factories</i> : the wetting of hats with combinations of mercury ; rooms where hats are polished, brushed and boiled.</p> <p><i>Mirror factories</i> : in covering glass with a mixture of mercury.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Girls under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Phosphorus</i> factories.</p> <p><i>Match</i> factories : in rooms where phosphorus paste is prepared, matches are dipped or dried, and any other places where phosphorus fumes are given off.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16. Girls under 18.</i></p> <p>Factories for the preparation of <i>arsenic</i> and compounds of arsenic.</p>
ITALY	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Factories for the manufacture of litharge and <i>white lead</i> and other preparations of lead and antimony.</p> <p>Factories for the treatment of <i>metallic lead</i>, in type-founding and the manufacture of alloys containing lead.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>The manufacture of <i>mirrors</i> with compositions containing mercury.</p> <p>The manufacture of <i>alloys</i> containing mercury.</p> <p>The treatment by a smelting process of <i>ore</i> containing mercury.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Factories for the manufacture of <i>phosphorus</i>.</p> <p><i>Match</i> factories : in certain rooms.</p> <p>[This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Factories for the manufacture of colours and <i>preparations</i> containing arsenic.</p> <p>The manufacture of <i>alloys</i> containing arsenic.</p> <p>The treatment by a melting process of <i>ore</i> containing arsenic ; in calcining in chambers, &amp;c., all minerals</p>

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
ITALY—cont.	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>The treatment by a smelting process of <i>lead ore</i> containing silver.</p> <p><i>Paper factories</i>: in dyeing paper with the use of poisonous substances.</p> <p><i>Letterpress printing</i>: in cleaning the type.</p> <p><i>Ceramic factories</i>: in rooms where the glaze is prepared, where the raw material is ground by a dry process: and where glazes containing lead are applied.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p><i>Felt factories</i>: in work on felt previously treated with mercurial preparations.</p> <p><i>Gilding and silver-plating.</i></p> <p>Workplaces or parts of workplaces where <i>carotting</i> is carried on.</p>		<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>containing arsenic, and especially copper ore containing arsenic.</p> <p><i>Paper factories</i>: in dyeing paper with the use of poisonous substances.</p>
JAPAN	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p>Where <i>dust, fumes or gases</i> are generated from <i>lead</i>.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p>Work in which <i>mercury, or its chemical compounds</i>, is manipulated.</p> <p>Where <i>dust, fumes or gases</i> are generated from <i>mercury</i>.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p>Work in which <i>yellow phosphorus, or sulphide of phosphorus</i> are manipulated.</p> <p>Where <i>dust, fumes or gases</i> are generated from <i>yellow phosphorus</i>.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p>Work in which <i>arsenic or its chemical compounds</i>, is manipulated.</p> <p>Where <i>dust, fumes or gases</i> are generated from <i>arsenic</i>.</p>

	<i>Young Persons under 17.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 17.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 17.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 17.</i>
NETHERLANDS	<p>The same as for adult women (<i>see</i> page 95), except as regards the ceramic industry, where the work of young persons is only prohibited in the processes named under 16; and the following additions :—</p> <p><i>Male Young Persons of 17 years of age.</i></p> <p>Preparation of <i>white lead</i>. Preparation of <i>sugar of lead</i>, <i>oxide of lead</i>, <i>red lead</i>. Burning (reducing) of <i>lead ash</i>. Preparation or manufacture of <i>enamels</i> for enamelled goods, if the enamel contains lead to an extent of more than <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> per cent. of its weight in a dry state.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>The <i>ceramic industry</i>: in glost-placing (placing the dipped articles in saggars) or, when no saggars are used, in placing the dipped articles in the ovens.</p>	<p>The same as for adult women (<i>see</i> page 95).</p> <p><i>Male Young Persons of 17 years of age.</i></p> <p>Preparation of <i>colours containing mercury</i>. Preparation or manufacture of <i>mercuric chloride</i>. Preparation or manufacture of <i>mercury or mercury foil</i>.</p>	<p>The same as for adult women (<i>see</i> page 95).</p> <p><i>Male Young Persons of 17 years of age.</i></p> <p>Preparation or manufacture of <i>white phosphorus</i>.</p>	<p>The same as for adult women (<i>see</i> page 95).</p> <p><i>Male Young Persons of 17 years of age.</i></p> <p>Preparation or manufacture of <i>arsenic</i> or compounds of <i>arsenic</i>. Manufacture of <i>verdigris</i> (Spanish green).</p>

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
NORWAY	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Porcelain and earthenware factories: workrooms where poisonous materials are used.</i></p> <p><i>Printing works: washing of floors.</i></p> <p><i>Manufacture of substances containing lead: in workrooms where poisonous substances are used.</i></p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p><i>Type casting.</i></p> <p><i>Enamelling works: galvanising workrooms.</i></p>		<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p><i>Match factories. [This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]</i></p>	
POLAND	The laws in force in those parts of the new Polish Republic formerly under Russian, German, and Austrian rule remain in operation respectively until modified by the Polish Legislature. See, consequently, under Czecho-Slovakia and Germany.			
Parts of Poland formerly under Russian rule	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i></p> <p><i>Ceramic industry</i></p>			

	<p><i>Lead industry.</i></p> <p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Any process involving contact with lead.</i></p>			
RUMANIA* ....				
SPAIN ....	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of metal boxes for preserves : in <i>soldering</i> rooms.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>printed fabrics</i> : in rooms where poisonous substances are used.</p> <p><i>Enamelling</i> metal, and manufacture of enamel with the use of furnaces which do not consume their own smoke.</p> <p><i>Glass</i>, crystal and looking-glass factories : rooms where poisonous substances are used.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p><i>Mirror</i> factories : rooms where poisonous substances are used.</p> <p><i>Gilding and silvering</i> : rooms where acids or mercurial fumes are evolved.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>sulphate of mercury</i>.</p> <p><i>Preparation of skins</i> with salts of mercury.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>The manufacture and storage of matches. [This has been rendered obsolete by the prohibition of white phosphorus.]</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>phosphorus</i>.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p><i>Painting and decoration</i> of toys with colours containing arsenic.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>arsenic and arsenical</i> preparations.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>arsenical acid</i> and arsenious acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>printed fabrics</i> : in rooms where poisonous substances are used.</p>

\* Girls under 17 and boys under 15 may not be employed in unhealthy processes. A list of such processes is to be drawn up by the authorities. No details of any such list have been received.

APPENDIX VI (a)—continued.

