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Second Series

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No. 1-2

**THE PROTECTION
OF YOUNG WORKERS**

1930

**- PUBLISHED BY THE
INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS
31 TESSELSCHADESTRAAT, AMSTERDAM**

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Preface

In 1922 the International Federation of Trade Unions issued a booklet, entitled "The Protection of Young Workers throughout the World", which gave a survey of the then state of the protection of young workers in a large number of countries. Most of the information contained in the book referred, of course, to pre-war times: it was only possible to make occasional mention here and there of legislation which had in a few countries been passed after the War.

Great changes have since been made in the protection of young workers. In almost all countries new legislation has been passed or bills introduced which have had or, when passed, will have far-reaching effects on the life and well-being of the young worker.

As much of the information contained in the 1922 booklet is now out of date, the International Committee for Youth and Educational Questions of the International Federation of Trade Unions expressed the hope that it might be possible to issue a new edition. The Executive of the International Federation of Trade Unions approved the suggestion, whence the publication of the present pamphlet.

In the following pages an attempt has been made to give as clear a survey as possible of the present state of the legislation protecting young workers in the individual countries, together with the position of *international* legislation for the protection of young workers.

In view of the enormous number of regulations existing in every country for the statutory protection of young workers, it is neither possible nor desirable for this booklet to go into too much detail. It is not intended to be a manual giving information of the legal regulations for young workers of every trade and the exemptions thereto, but merely as a publication which

seeks to give the reader an idea of the *general state* of the protection of young workers, in the hope of awakening as much interest as possible in this question in those quarters where at present there is apathy.

The present publication deals with one side only of the youth problem — the protection of young persons as *workers*. It does not touch therefore upon the general educational problem, the sports movement, the migration movement etc., for these are all questions which need separate treatment. And for the first time it deals with the question of the way in which the *trade union movement* itself works to promote the interests of the young worker.

Needless to say, the book makes abundant use of the excellent information provided by the International Labour Office: its "Legislative Series", its "Industrial and Labour Information" and its articles in the "International Labour Review" are all largely drawn upon. Valuable information has also been received from the affiliated national centres. A concise list of literature bearing on the subject, some of which has been used in compiling the present pamphlet, will be found at the end of the book.

Comrade *Andreas Sternheim* has been responsible for the compilation of the book.

Amsterdam, July, 1930.

Introduction

"The future is for the young!" A very fine utterance, but the future can only be fine or desirable when a healthy generation has been reared which is physically and mentally able to cooperate in the establishment of conditions worthy of a civilised human being.

Slowly, much too slowly, there is progress in the domain of the welfare of the young worker. If the history of the working class as a whole is one of great deprivations and defective protection, this is assuredly true of the young worker, who is more liable to exploitation than the adult, because he cannot, like him, change conditions by means of his own strength. The lawgiver, spurred on from time to time by the organised working class, must come to his assistance.

It cannot be denied that since the War there has been much progress in the protection of the young worker, democratic governments, in the few countries in which they have been established, showing special zeal for this cause. Even in colonial and semi-colonial countries there is a beginning, although there is no doubt that in such countries legislation is far behind what is necessary and desirable.

Various reasons may be adduced for the increasing interest in the subject. Firstly, even in the most reactionary countries the idea has slowly made way since the War that the worker has a right to statutory protection whenever he needs it for his physical and mental welfare. The recognition of this right must in itself lead to greater attention being devoted to the young in general. It would almost seem as if it needed a World War to point the attention of the authorities to the enormous importance to the social scheme of things of the great group of young workers. The German census of 1925 showed that there were 5.24 million young workers between 14 and 18 and

3.86 million between 18 and 21. In Great Britain there are about 2.2 million workers between 14 and 17. These figures are sufficient to show the importance of the young worker's section of the working class. Another reason for the growing interest in wage-earning youth is the fear that there may be a grave shortage of labour in coming years, on account of the low birth rates during the War. The Institute for Research into Trade Fluctuations in Germany has published some interesting statistics concerning the expected shortage of young workers owing to this cause. Taking 100 as the standard for the number of young workers between 15 and 20 in 1928, the range during the next years is computed as follows : 1929, 99 : 1930, 97 : 1931, 91 : 1932, 83 : 1933, 73 : 1934, 63 : 1935, 60 : 1936, 65 : 1937, 73 ; 1938, 81.

Last year a commission appointed by the British Ministry of Labour issued a "Memorandum on the Shortage, Surplus and Redistribution of Juvenile Labour during the years 1928 to 1933", in which it is prophesied that, taking the country as a whole, the decline in the supply of juvenile labour between 1927 and 1933 would be such that the figure for the latter year would be 20 per cent below that for the former year. After a sharp rise in 1934 and the three successive years there would be a further gradual decline till 1940 at least.

But although the number of young workers swelling the ranks of labour may be expected to be smaller during the coming years, yet we cannot venture to say with certainty that there will be a shortage of young labour on the labour market. There are other factors to be taken into consideration. We are living in a period of rapid technical transformation ; human labour is being constantly replaced by machinery. It is impossible, therefore, to forecast whether the same amount of young labour will be *required* in the next few years : besides which, there is the state of trade to be considered. But what is of great importance in this period is the vocational training of the young worker. Only a very hasty and superficial observer would venture to make the assertion that rationalisation will make skilled labour superfluous. Several enquiries have shown that rationalisation tends to make unskilled workers and

assistant labour superfluous — a phenomenon which is especially noteworthy in the metal and building industries. Nor must it be forgotten that the technical rationalisation of factories which leads to the substitution of machinery for human labour also causes the employment of fresh labour in manufacturing the new machinery, appliances etc. Thus, unless the present signs are misleading, there will always be a large demand for skilled workers. There is every reason, therefore, for trade unions everywhere to promote energetically measures for the thorough training of wage-earning youth, the chief of such measures being the raising of the school age, the statutory regulation of apprenticeship, compulsory continuation schools — in short, all the demands contained in the International Federation of Trade Unions' programme⁽¹⁾ for the protection of youth. Moreover, despite the growing interest in the young, there are still many injustices to which the young worker falls a victim, especially in countries where there is little statutory protective legislation, and where the trade union movement is of little importance: also in the colonial and semi-colonial countries where there are not only no trade unions, but where legislative measures are taken to prevent their creation. Thanks to the inadequate protection afforded to them, young human lives are daily sacrificed in many such countries, or their growth and general progress restricted by neglect.

Is there anything more deserving of our attention than the interests of the child or young person who will soon be absorbed into the industrial process, and who seeks, demands and is entitled to help and assistance ?

(1) For this programme see Appendix I.

(I) Compulsory School Attendance

Compulsory School Attendance in Various Countries

Country	Elementary School-leaving Age	Country	Elementary School-leaving Age
Europe		Africa	
Austria	14	South Africa	15
Belgium	14		16
Bulgaria	14	America	
Czechoslovakia	14	Argentina	14
Denmark	14	Brazil	11 ⁽²⁾
Estonia	14	Canada	16
Finland	14		15 ⁽⁸⁾
France	13		14
Germany	14	Chile	15
Great Britain	14	Cuba	14
Greece	12	Dominica	14
Holland	14	Guatemala	14
Hungary	12	Haiti	14
Ireland (Free State)	14	Honduras	15
Italy	12 ⁽¹⁾	Nicaragua	13
Latvia	14	Panama	15
Lithuania	14	Paraguay	12
Luxemburg	13	Peru	14
Memel	14	Uruguay	14
Norway	15		8 States
Poland	14		5 States
Portugal	12	U.S.A. { 28 States	16
Roumania	16	{ 1 State	15
Spain	12	{ 7 States	14
Sweden	14	Venezuela	14
Switzerland	14		
	15	Australasia	
	16	Australia	14 ⁽⁴⁾
Yugoslavia	10	New Zealand	14
Asia			
Japan	12		
Siam	14		

(1) Compulsory secondary school up to 14

(2) In general

(3) Varies in different Provinces

(4) For all the Federal States

In the preceding table we give a survey of the ages of compulsory school attendance in the various countries classified according to continents. We have not touched upon the age of admission, this being not always clear and of comparatively little importance for our purposes.

We will also add that in *Russia* it is intended to make the 14th year the end of compulsory school attendance, in so far as the larger towns are concerned.

Of course, legislation laying down compulsory school attendance does not mean that the law is obeyed in all countries. We may say in this connection what we say of social legislation : everything depends on the activities of the authorities : in this case the authorities must provide the requisite schools and see that school attendance is not evaded.

To give a single instance, showing that statutory compulsory school attendance is not synonymous with actually regular attendance at school, we quote the following from the French weekly "L'Information Sociale" :

"Although legally compulsory, the obligation to attend school is in certain cases, which represent 5% of the total, wholly evaded. There are parishes where children are never sent to school by parents in necessitous circumstances, and departments where absenteeism from school ranges from 13 to 28%. In many another case, attendance is irregular, sometimes on account of practical difficulties — long distance, meals etc. — and sometimes for family reasons, when the parents make use of their children at home or in their work. Seasonal desertions, especially, are a great blow to country schools. Such interrupted work only serves to increase the confusion and, still worse, the disorder in the child's mind. This state of things will continue so long as families are not actually compelled to send their children to school, and aided to do so by the community, to whose interest it is that children should be trained and thus promote the future well-being of the community."

Poland states that, despite compulsory attendance at school under the law, at least 2% of the children of school age are left untaught, this being due to the shortage of schools.

Further, it should be noted that there are in many countries legal regulations dealing with the admission of children to industrial undertakings (see further on in this publication), in which the minimum age of admission to work often follows immediately upon the maximum school-leaving age; but hardly anywhere is there an unconditional prohibition of work for children attending school. In agriculture especially, but also in other trades, including street-selling, this leads to the widespread exploitation of children attending school.⁽¹⁾ This exploitation is promoted by the regulations prevailing in a few countries enabling children to leave school as soon as they have completed their course of primary education and won their certificate.

Activities for the Prolongation of Compulsory School Attendance.

In various countries, both in trade unions and other circles interested in young workers, there are activities afoot for the prolongation of compulsory school education. An enquiry instituted by us showed the following results :

The *Austrian* national centre imparts the following interesting information :

"Activities for the raising of the school-leaving age have led, by way of a beginning, to a decree issued in 1929 providing that the child must spend at school the whole year in which his 14th birthday falls. It is hoped, however, to introduce later a ninth compulsory school year, making the school age 7 to 15, the following reasons being held to be sufficiently weighty to justify the demand :

(a) It will relieve the labour market congestion.

(b) The extra school year might be used to introduce a kind of elementary vocational education together with vocational guidance tending to turn the attention of the child to some particular trade, according to his aptitude. When he has to choose, a year later, what trade he will follow, his choice will

⁽¹⁾ The American Labor Year Book of 1929 remarks : "Increasing numbers of childrens are now engaged in gainful occupations after school hours and during holidays, who are under very little, if any, state or governmental supervision."

be much easier than it is to-day, when he is quite unprepared for this difficult decision.

(c) The chief reason is the physical and mental disturbance to which the child of 14 or 15 is liable. This "puberty disturbance" which lasts up to the 16th year, is a great obstacle to the choice of a trade, because in this condition the boys and girls do not know in the least what they want. The postponement of the period of apprenticeship or training for a trade would not only make the boy or girl more fit for that trade, but would also enable the apprenticeship or training to be accomplished in a shorter period of time. The numerous errors in the choice of a vocation show how necessary it is to prolong the school years.

The *Danish national centre* has long been endeavouring to raise the school-leaving age.

The French C. G. T. demands the raising of the school-leaving age to the end of the 14th year. ⁽¹⁾

The German national centre states that both the organised working class and advanced educationalists demand a lengthening of the eight years of compulsory elementary school education, as the increasing amount of cultural instruction to be given to the young can no longer be compressed within this period. In addition, there is the employment question, for many of the girls and boys leaving school cannot find work either as workers or apprentices. As there is no immediate prospect of legislation to this end, progressive municipalities arrange for 9th and 10th school years on their own account and try to win the consent of the parents to allow the children to remain longer at school. By this means there is gradual progress.

The British T. U. C. writes as follows :

"The Labour Party in "Labour and the Nation" has definitely declared itself in favour of raising the school-leaving age to 15, and to 16 as soon as this further step is practicable. Maintenance allowances would have to be paid by local education authorities, provision would have to be made for ensuring that the cost of the allowances was made from national funds.

⁽¹⁾ Resolution passed at the Paris congress of the C. G. T. of September, 1929.

Apart from the value of a longer period of education, the raising of the age of entry into industry is regarded as essential to the lessening of unemployment.

The General Council of the Trades Union Congress, in evidence before the Government Committee on Education and Industry, stated themselves to be "strongly in favour of raising the school-leaving age to 15 plus at the very earliest opportunity, and that as quickly afterwards as possible the school leaving age be raised to 16 plus." They also pressed the point that the education authorities should be required to provide adequate allowances for all young people remaining at school after the age of 14 plus in need of them."

To this may be added the fact that on July 18th, 1929, during the course of a parliamentary discussion on the raising of the school-leaving age, Sir Charles Trevelyan, secretary of state for education, stated that the government is arranging to take the legislative steps necessary to extend compulsory attendance at school to 15 on the 1st April, 1931. The Government will make the requisite grants, and the Minister invited representatives of local educational committees and the competent teachers' associations to study the best ways of instituting the reform.

Yugoslavia demands compulsory school attendance from the 7th to the 14th year, as today children leave school at ten years old, and run wild on the streets from that age to 14, when they may be put to wage-earning.

The raising of the school-leaving age is also demanded in other circles, i. e. by persons who are students of the social sciences. A questionnaire issued by the International Association for Social Progress enabled the Association to formulate, at its congress at Zürich, September, 1929, that 15 should be the minimum age for leaving school and that the curriculum of the school should be of a general character, with a strengthened emphasis on vocational instruction during the last year.

It will be remembered that the International Federation of Trade Unions includes in its programme for the protection of young workers *„compulsory elementary school attendance at least up to the end of the 14th year (at least 8 years).*

(II) Young Workers in Industry

(a) Minimum Age of Admission to Industrial Undertakings

Country	Minimum Age of Admission	Country	Minimum Age of Admission
Europe		America	
Austria	14	Argentina	14
Belgium	14	Brazil	12
Bulgaria	14		14
Czechoslovakia	14	Canada	13
Denmark	14		14
Estonia	14	Chile	14
Finland	15	Cuba	14
France	13		12
Germany	14	Ecuador	14
Great Britain	14		14
Greece	14	Guiana, French	13
Holland	14	Guatemala	15
Hungary	12	Mexico	12
Ireland (Free State)	14	Panama	14
Italy	12	Peru	14
Latvia	14	United States { 37 States	14
Lithuania	12	{ 6 " over	14
Luxemburg	14	{ 6 " under	14
Memel	14	Venezuela	14
Norway	14		
Poland	15	Asia	
Portugal	12	China	10
Roumania	14	Ceylon	14
	14	Dutch East. Indies	12
Russia	16	India	12
	10	Japan	12
Spain	13	Palestine	14
	14		12
Sweden	14	Persia boys	8 ⁽²⁾
Switzerland	14	girls	10 ⁽²⁾
Yugoslavia	14		
Africa		Oceania	
Algeria	12 ⁽¹⁾	Australia	14
Egypt	10	New Guinea	12
Morocco (French Protectorate)	12	New Caledonia	13
South Africa	14	New Zealand	14
Southern Rhodesia	14		
Zanzibar	9		

(1) For native children. (2) Only for carpet factories.

Remarks.

The preceding table needs but little commentary. It relates to the general legislation dealing with the admission of young workers to *industrial undertakings*.⁽¹⁾ A minimum age, however, is in force in many countries for other occupations also, such as commercial undertakings, often including shops and offices. The minimum age for admission both to industrial and commercial undertakings coincides in the following countries: in *Europe*: Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Esthonia, France, Germany, Great Britain⁽²⁾, Greece, Holland, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Roumania, Spain and Yugoslavia; in *America*: Argentine, Brazil, Canada, Chile, Guatemala and Panama. The minimum age of admission to commercial undertakings is lower than that for industry for Finland (1 year). West Australia is, so far as is known, the only country where the minimum age for admission to commercial undertakings is higher than that for industrial undertakings, 14 being the minimum for industry, and 15 for boys and 16 for girls, for admission to commercial work. In some countries, however, there are regulations permitting the lowering of the specific ages under given circumstances.

Some countries have special regulations fixing the minimum age for the admission of children to wage-work in the theatrical industry, street-selling, cinematographic enterprises and bars.

As will be seen from the table, the demand formulated by the International Federation of Trade Unions in its "Programme for the Protection of Youth", for the *Prohibition of Wage work for Children under 15* has already been embodied in legislation in most countries.

(1) The exceptions to this rule, especially those specifying a higher age limit for undertakings prejudicial to health etc. are so numerous and various that it is impossible to deal with them in this publication. We refer the reader to the "*Legislative Series*" of the International Labour Office.

(2) In general exceptions are possible in the case of certain commercial work carried on out of school hours, where the age limit may be lower.