Country.	Lead.	Mercury.	Phosphorus.	Arsenic.
SPAIN—contd.	<p>.....</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i> <i>Young Persons under 21.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>white lead</i>, <i>red lead</i>, <i>litharge</i>, <i>massicot</i>, <i>chromate of lead</i>, <i>chloride of</i> <i>lead</i>. <i>Metallic lead</i> industry. <i>Type foundries</i>. Manufacture of <i>electric accu-</i> <i>mulators</i>. <i>Painting and decoration of</i> <i>toys</i> with colours contain- <i>ing lead</i>. The casting and putting to- gether of goods made of <i>lead and their alloys</i>.</p>			

## APPENDIX VI (b).

### EXCLUSION OF YOUNG PERSONS FROM TRADES OTHER THAN THOSE INVOLVING CONTACT WITH THE POISONS NAMED IN APPENDIX VI (a).

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours. or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poison- ous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
AMERICA.*		<p><i>Young persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Processes in which <i>poisonous acids</i> are used: (Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Utah, Vermont, Wisconsin).</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>poisonous dyes</i>: (Alabama, California, Connecticut, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin).</p>	<p><i>Young persons under 18.</i></p> <p>In operating, &amp;c., any emery, tripoli, rouge, corundum, stone, carborundum, or any abrasive, or emery <i>polishing or buffing wheel</i>, where articles of the base metals or of iridium are manufactured. (New York, Wisconsin, Maryland, Ohio.)</p> <p>In the operation or use of any <i>buffing or polishing wheel</i>: (Delaware, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania).</p>	

\* In twelve States a State Board of Labor or of Health has authority to determine whether any particular trade process or occupation is injurious to children under 18 and prohibit their employment therein; in five States, a State Board or other authority has power to do this with reference to children under 18.

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
AMERICA—cont.		<p><i>Young persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Manufacture or use of <i>compositions of lye</i> in injurious quantities: (Alabama, California, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Wisconsin).</p> <p>Manufacture of compositions with <i>poisonous gases</i>: (Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Wisconsin).</p> <p><i>Burnishing machines</i> in tanneries and leather factories: (Arizona, Tennessee, Vermont, Wisconsin, Connecticut, Missouri, California, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts).</p>	<p><i>Young persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Occupations causing <i>dust in injurious quantities</i>: (Alabama, Arkansas, California, Kentucky, Maryland, Ohio, Oklahoma, Wisconsin).</p> <p>Operating <i>emery or polishing wheels</i> for polishing metal: (Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Illinois, Kentucky, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Missouri, North Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont).</p> <p>At <i>sandpaper or wood-polishing machines</i>: (Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, Missouri, New</p>	



Handling any goods, &c., that are poisonous or that give off *dust fumes or gases*. (New Jersey).

Work around any heated metals, &c., that give off any *injurious fumes or gases* (New Jersey).

*Young Persons under 15.*

Manufacture of *poisonous dyes*: (Delaware).

Manufacture of *poisonous gases*: (Delaware).

Processes in which *poisonous acids* are used: (Delaware).

Compositions of lye: (Delaware).

Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Wisconsin, Wyoming).

At machines used in *picking wool, hair* or any other material (upholstering, &c.): (Alabama, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Ohio, New Jersey, New York, Tennessee, Vermont, Wisconsin).

*Carding machines*: (Arkansas, California, Kentucky, Maryland, Ohio, New Jersey, Wisconsin).

In occupations, causing mineral, animal, or vegetable *dust in injurious quantities*, including flint, clay, metal and talc dust, tobacco, rubber (New Jersey).

(1) *Tobacco: Assorting, manufacturing or packing* (sometimes *stripping*) (Alabama, California, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Ohio, Pennsylvania).

(2) *Tobacco warehouse, cigar factory, or other*

APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
<i>AMERICA—cont.</i>			<p><i>Young persons under 16.</i></p> <p>factory where tobacco is manufactured or prepared (Arizona, Indiana, Nevada, Utah (includes tobacco stand and store), Vermont, Wisconsin).</p> <p><i>Young persons under 15.</i></p> <p><i>Tobacco :</i> In stripping or assorting (Delaware). Occupations causing dust in injurious quantities: (Delaware).</p>	

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
ARGENTINE ....	<i>Young Persons under 16.</i> The same as for adult women. See page 99	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.
BELGIUM ....	<i>Absolute exclusions.</i> <i>Young Persons under 16 and Girls under 21.</i> Manufacture of <i>hydrofluoric acid, nitric acid, sulphurous acid, and sulphites.</i> Manufacture of <i>carbonate of copper (blue ash) and other compounds of copper.</i> Manufacture of <i>ether.</i> Manufacture of <i>bisulphide of carbon.</i>	<i>Absolute exclusions.</i> <i>Young Persons under 16 and Girls under 21.</i> Manufacture of <i>varnished or patent leather.</i> Manufacture of <i>orchil liquor.</i>  <i>Young Persons under 16.</i> Distillation and rectification of <i>alcohol.</i> Manufacture of <i>Eau de Cologne</i> and other similar products by distillation. Manufacture of <i>varnished felt and peaks (for caps).</i>	<i>Absolute exclusions.</i> <i>Young Persons under 16 and Girls under 21.</i> Workrooms for the preparation of <i>hogs' bristles</i> by any fermentation process.  <i>Young Persons under 16.</i> Workrooms for <i>unmounting old leather.</i> Manufacture of <i>tarred felt</i> suitable for coating ships.	<i>Absolute exclusions.</i> <i>Young Persons under 16 and Girls under 21.</i> <i>Anatomy rooms.</i> Depôts for <i>animal refuse.</i> Manufacture of <i>manure</i> from animal matter.  <i>Young Persons under 16.</i> Public and private <i>slaughter houses.</i> <i>Gut works.</i> <i>Knackers' yards.</i> Depôts for <i>kitchen refuse.</i>

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trade Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
BELGIUM—cont.	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol), hydrochloric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of chlorine.</p> <p>Manufacture of oxide of zinc (zinc white.)</p> <p>Manufacture of chloride of lime—dry or dissolved.</p> <p>Manufacture of chromates.</p> <p>Manufacture of nitrobenzene.</p> <p>Manufacture of hypochlorite of potash by the direct action of chlorine.</p> <p>Manufacture of hypochlorite of soda by the direct action of chlorine.</p> <p>Manufacture of yellow prussiate of potash by the action of atmospheric nitrogen on alkaliized charcoal and other cyanides.</p> <p>Manufacture of yellow prussiate of potash by calcining animal material with potash or by the</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>The distillation of oil of aspic.</p> <p>Distillation of oil from tar, shale, petroleum, &amp;c.</p> <p>Boiling linseed oil in bulk.</p> <p>Distillation of oil of turpentine.</p> <p>Work on a large scale on all resinous substances, either for casting in moulds and refining, or in order to extract turpentine.</p> <p>Distillation of resins for the manufacture of fine oils and volatile spirits.</p> <p>Factories in which animal fat is extracted by means of bisulphide of carbon.</p> <p>Application, hot, of varnishes, colours, or coatings on paper, wood, fabric, and in general on any surface of whatever nature.</p> <p>Varnish factories.</p> <p>Workrooms where india rubber is treated by bisulphide of carbon.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.</p> <p>Manufacture of cement: in breaking, grinding and crushing workrooms, when the dust evolved by these operations is not drawn off by mechanical means.</p> <p>Manufacture of felt hats: in places where the workers are exposed to dust arising from the process.</p> <p>Workrooms for the manufacture of curled animal hair: in places where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>The manipulation or mixing, on a large scale, of mineral or vegetable substances liable to give rise to dust or smoke or to injurious or unpleasant odours.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Scalding-houses, where intestines and other animal matter are prepared or cooked, and where the heads and feet of animals are treated with a view to removing the hair.</p> <p>Workrooms for the salting and pickling of fish.</p> <p>Dépôts and drying rooms for animal blood.</p> <p>Salting and preparation of meat.</p> <p>Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.</p> <p>Manufacture of gu' strings: in places where mucous membrane is removed from the intestines by putrefaction.</p> <p>Washing and bleaching sponges: in workrooms where fetid odours are given off arising from the decomposition and</p>

use of bisulphide of carbon and sulpho-hydrate of ammonia.