(b) Regulation of Working Hours

Regulation of Working Hours for Young Workers

Country	Age to which the regulation applies	Maximum Working Hours		Rest Periods (hours)	Weekly Rest Day
		per day (hours)	per week (hours)		
Europe					
Austria	14—18		44—48	1	legally fixed
Belgium	14—18	8	48	1	legally fixed
Bulgaria	14—18	8	48	at least 2	36 hours
Czechoslovakia	14—18	8	48	at least 1/4	legally fixed
Denmark	14—18	10	60	1/2 hour after 4 1/4 hours	
Esthonia	14—18	6—6 1/2		at least after 4 hours	legally fixed
Germany	14—16	8	48	1/4—1/2	almost universally applied; at least 2 1/2 hours
Finland	15—18	8	48	1	legally fixed
France	13—16	8	48	no regula- tions	legally fixed
Greece	14—18	8	48	several rest intervals	legally fixed
Great Britain	14—18	8-10 1/2	48—74	1/2—2	legally fixed
Holland	14—18	8 1/2	48	legally fixed	legally fixed
Hungary	12—14	10			
	14—16	8			
Italy	12—15	11		at least 1	42 hours
Latvia	14—18	6—8		1 hour after 4 hours	
Luxemburg	14—18	8			
Memel	14—16	8	—	fixed by collective agreement	not fixed
Poland	15—18	8	46	1	24 hours
Roumania	14—18	8			
Russia	14—16	4			
	16—18	6			
Sweden	13—18	8			
	14—18		48	"suitable"	fixed
Switzerland	14—18	8	48	at least 1	legally fixed
Spain	under 18	8	48	2	24 hours
Yugoslavia	14—18	8—10		mid-day rest	legally fixed

Country	Age to which the regulation applies	Maximum Working Hours		Rest Periods (hours)	Weekly Rest Day
		per day (hours)	per week (hours)		
Africa					
Egypt	10—14	12 ⁽¹⁾			
Morocco (French Protectorate) . .	12—16	10		total 1	
America					
Argentina	14—18	6	36	2	
Brazil	12—18	6		total 1	
Canada	13-16 ⁽²⁾				
Ecuador	12—18	8	48	one or more rest intervals	
United States . . .	in 49 States 14-16 ⁽³⁾	in 38 States 8, in 11 States 9—10	in 38 States 48, in 11 States 51—60		
Asia					
China	boys 12—17 girls 14—18	8			2 days per month
Japan	12—16	11		at least 1 rest interval ⁽⁴⁾	
India	12	6			
Palestine	12—16	8 ⁽⁵⁾		fixed by law	1 day per month
Oceania					
Australia	14—18	8—10	48	1/2—1	
New Caledonia . .	13—18	10		at least 1	
New Zealand . . .	14—16	8 1/4	45	hours after 3/4 4 1/2 hours	

(¹) In cotton-ginning factories. (²) Varies in different states. (³) In general. (⁴) Included in working hours. (⁵) Not including rest intervals.

The preceding table gives only a survey of the *general* statutory regulations. There are in these general regulations,⁽¹⁾ hundreds of exemptions for special trades. The survey will show, however, that these general regulations differ widely among themselves, both as regards the age to which they refer and as regards the working hours, rest intervals and weekly rest day.

In further illustration of the table which follows, we give below the various remarks sent to us by the national centres affiliated with the International Federation of Trade Unions in the following countries :

Czechoslovakia. Working hours : exemptions only permissible with the sanction of the authorities and then not to exceed 2 hours per day or 4 weeks per year.

Estonia. Overtime work prohibited for young persons under 17.

France. Weekly Rest. There is an Act enforcing a weekly rest day, the employers being forbidden to employ their workers more than 6 days in the week. Certain enterprises divide the 48 working hours of the week into 5½ days in order to give a half-day more rest to their workers.

Germany. Under the Working Hours Decree of 14 April, 1927, § 1, the regular working hours per day, exclusive of rest intervals, must not exceed 8 hours. In exceptional cases daily working hours for young workers under 16 may be extended by overtime work, preparatory work or clearing up by 1 hour, and those for male workers over 16 by 2 hours. Even in such exceptional cases working hours may not exceed 10 per day.

(1) For the numerous exceptional regulations in force for the work of women and children employed in undertakings prejudicial to health, see the Encyclopedia "Occupation and Health" issued by the International Labour Office and in especial, Brochure 172 "Children and Young Persons (Employment of).

Young workers only doing 4 hours work per day need not be granted rest intervals. If their working hours are between 4 and 6, they must have 15 minutes' rest interval, if between 6 and 8, two rest intervals of 15 minutes each.

Great Britain. The factory legislation of Great Britain is very antiquated. It contains numerous regulations for various industries, fixing working hours at 55 and 60 hours, and not a single word about young workers. In reality, conditions are very different, and there is every reason to assume that only in few cases do young workers work more than an eight hours' day.

The legal maximum hours for young workers, under 18, in shops are 74 per week including meal-times.

Holland. A Labour Act of 1919 lays down that children under 14 or children liable to compulsory attendance at school or education at home shall not work. An Act of August 10, 1928, lays down, however, that under certain conditions this shall not apply to 13-year-old boys who have satisfied statutory requirements as to education. The Dutch national centre strongly opposed this legislation.

Latvia. Working hours of young persons of 15 and 16 years of age must not exceed 6 : young persons of 17 and 18 may work for 8 hours a day.

Sweden. Maximum Working Hours are 10 per day, or 60 per week for minors in undertakings which do not come under the Eight Hours Day Act.

Switzerland. There are however exceptions in the case of boys over 16 years of age. In the case of girls, the only exception is that permission may be given to extend the normal working day on 60 days during the year so as to reduce the hours of night rest to 10 hours.

Cantonal laws are in operation in industries not coming under the federal legislation on factory work, or the legislation regulating the work of young persons employed in craftsmanship.

(c) Nightwork and Underground Work
Prohibition of Night Work and Underground Work

Countries	Definition of Term "Night"	Night Work		Underground Work	
		Men	Women	Men	Women
Europe		prohibited under		prohibited under	
Austria	8-5	18	prohibited	18	prohibited
Belgium	9-5	16	"	14	"
Bulgaria	8-6	18	"		"
Czechoslovakia	10-5	16	"	16	"
Denmark	6-6	18	under 18		
Esthonia	9-5	18	prohibited	18	"
	10-5				
Finland	7-7	15	under 18		
	7-6				
France	10-5	18	prohibited	16	"
Germany	8-6	16	"	16	"
Great Britain . .	10-5	16	"	14	"
Greece	9-5	18	"		"
Holland	6-7	18	"	16	"
Hungary	9-5	16	"		
Ireland					
(Free Staate)	10-5	18	"		
Italy	10-5	18	"		
Latvia	10-6	18	under 18	14	"
Luxemburg . . .	9 1/2 bis	16	prohibited		
	5 1/2				
Memel	10-5	16	"		
Poland	8-6	18	under 18	16	"
	10-5				
Roumania	9-6	15	prohibited	18	"
Russia	-	18	under 18		
Spain	7-5	16	prohibited	18	"
Sweden	7-6	18	"	18	"
Switzerland . . .	10-5	18	"		
Yugoslavia . . .	11-5	18	"		
Africa					
Morocco	9-5	16	"	16	"
South Africa . .	6-7	16	"		
America					
Argentine	8-6	18	under 18		
	7-6				

Countries	Definition of Term "Night"	Night Work		Underground Work	
		Men	Women	Men	Women
		prohibited under		prohibited under	
Brazil	7-5	18	under 18		
Canada	10-6 9-8	varies in different Provinces between 16 and 18	Prohibited in Columbia	varies in different Provinces	prohibited
Chile	10-5	16	under 16		
Guatemala	7-7	18	under 18		
United States	varies in the different states	27 States under 16 ⁽¹⁾ 18 States prohibited ⁽²⁾ 4 no regulations for children under 16		32 States under 16 7 States under 14 3 States under 14 or 15 7 States no regulations	
Asia					
Ceylon	10-5	18	in some trades		
China	7-5½	15	prohibited		
Dutch East Indies					
India	8-5	12			
India	5½-7	15	prohibited		
Japan	10-5	16	"		
Palestine	7-6 10-5	16	under 16		
Oceania					
Australia	varies in the different states	16	under 16	varies in different states	
New Caledonia	10-6	18	prohibited	prohibited	
New Zealand	6-8	16	"	under 18	

(1) No exemptions permitted.— (2) Exemptions permitted.

In studying the table dealing with nightwork and underground work, it should be noted that there are numerous exemptions to general regulations.

We give below a few samples only of such exemptions :

Austria. In industrial undertakings on shift work, the period for night rest for women and boys over 17 may begin at 10 p. m.

To prevent interruptions of factory work and other avoidable losses in materials, boys over 17 and women may be employed at night for a maximum of a week, but this option may not be utilised for more than 24 days in one year. There are other exemptions connected with work in hotels and bars and butchers' and bakers' shops.

Belgium. Either under certain conditions or unreservedly, royal authorisation may be obtained for the employment of children over 14 after 9 p. m. and before 5 a. m. in work which from its nature cannot be interrupted, delayed or performed at any other time.

Denmark. There are certain exceptions for bakeries, hairdressers' shops, commercial undertakings and restaurants.

Germany. The prohibition of nightwork for young workers does not apply to undertakings employing less than 10 persons, nor to young salaried employees.

The bill before parliament contains a general prohibition of the employment of young persons under 18 during night hours (between 8 p. m. and 6 p. m.) The only exceptions are in the case of boys between 16 and 18 employed in factories working in several shifts.

Great Britain. Nightwork is prohibited up to the age of 16, except in undertakings in which only members of the same family are employed. Young persons over the age of 16 may be employed on night work in certain cases.

Poland. The iron and steel industry, glass-works and sugar refineries are exempted from the general regulations on the

prohibition of night work. This is also the case for the mining industry, when the period of rest between 2 periods of work is not less than 15 hours.

Sweden. Boys over 16 may be employed in night work under certain conditions.

Switzerland. The maximum duration of work for young persons is 8 hours for all enterprises coming under the Federal Act on Hours of Work in Factories. In the case of small businesses which do not come under the Act, the hours of work may be longer. Cantonal laws limit working hours in small businesses, both for young persons and for apprentices. At Basel these hours are 48 per week, at Berne 9 for young girls under 16, in other towns 10 hours etc.

Yugoslavia. The law allows 10 to 12 hours of work by way of exception : in practice there are cases in which young persons are employed for an unlimited number of working hours.

In general, it may be said here too, as in the case of the age of admission to industry, that there are numerous exemptional regulations based on the nature of the undertaking, the authorities, the shift system etc.

In *Germany* there are Youth Offices all over the country, whose business it is to look after young people and children, and to see that regulations protecting young people and children are applied.

(d) Industrial Inspection

As far as can be ascertained, in almost every country it is the ordinary general inspector who has to see that the statutory regulations dealing with young persons and apprentices are applied.

Austria states, however, that in some inspectorates there are special apprentice inspectors, but there is no special system of inspection for young persons. In larger towns, however, there are "Youth Offices", which together with the "Apprentice Protection Offices" (established by the Chambers of Labour)

deal with the application of protective legislation and look after the young in other ways.

Canada (Ontario Province) passed an Apprenticeship Act in 1928 which contains the following clause: "There may be appointed an Inspection of Apprenticeship for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Act."

In *Germany* there are Youth Offices all over the country, whose business it is to look after young people and children, and to see that regulations protecting young people and children are applied.

Medical Inspection

Different systems of medical inspection for young workers prevail in many countries: in some cases such inspection only takes place before the boy or girl enters wage-earning life: in others, it recurs annually or whenever occasion arises.

(III) Apprenticeship

The survey given below of the regulation of apprenticeship in many countries shows that there is no special legislation for apprenticeship in *Belgium, Great Britain, Holland, Latvia or Sweden*.

It will also be seen that although some countries still possess laws and regulations which are entirely out of keeping with present conditions, others have made great progress since the War.

There is not usually much difference as to the *duration* of apprenticeship : in most cases the minimum period is 2 years and the maximum 3 or 4 years.

Austria. Apprentices may only be engaged by such employers as are capable of giving, either themselves or through their representatives, the vocational instruction necessary for the training of the apprentice in his trade. The right to take apprentices may be withdrawn if the master is guilty of gross neglect of his duty or if, when the apprentice is examined, he fails to pass the test on account of the negligence of the employer.

The *apprenticeship period* in non-factory trades is not less than two or more than 4 years : in factory trades, not less than two and not more than 3 years. For non-factory small independent businesses the period of apprentice may be reduced to one year by decree.

The *admission* of apprentices is effected on the basis of a written agreement, to be deposited either with the occupational association, if there is one, or with the trade authorities.

Unless otherwise arranged, the apprenticeship can be terminated by either party after a probationary period of four weeks. The *probationary period* must not exceed three months, and must be counted in the apprenticeship period.

After the expiration of one-third of his period of apprenticeship, the apprentice must receive *payment*, the amount of which must be fixed by the occupational association, if there is one, or if not, by a Joint Committee of employers and workers selected from the Industrial District Commission. It may also be regulated by collective agreement. The right to payment may neither be abrogated nor limited by collective agreement.

The apprenticeship may be *ended prematurely* by either party on certain important grounds, but it would take too long to recapitulate these.

The apprentice may give a fortnight's *notice* to end his apprenticeship if he can show that he desires to change his trade or if his parents need him to look after either themselves or their business : in such case, the apprentice must not take employment in the same trade or in a similar factory within a year without first obtaining the consent of his former master : in cases where circumstances make it desirable, however, he can obtain the consent of the court instead that of his former master. The apprentice may also give notice to break off his apprenticeship if he is treated with persistent injustice or severity, even if there is no ill-treatment justifying the immediate dissolution of the apprenticeship.

When the apprenticeship is completed, a *certificate* must be granted, stating the period of apprenticeship, and the conduct and degree of training of the apprentice.

When apprenticeship ends in the normal way, the master is under the obligation to retain the apprentice for three months longer *as a worker*. For economic reasons the employer may be exempted from this obligation. This right can be neither abrogated nor limited by collective agreement.

Every apprentice must undergo an *examination* at the end of his apprenticeship. The examining committee must consist of a president (either the head or a teacher of a trade school), appointed by the trade authorities, and of two or, at most, four

other members, drawn in equal numbers from the employers and the workers. The worker members must have been engaged in the trade at least for years, and the employer members three years. The regulations governing the examination can be issued only by the provincial authorities.

If the apprentice fails to pass this examination, his term of apprenticeship may be *extended* for a maximum of six months. As soon as he passes, he may describe himself as a "journeyman", while otherwise he is only a labourer.

It is the duty of the trade authorities to *supervise the application of the statutory regulations*. The industrial inspectors supervise the application of protective legislation and these latter may impose fines or imprisonment, or may deprive the offending master of his right to keep apprentices or to style himself a member of the trade.

Belgium. An Apprenticeship Bill is under consideration.

Czechoslovakia. Apprentices may only be kept by heads of business who either possess themselves or whose representatives possess the requisite technical knowledge to enable them to undertake the technical training of apprentices. The right to keep apprentices may be withdrawn if the master has been guilty of gross dereliction of duty, or if the testing of the apprentice shows that the master is to blame for the failure of the apprentice to pass the test satisfactorily.

In non-factory trades, the period of apprenticeship shall not be less than two or more than four years: in factory trades, not less than two or more than three years.

Apprenticeship shall be based on a written indenture, which shall be deposited with the occupational association if there is one, or with the authorities of the trade.

Unless otherwise arranged, the apprenticeship may be terminated by either party within the first four weeks. The probationary period may not exceed three months, and must be counted in the period of apprenticeship.

The apprenticeship may be terminated prematurely by either party on certain important reasons, but it would take too long to recapitulate these.

The apprentice may give a fortnight's notice to end his apprenticeship, if he can show that he desires to change his trade or if his parents need him to look after either themselves or their business: in such case, the apprentice must not take employment in the same trade or in a similar factory without first obtaining the consent of his former master: in special cases the consent of the court may be substituted for that of the former master. The apprentice may also give notice to break off his apprenticeship if he is treated with persistent injustice or severity, even if there is no ill-treatment justifying the immediate dissolution of the apprenticeship.

When the apprenticeship is completed, a certificate must be granted, stating the period of apprenticeship and the conduct and degree of training of the apprentice.

Every apprentice must undergo an examination at the end of his apprenticeship. The examining committee must consist of a president (either the head or a teacher of a trade school), appointed by the trade authorities: and of two or at most, four other members, drawn in equal numbers from the employers and the workers.

If the apprentice fails to pass the examination, his term of apprenticeship may be *extended* for a maximum of six months. As soon as he passes, he may describe himself as a journeyman, while otherwise he is only a labourer.

It is the duty of the trade authorities to supervise the application of the statutory regulations, while the industrial inspectors supervise the protection of the workers. The penalties which may be imposed include fines, imprisonment, the deprivation of the right to keep apprentices and the right of the master to style himself a member of the trade.

Denmark. An Apprenticeship Act was passed on May 6, 1921. It contains no clauses regulating an examination of capacity. Apprenticeship may not exceed five years, and working conditions must be fixed in an apprentice contract. The

factory inspectors have to see that the provisions of the law respecting work and hygiene are applied.

In certain cases, when the master is guilty of negligence in the training of the apprentice, he may be adjudged to pay the apprentice compensation for the time lost.

Esthonia. An Apprenticeship Bill is in course of preparation.

Finland. An Apprentices' Indenture Act was passed on April 28, 1923, and special committees were formed in all localities for industrial and trade apprenticeship. The workers send 2 members and substitute members to these Committees and the employers also 2 : so that this is one of the few cases in which employers and workers are really on *equal terms*.

A master may not take an apprentice without a written contract, (or indenture) which must state :

(a) The trade or section of a trade in which the apprentice is to be trained.

(b) The duration of the apprenticeship period.

(c) The trade institute or institutes which the apprentice has to attend for his instruction in the trade, the extent of the instruction and the method of examination.

(d) The wage conditions, with special mention of the *dates* on which wages are to be paid, and information as to whether the apprentice is to receive board and lodging from his master.

Germany. A written form of apprenticeship contract is prescribed by law for use in trade and industry. There are also regulations laying down the duty of the master, the period of probation, the dissolution of the apprenticeship and the powers of the authorities to discharge the apprentice in cases of grave abuse. In handicrafts businesses, only those who have passed the masters' examinations may keep apprentices. The period of apprenticeship in such cases may not exceed 4 years. Journeymen's examinations must be taken by the apprentices when trained, journeymen workers in the trade being represented on the Examining Committee.

In craftsmanship, only those persons may take on apprentices who have obtained a master's certificate. In such case

the apprenticeship period must not exceed four years, and journeymen's examinations must be arranged. Journeymen must be represented on the Examining Committees.

Under the Industrial Code the regulation of apprenticeship in craftsmanship is the duty of the Masters' Associations and Chambers of Craftsmanship with the assistance of the Journeymen's Committees. There is indirect supervision of the Journeymen's Examinations: if the apprentice fails to obtain his certificate on account of his master's negligence, the latter is liable to compulsory compensation.

The German legislation for the protection of apprentices is very antiquated and quite inapplicable to modern conditions. During the past year a Vocational Training Bill was introduced into parliament, (see Appendix IV), but has not yet passed.

The regulation of apprenticeship by collective agreement has become a matter of great importance within the last few years.

Great Britain. There is no special legislation regulating vocational training.

An employer is legally bound to teach his apprentice the trade or profession to which he has been apprenticed. Trade Boards have the power to enforce minimum rates of wages laid down for apprentices being paid, and also to make provision for the effective instruction of apprentices.

Holland. There is no legislation in Holland regulating apprenticeship. The Industrial Education Act of 1919 does however contain a voluntary regulation: it makes it permissible for subsidies to be granted to municipalities and recognised institutions for the promotion of apprenticeship. The subsidised body must then lend its aid in the compiling of indentures between employers and the legal guardians of apprentices. The indenture may only be drawn up if there are facilities for the apprentice to receive adequate theoretical school instruction in his selected trade and if the trade is such that the apprentice can learn it on the premises. On the expiry of the apprenticeship, the master must grant the apprentice a certificate. Appren-

tices whose apprenticeship period has expired are given facilities for an examination to test their proficiency in the trade chosen, the Examining Committee being appointed by the authorities. If the apprentice satisfies the examiners, he receives a certificate free of charge.

Trade training is supervised by inspectors : that provided by municipal instructors is supervised by municipal commissions in addition.

Hungary. The Industrial Act was amended on 23rd February, 1922. The apprenticeship indenture must, inter alia, contain the facts of the medical certificate, the dates (beginning and ending) and duration of the apprenticeship and a specification of reciprocal duties.

The duration of apprenticeship must not be less than two nor more than four years, or in the case of apprentices who have passed satisfactorily the four classes of a middle or secondary school or have completed their 16th year, not more than three nor less than one and a half years, and in the case of apprentices who have passed six classes of a middle or secondary school not less than one year, or, if they have obtained the leaving certificate, not less than six months.

Latvia. There are no special legal regulations for vocational training. The national centre has drafted a bill, and has handed it to the Social Democratic Party.

Luxemburg. The apprenticeship indenture must specify the Christian name, surname, occupation and place of residence of the master, and the Christian name, surname, age and place of residence of the apprentice: it must further state whether the apprentice is a minor, and give the Christian name, surname, occupation and place of residence of his legal guardian : the date and duration of the contract : the holidays : the conditions for board and lodging, charges for instruction and all other arrangements made between the parties. No clause is valid which restricts the apprentice from competing with his master after the expiry of his apprenticeship. The indenture must be signed by the master and by the apprentice, or if the latter is

a minor, by his legal guardian. The period of apprenticeship must not be less than 2 years or more than 4 years.

Memel. The conditions of the training of apprentices are those of the German Industrial Code, which has been taken over by Memel. (All German legislation applies also to Memel if enacted in Germany before the separation of Memel from Germany. (See under Germany.)

Poland. Apprenticeship is regulated by the general Industrial Code of the 7th June, 1927. There must always be a contract in writing, fixing the period of apprenticeship, the reciprocal duties and the conditions of terminating the contract.

Masters who have not masters' certificates are not permitted to engage apprentices.

Every apprentice must be given facilities for his journeyman's examination. The Examining Committee consists of 3 members, one of whom must be a worker.

It is the duty of factory inspectors to supervise the application of protective legislation.

Roumania. Under the Act of March 28th, 1929, every master who desires to take an apprentice must possess one of the guarantees of vocational proficiency required under the Act for the Organisation of Trades and Professions. The Chamber of Labour may lay down rules limiting the number of apprentices to which a master is entitled. The maximum duration of the contract is four years.

Russia. The employment of apprentices in Russia is controlled by regulations issued by the People's Labour Commissariat in 1925. The age at which persons may commence apprenticeship is fixed at sixteen years, but in exceptional cases, juveniles of fourteen years may be apprenticed. Apprentices may be employed only by individuals, organisations or institutions holding a licence for the carrying on of an industrial undertaking. Persons employed for remuneration, including homeworkers, are not permitted to engage apprentices. The regulations provide that the officials of the People's

Labour Commissariat must be notified whenever an apprentice is engaged. Apprentices can only be engaged through the Commissariat's officials or by agreement between the employer, the apprentice and his parents. The maximum number of apprentices in any establishment is two for every worker. Within a fortnight of the engagement of the apprentice, indentures must be entered into and registered with the district Labour Inspector or other Government officer. Trade organisations have the right to enter into indentures with employers on behalf of apprentices. Minimum wages are fixed by the State and may be paid partly in kind, provided that at least 25 per cent of the apprentice's wages is paid in money. The wages of apprentices must be regularly increased in proportion to the increase in skill. The rules and intervals for increments in wages are laid down in the indentures. The employer is bound to teach the apprentice the trade specified in the indentures. The indentures may be cancelled by the apprentice before expiration of his apprenticeship for any of the following reasons: (a) on the transference of the undertaking to another owner; (b) if the conditions of employment are specially dangerous (this being certified by a medical examination) and prejudicial to the health of the apprentice; (c) if the apprentice wishes to change his trade; (d) in the case of a breach by the employer of his obligations under the indentures; (e) if the employer ill-treats the apprentice; (f) if the employer is manifestly unfit to give training; (g) if the employer is guilty of crimes or offences or conduct incompatible with the granting to him of the right to take apprentices.

The right to cancel the indentures is also possessed by trade organisations, officials responsible for supervision of the observance of the workers' protection laws, and the parents or guardians of young persons.

The indentures may be cancelled by the employer with the consent of the labour inspector or district executive committee in the following cases: (a) On the closing of the undertaking; (b) in case of persistent refusal of the apprentice to work; (c) if the apprentice is manifestly unfit to learn

the trade in question ; (d) if the apprentice loses his working capacity for more than two months ; or (e) if the apprentice is guilty of a crime or offence covered by the Penal Code which is directly connected with his work and is established by judicial proceedings.

Sweden. Apprenticeship bills have been submitted three times to parliament, in 1909, 1913 and 1923, but have in each case failed to pass.

Switzerland. The law lays down that there must be written indentures for apprentices. Nominally, apprenticeship falls under the scope of those regulations in company law which determine the conditions of employment : in actual fact, it is at present still under the general regulations governing the cantonal apprenticeship systems. It is true that the federal legislation dealing with the protection of factory labour and the employment of young persons in small businesses also applies to apprenticeship, provided that the older apprenticeship legislation is less favourable to the apprentice, or that the apprentice is employed in a factory. But until the new legislation dealing with the training and protection of apprentices comes into force, the existing cantonal regulations remain in force, always providing they do not clash with the national legislation for the protection of labour.

The cantonal regulations lay down that the apprentice shall have completed his period of compulsory attendance at school or his 14th year before he can be apprenticed in handicrafts, trade or industry. In most cases he must have completed his 15th year before he can be apprenticed in commerce, transport and communications, public or private administration, or notaries' or lawyers' offices.

Yugoslavia. The old legislation is still in force. It lays down, inter alia, that apprentices may only be engaged on the basis of indentures, which must be confirmed by the authorities, that young persons may only be set to do the particular work for which they were engaged and that they must attend special apprentices' schools, which have 4 classes : compul-

sory attendance at school must continue during the whole period of apprenticeship.

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Before passing on, we may point to a few apprenticeship regulations to be found in non-European countries, notably Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and South Africa.

Australia. Apprenticeship legislation in Australia is a matter for the several states. We give here a brief survey of the legislation of two of these states.

Queensland, Apprenticeship Act of 1924. This law applies to various skilled trades and industries specified in an accompanying schedule and to such other skilled trades and industries as the Governor in Council may from time to time by Order in Council approve and declare. (The chief of these trades and industries are bread baking and pastry cooking, the boot trade, the building trades, the clothing industry, confectionery, engineering and sheet metal work, furniture-making, the leather industry and the printing trades.)

Whenever the Minister considers it so desirable, he may in respect of any specified trade prescribe public examinations, which shall be passed by every minor before he may become apprenticed to any such trade. The Minister may also determine what certificate of education may be regarded as entitling the holder to exemption from such examination.

The Act provides for the creation of a board to be called the "Apprenticeship Executive", consisting of (a) two representatives appointed by the Minister, one of whom is chairman and acts *ex officio* as chairman of Group Committees (see below); (b) one representative of employers, appointed by the Queensland employers' federation; (c) one representative of employees, appointed by the Trades and Labour Council; (d) two representatives each of employers and of unions, elected by the respective representatives on the Group Committees.

For each trade or group of trades, as determined by the Minister, there is a board called the "Group Apprenticeship

Committee", consisting of (a) the chairman of the Executive, who acts as chairman ; (b) equal numbers of representatives appointed by the employers and industrial union or unions of employees in the trade or group of trades. The number of such representatives on each is determined by the Minister. Such representatives may be changed from time to time, by the employers or union of employees, as the case may be.

The duties of each Group Committee include the following : (a) to receive from the Director of Labour the nominations of entrants for each trade or group of trades ; (b) to make representations to the Minister with a view to securing reconsideration of nominations with which the Group Committee does not concur ; (c) to advise the Minister as to the apprenticeship of each nominee, having due regard to the workshop or trade in which he shall be employed ; (d) to submit recommendations to the Minister as to the matters to be taught to apprentices ; (e) to submit recommendations to the Minister in regard to examinations, if any, which shall be passed by apprentices during their period of training, and to the granting of certificates of competency ; (f) to advise the Minister concerning the educational facilities that should be provided for the purposes of apprenticeship examinations during the prescribed period of training ; (g) to submit recommendations to the Minister as to the supervision of facilities provided by employers, so that apprentices may gain proficiency in their trades ; (h) to advise the Minister on any matter relating to apprentices, apprenticeship or training ; and (i) to collaborate with the Executive or any other Group Committee or Committees on any matter relating to apprenticeship.

An apprentice may, for the purposes of this Act, be indentured to an industrial union or to industrial unions functioning in a trade or industry, and arrangements may be made by such union or unions for the employment of such apprentices.

An apprentice may, for the purposes of this Act, be indentured to an association of employers functioning in a trade

or industry, and arrangements may be made by such association of employers for the employment of such apprentice.

Such union or unions or association shall sign and seal the indenture of apprenticeship and shall also appoint a person or persons, being an officer or officers of the union or unions or association, who shall be deemed to be an employer for the purposes of this Act, and shall be responsible for the observance thereof, and shall also sign and seal such indenture.

Every indenture entered into by the employer and the legal guardian of the apprentice shall be for such period as may be specified by the industrial award for the trade or industry in which the apprentice is engaged, but shall not in any case exceed five years, unless otherwise determined by the Court.

Victoria, Apprenticeship Act of 1927. For the purposes of the Act the Governor may appoint a board to be called the Apprenticeship Commission of Victoria. The Commission shall consist of five members, namely: (a) one member, being a competent and impartial person of proved administrative ability and with a general knowledge of industrial matters and with teaching experience in a technical school, who shall be appointed as the president of the Commission; (b) two members appointed as representing employers and nominated by the body known as the Victorian Chamber of Manufactures; and (c) two members appointed as representing employees and nominated by the body known as the Trades Hall Council of Melbourne.

The Commission (a) shall exercise a general supervision over the theoretical and practical training of apprentices; (b) shall ascertain the character and the scope of the practical training afforded to apprentices; (c) may ascertain by practical or written or oral examination or by inspection of his work or reports furnished by the employer or otherwise the degree of proficiency of any apprentice; (d) may issue grade or progress certificates to apprentices who have attained prescribed standards of proficiency; (e) shall—when an apprentice has completed the term of apprenticeship provided

for in his indentures and has attained the standards of education and trade experience prescribed for his apprenticeship course—issue to him a final certificate accordingly; and (f) shall have power to recommend to the Minister the remission of school fees in respect of inmates of any orphanages or orphans who may become apprentices in any apprenticeship trade.

For the purposes of the Act the Commission (a) shall wherever practicable appoint a trade committee for (1) any group of apprenticeship trades; or (2) any one such trade if it is impracticable to include it in a group of such trades.

The Commission may appoint advisory committees for any apprenticeship trade or group of trades so far as it is carried on in any district to which this Act applies other than the metropolitan district; and may remove any such advisory committee or any member thereof.

All indentures of apprenticeship in apprenticeship trades shall contain a condition to the effect that the apprentice shall receive, subject to the provisions of the Act, the same proportionate benefits (if any) as regards sick pay and payment for holidays provided for journeymen employed in the same trade by any competent industrial authority or in any industrial agreement made pursuant to the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act 1904—1926 as the rates of pay of the apprentice bear to journeymen's minimum rates of pay provided by any such authority or in any such agreement for such trade. Every apprentice shall in accordance with the regulations attend such classes as are prescribed; or if such classes are not available, shall obtain such instruction (by correspondence or otherwise) as is prescribed for the apprenticeship course.

The employer of any apprentice shall during the first two years of his apprenticeship course allow him reasonable time (not exceeding four hours per week) for the purpose of attending such classes or (as the case may be) obtaining such instruction by correspondence or otherwise as aforesaid.

Canada. The legislation varies greatly in the different states. One of the most recent Acts is the Apprenticeship Act of Ontario, passed in 1928, of which the chief provisions are as follows :

Every contract of apprenticeship shall be in the form set out in the Annex to the Act, except that the Minister may upon the recommendation of an apprenticeship committee authorize the variation of such form to suit the special circumstances of any particular designated trade.

The contract shall not be of any force or effect until it has been approved of by the apprenticeship committees and the inspector by writing endorsed thereon, and has been registered by the inspector in the manner prescribed by the regulations.

A contract of apprenticeship under this Act shall not be entered into for a period of less than two years.

The Lieutenant-Governor in Council may make regulations : to establish for any defined area, an apprenticeship committee or committees to advise the Minister on all matters connected with the conditions governing apprenticeship in any designated trade within that area ; prescribing the powers, duties and functions of apprenticeship committees relative to the designation of any trade, the period or periods of apprenticeship, the qualifications upon which apprenticeship may commence in any designated trade, the standard of education for the apprentice, the nature and number of educational classes to be attended by the apprentice, the course of training to be given an apprentice in a designated trade, the number of apprentices that may be employed by an employer in a designated trade, the issuance of a certificate to an apprentice who has completed his term of service, fixing the hours of labour and rates of wages for apprentices, recommending such methods of assessment of employers as may be deemed necessary to maintain a system of apprenticeship in any industry or designated trade.

New Zealand. Apprenticeship-Act of 29th August, 1923. Full powers for the fixing of the conditions to be fulfilled by

apprentices' indentures have been conferred upon the Court of Arbitration appointed under the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1908.

The Court shall make such order or orders as it may think fit in respect of each industry or branch thereof to which this Act applies prescribing—(a) the wages, hours, and other conditions of employment to be incorporated in contracts of apprenticeship in any specified industry and locality; (provided that in no case shall the hours of employment of an apprentice be greater than the maximum (if any) prescribed by statute or by award or agreement for other workers in the industry and locality, nor shall an apprentice be employed at any time when the employment of other workers in the industry and locality would be a breach of any statute or of any award or agreement); (b) the proportion of the total number of apprentices to the total number of journeymen that may be employed in any industry or group of industries in any locality; (c) the period of apprenticeship in any industry; (d) the minimum age at which a person may commence to serve as an apprentice in any industry.

The Act provides that an Apprenticeship Committee may be formed in any industry or group of industries in any locality by agreement between any organisations of employers and workers. There were in 1928 126 of such committees, representing twenty-eight industries.

South Africa. There have for years been Juvenile Advisory Boards set up for the purpose of assisting juveniles in finding employment. These were first non-statutory bodies but were subsequently given legal status by the Juveniles Act of 1921. The Boards found that the country's juvenile labour was being absorbed without systematic selection of training. The competition of native workers of a lower standard of living in semi-skilled and unskilled occupations rendered imperative a sustained effort to ensure skilled employment for the European. The Apprenticeship Bill, which is designed to control the training of minors in skilled trades, was thrown out several times and only passed in 1922.

The Act is administered through Committees representative of employers and employees in the industry concerned, and not by Government officials acting without expert advice from those engaged in industry. The members of an Apprenticeship Committee must be equally representative of employers and employees and are appointed by the employers' organisations and trade unions concerned. The Committee recommends to the Minister the skilled trades to which the provisions of the Act should be applied and the conditions of apprenticeship to be fixed in respect of the period to be served at each trade, the number of apprentices to be employed in individual workshops, the qualifications for commencing apprenticeship, the rates of wages to be paid to apprentices, the educational classes to be attended and the courses of training to be prescribed. After designation of a trade it becomes illegal to employ a minor in that trade in the area affected otherwise than under a contract of apprenticeship registered in accordance with the Act.

The Act is so worded that it cannot be applied unless the cooperation of the employers and employees is forthcoming. Its provisions can be applied only to industries in which skilled workers are employed, a schedule of which is attached to the Act.

(IV) Continuation School Education (Vocational)

Country	Compulsory or Optional	Length	Time of Day
Austria	Compulsory	2 years — if necessary, 3 years	On work-days
Belgium	Optional		In the evenings, on Sundays or during working hours
Bulgaria	Compulsory	2 years	During working hours
Czechoslovakia	Compulsory		
Denmark	Optional		
Esthonia	Optional (1) (sometimes compulsory)		
Finland	Compulsory	Maximum of 400 hours per year for at least 3 years on work-days	In the evenings
France	Optional (sometimes compulsory)		

(1) The organisation of classes may be pronounced necessary by ministerial decree in certain localities. Attendance at such classes is compulsory upon boys and girls under 18 years of age.