Manufacture of *soda* from a sulphate.

Manufacture of *caustic soda* from crude soda.

Manufacture of *copper sulphate* by sulphur and roasting.

Manufacture of *copper sulphate* by the action of sulphuric acid on the oxide or carbonate of copper.

Manufacture of *sulphate of iron* by the action of sulphuric acid on iron or pig-iron.

Manufacture of *sulphate of soda*.

Manufacture of *sulphate of zinc* by the action of sulphuric acid on the metal.

*Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.*

Manufacture of *aniline* and dyes made therefrom; in workrooms in which nitration and reduction processes are carried on.

*Exclusions from specified processes or rooms.*

*Bleaching* of woollen or silk yarn or fabric by means of sulphuric acid: in places where sulphuric acid is given off.

*Bleaching* of yarn and cloth, of hemp, jute or cotton, by means of chlorine and bleaching chlorides: in places where chlorine is given off.

Manufacture of *silk* and other *hats* with the use of varnish: in places where the varnish is prepared or used.

Pickling of *copper* by nitric acid: in workrooms where nitric fumes are liable to be given off.

Workrooms where *cleaning* is carried on by means of naphtha or other hydrocarbons: in workrooms where naphtha or poisonous substances are handled.

*Dyeing and cleaning* works: ditto.

Manufacture of *alcoholic liquors* by distillation: in places where the distillation is carried on.

Mills for grinding *dye woods, stones, or flint, lime, cement, plaster, sulphate of barium, &c.*: in places where the dust is not drawn off by mechanical means.

Cleaning and preparation of *feathers and down quilts*: in places where the workers are exposed to dust.

*Young Persons under 14.*

Sharpening and polishing *firearms*, by means of mechanical whetstones: in workrooms where the sharpening and polishing is carried on.

Manufacture of *metal buttons*: in workrooms where cleaning is carried on.

*Brush factories*: in workrooms where preparatory processes, and the combing of fibres and bristles are carried on.

Manufacture of *earthenware and porcelain*: in places where the workers are exposed to dust from grinding and crushing.

fermentation of gelatinous animal matter.

Manufacture of *ox foot oil*: in places where odours are given off from animal matter in a state of putrefaction.

Manufacture of *fish oil*: in places where there are maceration vats.

Manufacture of *red oil* extracted from greaves and fat refuse by means of a high temperature: in places where the processes are carried on.

Stores for more than 25 kilometres of *bones*: in places where the bones are stored in a fresh state and places where they are sorted.

*Young Persons under 14.*

*Breweries and distilleries*: in the malt houses and places where fermentation is carried on.

APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
BELGIUM—contd.	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>animal charcoal</i> by the carbonisation of old skins or any other animal matter: in workrooms where animal fat is extracted by benzene.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>animal charcoal</i> by the carbonisation of bones in air: ditto.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>animal black</i>: ditto.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>superphosphates</i>: in places where the workers are exposed to dust, or where fumes are given off from the acids.</p> <p>Preliminary work on the <i>phosphated chalk</i>, in the preparation of superphosphate of lime: in places where the workers are exposed to dust.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Morocco leather works: in places where injurious odours are given off (skinning and tanning operations).</p> <p>Refining of <i>precious metals</i>: in workrooms where refining is carried on by means of acids.</p> <p>Glass works: in places where the raw materials constituting the glass are mixed, and where engraving is carried on by means of hydrofluoric acid.</p> <p>Galvanising of iron and pig-iron: in pickling and galvanising workrooms.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i></p> <p>Combing on a large scale of hemp, flax, and similar textiles: in workrooms where the workers are exposed to dust, unless this is drawn off by mechanical means.</p> <p>Scutching of hemp, flax, and similar textiles on a large scale: ditto.</p> <p>Scouring of wool and waste: ditto.</p> <p>Spinning cotton, flax, hemp, wool and jute: ditto.</p> <p>Cotton-wool factories: ditto.</p> <p>Bale opening and shaking of wool regularly on a large scale: ditto.</p> <p>Rag garnetting: ditto.</p> <p>Wool scribbling: ditto.</p> <p>Preparation and accessory processes in connection with textile substances, such as shaking, carding, scouring, combing: ditto.</p>	

			<p><i>Steeping</i> of hemp, flax, &amp;c., on a large scale by means of chemical substances and mechanical apparatus.</p> <p><i>Polishing</i> pieces of <i>nickel metal</i> by means of mechanical whetstones: in workrooms where polishing is carried on.</p> <p><i>Glassworks</i>: in glass cutting rooms.</p>	
BRITISH EMPIRE : Great Britain	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>chromate and bichromate of potassium or sodium</i>: in any chrome process.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Vulcanising of india-rubber</i> by means of bisulphide of carbon: in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i></p> <p><i>Dry grinding</i> in the metal trade.</p>	<p><i>Girls under 16.</i></p> <p>The making of <i>bricks and tiles</i>.</p> <p>The making and finishing of <i>salt</i>.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 18</i></p> <p><i>Wet spinning</i>, unless means are employed for protecting workers from wet and for preventing the escape of steam into the workrooms.</p>
Australia— New South Wales	....	....	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p><i>Dry grinding</i>.</p>	<p><i>Girls under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>bricks and tiles</i>.</p> <p>Making and finishing of <i>salt</i>.</p>

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trade Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
<b>BRITISH EMPIRE— contd.</b>			<i>Young Persons under 16.</i>	<i>Girls under 16.</i>
<i>Victoria ....</i>	....	....	Ditto.	Manufacture of bricks and tiles. Making and finishing of salt.
<i>South Australia ....</i>	—	....	Ditto.	Ditto.
<i>Western Australia ....</i>	....	....	....	Ditto.
<i>Tasmania ....</i>	....	....	Ditto.	Ditto
	<i>Boys under 16, Girls under 18.</i>	<i>Boys under 16, Girls under 18.</i>	<i>Boys under 16, Girls under 18.</i>	<i>Boys under 16, Girls under 18.</i>
<i>Canada : Quebec ....</i>	Manufacture of muriatic acid, nitric acid, sulphuric acid, oxalic acid.	Cleaning of iron, brass or zinc with acids. Mechanical pounding of drugs. Tarring of felt. Making or storing of fertilisers. Galvanising of iron. Oil cloth. Rubber works, varnishing department. Preparation of asphalt.	Boxing of baking powder. Beating of carpets on a large scale. Beating and cleaning of wools. Cutlery (grinding and turning of stones). Crushing and barrelling of cement. Crushing of lime, plaster and stone. Dry polishing of crystals.	Abattoirs. Flesh and refuse from abattoirs. Flaying of horses and other animals. Glue.



		<i>Dyeing of skins.</i> <i>Handling and barrelling oxide of iron.</i> <i>Preparation and glossing of skins and leather.</i> <i>Tar (dipping of iron pipes and wooden blocks).</i> <i>Varnishing metal dried in ovens.</i>	<i>Dry polishing of iron, brass or horn.</i> <i>Sawing and polishing of marble.</i> <i>Nails (grinding tools and turning stones).</i> <i>Sorting and manipulating of rags.</i> <i>Cutting, grinding and garnetting of rags.</i> <i>Polishing, sandpapering on machines in shoe factories.</i> <i>Sandpapering wood by machinery.</i>	
South Africa ....	---	---	<i>Young Persons under 16.</i> <i>Dry grinding in the metal trade.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 16.</i> <i>Making or finishing of bricks or tiles.</i> <i>Making and finishing of salt.</i>
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA ....	....	<i>Girls under 17,</i> <i>Boys under 16.</i> <i>Bronzing with bronze powder in printing works.</i>	....	....
DENMARK ....	....	....	<i>Boys under 16.</i> <i>Certain stone-cutting processes.</i>	....

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other Unhealthy Trades.
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See the List of Trades from which women are absolutely excluded, Appendix V (b). Young persons are excluded from the following processes and rooms also :—

	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i>	<i>Young Persons under 18.</i>
FRANCE	<p>Manufacture of hydrochloric acid and sulphuric acid: in workrooms where fumes are given off or the acids are handled.</p> <p>Manufacture of oxide of zinc (zinc white): in workrooms where burning and condensation take place.</p> <p>Manufacture of metallic nitrates: in workrooms where fumes are given off or acids are handled.</p> <p>Manufacture of soda salt: in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Manufacture of ferric sulphate by action of nitric acid on ferrous sulphate: in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p>	<p>Refining of gold and silver by acids: in workrooms where fumes are given off or acids are handled.</p> <p>Bleaching fabrics, straw, paper: in workrooms where chlorine and sulphuric acid are given off.</p> <p>Work on rubber using spirits and bisulphide of carbon; and application of india-rubber coatings: in workrooms where fumes of bisulphide of carbon are given off.</p> <p>Manufacture of silk or other hats by means of varnishing: in workrooms where the varnishes are made and applied.</p> <p>Treatment of rags by hydrochloric acid fumes: in workrooms where acids are given off.</p>	<p>Glass grinding.</p> <p>Extraction of the silk parts from cocoons.</p> <p>Drying, sawing and polishing of alabaster: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Shaking, carding and scouring wool, horsehair and feathers: in workrooms where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Beating bark in towns: in workrooms where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Beating carpets on a large scale: ditto.</p> <p>Button making and other metal embossing by mechanical means: ditto.</p> <p>Manufacture of felt hats: ditto.</p>	<p>Laundries: in workrooms where dirty linen is manipulated before disinfection and washing.</p> <p>Gut works: in blowing.</p> <p>Converting disused rope into tow: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Flax spinning: when provision is not made to ensure that the water shall run off.</p> <p>Singeing fabrics: when the products of combustion are given off freely in workrooms.</p> <p>Workrooms for blowing out and drying of bladders: in blowing.</p>

Manufacture of ferrous sulphate (copperas) by the action of sulphuric acid on scrap iron: in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.  
 Manufacture of sulphate of soda by action of sulphuric acid on sea salt.  
 Manufacture of bisulphide of carbon: in workrooms where injurious fumes are given off.  
 Manufacture of superphosphate of lime and of potash: in workrooms where acid fumes are given off and the workers are exposed to dust.

*Cleaning of waste from cotton:* in workrooms where bisulphide of carbon is handled.

*Grinding of compounds of copper:* in workrooms where the workers are exposed to dust.

*Pickling of copper by acids:* in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.

*Extraction of fat from grease liquors for the manufacture of soap and for other purposes:* in workrooms where bisulphide of carbon is used.

*Scouring of wool and cloth by a wet method:* in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.

*Pickling and galvanising of iron:* in workrooms where fumes are given off or the acids are handled.

*Manufacture of varnished felt and peaks (for caps):* in the preparation and use of the varnishes.

*Roasting of sulphurous ores* when gases are condensed and where the mineral does not contain arsenic: in workrooms where roasting is carried on.

*Leather dressing works:* in unhairing the skins.

*Lime kilns:* ditto.

*Rag depots:* sorting and manipulating rags.

*Cement furnaces:* in workrooms where the workers are exposed to dust.

*Dry work on horn, bone, and mother of pearl:* ditto.

*Carding silk waste:* ditto.

*Manufacture of tarred felt:* ditto.

*Extraction and quarrying of sandstone:* ditto.

*Works for the grinding of cork:* ditto.

*Drying, sawing and polishing marble:* ditto.

*Dry grinding of mineral substances:* ditto.

*Mills for grinding plaster, lime, stones, and "pouzzolanes":* ditto.

*Manufacture of cotton wool:* ditto.

*Young Persons under 17.*

*Public and private slaughter houses:* in slaughtering the animals.  
*Young Persons under 14.*

*Slaughter houses:* (see under the age limit of 17 above) in all work other than slaughtering.

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
FRANCE—contd. ....		<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>mineral black</i>: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p><i>Scouring of skins, fabrics and woollen waste</i> by petrol and other hydro-carbons: in workrooms where solvents are used or where the waste is sorted, cut and handled.</p> <p><i>Polishing and finishing skins</i>: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Mechanical <i>pounding of drugs</i>: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p><i>Refrigerating apparatus</i> by means of sulphuric acid: in workrooms where acid fumes are given off.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>mustard plasters</i> by the use of hydro carbons: in workrooms where solvents are handled.</p> <p><i>Pulverising and grinding of sulphur</i>: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of paper: in sorting and preparing the rags.</p> <p>Pulling and cutting rabbit and hare skins: when the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Artificial "<i>pouzzolane</i>" kilns: ditto.</p> <p>Sawing and polishing stone: ditto.</p> <p>Manufacture of tobacco pipes: ditto.</p> <p>Plaster kilns: ditto.</p> <p>Preparation of hogs' bristles: ditto.</p> <p>Scutching of flax, hemp, and jute on a large scale: ditto.</p> <p>Glass and crystal works: manufacture of looking glasses: ditto.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Tobacco factories: in workrooms where tobacco is broken up.</p>	

Manufacturing processes in which large quantities of *bisulphide of carbon* are used : in workrooms where injurious fumes are given off.