Country	Compulsory or Optional	Length	Time of Day
Germany	Optional ⁽¹⁾ (sometimes compulsory)	3 or 4 years, the maximum being up to the end of the 18th year	On work-days—in small places in the evenings, but before 7 p.m.
Great Britain	Optional ⁽²⁾ (sometimes compulsory)	320 hours' attendance per year is the total amount which may be required	In the evenings, sometimes during the day
Holland	Optional		In the evenings
Hungary	Compulsory	Up to the 18th year	During working hours
Italy	Optional (sometimes compulsory)		
Latvia	Compulsory ⁽³⁾	Up to the 16th year	On work-days and in the evenings
Luxemburg	Optional		In the evenings
Memel	Compulsory for men	Up to the 18th year	Two hours immediately after work
Poland	Compulsory	Up to the 18th year	Afternoons (after work)
Yugoslavia	Compulsory	Up to the 14th year	On work-days

⁽¹⁾ Compulsory upon the great majority of apprentices and other young workers, including domestic employees.

⁽²⁾ If the local authorities require it.

⁽³⁾ The Latvian national centre comments that in practice the continuation education is almost optional.

Country	Compulsory or Optional	Length	Time of Day
Spain	Optional		
Sweden	Compulsory	After an elementary school of six classes at least 2 years continuation school; after 7 years of elementary school, at least 1 year of continuation school. Maximum up to 18th year	Not after 8 p. m.
Switzerland	Compulsory (sometimes optional)	Up to the 18th year	During working hours
Australia	Optional		Evening classes
United States of America ⁽¹⁾	Compulsory for 13 states Compulsory for 1 state Compulsory for 12 states	Up to the 18th year Up to the 17th year Up to the 16th year	

⁽¹⁾ 23 states have no legislative provisions of the kind.

The above table will show that there is still great diversity in the different countries and that the demand made by the I. F. T. U. for the

"introduction of compulsory instruction (vocational) until the completion of the 18th year, such instruction to be in working hours"

has in many countries not been realised. The diversity will be seen to be even greater in the light of the following details, which we have obtained from various sources.

Australia. Evening Public Schools have been in existence for many years in some of the states, but their progress has been uncertain. In New South Wales the 54 Evening Continuation Schools had an effective enrolment of 4,368 and an average attendance of 3,256 in 1926. The schools for boys are classed as commercial, commercial preparatory, junior technical, and junior technical preparatory, and for girls as domestic and domestic preparatory. In Victoria there were 10 evening continuation classes in operation during 1926. Although the Education Act of 1910 gives authority for the establishment of evening continuation classes at which the attendance of boys up to the age of seventeen years and living within a radius of 2 miles may be made compulsory for six hours a week, considerations of expense have prevented the free exercise of this power.

Austria. Since the War almost all the provinces of the Austrian Republic have passed legislation establishing vocational schools and classes: Salzburg (6 December, 1926), Upper Austria (19 June, 1923), Vienna (26 September, 1923), Carinthia (13 July, 1923), Lower Austria (26 September, 1923), Styria (1st April, 1927). These laws are all fundamentally similar and their chief features may be summed as follows: the vocational schools intended to complete the general technical instruction of apprentices are of two kinds, general vocational schools, teaching subjects useful to apprentices of all trades, and special trade schools, teaching the subjects specially needed by a trade or group of trades. The instruction in these schools covers either 2 or 3 years. In

these years, the law insists that it shall, especially in the special trade schools, be of a practical kind and be given as much as possible in workshops. Apprentices working in the district covered by a specific vocational school are under compulsion to attend it. Special trade schools have to be created in any district whenever the number of apprentices in a trade or group of trades reach 30 every year for 3 successive years in the same district. If the 30 apprentices belong to different trades, general vocational schools have to be set up.

One-year preparatory classes are organised in connection with the vocational schools for apprentices who have not obtained their elementary school certificates. These receive instruction in general knowledge, writing, arithmetic etc.

The Municipal Education Committee is the authority whose duty it is to take all decisions relative to conditions of admission, examination, certificate etc.

The vocational school year must range between 7 and 10 months, and fall outside the dates of the long school holidays. For special trade schools, the date and duration of the classes are fixed on the basis of the special conditions of the trade in question.

The class hours must fall within 7 a. m. and 6 p. m. The curricula for special trade schools are arranged by the central administrative authority after consultation of the Municipal Educational Committee.

A Fund has been set up to finance the trade schools, which draws its revenues from (1) the educational rates ; (2) fines ; (3) grants from the State, the Chamber of Commerce, Crafts and Industry and workers and employers, and also other grants, donations, scholarships, legacies etc.; (4) Any deficit not covered from the above sources must be met by imposing a levy upon (a) all the employers living within the district for which the vocational school is competent ; and (b) the district.

The apprentice must attend the classes of the vocational school from the beginning to the end of his apprenticeship. The employer is under compulsion to give facilities for attendance to all the apprentices under him and to see that they attend the

classes regularly. Fines may be imposed for the violation of this rule, supervision being exercised by means of a census which enables the authorities to trace offenders. The law also provides for the granting of a license exempting from attendance apprentices who can show by means of a certificate that they possess knowledge equivalent to that which they would receive at the school.

The instruction is free, but a small charge may be made for educational material.

The teachers of the vocational schools are either professional teachers or practical technicians of the trade. Preference is given to those who have attended classes established for the express purpose of training teachers of vocational schools, and teachers are only fully recognised as such after two years of satisfactory service.

Vocational classes have been established in several of the Austrian provinces and their number is increasing.

Among those which have made the greatest progress are the vocational schools of Vienna : these have been steadily increasing in number since the War and they have a strongly marked tendency to specialisation.

Belgium. There is as yet no legislation regulating vocational education in Belgium.

The technical schools and vocational classes are due to the initiative of municipalities, provinces, associations and even individuals (including industrialists). The teaching meets the needs of industry and is adjusted to its constantly changing requirements.

As to their organisation and administration, these schools and classes have curricula and regulations which vary considerably from one school to another, but the essential features are the same in most. The state and the provinces furnish financial aid to the organisers of industrial schools which accept the conditions imposed by them. The conditions imposed by the State vary according to whether the founder of the school is a public authority (province or municipality) or a private person.

When the founder of the institution is a public authority, such authority has to submit to the Belgian Board of Trade for its approval (a) its regulations and curriculum of study : and (b) its budget and accounts. The Board must also approve nominations of directors and teachers and nominations of members of the Administrative Committees, who are elected by the municipality or province.

The State also reserves the right to at least one-third of the seats on the Administrative Committee.

When the founder of the school is a private person, such person is bound (a) to submit for approval the regulations, budget and accounts of the school : (b) to notify to the Board the nominations of teachers : and (c) to give one seat on the Administrative Committee to a delegate from the Board of Trade, whatever may be the numbers of the Administrative Committee.

The Administrative Committees at the head of municipal industrial schools usually consist of 6 members, elected as far as possible from the industry itself. They supervise the work done, the curricula, and the leaving examinations and draw up the list of candidates for the teaching posts.

As for curricula, the vocational schools comprise both general preparatory courses and special courses. In the general preparatory courses, the subjects taught are the native language of the student, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, elements of physics, chemistry and political economy etc. These courses, which cover two or three years, are intended to consolidate and widen the general knowledge of the young people, while the special or technical classes have more direct reference to the trade in question. In deciding the subjects taught, regard is paid to local or regional needs. Ideas of industrial designing and draughtmanship, mechanics, electricity, civil engineering, and the technology of workshops are usually imparted to the student. The usual duration of these classes is two years and, since they follow upon general preparatory courses, the total duration of the vocational teaching of the industrial schools is from 4 to 5 years. The teaching is essentially practical and experimental.

Czechoslovakia. The continuation schools are usually attended for two years, but only by students from 14 to 16 years of age. But there are also a considerable number of schools with three-year courses, attended by students from 14 to 17. The school year is usually 7 months, from October 1st to the end of April. Eight hours of teaching are given per week. There are no schools for young persons not engaged in any trade, except for young persons engaged in agriculture, who must attend economic schools from 14 to 16 years of age. At the end of the year 1926, there were 728 agricultural schools in Czechoslovakia, attended by 34,857 students.

For miners there are optional mining schools with three-year courses. There are 30 such schools, with 3000 students. Altogether there are in Czechoslovakia, including all the continuation schools, 2753 schools for young people from 14 to 17 years of age, and 7874 classes attended by 202,406 students, of whom 48,231 are girls.

France. Technical instruction in France is organised in virtue of the "Astier Act" of the 25th July, 1919, which covers all technical instruction in industry and commerce. This Act appoints the authorities for all education coming within the sphere of activity of the Under-Secretariat of State for Technical Education. A Supreme Council of Technical Education, presided over by the Under-Secretary of State of Technical Education, and consisting of elected members, members appointed by the Ministry, ex officio members and members appointed by the Trade Union Centre, must be consulted when bills, regulations or decrees relating to technical education are being drafted.

The schools and classes coming under the Astier Act are supervised by inspectors nominated by the Under-Secretary for Technical Education.

Besides this, a Departmental Committee is appointed in each department and, if necessary, Cantonal Committees for Technical Education. The Cantonal Committees give their advice on questions submitted to them by the Departmental Committee, to whom they send in reports.

The Astier Act makes a distinction between public technical education schools, craft schools, private technical education schools and vocational classes. All establishments providing vocational education in which the State is responsible for the teaching are considered as public schools for technical, industrial and commercial education.

Trade schools may, with the approval of the State, be founded by Chambers of Commerce or by vocational associations under conditions determined by decree. The State may contribute to the expense of setting up these schools and in towns of less than 150,000 inhabitants, may help to maintain them. Private schools are subject to the same inspection and supervision as public schools, being inspected by technical educational inspectors. They may be recognised by the State, if they receive good reports from the Supreme Council of Technical Education.

Certificates of study and diplomas may be granted by schools recognised by the State under conditions determined by ministerial decree after consultation of the Supreme Council for Technical Education. In this case, the examining jury is nominated by the Under-Secretariat of State or by the prefect of the department appointed to do so.

The Astier Act also provides for the organisation of classes for the vocational training of apprentices, workers and salaried employees in commerce and industry. These classes are compulsory for all boys and girls under 18 years of age who are engaged in commerce or industry, whether as apprentices or not. These classes may be organised by the heads of industrial or commercial firms for their own establishments, and held on the premises.

A local vocational commission supervises organisation, curricula and the working of the classes ; the curricula must also be approved by the Departmental Committee for Technical Education. The classes must be held during the statutory working day, the number being 4 per week and 100 per year at least, and 8 hours per week, and 200 hours at most per year.

The classes may receive a state grant : they are inspected only by the department for Technical Education. By a decree of the 24 May, 1924, there must be an Inter-ministerial Permanent Conference for the study and co-ordination of questions relating to technical education and apprenticeship.

The schools of vocational instruction which are at present in existence in France are of several kinds : national schools of technical education, national schools of arts and crafts, national vocational schools and national clock and watch-making schools. All these are maintained solely by the State.

Germany. It is laid down in Article 145 of the German Constitution that after eight years, at least, in the elementary school there must be attendance at a continuation school up to the end of the 18th year. This standard, as set up in the Constitution, has not yet been put into actual force by means of national legislation. It has hitherto been the business of the separate federal states to settle the question of continuation schools for themselves. In many states the authorities alone are responsible for the schools, in others the state orders the municipalities to establish continuation schools, in yet a third group the municipal authorities are *empowered* to make universal attendance at continuation schools compulsory. Attendance at continuation schools has now been generally enforced except in some rural districts. As early as 1869 the National Industrial Code empowered municipalities to make attendance at continuation schools compulsory for apprentices and journeymen workers under 18 years of age. These regulations, which are still in force in an amended form, constitute the only national legislative basis for the continuation school system. No new national legislation has been passed on the subject, for such would compel the national government to take over part of the school costs. The National Industrial Code makes it compulsory upon employers to send their young workers of continuation school age to school and to see that they attend regularly. In case of a breach of the law, both the employer and the young worker are liable to punishment.

The continuation or vocational schools are locally under the control of a school executive, consisting as a rule of representatives of the municipality, the employers and the workers and apprentices. The employers and workers are chiefly consulted on questions of management outside the school itself, such as the establishment of schools, the fixing of the school hours, the scope of compulsory attendance, and school plant, such as workshop, library etc.

The continuation school, now usually called the vocational school, does not aim at being a mere continuation of the elementary school, but represents a special kind of school. It has therefore very wide connections. The young worker begins with his own trade, but is taken further and introduced to his rights and duties as a citizen. Social legislation, labour law, the state and such of its organisations as the free economic organisations (trade unions) are explained to the student. Technically, the vocational schools consider their task to be to supplement the practical training given in the factory by theoretical instruction and in many cases to do work in special school-workshops which the apprentice cannot learn to do in the factory.

Besides the compulsory instruction, given chiefly during the day-time, numerous optional courses are arranged in the evenings, which are being constantly expanded systematically, in order to give boys and girls who have only been at elementary schools chances, when they have taken up a trade, of attending subsequently higher technical schools, which in the ordinary way only admit students who have been through secondary schools.

The teachers of the vocational schools have hitherto consisted of equal numbers of former elementary teachers and of persons actually working at the trade in question. In future, it will be possible for qualified workers to obtain such posts without secondary education.

The present position of vocational education in Germany will be seen from the following figures :

In Prussia, which comprises two-thirds of Germany, both according to area and according to population, an enquiry instituted on November 25th, 1926, gave the following results:

<i>Number of Vocational Schools of all Kinds</i>	<i>Students Teachers</i>	
Industrial Schools	2200	745,196 18,646
Commercial Schools	308	109,423 2,386
Domestic Economy Schools	54	15,229 322
Mining Schools	145	14,680 873
Agricultural Continuation Schools	9697	221,373 17,438

Great Britain. In most of the larger towns vocational classes have been organised in which apprentices may acquire some knowledge of the principal industries of the district. In addition "Works Schools" are conducted by the employers, in many cases, within the factory itself.

As stated in the footnote to the last table, there is a provision which says that continuation school education is compulsory on young persons if the local education authority requires it. For seven years after this provision comes into force it is only to apply to young persons under sixteen. 320 hours attendance per year is the total amount which may be required by the local authorities. During the first seven years 280 hours may be substituted for 320. These hours are to be subtracted from working hours.

Hungary. The Act of 23 February, 1923, amending the industrial law of 1884, makes it compulsory for vocational classes to be established in municipalities where there are at least 40 apprentices. The duration of these classes, as fixed by the law, is 9 hours per week during 10 months of the year. The classes are held on work-days only, and are not given after 7 p. m.

Italy. In centres in which there are industries or groups of industries employing apprentices, or in which there is any demand for skilled workers, technical classes are organised in order to improve the working capacity of the apprentices and workers by giving them suitable cultural, technical, and

practical instruction (including instruction in designing and draughtsmanship).

Such classes may be set up on the initiative of bodies, institutions, craft associations and economic or cultural associations, and must be sanctioned by the Minister of National Economics.

Where there are trade schools supported by royalty or by the State, the vocational classes must if possible be made a part of such schools.

Not more than half the expenditure may be borne by the Ministry of National Economics ; the remainder must be met by contributions from the bodies, institutions, and companies, and by the employers' and workers' unions.

The vocational courses are managed by a Joint Local Council (*Consiglio consorziale locale*) which consists of representatives of the Ministry of National Economics, and of the contributing bodies, institutions, and associations of employers and workers.

In places where such classes have been organised, attendance is compulsory upon workers under 18 years of age who have no leaving certificate from an apprentice school (*scuola di tirocinio*) for at least 8 hours per week : if possible, these 8 hours are to be concentrated into two days ; in any case, the attendance must be 200 hours per year. The employers must grant the workers the necessary free time to attend the classes during hours to be fixed by the Joint Local Council.

Spain. In Madrid and the larger provincial towns there are in all about 90 vocational schools, which are financed from a special fund of the Ministry of Labour, plus proportionate grants from the municipalities and General Provincial Councils.

The management of the vocational education is in the hands of a National Committee, on which are represented several teaching bodies, and the civil servants ; there is also

one employers' and one workers' delegate on the Committee, the workers' representative being a member of the national trade union centre affiliated with the I.F.T.U.

Roumania. Teaching for apprentices was first started in 1920. In 1926-27 there were 141 apprentices' schools. In all these schools there is a three-years' course, with the exception of the building school at Bucharest, where the teaching course covers four years. The classes are usually held between 5 and 8 in the evening.

Switzerland. A federal decree was issued on 27 June, 1884, dealing with technical education. In virtue of this decree, the state grants subventions to establishments already in existence or since created. The decree aims at encouragement and assistance rather than organisation. There are in fact cantonal laws which organise vocational education for apprentices. These laws may be divided into three groups: (1) Those which make vocational education compulsory on the apprentice during the whole of his apprenticeship; (2) Those which are only compulsory for apprentices of certain trades; (3) Those which only recognise optional vocational education. In some cantons, vocational education is organised by special legislation independent of the apprenticeship legislation. At present, a federal bill dealing with vocational education as a whole is being prepared by the competent authorities.

Elementary vocational education is given in vocational continuation schools (*Gewerbliche Fortbildungsschule*), in craftsmen's schools (*Gewerbe-Handwerkerschule*) and in classes for designing and draughting (*Zelchnungsschulen*). The schools have as a rule a three-years' course.