Depots for *bisulphide of carbon* : in workrooms where injurious fumes are given off.

*Tan Mills and Tanneries* : when the workers are exposed to dust.

*Dye works* : in workrooms where poisonous materials are used.

Manufacture of *Painted fabrics* : in workrooms where poisonous materials are used.

Manufacture of *Varnished sheet iron* and metals : in workrooms where poisonous materials are used.

Treatment of *olive oil cake* : in workrooms where *bisulphide of carbon* is handled.

*Young Persons under 16.*

*Chromolithography* : in machine bronzing.

*Tin foil* : in bronzing by hand.

Manufacture, distillation and use on a large scale of oil of *petroleum, shale, tar, oil, and other hydrocarbons, &c.* : in distilling rooms and stores.

*Earthenware factories* : in workrooms where grinding and crushing are carried on.

APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
GERMANY ....	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>alkaline chromates</i>: operations involving contact with the chromates.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p>Vulcanising of <i>indiarubber</i>: work involving contact with bisulphide of carbon.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p>In <i>combing rooms</i> and other dusty places in <i>textile mills</i>.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i></p> <p><i>Slag works</i>: in places where slag or ground slag is brought in unpacked, and in beating sacks after use.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p><i>Glass works</i>: where raw material or waste glass is crushed and other processes.</p> <p><i>Boys under 14,</i> <i>Girls under 16.</i></p> <p><i>Glass works</i>: in dry grinding.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 16.</i></p> <p><i>Horsehair and brush works</i>: in disinfecting material or handling material before disinfection.</p>

	Boys under 16. Girls under 18.	Boys under 16. Girls under 18.	Boys under 16. Girls under 18.	Boys under 16. Girls under 18.
GREECE ....	<p>Manufacture of compressed gases (carbonic acid, oxygen, ammonia).</p> <p>Manufacture of sulphuric acid, sulphurous acid, sulphur compounds, nitric acid and hydrochloric acid; bisulphide of carbon, chlorine, chloride of lime, subchloroid alkalines, chloride of sulphur; antimony or compounds; aniline and aniline dyes; cyanide compounds; oxalic acid; ethylic, sulphuric and acetic ether.</p> <p>Any factories where poisonous fumes are given off.</p>	<p>Glass and crystal factories: where acid is used.</p> <p>Chemical manure factories: processes generating dust or fumes, unless drawn off by mechanical exhaust.</p> <p>Manufacture of collodion and celluloid.</p>	<p>Dusty processes in flour, textile and saw mills.</p> <p>Glass and crystal factories: glass blowing, cutting, &amp;c.</p> <p>Certain processes in paper factories.</p> <p>Tobacco factories: opening and sorting, drying, cutting, &amp;c.</p>	<p>Factories using organic substances, subject to putrefaction; gum and glue factories, tanneries.</p>
ITALY ....	<p>Young Persons under 15. Girls under 21.</p> <p>The grinding and refining of sulphur.</p> <p>Manufacture of carbides and their derivatives.</p> <p>Manufacture of sulphuric acid, sulphurous acid, sulphites, nitric acid and hydrochloric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of compressed gas (i.e., carbonic acid, oxygen, ammonia).</p>	<p>Young Persons under 15. Girls under 21.</p> <p>Manufacture of aniline dyes.</p> <p>Manufacture of collodion and celluloid.</p> <p>The refining of precious metals.</p> <p>The distillation and refining of petroleum.</p> <p>Manufacture of oxide of zinc.</p> <p>The extraction of oil from olive husks and of other fatty oils with the use of bisulphide of carbon.</p>	<p>Young Persons under 15. Girls under 21.</p> <p>Mechanical dressing of minerals and of materials extracted from mines and pits: in the pluviation, dry sifting and removal of the powder.</p> <p>Tobacco factories: in opening bales, in sorting tobacco leaves which have not been damped, in the fermenting process, in</p>	<p>Sardine industry or the treatment of animal refuse to render its use innocuous.</p> <p>Lime factories: in the treatment and sorting of bones and horny materials.</p> <p>Bone button factories: in sorting bones and horny materials.</p>

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
ITALY—(contd.)	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Girls under 21.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of bisulphide of carbon.</p> <p>Manufacture of chlorine, calcium chloride, hypochlorine, and other hypochlorites and chloride of sulphur.</p> <p>Manufacture of chromates.</p> <p>Manufacture of soda salt with the use of sulphuric acid.</p> <p>Manufacture of ammonia and potash.</p> <p>Manufacture of compounds of cyanide.</p> <p>Manufacture of salts of barium, oxalic acid and oxalates.</p> <p>Manufacture of sulphuric ethylic, acetic and propylic ether, and of essences, or essential oils (such as turpentine and camphor).</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Girls under 21.</i></p> <p>The distillation of tar for the purpose of extracting benzene, paraffin, mineral oils, &amp;c.: in workrooms where the distilling process is carried on.</p> <p>Factories where glass, crystal goods, enamel, plate, enamelled sheet glass and glass beads are manufactured: in rooms where the raw material is pulverised, where beads are manufactured; in glass-blowing works; in cleaning and breaking up the furnaces; in making opaque and corroding with the use of hydrofluoric acid or sand jets; in grinding and polishing.</p> <p>Indiarubber, gutta-percha and ebonite factories: in rooms where vulcanisation is performed with the use of bisulphide of carbon or sul-</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15. Girls under 21.</i></p> <p>the removal of fermented product, in the drying process carried on in enclosed places, in grinding and sifting, in the manufacture of extracts and in cutting.</p> <p>Sulphate of quinine factories: in rooms where Peruvian bark is pulverised and sulphate of quinine purified.</p> <p>Asbestos spinning and weaving factories: in rooms where provision is not made for the immediate removal of the dust.</p> <p>Tanneries: in rooms where the hides are rubbed; in the treatment of the same with lime; in tanning pits where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>Hat factories: in the rub-</p>	



phuric chloride ; in rooms where solutions of india-rubber are prepared in essential oils, and where materials are treated with these solutions in order that they may become waterproof.

*Artificial manure factories :* in rooms where dust freely evolves in the grinding process and injurious vapours and gases are given off in chemical reaction.

*Paper factories and sorting workshops :* in dyeing paper with the use of poisonous substances.

*Dyeing works :* in rooms where poisonous colours or baths are prepared.

bing, brushing and napping processes where suitable mechanical apparatus for drawing off dust is not provided.

*Paper factories and sorting workshops :* in the sorting and pounding of rags, and old paper, unless suitable apparatus is provided for sifting (beating) and for drawing off the dust.

*Lime, gypsum, cement, porcelain, asbestos, talc, blacklead, marble and barite mills :* where dust is evolved, unless it is effectively suppressed.