The average vocational education aims at training technicians of a medium degree of proficiency, able not only to pursue a trade, but also to understand the organisation and resources of the industry to which the particular calling be-

longs and to promote its progress. Consequently, it chiefly tends to train foremen. The education is given in different types of schools, the chief of which are known as "technica". Under the same category come the schools of arts and crafts, of watch and clock-making, and of mechanics, the cantonal crafts schools and those of the industrial arts and the fine arts, also the technical colleges.

(V) The Trade Unions and Young Workers

Before considering in what way young workers are organised in the trade unions of the various countries, we shall touch upon a few general questions of principle. The replies on these points come in most cases from the trade union centres themselves in reply to our questions.

(a) Legislation hampering trade union organisation of young workers or limiting it?

No legislation in any way impeding the trade union organisation of young workers exists in *Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Esthonia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Latvia, Memel, Palestine, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland or Yugoslavia*. The following conditions are however imposed by legislation :

Esthonia : Voting members of legally registered trade unions must be persons who have attained their 18th year. Only persons who have attained their majority can found or manage unions. (Majority is attained at 20 years of age.)

France. The Trade Union Act authorises young people to join trade unions from the age of 16 onwards, provided there is no opposition from their parents or guardians. They may not be members of executive committees.

Great Britain. Young persons not under the age of 16 may be members of trade unions, provided the trade union has no rule to the contrary.

Poland. Young members under 20 may not be elected to trade union executives.

(b) Minimum Age Limit for Trade Union Membership?

No minimum age limit is prescribed by the trade unions of *Austria, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Esthonia, Germany, Hungary, Latvia, Memel, Spain, Sweden or Switzerland*. Such minimum age limits are however imposed by *Denmark* (18 years), *France* (16), *Holland* (16 to 18), *Poland* (16 to 18), and *Yugoslavia* (18).

Belgium has special regulations for the admission of young workers only in the Union of Workers in the Book Trades (the young person must be 16 years of age and have worked in the trade for at least a year), and in the Belgian Typographers' Federation (the young person must be 16 and have been in the trade for two years, doing the actual trade work for one year).

(c) Same Rights of Young Members.

Young trade union members have in general the same rights as adults in the unions of *Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Esthonia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Latvia, Memel, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland* and *Yugoslavia*.

The following remarks have been sent in :

Austria. A distinction must be made between *young workers* and *apprentices* :

(a) *Young workers* (labourers) are admitted into trade unions as full members as soon as they go to work (that is, when they have completed their 14th year). Sometimes they are placed with women in a special contributions category. If the union contributions system is divided into different categories, then there is very often a special category for these young workers, but they have the same rights as full-paying members.

(b) Some trade unions have set up special sections for *apprentices*. As the apprentice only receives very little pay, very low contributions are asked of them. The only exceptions are the apprentices of the building trades, where the weekly contribution is based on the wage per hour both for

adults and apprentices. When the apprentice is transferred to the adult section, on the expiry of his apprenticeship, his membership of the apprentices' section is counted towards his length of membership, sometimes at the rate of a half, sometimes at one-third, and in some organisations at the same rate as adult membership.

Czechoslovakia. Young unskilled workers are admitted into trade unions and granted all the rights of full membership. As a rule, young workers begin work after the completion of the 14th year but sometimes later.

Separate sections are frequently formed for apprentices, with very low contributions, since apprentices earn very low wages, often none at all. Such membership is only reckoned as full membership under certain conditions.

France. The trade unions with sickness and unemployment benefit pay lower benefits to juvenile members.

Great Britain. Young persons may not be members of management committees, trustees or treasures of trade unions. Members of unions are not eligible for these positions under the age of 21.

Holland. As a rule, young members only receive strike and lockout benefit.

Latvia. Young members have the right to vote from their 18th year, but they may only be voted to official posts after they have attained the age of 21.

Switzerland. Young persons have the same rights everywhere. As a rule, a difference is made for apprentices in respect of their claims to unemployment benefit. In some federations they pay lower contributions.

(d) Organisational Arrangements for Apprentices and Young Workers.

There are special young members' sections in many unions of *Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Hungary, Poland* and *Switzerland.*

Austria. There are apprentices' sections in 21 unions. In 1925 the Austrian national trade union centre set up an *Apprentices' Section* which acts as the centre for "free" trade union youth work: it consists of one delegate from each "free" trade union apprentices' section, and one delegate each from the executives of the unions in question. We give below some of the more important Rules of this section, which will serve to show the wide scope of its work.

"(1) The Apprentices' Section of the Austrian national trade union centre shall be the concentrating body representing the Apprentices' and Probationers' Sections of the unions affiliated with the Centre. It shall represent all the apprentices and probationers of both sexes organised in "free" trade unions. It shall have its seat in the headquarters of the Austrian national centre and its activities shall cover the whole sphere for which the latter is competent.

(2) The Apprentices' Section shall be subordinate to the national centre, and all the decisions made by the Centre, the Conference of Executives and the Trade Union Congress shall be binding upon it.

(3) The Apprentices' Section of the National Centre shall defend and represent the interests of the apprentices and probationers organised in the "free" trade unions by means of:

- (a) joint discussion and the adoption of resolutions;
- (b) joint manifestoes;
- (c) other measures of a kind likely to attain the desired end.

(4) To fulfil its tasks, the Apprentices' Section of the National Trade Union Centre shall, in agreement with the national centre, create the following authorities: (a) Secretariat; (b) Executive Committee; (c) Sectional executives; (d) Sectional meetings; (e) General Councils; (f) Conference of Leaders (confidence men)."

The individual sections and the Apprentices' Section of the National Centre deal with many questions affecting the interests of apprentices, special attention being given to educational work, unemployment and the lack of a trade, youth

work, vocational guidance, apprentices' pay, holidays, continuation schools, physical culture etc.

Belgium. Some unions have set up special sections, the two chief being the Food-workers' and Typographers' Unions.

Czechoslovakia. There are special youth sections and apprentices' sections for the unions of commercial, clerical and technical employees, metal-workers and typographers. The Reichenberg unions have apprentices' sections for metal-workers, wood-workers and pottery-workers: the general union of commercial, clerical and technical employees also has a youth section. The national centre itself has also a special Committee to deal with youth questions, and various district secretariats have also established youth sections of their own.

Denmark. About 20 unions, including typographers, electricians, bricklayers and bakers organise their young workers and apprentices, either in special youth sections of the respective local branches or as direct members. There are about 3700 organised apprentices altogether.

Germany. The unions found local youth sections (local youth committees) which in their turn combine to form Trade Union Youth Cartels. If local conditions are not favourable to the formation of such Youth Committees, the Youth Cartel itself makes the necessary arrangements for the young members.

The German national centre has created a *Youth Secretariat* of its own.

As will be seen from the pamphlet "Zur Organisation unserer Jugendarbeit" (The Organisation of our Youth Work) issued by the Youth Secretariat of the German national trade union centre (A. D. G. B.), the training of youth leaders is an important function of the local youth cartels. The pamphlet declares that "the youth leaders of all the affiliated unions must hold regular meetings, to exchange views and experiences. These meetings offer good opportunities for

instructive addresses. Doctors, teachers, social officials etc. who are in sympathy with us deal with questions of physical, intellectual and moral interest to the young. Experienced trade unionists may explain trade union, social and economic questions of the day, in order to facilitate the enlightenment of the young by discussion and conversation. As the educational work done by the Youth Groups consists to a large extent not of set lectures, but of discussion and conversation of current events, great importance is attached to these. If the youth leader has clear ideas himself as to the structure of our movement, he can transmit his own ideas and insight to the young members of his group. Other discussions are held at the meetings of youth leaders on the subjects of vocational school education, vocational guidance, public institutions for youth welfare and benefit, youth courts etc. Another important task of the Youth Cartels is to train the leaders of Rambles and Sport sections."

The Year Book of the A. D. G. B. writes as follows on the subject: "The local committee of the A. D. G. B., reported in reply to a questionnaire sent to them that at the end of 1928 there were in 444 localities 2033 trade union representatives with seats on the administrative bodies of the vocational school system. In 352 cases the trade unions had sent representatives to the Executives of Youth Offices, 632 trade unionists being engaged in this work. It was also stated that 806 trade unionists were helping in youth welfare work and youth court work. Another sphere of activity which usually falls to the lot of the youth leaders is that of the Journeymen's Committees of the Occupational Associations. 435 localities reported that 4527 "free" trade unionists were working on 1980 journeymen's committees."

Great Britain. Youth sections or Youth Committees: National Amalgamated Union of Shop Assistants, Union of Post Office Workers, Association of Women Clerks and Secretaries, United Operative Plumbers and Domestic Engineers Society of Lithographic Artists, Designers, Engravers and Process Workers, Coopers' Federation of Great Britain and Ireland, and Amalgamated Engineering Union.

Latvia. The Factory-Workers' Union has set up special youth sections.

Poland. The Metal Workers and the Workers in the Clothing Industry have special Youth Sections.

(e) Journals for Young Workers.

Special attention is only just beginning to be paid to the interests of young workers in trade unions, so that little can as yet be expected in this respect.

As a rule, the creation of special youth or apprentice sections in the trade union is accompanied by the issue of a special journal for the young or the reservation of special youth columns in the ordinary trade union journals.

So far as we can trace them, the following organisations in various countries issue special youth papers :

Austria (National centre together with the Union of Socialist Labour Youth : "Der jugendliche Arbeiter" (The Young Worker). All organised apprentices are bound to take this paper. The individual apprentice sections also issue bulletins.)
Czechoslovakia: (Salaried Employees and Typographers.)
Germany (A. D. G. B.): "Youth Leader" ("Jugend-Führer"), Building Workers' Federation, Carpenters, Clothing Workers, Commercial, Clerical and Technical Employees, Food and Drink Workers, Hotel Employees, Lithographers, Metal-Workers, Mining Industry Workers, Painters, Railwaymen, Roof-tilers, Saddlers, Textile Workers, Typographers and Wood workers. *Great Britain* (Amalgamated Society of Wood Workers). *Holland* (Salaried Employees, Building Workers, Diamond Workers, Factory Workers, Painters, Tailors and Dress-makers). *Hungary* (National Centre, Metal-Workers). *Switzerland* (Typographers).

(VI) Trade Union Demands

It cannot be denied that in general the legislation providing for the protection of young workers is far behind actual practice and also far behind the desires and needs of labour. Only very slowly is it brought into line with the facts.

Little wonder, then, that in many countries the trade union movement is dissatisfied with this slow progress and is always pressing for better legislation of a type adapted to modern times. Naturally, there is great divergence in the complaints of different countries. In Germany the universal complaint is that the existing youth protection legislation is antiquated, for general protection for young workers has made great progress: in France, on the other hand, the complaint is that the legislation is good in itself, but ill applied. In Sweden there is a desire for the raising of the school-leaving age, in Czechoslovakia for the extension of compulsory vocational education up to 18 years of age.

The question of the protection of young workers has on several occasions been an item on the agenda of trade union congresses. ⁽¹⁾

The *Austrian* trade unions are strongly in favour of the creation of joint apprentices' committees. At the congresses of the *Belgian* and *Danish* trade union centres, resolutions have been passed explicitly adopting the I. F. T. U. Programme for the protection of young workers (see Appendix 1).

⁽¹⁾ It has also been discussed at many congresses of individual unions.

The *French C. G. T.* demanded at its Paris congress of 1929 that the additional period of compulsory school attendance should be devoted to general culture and that, in the two last years of elementary school education, greater attention should be given in the school curriculum to the teaching of elementary practical ideas of the chief crafts and to the study of elementary industrial science. The Congress also expressed its desire for the creation of offices for vocational guidance in all localities, on which the trade unions should have seats.

At the Hamburg Congress of the *German* trade union centre (1928), a resolution was passed declaring that the demands long urged by the trade for special protection by social legislation for wage-earning youth have not yet been fulfilled. The present bill for the protection of labour does not touch upon the demands of young workers for free time. The large number of young workers unable to claim holidays (the holiday claim is at present based only upon clauses in collective agreements) makes it imperative that the holiday question should at once be settled by legislation. Another demand is for the fixing of a universal age limit for the whole country for the beginning and ending of compulsory school attendance.

The Congress of the national trade union centre of *Holland*, held in 1926, pronounced in favour of better training for apprentices, to be effected by means of bodies on which the workers' and employers' organisations should be represented as well as the State. Moreover, in the programme adopted at the Rotterdam congress of 1929, a demand is made for the reversal of retrogressive changes in education, the introduction of benefit arrangements for young persons beyond the school age and the extension of commercial and industrial education.

The Riga Congress of 1928 of the *Latvian* trade unions adopted a lengthy apprentices' programme.

The national trade union centre of *Palestine* has issued the following programme in respect of young workers :

- (1) The separation of the regulations applying to women and young workers, since there is little intrinsic connection between them.
- (2) Prohibition of child labour under 14 years of age.
- (3) Limitation of working hours for children under 16 to 6 hours and for young persons between 16 and 18 to 8 hours per day.
- (4) Prohibition of child labour not only in industry, but also in all town and agricultural undertakings, unless such work is done in an enterprise carried on by the child's parents.
- (5) Extension of the list of work prejudicial to health, especially including trades which in Palestine are more important than those indicated in the present decree (match factories, printing works etc.).
- (6) Extension of the prohibition of night work to the period between 6 p. m. and 7 a. m., and not as now, to between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m.
- (7) Medical examination of young persons every three months to see if they are fit for work, and compulsory production of a medical certificate before beginning wage work.
- (8) Statutory annual holiday for young persons.
- (9) Special decrees for the protection of apprentices (limitation of the number of apprentices per worker : compulsory written apprenticeship indentures, regulating the conditions for acceptance and dismissal, wages, working hours etc.).
- (10) Adequate inspection, in which representatives of the working class take part.

The Warsaw congress of 1929, held by the *Polish* trade unions, dealt more particularly with the question of the organisation of young workers.

The *Swedish* national centre applied to the authorities as early as 1924 with proposals for an Apprenticeship Bill, in which they laid special emphasis on the removal of state vocational schools to the factories and workshops. In the view of the Swedish centre, this can best be done by making it compulsory upon the employer to find work for a certain number of apprentices under the control and supervision of teachers appointed and paid by vocational schools. These boys and girls would also have to attend the theoretical classes of the vocational schools. In this way it would be possible to remove vocational teaching to the factories, to find a natural use for the products of the learner's work and to enable young persons to earn their living during the period of training.

The *Yugoslavian* national centre passed a resolution at its Zagreb congress of 1928, containing demands which are in substance identical with those of the I. F. T. U. programme for the protection of young workers.



Certain countries are considering bills relating to the protection of young workers.

Austria. Among the various schemes or bills aiming at the extension of the protection of young workers, we may mention the following :

(a) A proposal by the Social Democratic Parliamentary Party for fixing the minimum payment for apprentices during the second third of their apprenticeship at 30% and during the last third at 70% of the wage for the ordinary workers as settled by collective agreement.

(b) A proposal for the extension of the young worker's (apprentice's) claim to holidays. This proposal would give the young worker up to the completion of the 18th year four weeks' holiday when he has been one year in service, if on medical examination it is desirable for reasons of health.

(c) A proposal for improvements in the terms under which young workers may draw unemployment benefit (the deletion of the clause providing that workers under 16 can be excluded from unemployment benefit if their livelihood is "not endangered", and of the clause making insurance compulsory on apprentices only during the *last* year of apprenticeship). The apprentice must under this proposal be insured during the whole apprenticeship period in order, if other legal conditions are fulfilled, to be entitled to unemployment benefit, should his apprenticeship be terminated before the expiry of the indenture.

(d) A proposal for the creation of Apprentices' Committees, consisting of employers' and workers' representatives on equal terms.

(e) Another proposal urges an increase in the number of apprentices' inspectors.

(f) Another proposed demands the establishment of special apprentices' sections in the industrial courts, in order to decide disputes arising out of apprenticeship conditions.

Germany. The final Protection of Labour Bill submitted to parliament in December, 1929, will provide for a considerable improvement in the protection of young workers, such as the raising of the *age limit* to the 18th year, prohibition of night work over a wider sphere, and improvements in the free time granted to young workers.

Of special importance to the apprenticeship question is the *Vocational Education Bill* submitted to the National Council in 1929, after having been discussed by the National Economic Council, which issued an opinion upon it. The most important features of this Bill are given in Appendix IV.

Great Britain. During 1928 and 1929 the following bills which included clauses for the protection of young workers were introduced into the House of Commons: *The Offices Regulation Bill*, containing provisions for the prohibition of employment in offices of young persons under 16; prohibition of employment of young persons for more than 4 hours without an interval of an hour, or employment during the night or on Sunday. *The Employment of young persons (Particular Occupations) Bill*, which would enable local authorities to make bye-laws prescribing for young persons in particular occupations minimum age, period of employment, and daily and weekly maximum hours of employment; and also to prohibit absolutely or permit conditionally the employment of young persons in any particular occupation. *The Factories Bill*: a section deals with the employment of women, young persons and children. A reduction in hours would have resulted had the Bill been passed. *Children and Young Persons (Employment and Protection) Bill*. Among the amendments to already existing Acts are: Limitation of hours for young persons under 16 to 8 per day or 38 per week, and for young persons between 16 and 18 to 9 per day or 48 per week. Young persons under 18 not to be employed after 1 o'clock on one weekday. No young person under 16 to be employed in a coal mine. No young person under 18 to be employed in a coal or metalliferous mine without a medical certificate of fitness. No young person under 18 to be employed at night (between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m.) except under the protection of an entertainment license. In April, 1930 the Government introduced its *Hours of Industrial Employment Bill*, to comply with the provisions of the Washington Hours Convention.

Switzerland. In 1929 the National Council discussed and unanimously adopted, for submission to Parliament for second, reading, a bill on vocational education, a piece of legislation which is regarded as the first step towards a complete set of laws dealing with industry, arts and crafts. The bill applies to artisans, home workers, industrial workers, hotel employees,

workers in commerce and transport, and workers of federal undertakings coming under federal legislation dealing with factory work and transport undertakings for the benefit of some concession. It is laid down that there must be written indentures for apprentices. The bill contains clauses relating to the length of apprenticeship, the expiration and renewal of the indentures of apprenticeship in apprenticeship workshops and vocational schools. Vocational teaching may be given up to 8 p. m.

Ch. Schürch, secretary of the Swiss national trade union centre, has informed us that in Switzerland 22 cantons and semi-cantons possess at the present time laws regulating apprenticeship questions, so that the federal law, when it is passed, will supplement and unify the important provisions already existing in respect of vocational training and put an end to the mosaic-like miscellany of cantonal legislation. Schürch is, however, dissatisfied with the Bill, because it does not touch upon the *protection of apprentices* in the strict sense of the term.

(VII) Miscellaneous

(a) Paid Holidays for Young Workers

It is very satisfactory to find that since the War various countries have passed legislation providing for holidays for young workers. The countries in question are *Austria, Czechoslovakia, Luxemburg, Poland, and Russia.*

Austria. (Act of 30th July, 1919). Young persons, not apprentices, shall be entitled to holidays under the Workers' Holiday Act or the Salaried Employees' Holiday Act. Apprentices come only under the Workers' Holiday Act, according to which young persons under 17 are entitled to two weeks' holiday after one year's service.

Luxemburg. (Act of 6th December, 1926). This Act provides for 7 days annual holiday for wage-workers and apprentices under 18 years of age, provided they have been for one year in the consecutive employ of the same employer. The worker can claim for his whole holiday the same wage which he was earning when it began.

Czechoslovakia. (Act of 3rd April, 1925). The Act provides that the young worker, like every other worker, shall have 6 days' holiday when he has been in the employ of the same undertaking for one to ten years, Sundays and public holidays are counted in the holiday, but paid for.

Apprentices are entitled to a paid holiday at the rate of one week per year after six months' consecutive apprenticeship with the same undertaking, Sundays and public holidays being counted in the holiday, but paid for.

Poland. (Act of 16th May, 1922). Young workers (under 18 years of age) can claim 14 consecutive days of holiday after one year's employment.

Russia. (Labour Code of November 9th, 1922). Workers under 18 years of age are entitled to at least a month' holiday.

In *Germany*, the forthcoming legislation on vocational training will contain special regulations authorising the bodies which are to be legally empowered to regulate apprenticeship to take resolutions dealing with the methods and length of the holiday to be granted to the young persons with whom they are concerned.

In respect of *Switzerland* the following information has been taken from the "Revue Syndicale Suisse", the journal of the Swiss trade union centre :

"There is no federal legislation dealing with apprentices' holidays. Regulations are issued by cantons, and trade and employers' associations. Only 7 cantons—Aargau, Grisons, Thurgau, Schaffhausen, Uri, Unterwald and Geneva—have included in their laws provisions for one week's holiday. In Canton Berne there is a clause providing for one to three weeks of holiday for commercial apprentices and Tessin grants one week per year to commercial apprentices and bakers' apprentices."

In various countries collective agreements contain clauses providing for holidays for young workers and apprentices, but we have too little information on the subject to be able to survey the general position.

In conclusion, we may call attention to the clause contained in the I. F. T. U. programme for the protection of young workers dealing with this subject, which runs as follows :

"A minimum three weeks of paid holiday for wage-earning young persons under 16 (inclusive of apprentices) and two weeks paid holidays for wage-earning young persons between 16 and 18 (inclusive of apprentices)."

(b) Young Workers and Collective Agreements

There are in various countries collective agreements containing clauses relating to young workers.

Austria. In some cases wages and working conditions of apprentices are regulated by collective agreement. In Vienna

such regulations exist in the following trades : building workers, commercial employees, dyers, engravers and process workers, flower-workers, hairdressers, joiners (wood workers), lithographers, metal-workers, and photographers.

In *Belgium, Denmark and Latvia* it is usually the collective agreement of the printing trades which contains provisions against the misuse of apprentice labour or regulates the proportion of apprentices to adult workers.

Czechoslovakia. Typographers, metal-workers, hotel employees and office boys.

France has many collective agreement regulations relating to juvenile workers and apprentices, especially for trades employing large numbers of children, such as the clothing and glass trades, the printing trades, the textile industry and the metal industry.

Germany states that with few exceptions young workers are included in collective agreements, and in some cases, apprentices also. In some branches of industry, such as the building trades, the printing trades and the railway industry, apprentices' conditions are regulated by national agreements, but in most cases by district or local agreements. The chief difficulties are found in the regulation by collective agreement of the apprentice system in craftsmanship. Most of the collective agreements merely fix the wages and holidays of apprentices: sometimes, however, there are also clauses fixing the period of apprenticeship, the maximum payment for apprentices etc.

In *Great Britain* there exist collective agreements governing the working conditions of apprentices or young workers in the following trades : Building, Sawmilling, Printing, Wallpaper Making, Chemicals, Pottery, Cotton, Lace, Hosiery, Sailmaking, Electricity Supply, Leather and Leather goods, Lighterage, Furniture-making, Box and Packing Case making, Paper Making, Miscellaneous Metal Industries, Glass and Glass Bottles, Iron and Steel, Wool Textiles, Silk, Carpets and Rugs, Textile Bleaching, Dyeing, Printing and Finishing, Coopering, Jewel Case Making.

Subjects: Age at entry, proportion of apprentices to journeymen, wages of apprentices and also the apprentice's right to receive the full journeymen's wage, or a stated proportion of it, on completion of apprenticeship.

Holland. Lithographers, typographers, diamond-workers and painters.

Memel. Paper, chemistry, metal, wood and tobacco industries.

Poland and Sweden report that the wages and working conditions of young workers are fixed in almost all collective agreements.

Switzerland. Some federations have concluded collective agreements making special arrangements for young persons.

Yugoslavia. Metal-workers, tailors and dressmakers, printing trades.

United States. From an article published in the "*Monthly Labour Review*", the official journal of the United States Department of Labor (February, 1929), we learn that in this country many agreements contain apprenticeship provisions. Under these with the union, serves a stated length of time, and is then admitted as a journeyman into the union.

The apprenticeship period varies with the occupation. In many trades it is four years, in some cases five years, but frequently less. In several trades the period is not mentioned. Apprentices are generally between 16 and 21 years of age at the time of being articulated.

Employers are limited as to the number of apprentices they may employ, the number varying from 1 for each journeyman employed to 1 for every 12 journeymen. The wages of apprentices vary from year to year. A part of the training of apprentices is received in school in some instances.

In a few countries, such as *Belgium*, there are collective agreements containing provisions laying down that apprentices who have had vocational instruction for a specific period may be placed in a wage category higher than the normal one.

(c) Vocational Guidance and Vocational Selection (Tests of Capacity).

As far as we can discover, vocational guidance, tests of capacity etc. chiefly take the following forms :

In *Austria* there is no legislation, but a purely social institution known as "vocational guidance". At first two "vocational guidance offices" were created, at Vienna and St. Pölten respectively, their establishment being due primarily to the respective Chambers of Labour and secondarily, to the municipalities concerned. Their executives contain members of the trade and a doctor. Their function is to give advice, based on the situation in the labour market, as to the trades in which it is desirable to take on apprentices, and submit these apprentices to tests of capacity. They also furnish the apprentices with legal advice and aid, and collect and publish all scientific information relating to apprentice welfare.

The apprentices for whom posts are found are supervised in collaboration with the industrial inspectors. The same principles are applied to persons desirous of a change of occupation, or entering wage-earning life for the first time.

In *Czechoslovakia* there are two vocational guidance centres. The Czech centre has its seat in Prague and 27 branches in various important industrial and commercial towns. Additional vocational guidance centres are to be gradually established in all the important provincial towns. The German centre in Reichenberg has 3 branches already, and will set up others before long.

The two vocational guidance centres are connected with the national and district Labour Exchanges. They receive many applications from large businesses, when these require salaried employees.

In *Estonia* there are a few towns, such as Tallinn and Tartu, in which vocational guidance centres have been set up by the municipalities.

In Copenhagen, *Denmark*, a psychotechnical institute was created four years ago, which receives grants from the state and from the Frederiksberg municipality of Copenhagen.

In *Germany* vocational guidance is expanding. During the period between 1st July, 1925 and 30th June, 1926 567 vocational guidance centres were in existence, which dealt with 222,361 cases, and obtained posts for 94,756 of their applicants. Psychotechnical tests of capacity are however only undertaken in the offices of large towns, and as a rule only in special cases.

Great Britain (T. U. C.) mention that the work of advising young workers up to the age of 18 on the choice of a career and of placing them in suitable employment is undertaken either by the Juvenile Department of the local Employment Exchange (usually with the help of a Juvenile Advisory Committee appointed by the Minister of Labour) or by the local Education Authority through a Juvenile Employment Bureau. Lectures are arranged for boys and girls about to leave school and visits to factories are made, information and advice about employment being given. In the report for 1927 it was estimated that in the Ministry of Labour areas (i. e. where the work is done by the Juvenile Dept. of the Employment Exchange) about one half of the boys and girls leaving school made use of the official arrangements in seeking their first job. The Advisory Committees have also made arrangements for following up the careers of these young workers. One committee has developed a scheme for drafting boys attending evening classes into apprenticeships at a suitable age. The Institute of Industrial Psychology was formed in 1921. Investigations into industrial organisation are carried out for firms. Amongst the subjects covered by these investigations are methods for the selection of appropriate employees. Tests for applicants are devised.

Vocational guidance is also given to young people about to start work. The Institute of Industrial Psychology is financed by voluntary donations and the fees received in re-

turn for services. The Juvenile Advisory Committees, of course, make no charge.

In *Holland* several municipalities have established Vocational Guidance Offices, to which psychotechnical offices are also in some cases attached.

In *Riga, Latvia*, the Municipality maintains a Psycho-technical Institute and a Centre for Vocational Guidance, to which many apprentices apply.

In *Sweden* it is only recently that extensive measures have been adopted for vocational guidance and Juvenile Employment Bureaux. As this question is the joint concern of schools and labour exchanges, there is cooperation between them. The function of the school is to call the attention of parents during the child's school life by lectures and otherwise to the importance of the selection of an occupation and to the factors which are of predominant importance. In *Stockholm* pamphlets are distributed among the teachers and pupils of the school-leaving class containing information as to the various trades and the opportunities of training for them. These pamphlets are studied and discussed during the ordinary school hours. Besides this, in every school there is one teacher whose business it is to give special attention to this question in order to supply aid and advice to the other teachers and to parents and to maintain relations with the municipal vocational school and the Labour Exchange. The pupils of the school-leaving class have to fill in forms for the use of the Labour Exchanges, to which the teachers then append their opinions as to the capacity of the child in question. This information is placed at the disposal of the Labour Exchange in order to be of use in determining the placing of the child.

In *Switzerland* there are already vocational guidance offices in the principal towns. These offices are usually a part of the local Labour Exchanges. At *Zürich* and *Geneva* there are also Psycho-technical Institutes which lend their aid to the vocational guidance offices of the various Swiss localities.

APPENDICES

The I. F. T. U. and the Youth Problems

(a) Youth Programme

Adopted by the Trade Union Committee of the I. F. T. U. for Youth and Educational Questions on the 12th and 13th June, 1928, and confirmed by the Executive of the I. F. T. U. in its Session of 23th and 24th July 1928.

The great majority of young people in European countries begin to earn their own living at 14 years of age, and frequently at a still earlier age. The years between 14 and 18 are an especially important period for the development of the human organism. Hence it is already generally recognised that the young worker is in need of more protection than the adult. This fact has however not yet pulled its full weight in the framing of legislation for the protection of the young.

Besides the biological reason already mentioned, there are other important facts which are in favour of the limitation of work for wages by young people. In our technical age every human being finds himself in an extremely complex environment: the cultural heritage which every man, especially the boy or girl, has to receive from his forbears and to assimilate has increased enormously, and increases from day to day. Hence it happens that the school years (8 at most) which fall to the lot of most young people are no longer adequate. The young person must be able to go on with his education after his 14th year, that is to say, after he has begun to earn his own living: and in some countries he is enabled to do this by attendance at continuation schools and vocational schools. The expenditure of energy which this necessitates must be made up to him by a reduction in the work which he is expected to do in the factory or workshop (shorter working hours).

Present methods of work are so intensively mechanised that they make far greater demands on the strength of the race than was formerly the case. As long as young persons are forced to earn their living at an age when their physical

and mental maturity is very far from being at its climax, special protective measures will be necessary to prevent their strength from being prematurely exhausted.

Legislative protection is also valuable as a check to the great preference shown by employers for young rather than adult workers. Special regulations dealing with working hours, intervals of rest, holidays, etc., diminish to some extent the attractiveness of the young workers' cheapness and willingness. And such legislation will also increase the parents' inclination to prolong the child's school life beyond 8 years.

The minimum demands for the protection of young workers, as already compiled by the I. F. T. U., the L. S. I. and the Socialist Youth International, provide a basis for the most necessary legislative measures in the near future. These minimum demands are as follows :

(1) Prohibition of all wage-earning work for children up to the completion of the 14th year ;

(2) Compulsory attendance at an elementary school until admission to wage-earning work ;

(3) Introduction of compulsory instruction (vocational) until the completion of the 18th year ;

(4) The extension up to the completion of the 18th year of protective legislation applicable to apprentices, and young workers (manual and non-manual) ;

(5) Establishment of a maximum 48-hour week, to include vocational instruction and the time required for clearing up ;

(6) A free Saturday half-day and a free Sunday ; if not Saturday, some other free half-day to be given during the week ;

(7) Prohibition of night-work for young workers ;

(8) A minimum three weeks of paid holiday for wage-earning young persons under 16 (inclusive of apprentices) and two weeks paid holidays for wage-earning young persons between 16 and 18 (inclusive of apprentices) ;

(9) Regulations providing for the welfare, unemployment relief and training of unemployed young workers ;

(10) The regulation of vocational training, in the organisation of which the trade unions shall be entitled to an equal share with those of the employers.

The application of the statutory provisions for the protection of youth should be supervised by a suitable section of the industrial inspectorate : it being compulsory on the employers to furnish lists of the young workers in their employ. Young workers must also be included in sickness, invalidity and accident insurance.

Like all social-political legislation, so legislation for the protection of young workers needs preparatory work by the trade unions. The more they succeed, for instance, in getting youth protection clauses inserted into collective agreements, the sooner will it be possible to achieve the fulfilment of our demands by legislation.

The trade unions must exert effective influence on the rates of wages paid to young workers. The apprentices especially are often inadequately paid. If the wages paid to apprentices were to be commensurate with the work done by them, their attractiveness in the eyes of employers would diminish. Efforts must therefore be made to adjust apprentices' wages to existing conditions either by legislative measures or by collective agreements. Adult workers should not merely interest themselves as parents in the proper payment of apprentices; they will also do so in order to prevent unfair competition and the artificial overcrowding of their trades. (This is also especially true in respect of young workers.)

All these facts go to prove the need for the working class in all lands to do more than in the past to influence public opinion on behalf of an increase in the protection of young workers, so as to prepare the ground for legislation. Collective agreements should, whenever possible, contain special clauses in favour of the working and holiday conditions for young workers and apprentices. Adult workers will recognise that in the interests of the whole of the working population it is necessary that young workers should enjoy special protection. Better living and working conditions for young people mean better opportunities for development for the next generations of the working class.

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No. 3 of the demands embodied in the above Minimum Programme, i. e. that for the establishment of compulsory vocational schools for young workers, is a particularly burning question at the present time. It should be made compulsory for all young workers who have attended elementary schools, unless they go on to other schools, to attend continuation schools up to 18 years of age. This must apply to agriculture also. The costs of the vocational continuation schools must be borne by the public (state or municipalities). Private factory or workshop schools may only be established if authorised by the State, and should be brought under state supervision. The working class must exert influence in the activities of these private factory or workshop schools in order to prevent their becoming instruments used by the em-

ployers in the class conflict against the organised workers. Continuation schools must be housed in buildings of their own, and must have special teaching staffs. The instruction must be given during working hours, and should be supplemented by training workshops. Instruction should be avoided in the evenings and on Sundays. Schools are to be subject to regular medical inspection. Trade unions must be given their due influence in the school administration. The employer must be made responsible for attendance at school, and the young worker must suffer no deduction of wages for the time spent in school. The costs of the schools must be met from public funds: contributions may also be levied from the employers. For young workers the school must be free of charge.

In order to facilitate the right choice of a vocation, vocational guidance centres must be promoted, which must take into account in their work the personal inclinations of the young person and also give special attention to the economic prospects of the vocation in question.

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In order to be able to take and promote measures for the protection and training of young workers, the trade unions should be in close contact with the young workers themselves. The organisation in the trade unions of young workers and apprentices is therefore a necessity. Clauses in trade union rules which are contrary to this should be adjusted to meet it. Not only must the interests of young workers be defended, they themselves must also be introduced to the principles of the Socialist working class, and prepared for practical trade union work. This work of educating the rising generation of trade unionists can be best done outside the general trade union meetings. If there are no special youth groups and youth institutions in the trade unions, the aid of the Socialist Youth Associations should be sought. A good understanding and friendly cooperation with these latter are recommended.

Happily, the present generation of young workers shows very keen interest in sports: and these activities enable them to avoid the many forms of prejudice to mind and body which result from spending time in public houses, dancing halls etc. It is the task of the trade unions to see that such sporting activities are carried on within the framework of the Labour Movement.

The organisational measures of the trade unions on behalf of young workers must be adjusted to the conditions prevailing at the time in the individual country : and, as has already been stated in the international programme for the protection of young workers, the latter is only the basis for the demands to be made and the steps to be taken nationally. There should however be a universal recognition in all the organisations that the interests both of the young workers and of the whole of the organised working class make it necessary that there shall be intensified activity on behalf of the rising generation.