*Beating, carding and cleaning wool, cotton, flax, hemp, jute, animal and vegetable fibre, feathers and fur, and opening and beating silk refuse (cascami di seta) :* in rooms where these processes are carried on, even if the children and female young persons are employed in minding other machines or in other work, unless suitable provision is made for drawing off the dust.

APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
JAPAN	....	Work in which <i>prussic acid, cyanide of potassium, hydrofluoric acid, sulphuric acid, nitric acid, hydrochloric acid, caustic soda, carbolic acid</i> and other similar poisonous or caustic substances are handled; and where dust fumes or gases are generated from <i>prussic acid, fluorine, aniline, chrome, chlorine, or their chemical compounds</i> or from other similar poisonous substances.	Work in which a considerable amount of <i>dust</i> is generated from <i>metals, ores, clays and stones, bones, horns, rags, animal hair, cotton wool, hemp, straw, &amp;c.</i>	
NETHERLANDS	<p align="center"><i>Under 18.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>chromates</i>  Manufacture of poisonous <i>cyanide compounds</i>.  Preparation of <i>chloride of lime</i>.</p>	.... .... ....	<p align="center"><i>Under 17.</i></p> <p>Work in which the workers are exposed to <i>dust</i> in the grinding or sifting of <i>cement, lime, chalk, slag, glass, shells or brass, etc.</i>  <i>Dry grinding and cutting of metals and glass.</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Under 16.</i></p> <p>Sorting or marking <i>soiled linen</i>.  Sorting, tearing, &amp;c., of <i>rags</i>.</p>

	<p><i>Under 17.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>oxide of zinc</i>. The further manipulation of the above substance in order to prepare it for delivery.</p>	....	<p>Manufacture of coal <i>briquettes</i> on enclosed premises.</p> <p><i>Girls under 17.</i></p> <p>Places where <i>flax or hemp</i> is beaten, &amp;c., by hand.</p>	
NORWAY ....	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Electro-chemical</i> factories : workshops with continuous processes. Manufacture of <i>hydro-carbonate of zinc</i> : in workrooms where poisonous substances are used.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Cellulose</i> factories : in various processes.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> <i>Silvering and enamelling</i> works : in galvanising workrooms.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 14.</i> Manufacture of <i>artificial manure</i> (if the Minister so orders). <i>Glass</i> works.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> Grinding or milling of <i>stone and minerals</i>. <i>Cement</i> factories : in connection with furnaces, mills, packing, &amp;c. <i>Shoddy and rag</i> works : in manipulating and tearing the rags.</p>	
POLAND ....	<p>The laws in force in those parts of the New Polish Republic formerly under Russian, German and Austrian rule remain in operation respectively until modified by the Polish Legislature. <i>See</i> consequently under Czecho-Slovakia and Germany.</p>			
Parts of Poland formerly under Russian rule.	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i> <i>Chemical</i> industry.</p> <p><i>Young Persons under 18.</i> All processes involving contact with <i>chrome</i>.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i> <i>Indiarubber</i> works. <i>Leather</i> works.</p>	<p><i>Young Persons under 15.</i> <i>Tobacco</i> works.</p>	....

# APPENDIX VI (b)—continued.

Country.	Chemical Trades.	Trades Involving Contact with Poisonous Vapours or Dust.	Trades Involving Risk of Injury from Non-Poisonous Dust.	Other unhealthy Trades.
SPAIN ....	<p><i>Boys under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Manufacture of <i>hydrofluoric acid, oxalic acid, salicylic acid, uric acid</i>, and its derivatives, <i>ammonia, caustic alkalis, aniline</i> and its derivatives, <i>arsenates</i> and <i>arsenites of the alkalis</i> and the heavy metals, <i>chloride of sulphur, Prussian blue, Prussian and English red, cyanide of iron, alkaline ferrocyanides, chlorine, hypochlorites and chromates, sulphide of soda, bisulphide of carbon.</i></p> <p><i>Oxide of zinc</i> manufactured by combustion of the metal: combustion and condensing rooms.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>hydrochloric acid, acetic acid, sulphuric acid</i>: in rooms where fumes are evolved or acids used.</p>	<p><i>Boys under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>The refining of <i>metals</i> containing sulphur in furnaces, and the roasting of minerals containing sulphur.</p> <p><i>Galvanic gold plating</i>, silver plating and nickel plating.</p> <p>Pulverisation and sifting of <i>sulphur</i>: pulverising, sifting and packing rooms.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>mineral black</i> by grinding residues arising in the dry distillation of bituminous shale: in rooms where the raw material is pulverised and sifted.</p> <p>Preparation of <i>varnished plates and metals</i>: in rooms where poisonous substances are used.</p> <p>Rubbing and grinding <i>copper compounds</i>: in grinding, sifting and filling rooms.</p> <p>Mechanical <i>pounding of</i></p>	<p><i>Boys under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p><i>Alabaster, marble</i>, and all cut and polished stones: scouring and polishing workshops.</p> <p>Manufacture of covers and wadding from <i>cotton</i>: cleaning and carding workshops.</p> <p>Manufacture of <i>glazed felt</i>: in rooms where the workers are exposed to dust.</p> <p>The <i>polishing, pointing and grinding of metals and metallic goods.</i></p> <p><i>Button manufacturing.</i> Covering buttons with metal by means of machinery: filling, emptying and packing rooms.</p> <p><i>Lime kilns</i>: filling, emptying and packing rooms.</p> <p><i>Tanneries</i>: rooms where the workers are exposed to dust.</p>	<p><i>Boys under 16. Young Women under 21.</i></p> <p>Storage and manufacture of <i>animal manure.</i></p> <p>Work in <i>public slaughter</i> houses and farms and the manipulation of refuse for the purpose of extracting various nitrogenous substances.</p> <p><i>Flax or hemp spinning</i>: rooms where proper provision is not made for the flowing off of water.</p> <p>Cleaning and removing membrane from <i>bladders</i> and gut: in rooms where cleaning and inflating are carried on.</p> <p><i>Singeing of fabrics</i> in the textile industry: in rooms where the products of combustion are freely evolved.</p>

Manufacture of *sulphate of iron*: in rooms where fumes are evolved or acids used.

Manufacture of *metallic nitrates* by the direct use of acid: ditto.

Manufacture of *soda from sulphate*: in rooms where fumes are evolved.

Manufacture of *sulphate of soda* from chloride: ditto.

Manufacture of *superphosphates*: in rooms where dust or acid fumes are evolved.

*drugs*: rooms where the workers are exposed to dust.

*Chromolithography*: in rooms where machine bronzing is carried on.

Manufacture of *tin foil*: in rooms where poisonous substances are used.

*Dyeing establishments*: ditto

*Refining precious metals*: in rooms where fumes are given off or acids used.

*Chemical bleaching* of fabrics, straw or paper: in rooms where chlorine or sulphurous acid is given off.

Cleaning and polishing *copper*: in rooms where fumes are given off or acids used.

*Refining iron*: ditto.

*Galvanising iron goods*: ditto.

*Separation of wool and rags* by a wet process: in rooms where acid fumes are given off.

Rooms where *freezing* is effected by *sulphuric acid*: in rooms where sulphuric acid is formed.

Treatment of *rags with hydrochloric acid*: in rooms where dust is evolved or acid fumes given off.

*Cement furnaces*: ditto.

Factories where *bark* is prepared: grinding rooms.

Dry treatment of *horn, bones and mother-of-pearl*: cleaning and polishing rooms.

Shaking and cleaning *wool, hair and feathers*: in rooms where the workers are exposed to dust.

Cleaning, carding and shaking *flax, hemp, jute and cotton*: ditto

*Dry pulverisation and sifting of minerals* and substances extracted from pits and stone quarries: rooms where the raw material is pulverised and sifted.

Manufacture of *paper*: rooms where rags are sorted, separated and prepared.

Pulling and cutting of hair from *rabbit and hare skins*: rooms where the workers are exposed to dust.

Cleaning and dressing *skins*: ditto.

Manufacture of *tobacco pipes*: ditto.

## APPENDIX VIII.

SUMMARY OF PROVISIONS RESPECTING THE AGE OF  
ADMISSION OF CHILDREN TO EMPLOYMENT.

(For the scope of the provisions here tabulated reference should be made to Appendix I.)

Country.	General Age Limit.	Cases in which a Lower Limit is Allowed.	Mines.*
AMERICA (UNITED STATES) (Federal minimum established in effect by the tax on employment of child labour.)	14†		16‡
ARGENTINE REPUBLIC	12 (Industrial work.)  10 (Other employment.)	Lower limit allowed if necessary for the subsistence of the family.	...
BELGIUM... ..	14	13 (With educational certificate or in special circumstances.)	14
BRAZIL (Sao Paulo)	12	...	...
BRITISH EMPIRE Great Britain ...	14 (Factories and workshops and street trading).  12 (Strictly regulated employment out of school hours in occupations not under Factory and Workshop or Mines Acts.)	In Ireland children may still be employed from 12 half-time, in factories and workshops.	14

\* In many countries female persons are excluded altogether from underground work in mines, so that the limit here given relates only to boys.

† A Federal tax of 10 per cent. (Title XII, Revenue Act of 1918) is levied on the entire net profits for the taxable year of any mill, sawnery, workshop, factory or manufacturing establishment in which children under 14 years of age are employed. All except four of the states prohibit by statute the employment of children under 14, and seven states have a higher age minimum. In six states this prohibition extends to any occupation at any time; in 27 to mills, factories, etc., at any time and to any occupation during the time school is in session; in 10 other states mercantile establishments and a number of other places of employment as well as factories and manufacturing establishments are included in the general prohibition.

‡ A Federal tax (see preceding footnote) on mines and quarries in which children under 16 are employed. Four states have a higher statutory minimum age, and 19 states have the same. In many of those with a lower or no age limit established by state laws there are no mines.

Country.	General Age Limit.	Cases in which a Lower Limit is Allowed.	Mines.*
<b>BRITISH EMPIRE</b> —contd.			
<i>Australia—</i>			
<i>New South Wales.</i>	14	...	14
<i>Victoria ...</i>	14 boys, 15 girls.	...	14
<i>Queensland ...</i>	14	...	14
<i>South Australia.</i>	13	...	14
<i>Western Australia.</i>	14	...	14
<i>Tasmania ...</i>	14	...	14
<i>Canada—</i>			
<i>Ontario ...</i>	14 (Factories and workshops.) 12 (Shops.)	10 (Boys in street trading.)	14
<i>Quebec ...</i>	14 (Factories.)	...	15 (Underground.)
<i>Manitoba ...</i>	14 (Factories, shops and offices.) 15 (Girls in factories.)	12 (Boys in street trading.) 13 (Children holding certificates out of school hours)	... ... ...
<i>Nova Scotia</i>	14 (Factories.)	Lower limit is allowed during July, August, September, and October in connection with fruit canning.	12
<i>New Brunswick.</i>	14 (Factories and workshops.) 13 (Mercantile establishments.)	Lower limit is allowed in special cases authorised by the inspector.	... ...
<i>British Columbia.</i>	14 (Factories and workshops.) 15 (Girls in factories.)	Lower limit is allowed in canning and curing fish, and packing fruit, in the fish runs and fruit seasons.	12 (Metalliferous mines) 14 (Surface work in coal mines) 15 (Below ground in coal mines.) 12
<i>Yukon Territory.</i>	...	...	12
<i>Alberta ...</i>	15 (Factories; shops also in large towns.)	12 (Boys in street trading.)	14 (Above ground.) 16 (Below ground.)

\* In many countries female persons are excluded altogether from underground work in mines so that the limit here given relates only to boys.

Country.	General Age Limit.	Cases in which a Lower Limit is Allowed.	Mines.*
BRITISH EMPIRE A—contd. Canada—contd. Saskatchewan.	14 (Factories.)	12 (Boys in street trading.)	14
New Zealand ...	14 (Factories.)	13 (In special cases authorised by the inspector if the child has an educational certificate.)	...
South Africa ...	...	...	15 (Underground.)
India ...	9	...	No absolute minimum age is fixed for work in mines, but the Chief Inspector may prohibit the employment of children under 12 in particular cases of dangerous work in mines.
BULGARIA ...	14	12 (If the child's elementary education is not completed.)	18
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA	14 Or older, if still required, to attend school.	10. (In light agricultural and domestic work.)	14
DENMARK ...	Only those exempt from compulsory school attendance.	...	...
FRANCE ...	13	12 (With educational and medical certificate.)	13 (As trammers, &c.) 16 (As assistants or apprentices at the face.) 18 (All other work below ground.)
GERMANY ...	13 Or older, if still required to attend school. (Under the Industrial Code.)  12 (Under Employment of Children Act.)	10 (Under Employment of Children Act, where employed by parents.)  ...	14 (By state laws; the federal age minimum for mines is the same as for industrial undertakings under the Industrial Code.)  ...
HUNGARY ...	14 Or older, if still required to attend school.	10 (By their own parents, unless work is designated as injurious.)	15 (Underground.)

\* In many countries female persons are excluded altogether from underground work in mines, so that the limit here given relates only to boys.