(b) Workers' Education

Resolutions of the International Trade Union Committee for Youth and Educational Questions adopted in its session of the 25th and 26th June, 1929, and approved, with certain alterations, by the Executive Committee of the International Federation of Trade Unions, at its meeting of the 24th and 25th September, 1929.

I. Trade Union Educational Work.

The preliminary condition for all workers' education is an adequate general education. Hence the Protection of Youth Programme of the I. F. T. U. contains a demand for compulsory elementary school attendance at least up to the end of the 14th year (at least 8 years). Introduction of compulsory attendance at continuation schools (trade schools) for all young persons up to the end of the 18th year. The instruction must be given within working hours. The trade unions must be secured due influence in the school education.

To promote workers' education, it is urgently necessary that the national trade union centres of all countries shall insist upon the fulfilment of these demands.

Besides promoting general education among the workers (as do many of the workers' educational centres), there must also be special training for the specific duties of trade unions. As the work of the trade union representatives largely promotes public welfare and the interests of the community (for instance, trade union activity on works' councils, industrial courts, Labour Exchanges, trade boards, commissions of enquiry, factory inspection, factory legislation etc.), public funds should be claimed for the furtherance of trade union education in such subjects. Trade unions must be given due influence in determining the lines of the education provided by any measures for training their representatives which have not been taken by themselves. National centres must be urged

to send in annual reports to the I.F.T.U. concerning the nature and extent of trade union educational work.

It is desirable that questions of trade union educational work should from time to time be placed on the agenda of General Council Meetings of the I.F.T.U.

In order to secure more unity of opinion in trade union problems, it is desirable that the curricula arranged by the trade unions for their schools and their syllabus of lectures and similar material should be distributed by the I.F.T.U. to all the national centres in one of the three principal languages.

Should there be resident labour colleges (which can do valuable work as educational training centres), foreign trade unions should be permitted to send students to these.

II. *International Trade Union Weeks for Younger Trade Union Members.*

- (1) "International Trade Union Weeks" shall be organised from time to time by the I.F.T.U., according as the Executive shall decide.
- (2) Only such persons shall be admitted as are sent by the national centres or international trade secretariats at the expense of these organisations. The national centre or International Trade Secretariat may, if it so desires, get its expenditure refunded by the student's trade union.
- (3) To begin with, no "week" shall be longer than 7 days, and the "weeks" shall be held each year in a different country. All students shall be lodged in the same building.
- (4) The object of the institution shall be to bring into touch with each other the rising generation of the trade union movements of the various countries, and to facilitate the interchange of ideas. The time shall be filled with discussions of current trade union questions, there being no formal lectures on theoretical subjects. Some of the subjects of discussion shall be announced beforehand, in order that students may be able to prepare themselves in advance. As far as possible, the students shall themselves introduce (i. e. deliver introductory addresses) on the subjects to be discussed.
- (5) The chief language, shall be the language of the country in which the "week" is held, only summarised translations into other languages being permissible. Students must already have a certain degree of knowledge of the language in question.

- (6) The discussions shall not take up the whole of the time available: suitable facilities shall also be provided for the study of the economic and cultural conditions of the country in which the "week" is held.

III. International Training of Younger Trade Union Employees

In the interests of the better training of younger trade union officials it is recommended that opportunities be provided for such persons to make acquaintance with the language and trade union movement of other countries by practical work in the national centres or trade unions. As far as possible, this should be done by means of an exchange of younger trade union employees for a period of several months.

It is expected that those of the national centres and International Trade Secretariats which can do so shall assist organisations which are financially weak in every possible way.

Appendix II

Extracts from the Decisions of the International Labour Conferences of Washington 1919, Genoa 1920, and Geneva 1921

Conference of Washington (1919)

Draft Convention fixing the Minimum Age for Admission of Children to Industrial Employment.

Article 1.

(Enumerates the establishments included by the term "industrial undertaking.")

Article 2.

Children under the age of fourteen years shall not be employed or work in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof, other than an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed.

Article 3.

The provisions of Article 2 shall not apply to work done by children in technical schools, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

Article 4.

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every employer in an industrial undertaking shall be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of sixteen years, employed by him, and of the dates of their births.

Article 8.

Each member of the International Labour Organisation which ratifies this Convention engages to apply it to its colonies, protectorates, and possessions which are not fully self-governing :

- a) Except where owing to the local conditions its provisions are inapplicable ; or

- b) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt its provisions to local conditions.

Article 11.

Each member which ratifies this Convention agrees to bring its provisions into operation not later than July 1st, 1922, and to take such action as may be necessary to make these provisions effective.

Article 13.

At least once in ten years, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office shall present to the General Conference a report on the working of this Convention, and shall consider the desirability of placing on the agenda of the Conference the question of its revision or modification.

Draft Convention concerning the Night Work of Young Persons Employed in Industry.

Article 1.

(Enumerates the establishments included by the term "industrial undertaking.")

Article 2.

Young persons under eighteen years of age shall not be employed during the night in any public or private industrial undertaking, or in any branch thereof other than an undertaking in which only members of the same family are employed, except as hereinafter provided for.

Young persons over the age of sixteen may be employed during the night in the following industrial undertakings on work which by reason of the nature of the process, is required to be carried on continuously day and night :

- a) Manufacture of iron and steel ; processes in which reverberatory or regenerative furnaces are used, and galvanizing of sheet metal or wire (except the pickling process) ;
- b) Glass works ;
- c) Manufacture of paper ;
- d) Manufacture of raw sugar ;
- e) Gold mining reduction work.

Article 3.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "night" signifies a period of at least eleven consecutive hours, including the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning. In coal and lignite mines work may be carried on in the interval between ten o'clock in the even-

ing and five o'clock in the morning, if an interval of ordinarily fifteen hours, and in no case of less than thirteen hours, separates two periods of work.

Where night work in the baking industry is prohibited for all workers, the interval between nine o'clock in the evening and four o'clock in the morning may be substituted in the baking industry for the interval between ten o'clock in the evening and five o'clock in the morning.

In those tropical countries in which work is suspended during the middle of the day, the night period may be shorter than eleven hours if compensatory rest is accorded during the day.

Article 4.

The provisions of Articles 2 and 3 shall not apply to the night work of young persons between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years in cases of emergencies which could not have been controlled or foreseen, which are not of a periodical character, and which interfere with the normal working of the industrial undertaking.

Article 7.

The prohibition of night work may be suspended by the Government for young persons between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years, when in case of serious emergency the public interest demands it.

(Articles 9, 12 and 14 correspond to articles 8, 11 and 13 of the preceding Convention.)

Recommendation concerning the Protection of Women and Children against Lead Poisoning.

The General Conference recommends to the members of the International Labour Organisation that in view of the danger involved to the function of maternity and to the physical development of children, *women and young persons under the age of eighteen years be excluded from employment in the following processes :*

- a) in furnace work in the reduction of zinc or lead ores ;
- b) in the manipulation, treatment, or reduction of ashes containing lead and in the desilverizing of lead ;
- c) in melting lead or old zinc on a large scale ;
- d) in the manufacture of solder or alloys containing more than ten per cent of lead ;
- e) in the manufacture of litharge, massicot, red lead, white lead, orange lead, or sulphate, chromate or silicate (frit) of lead ;

- f) in mixing and pasting in the manufacture or repair of electric accumulators ;
- g) in the cleaning of work rooms where the above processes are carried on.

It is further recommended that the employment of women and young persons under the age of eighteen years in processes involving the use of lead compounds be permitted only subject to the following conditions :

- a) Locally applied exhaust ventilation, so as to remove dust and fumes at the point of origin ;
- b) Cleanliness of tools and workrooms ;
- c) Notification to Government authorities of all cases of lead poisoning, and compensation therefor ;
- d) Periodic medical examination of the persons employed in such processes ;
- e) Provision of sufficient and suitable cloakroom, washing, and mess-room accommodation, and special protective clothing ;
- f) Prohibition of bringing food or drink into workrooms.

It is further recommended that in industries where soluble lead compounds can be replaced by non-toxic substances, the use of soluble lead compounds should be strictly regulated.

Conference of Genoa (1920)

Draft Convention Fixing the Minimum Age for Admission of Children to Employment at Sea.

Article 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "vessel" includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned ; it excludes ships of war.

Article 2.

Children under the age of fourteen years shall not be employed or work on vessels, other than vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed.

Article 3.

The provisions of article 2 shall not apply to work done by children on school-ships or training ships, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

Article 4.

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every shipmaster shall be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of sixteen years employed on board his vessel, or a list of them in the articles of agreement, and of the dates of their births.

(Articles 5, 9 and 11 correspond to articles 8, 11 and 13 of the Draft Convention concerning admission of children to industrial employment.)

Conference of Geneva (1921)

Draft Convention concerning Age the for Admission of Children to Employment in Agriculture.

Article 1.

Children under the age of fourteen years may not be employed or work in any public or private agricultural undertaking, or in any branch thereof, save outside the hours fixed for school attendance. If they are employed outside the hours of school attendance, the employment shall not be such as to prejudice their attendance at school.

Article 2.

For purposes of practical vocational instruction the periods and the hours of school attendance may be so arranged as to permit the employment of children on light agricultural work and in particular on light work connected with the harvest, provided that such employment shall not reduce the total annual period of school attendance to less than eight months.

Article 3.

The provisions of Article 1 shall not apply to work done by children in technical schools, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority.

Article 7.

Subject to the provisions of Article 5, each member which ratifies this Convention, agrees to bring the provisions of Articles 1, 2 and 3 into operation, not later than January 1st 1924 and to take such action as may be necessary to make these provisions effective.

(Articles 8 and 10 correspond to articles 8 and 13 of the Convention concerning admission of children to industrial employment.)

Draft Convention Fixing the Minimum Age for the Admission of Young Persons to Employment as Trimmers or Stokers.

Article 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "vessel" includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned ; it excludes ships of war.

Article 2.

Young persons under the age of eighteen years shall not be employed or work on vessels as trimmers or stokers.

Article 3.

The provisions of Article 2 shall not apply :

- a) to work done by young persons on school-ships or training-ships, provided that such work is approved and supervised by public authority ;
- b) to the employment of young persons on vessels mainly propelled by other means than steam ;
- c) to young persons of not less than sixteen years of age, who, if found physically fit after medical examination, may be employed as trimmers or stokers on vessels exclusively engaged in the coastal trade of India and of Japan, subject to regulations made after consultation with the most representative organisations of employers and workers in those countries.

Article 4.

When a trimmer or stoker is required in a port where young persons of less than eighteen years of age only are available, such young persons may be employed and in that case it shall be necessary to engage two young persons in place of the trimmer or stoker required. Such young persons shall be at least sixteen years of age.

Article 5.

In order to facilitate the enforcement of the provisions of this Convention, every shipmaster shall be required to keep a register of all persons under the age of eighteen years employed on board his vessel, or a list of them in the articles of agreement, and of the dates of their births.

Article 6.

Articles of agreement shall contain a brief summary of the provisions of this Convention.

Article 10.

Subject to the provisions of Article 8, each member which ratifies the Convention agrees to bring the provisions of Articles 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 into operation not later than January 1st 1924 and to take such action as may be necessary to make these provisions effective.

(Articles 11 and 13 correspond to Articles 8 and 13 of the Convention concerning admission of children to industrial employment.)

Draft Convention Concerning the Compulsory Medical Examination of Children and Young Persons Employed At Sea.

Article 1.

For the purpose of this Convention, the term "vessel" includes all ships and boats, of any nature whatsoever, engaged in maritime navigation, whether publicly or privately owned ; it excludes ships of war.

Article 2.

The employment of any child or young person under eighteen years of age on any vessel, other than vessels upon which only members of the same family are employed, shall be conditional on the production of a medical certificate attesting fitness for such work, signed by a doctor who shall be approved by the competent authority.

Article 3.

The continued employment at sea of any such child or young person shall be subject to the repetition of such medical examination at intervals of not more than one year, and the production, after each such examination, of a further medical certificate attesting fitness for such work. Should a medical certificate expire in the course of a voyage, it shall remain in force until the end of the said voyage.

Article 4.

In urgent cases, the competent authority may allow a young person below the age of eighteen years to embark without having undergone the examination provided for in Articles 2 and 3 of this Convention, always provided that such an examination shall be undergone at the first port at which the vessel calls.

Article 8.

Subject to the provisions of Article 6, each member which ratifies this Convention agrees to bring the provisions of Article 1, 2, 3 and 4 into operation not later than January 1st 1924 and to take such action as may be necessary to make these provisions effective.

(Articles 9 and 11 correspond to Articles 8 and 13 of the Convention concerning the admission of children to industrial employment.)

Recommendation concerning Night Work of Children and Young Persons in Agriculture.

The general Conference of the International Labour Organisation recommends :

I.

That each member of the International Labour Organisation take steps to regulate the employment of children under the age of fourteen years in agricultural undertakings during the night, in such a way as to ensure to them a period of rest compatible with their physical necessities and consisting of not less than ten consecutive hours.

II.

That each member of the International Labour Organisation take steps to regulate the employment of young persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years in agricultural undertakings during the night, in such a way as to ensure to them a period of rest compatible with their physical necessities and consisting of not less than nine consecutive hours.

Appendix III

**Ratification of Conventions Relating to
Young Workers**

(June, 1930)

Convention	Date of Coming into Force	Ratified by the Following Countries
1. <i>Minimum age (industry)</i>	13 June, 1921	Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Esthonia, Great Britain, Greece, Irish Free State, Japan, Latvia, Luxemburg, Holland, Poland, Roumania, Switzerland, Yugoslavia. Total 18.
2. <i>Night work Young Persons</i>	13 June, 1921	Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, Cuba, Denmark, Esthonia, France, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, India, Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Poland, Roumania, Switzerland, Yugoslavia. Total 21.
3. <i>Minimum age (sea)</i>	27 Sept., 1921	Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Cuba, Denmark, Esthonia, Finland, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Irish Free State, Japan, Latvia, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Roumania, Spain, Sweden, Yugoslavia. Total 22.
4. <i>Minimum age (agriculture)</i>	31 Aug., 1923	Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Esthonia, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Japan, Luxemburg, Poland, Sweden. Total 12.
5. <i>Minimum age (trimmers and stokers)</i>	20 Nov. 1922	Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Cuba, Denmark, Esthonia, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, India, Italy, Latvia, Luxemburg, Norway, Poland, Roumania, Sweden, Spain, Yugoslavia. Total 21.

Convention	Date of Coming into Force	Ratified by the Following Countries
6. <i>Medical examination young persons (sea)</i>	20 Nov., 1922	Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Cuba, Esthonia, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, India, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Poland, Roumania, Sweden, Spain, Yugoslavia. Total 21.

The total number of states affiliated with the International Labour Office is 55.

* *

The Governing Body of the I. L. O. decided at its session of February, 1930, to place on the agenda of the International Labour Conference of 1930 the following item: "The Age of Admission of Children to Work in Non-industrial Occupations."

Germany

Most Important Provisions of the Vocational Training Bill

Chapter I.

Scope

§ 1.

Young Persons.

(1) The employment of young persons as workers or salaried employees (young workers, young salaried employees) or for the purpose of vocational training (apprentices) shall be regulated by the provisions of this law.

(2) The term "young person" as used in the present law shall denote a person over 14, but under 18 years of age. Under the same category shall be placed boys and girls under 14, who are no longer under compulsion to attend an elementary school, and apprentices over 18, if the term of apprenticeship upon which they have entered is not yet at an end.

§ 2.

Exceptions.

The law shall not apply to :

(1) Workers, salaried employees or apprentices in agriculture or to other persons engaged in agriculture, persons engaged in enterprises allied to agriculture, (unless such enterprises are represented legally by some other occupational association than a Chamber of Agriculture), or persons engaged in domestic service or housekeeping on farms.

(2) Young persons employed as workers or salaried employees by their parents.

(3) Young persons who are candidates for employment in public services.

(4) Probationers in chemists' shops.

(5) Young persons residing in welfare or educational establishments or being found employment for the express purpose of healing or strengthening their bodies, or for some religious, scientific or artistic reason, provided that their employment is not primarily intended for the purpose of earning their livelihood or of training for some occupation.

§ 3.

Government Undertakings, Navigation, Timber-floating, Mining, Domestic Service.

(1) Unless the national government has decreed otherwise, the provisions of the present law shall apply to national undertakings and services, and to undertakings, services, bodies and institutions under the supervision of the national government.

(2) The same shall apply to undertakings of sea and inland navigation, timber-floating, mining and domestic service. So long as the national government makes no use of its powers, the chief provincial⁽¹⁾ authorities, in agreement with the national government, may issue ordinances for mining and domestic service under (1).

(3) In so far as this law applies to the undertakings and services specified in (1) and (2), the powers conferred by this law upon the chief provincial authorities shall pertain to the national government, provided that the chief provincial authorities have issued ordinances for mining or domestic service in conformity with (2).

§ 4.

Provincial Undertakings.

Unless the competent provincial government has decreed otherwise, the provisions of the present law shall apply to provincial undertakings and services and to undertakings, services, bodies and institutions which come under the supervision of a province.

§ 5.

Extension of Sphere of Application.

(1) The chief provincial authority may declare the provisions of this law applicable and may proceed to issue the requisite ordinances, for persons who

(¹) The terms "provincial" and "province", as used in the translation of this Act, refer to the federal states which combine to form the German "Reich". The terms "provincial" and "province" have been selected for the sake of simplification and to avoid confusion with the more general significance of the term "state". (Translator's note.)