Country.	General Age Limit.	Cases in which a Lower Limit is Allowed.	Mines.*
ITALY ... ..	12	...	14 (Below ground, <sup>and</sup> mechanical tractors used, when boys may be employed.)
JAPAN ... ..	12	10 (Light occupations to be specified by the authorities.)	...
MEXICO ... ..	12	...	12
NETHERLANDS ...	13† Or older, if still required to attend school.	...	13 (Above ground.) 16 (Underground.)
NICARAGUA ... ..	...	...	12
NORWAY ... ..	14 Or older, if still required to attend school.	12 (With medical certificate, after consultation with the school managers, out of school hours.)	14 Or older, if still required to attend school.
POLAND ... .. <i>Parts formerly under Russian rule.</i>	14 (Factories.) 12 (Other industrial work.)	...	17 ...
<i>Parts formerly under Austrian rule.</i>	14 (Factories.) 12 (Other industrial work.)	...	...
<i>Parts formerly under German rule.</i>	13 Or older, if still required to attend school. (Under industrial code.) 12 (Under Employment of Children Act.)	10 Under Employment of Children Act if employed by parents.	... ...
PORTUGAL ... ..	12	10 (In industries designated by order, if the work is light, and elementary school leaving certificate is obtained and the child is physically fit.)	12
ROMANIA ... ..	11		

\* In many countries female persons are excluded altogether from underground work in mines that the limit here given relates only to boys.

† A Bill to raise the age to 14 is before the Legislature.

Country.	General Age Limit.	Cases in which a Lower Limit is Allowed.	Mines.*
SERBIA ... ..	14 (Industry.)  12 (Commerce.)	12 (By way of exception, and with a medical certificate of fitness.)	14
SPAIN ... ..	10	9 (In coastal fishing, if no longer required to attend school, or if accompanied by parents.)	18 (Underground.)  18 (In extraction of minerals or work carried on by explosives.)
SWEDEN ... ..	13 (boys).  14 (girls). Or older, if still required to attend school. (In factories and large workshops.)  12 (In other occupations.)	...	15
SWITZERLAND ...	14†	...	...

\* In many countries female persons are excluded altogether from underground work in mines, so that the limit here given relates only to boys.

† Work outside factories is regulated by Cantonal Laws, details of which have not been supplied.

# APPENDIX IX. NIGHT WORK FOR YOUNG PERSONS.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Country.	Age below which Night Work is Prohibited in general.	Age below which no Exceptions are Allowed.	Exceptions Allowed.	Replies to inquiry whether the Governments are prepared to Adhere to the Convention Drafted in 1913.	Suggestions and Remarks.
AMERICA— (Federal minimum established, in effect, by the tax on employment of child labour).	16*	16	—	Federal minimum exceeds the recommendations of the convention drafted in 1913.	Children's Bureau Conference (1919) called by Secretary of Labor recommended 21 years of age.
ARGENTINE ....	16	—	—	The Government would be prepared to adhere to the draft Convention of 1913.	—
BELGIUM ....	16	14	—	The Belgian law already conforms to the draft Convention.	—
BRAZIL— SAO PAULO....	18	18	—	—	—
BRITISH EMPIRE— GREAT BRITAIN ....	18	14	(a) Blast furnaces, iron mills, letterpress printing works, paper mills,	See col. (6)	The British Government suggests the following amendments <del>to the</del> Convention of

			sheet metal and wire, china clay works, elec- trical stations, news- paper printing (over 16).		for 16 years <del>and</del> the age limit in Art. 1; (2) Withdrawal of the exception in Art. 1 for works employing ten persons or less; (3) Shortening of the "delays" allowed by Art. 6.
AUSTRALIA— New South Wales Victoria Queensland S. Australia Tasmania Western Australia	} 16  14	—  —	—  —	—  —	Legislation on this mat- ter rests with the States.
CANADA ....	—	—	—	—	The matter is presumed to lie within the juris- diction of the Pro- vinces and has not been considered by the Dominion Govern- ment.
NEW ZEALAND ....	16	16	—	—	—
SOUTH AFRICA ....	16	16	—	—	—

\* A federal tax of 10 per cent. (Title XII, Revenue Act of 1918) is levied on the entire net profits for taxable year of any mill, cannery, workshop, factory or manufacturing establishment in which children between 14 and 16 years of age are employed after 7 p.m. or before 6 a.m. In all but eight States there is a statutory prohibition of the employment of children under 16 years of age, and in three the minimum age for night work is 18. In 19 States the night work prohibition applies to any occupation; in 11 other States and the District of Columbia it applies to mercantile establishments and many other places of employment as well as to factories and manufacturing establishments.

# APPENDIX IX.—continued.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Country.	Age below which Night Work is Prohibited in general.	Age below which no Exceptions are Allowed.	Exceptions Allowed.	Replies to inquiry whether the Governments are prepared to Adhere to the Convention Drafted in 1913.	Suggestions and Remarks.
CZECHO-SLOVAKIA	—	—	—	The Act of 19th Dec., 1918, surpasses the recommendations of the draft Convention of 1913.	The Government considers that a still higher standard should be adopted in the Convention.
DENMARK ....	18	15 (for purposes of industrial training only).	—	No reply under this head.	—
FRANCE ....	18	13	(a) <i>Force majeure</i> ; (b) Perishable materials (specified trades) , (c) Certain continuous processes in beetroot distilleries, enamelled iron works, oil extraction, paper mills, sugar refineries, metallurgical works, glass works.	The Government is prepared to adhere to the draft Convention of 1913.	—
GERMANY ....	16	14	Iron		

JAPAN ....	15	14*	(a) Preserving of fish and shell fish; salting, smoking, &c., fish and shell fish, and other processes necessary to prevent decomposition. Manufacture of jam and fermenting fruit juices.; (b) Newspaper printing works.	No reply.	—
NETHERLANDS ....	17	17	—	—	The Government considers that it would be desirable to fix, by international convention, the age limit for the prohibition of night work at 18, which is the standard contemplated in a Bill before the Dutch Legislature.
NORWAY ....	18	18	(a) Dairies; (b) With special permission where necessary for economic reasons, &c.; (c) With special permission in seasonal trades, or in unforeseen circumstances causing a press of work or involving risk of damage to materials.	The existing laws conform to the draft Convention of 1913.	—

\* This absolute minimum age limit for night work will not come into force for 15 years after the Factory Act itself, i.e., presumably not until 1930.

# APPENDIX IX.—continued.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Country.	Age below which Night Work is Prohibited in general.	Age below which no Exceptions are allowed.	Exceptions allowed.	Replies to inquiry whether the Governments are prepared to adhere to the Convention Drafted in 1913.	Suggestions and Remarks.
POLAND—					
(1) Parts formerly under Russian rule.	17	15	—	No reply under this head.	—
(2) Parts formerly under Austrian rule	16	14	—	Ditto.	—
(3) Parts formerly under German rule.	16	14	Iron works (rolling-mills and hammer works), glass works.	Ditto.	—
RUMANIA ....	15	—	—	The Government is prepared to adhere to the draft convention.	—
SIAM ....	—	—	—	The Royal Government will be prepared to adhere to the draft.	—

(7658)	SPAIN	16 (In industries designated by certain authorities)	14	—	The Spanish Government would be willing to discuss with the other Governments the question of applying the standard proposed in 1913.	—
	SWEDEN	18	16	—	—	—
	SWITZERLAND	18	14	—	The terms of the draft Convention of 1913 have already been carried out.	The Government suggests that the prohibition of industrial night work for young persons should be extended up to the age of 18.