1. Are not engaged as workers or salaried employees or for purposes of vocational training, but are working outside their parents' business, in order to acquire individual knowledge, skill or dexterity, either in order to met their own needs or to prepare for or supplement attendance at school or college.
2. Are engaged in vocational training by way of exception after the completion of the 18th year.
3. Are engaged in work, although limited in their earning capacity by physical or mental defects, and residing in institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, or lame, or in reformatories, workhouses or benevolent institutions or similar establishments, if the young persons belong to the category specified in § 2, No. 5.

(2) If the institutions specified in (1) No. 3 are managed or supervised by the National Government, the power of issuing ordinances shall pertain to the national government, instead of to the chief provincial authorities.

Chapter II.

General Provisions

§ 6.

Ineligibility for the Employment and Training of Young Persons.

Any person not in possession of civil rights may neither employ nor undertake the vocational training of young persons.

§ 7.

Official Prohibition of the Employment and Training of Young Persons.

(1) The employment and vocational training of young persons shall be prohibited for any person who has been guilty of gross dereliction of duty towards young persons employed by him, or of whom facts are known which obviously render him morally unsuitable.

(2) Any person who is unsuitable on account of physical or mental disease shall be prohibited from undertaking the vocational training of young persons.

(3) The prohibition shall be issued by lower-grade administrative authorities and communicated to the statutory occupational association. Appeal against such prohibition may be made by the usual procedure for the settlement of administrative disputes.

(4) A prohibition issued in conformity with (3), clause 2, and against which no further appeal is made, shall remain in force for three years after the date of issue.

§ 8.

Limitation of Number of Young Persons Employed in an Occupation.

(1) The national government may, with the approval of the National Council and after consultation of the National Economic Council, issue ordinances determining the maximum number of young persons to be employed in the individual undertakings of specific occupations or groups of occupations.

(This power may, with the consent of the Government, devolve upon the chief provincial authorities.)

§ 9.

Limitation of Number of Young Persons Employed in an Undertaking.

(1) If an employer or master employs so many young persons that he can no longer fulfil the duties imposed upon him by law, ordinance of the statutory occupational association or agreement, the lower grade administrative authorities may order him to dismiss a corresponding number of the young persons in question and may forbid him to employ more than a specific number of young persons.

(As in the previous case of complete prohibition, appeal may be made against such order.)

§ 10.

Representative of Employer or Master.

If he does not discharge personally the duties imposed upon him by the law, the employer or master may depute them, but only to some suitable person specially appointed for the purpose,

§ 11.

Duties of Employer or Master, and of the Young Person.

(1) The employer or master shall, in collaboration with his statutory representative, bring up the young person to industry and good conduct and see that he keeps in good health and is protected from moral dangers. He shall supervise the young person in his work, and allot him only such work as is suitable for his strength. He shall also protect him from ill-treatment or abusive language from his companions either in the workshop or the household.

(2) If the young person forms one of the household of the employer or master, the latter shall provide him with suitable, hygienic and clean accommodation and with a sufficiency of food.

(3) It shall be the duty of the young person to be obedient and loyal, industrious and of decent conduct. If he forms one of the household of his employer or master, he shall adapt himself to the ways of the household.

§ 12.

School, Religion, Youth Welfare.

(1) The employer or master shall see that the young person attends the vocational or continuation school provided under the law, or any school which may be recognised as a substitute for such school, or attendance at which is ordered by the statutory occupational association or some other body empowered to issue such order.

(2) If attendance at school is compulsory by law, the employer or master shall not make any deduction from the wages of the young person for the time spent either in attending school or in going to and fro.

(3) The young person shall be allowed time outside his working hours for other training or education, for attendance at religious services on Sundays or on religious festivals, and for taking part in arrangements made by institutions promoting the welfare of youth or by a Youth Movement.

Chapter III.

Apprentices

Section I.

Apprenticeship Enterprises

§ 13.

Employment in Apprenticeship Undertakings.

Apprentices may only be employed in undertakings provided that such undertakings are in their nature and scope suitable for vocational training, and that the head of the undertaking or his representative (§ 10) shall be at least 24 years of age and sufficiently well qualified in his calling to impart to the apprentice the requisite knowledge and the customary skill and dexterity in the exercise of this calling.

Section 2.
Apprentices' Indentures

§ 19.

Conditions for Appointment as Apprentice.

(1) Only such person may be appointed apprentice who is physically and mentally fitted for the calling and possesses the necessary school education.

(2) Statutory occupational associations may make further regulations, such as medical examinations and tests of capacity for specific occupations, the last-named being undertaken in agreement with the public vocational guidance offices. The regulations in question shall be approved by the chief provincial authorities.

§ 20.

Period of Apprenticeship.

(1) The period of apprenticeship shall be determined by order issued by one of the statutory occupational associations provided for elsewhere in this Act or, failing such, by free agreement: and except when otherwise decreed in virtue of (2), it shall not exceed a maximum of 4 years.

(2) Should the vocational training of an apprentice be interrupted for some considerable time on account of some personal reason, the statutory occupational association may make admission to the Journeymen's Examination conditional upon the lengthening of the period of apprenticeship by a maximum of 6 months.

§ 21.

Special Duties of Masters.

(1) The master shall so train the apprentice in his calling as to enable him to acquire the knowledge needed for the exercise of this calling and the customary skill and dexterity. If journeymen's examinations (for trained or skilled workers) are held, the degree of ability fixed in the rules for the examination shall be deemed to be adequate for vocational training.

(2) Unless apprenticed for training in household work, the apprentice shall only occasionally be employed in doing work in the household of the master, and if he is so employed, it shall only be for such work as is laid down in the indentures and is not prejudicial to the object of the apprenticeship.

§ 22.

Special Duties of Apprentices : Duties of Legal Representatives.

(1) The apprentice shall do all in his power to attain the object of his apprenticeship.

(2) The legal representative shall see that the apprentice fulfils his duties as laid down by the law and his indentures : he shall co-operate with the master in the education of the apprentice and do everything to fulfil the apprentice indentures and attain the object of the apprenticeship.

§ 23.

Conclusion of Apprenticeship Indentures.

(1) The apprenticeship indentures shall be laid down in writing within 4 weeks from the beginning of the apprenticeship. The indenture shall be signed by the head of the undertaking or his representative and by the apprentice and his representative. A copy of the indenture shall be handed to the legal representative of the apprentice.

(2) The apprenticeship indenture shall be free of stamp duty.

(3) The provisions of (1) shall not apply when a young person is apprenticed to his parents. The statutory occupational association may order that a written notice of such apprenticeship shall be submitted to it.

§ 24.

Contents of Indenture.

(1) Agreements may be made as to the contents of the indenture provided that there are no compulsory provisions in national law to prevent this, and that no regulations exist in virtue of this or some other national law, which expressly preclude such agreements. No regulations, however, may preclude agreements between the parties to the individual indenture, should these contain some modification of working conditions which is favourable to the apprentice.

(2) If one part of the apprenticeship indenture becomes invalid, the remainder shall continue to be in force, unless there is ground for believing that the agreement would not have been concluded without the part that has become invalid.

§ 25.

Contents of the Written Apprenticeship Indenture.

The written apprenticeship agreement shall contain :

(1) The description of the calling in which the apprentice is to be trained. The statutory occupational association may

order that, for specific occupations, groups of occupations or undertakings, the exact description of the occupation need not be indicated during the first half-year of the apprenticeship.

(2) The period of the apprenticeship.

(3) An enumeration of the functions to be discharged by each party.

(4) The legal conditions under which the indenture may be cancelled by either of the parties to it.

§ 26.

Period of Probation.

(1) The first 4 weeks after the commencement of the apprenticeship shall be a period of probation. The period of probation may by means of the indenture be extended to 3 months; should any agreement provide for a period of probation in excess of 3 months, it shall be invalid.

(2) During the period of probation the apprenticeship may be broken off without notice. If notice be given during the period of probation, the other party shall not be entitled to compensation. Any agreements made to the contrary shall be invalid.

§ 27.

Notice for Important Reasons.

After the expiry of the period of probation, the apprenticeship may be terminated without notice, provided there be some weighty reason for doing so. Notice may only be given within a period of 4 weeks after the person to whom notice is due has been informed of the reasons for the termination of the apprenticeship.

§ 28.

Written Form of Notice.

Notice to terminate the apprenticeship, as provided for by §§ 26 and 27, shall be sent in to the other party in writing.

§ 29.

Measures for the Welfare of a Prematurely Dismissed Apprentice.

(1) If during the period of probation or for some weighty reason the master terminates the indentures, he shall, if the apprentice has been a member of his household and if the person responsible for the apprentice lives in another place, provide for the board and lodging of the apprentice for one week after the termination of the apprenticeship, or give him

the money required for his journey to the place of abode of the person responsible for him.

(2) No liability to do this shall be incurred if the person responsible for the apprentice has made other arrangements or if a period of a week intervenes between the notice and the dismissal.

(3) The master shall be entitled to a refund of his expenditure.

Chapter V.

Application of the Act

§ 67.

Application through the Legal Occupational Associations.

(1) Unless otherwise decreed, the responsibility for the application of this Act shall devolve upon the occupational associations.

(2) Before the administrative authorities issue ordinances in virtue of this Act, they shall give the legal occupational associations an opportunity to express their opinion.

§ 68.

Statutory Occupational Associations.

(1) The statutory occupational associations are the Chambers of Craftsmanship and the Chambers of Commerce (Chambers of Industry and Commerce). If in addition to the Chambers of Commerce, there be special bodies, existing in virtue of provincial law, to represent industrial interests (Chambers of Industry, Chambers of Labour and the like), the chief provincial authorities may declare these to be the statutory occupational associations in the sense of the Act, instead of the Chambers of Commerce. The statutory occupational associations shall be competent to deal with all the young persons employed in the enterprises falling within their sphere.

(2) If none of the statutory occupational associations specified in (1) be competent for occupations, branches of occupations, groups of occupations, or specific kinds of occupations, the chief provincial authorities, in agreement with the national government, shall after consultation of the economic associations of the persons concerned, issue ordinances for the application of this Act on the basis of the autonomy of the persons concerned and the equality of status of the employers or masters with the workers: they may, for instance, author-

ise bodies or associations to apply the present Act and may confer or impose upon them, wholly or in part, the powers and duties which the present Act confers or imposes upon the statutory occupational associations.

§ 69.

Mixed Committees.

(1) Unless otherwise decreed, the statutory occupational associations shall discharge the duties and exercise the powers imposed or conferred upon them by the present Act on the basis and within the limits of the decisions of special Committees.

(2) These Committees shall consist of employers or masters and of workers of the occupation, in equal numbers and with equal voting rights. Members of these Committees shall not be under 24 years of age. Two-thirds of the employer members of the Committees shall be heads of enterprises, who have employed apprentices for at least 5 years, or their representatives, provided that the latter have been training apprentices in the occupation for at least 5 years: two-thirds of the worker members of the Committees shall be persons who have been employed in the occupation for at least 5 years: the last third of the Committee shall be representatives of the economic associations of the employers and workers, and craft unions of the employers as employers and of the workers, even although they do not fulfil the above condition.

(3) Substitutes shall be appointed for all the members of the Committee, who shall fulfil the same statutory conditions.

(4) In the Committees set up by the Chambers of Craftsmanship, two-thirds of the employer members shall, unless otherwise decreed in the provisions specified under (2), have passed the Masters' Examination, and two-thirds of the worker members shall have passed the Journeymen's Examination (that for assistants or skilled workers).

(5) The Committees shall determine their own Standing Orders by resolution. These Standing Orders may provide for the creation of Sub-Committees, to whom the Committees may, either wholly or in part, depute their powers.

§ 70.

Appointment of Committees.

(1) The Committee members shall be appointed by the higher-grade authorities on the basis of proposals: the employers or masters being proposed by the occupational associations, and the workers by their economic associations. The

chief provincial authorities may order that, besides the statutory occupational associations, the craft unions of the employers shall be eligible to make proposals : where there are statutory occupational associations of the workers, they may order that the workers shall be proposed by these. If there are several proposals by workers' associations, the higher-grade administrative authorities shall select the workers' representatives proposed by the associations with the largest memberships in the district in question, just account being taken of minorities.

(2) Other ordinances relating to the number, appointment and duration of office etc. of the Committee members shall be issued by the chief provincial authorities. Committee members who have been appointed by proposal as members of statutory occupational associations, bodies or unions shall resign before the expiration of the normal period of office, if their membership in the district has dwindled away.

(The Bill also contains special provisions for craftsmen's enterprises, regulations for the examination system, and penal clauses.)

United States

(1) The Child Labor Amendment to the Constitution

Although in most American States there are statutory regulations for the protection of children and young workers, these are not as a rule considered very satisfactory.

In order to secure uniformity in the regulations of all the States, attempts have twice been made to pass Federal Laws. Both laws were, however, declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court.

The first Federal Child Labor Law, enacted on September 1st, 1916, prohibited the shipment in interstate and foreign commerce of goods produced in mines or quarries in which children under 16 years of age were employed, or in mills, canneries, workshops, factories, or manufacturing establishments in which children under 14 years of age were employed, or in which children 14 to 16 years of age worked more than eight hours a day, or six days a week, or between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m.

The second Federal Child Labor Law, included in the Revenue Act of February 24th, 1919, imposed a tax upon the profits of all mines and manufacturing establishments employing children in violation of the above standards.

The proposed Child Labor Amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

The 68th Congress in 1924 then passed by a vote of 297 to 69 in the House of Representatives and 67 to 23 in the Senate, the following joint resolution :

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of each House concurring therein). That the following article is proposed as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several states, shall be valid to all intents and purposes as a part of the Constitution :

Section 1. The Congress shall have power to limit, regulate and prohibit the labor of persons under eighteen years of age.

Section 2. The power of the several states is unimpaired by this article except that the operation of state laws shall be suspended to the extent necessary to give effect to legislation enacted by the Congress.

When this amendment was brought before the states for ratification a tremendous campaign of opposition was launched, one of the chief antagonists being the National Association of Manufacturers. To date only 5 states have ratified: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Montana and Wisconsin. Ratification by 36 states is necessary for the amendment to become part of the Constitution.

During the year 1929 resolutions for the ratification of the federal child labor amendment were introduced in nine states. These were defeated or failed of action in every case except in Nebraska, where the Senate voted for ratification but the House indefinitely postponed action.

In view of the great exploitation of children in the United States, the *American Federation of Labor* carries on, year in year out, a powerful agitation for the legal protection of young workers, and in particular, on behalf of the above-named *Child Labor Amendment*: in its Report of the forty-ninth Annual Convention held at Toronto, October, 1929, it expresses its interest in this question in the following terms:

"The American Federation of Labor reiterates again its stand against child labor and for the child labor amendment, a stand in which it has never weakened. It is urged that every national and international union, state federation of labor, city central body and local union pledge itself to ardent and active support of this measure and to sincere work in state legislatures to the end that the exploitation of children in industry may cease. Let us engage in an aggressive and persistent crusade to rouse the conscience of America against the evil of child exploitation and to obtain justice for the protection not only of the children but of the nation itself."

(2) Extract from William Green's Pamphlet on Child Labor

**Published in 1926, by the Workers' Education Bureau
of America**

Over 1,000,000 children from 10 to 16 years of age are working in the United States in factories, mills, mines, canneries, agriculture and other occupations. Nearly 400,000 of

them are less than 14 years of age. More than 400,000 of the million children at work between 10 and 15 are in non-agricultural occupations. The figures are from the 1920 census, taken at a time when a Federal Child Labor Law was in force. It is certain that since this law was declared unconstitutional the number has greatly increased. These figures expressly do not include "children who work for their parents at home merely at general housework or chores, or at odd times at other work".

The evil effects of child labor on the child are threefold his physical development is retarded, he is not permitted to play, and he is deprived of the opportunity to acquire an education.

That child labor stunts the growth of the child has been shown both in England and in the United States. The child is more susceptible to accidents because of his irresponsibility and his carelessness. He is also more susceptible to poisonous and injurious gases than the adult. Play, which has been looked upon as a luxury, is an essential part of the growth and development of the child, according to psychologists. Factory life that deprives children of the opportunity to play stunts their natures; they become either dullards and weaklings or develop criminal tendencies. A superintendent of a boys' reformatory was asked what proportion of his boys were school boys and what working boys. His reply was that he could not answer, for the school boy was such a rare exception.

The child laborer is compelled to go through life with an inferior education and generally remains an unskilled laborer for the rest of his life. The record of the United States as to illiteracy compares unfavorably with that of other civilized countries. The United States ranks tenth among the advanced nations of the world. Six out of every hundred people are unable to read or write, according to the figures of the National Education Association.

Today nearly every civilized western nation has made legislative provisions to give its children a minimum protection against exploitation. Twelve countries have at least the 14-year minimum. The United States has no national standard.

(2) Why Are the State Laws Inadequate ?

The two national child labor laws which were in effect for thirty-five months between 1917 and 1922 set the following standard: A 14-year age limit for factories and canneries. A 16-year age limit for mines and quarries. Prohibition of night work, and an 8-hour day for children under 16.

Today only 13 States meet this standard. Many of the State laws that apparently give protection to the children are so full of exceptions that they are almost worthless. Nine States have no laws prohibiting all children under 14 from working in both factories and stores.

Twenty-three States, with a 14-year minimum age limit, have weakened their laws by permitting exemptions under which children not yet 14 may work.

Thirty-seven States allow children to go to work without a common school education.

While 21 States require a physical examination for children under 16 intending to enter certain gainful employments, 1 State allows exemptions, 19 States have no physical examination and 7 States leave it optional with the certification officers.

Eleven States allow children under 16 to work from 9 to 11 hours a day; 1 State does not regulate in any way the daily hours of labor of children.

Five States have no prohibition of night work for children under 16.

Nineteen States have no laws prohibiting children under 16 from working at dangerous machinery.

Thirty-six States have no laws prohibiting children from 14 to 16 from working on railroads.

Seventeen States have no laws prohibiting children 14 to 16 from oiling, wiping or cleaning machinery while in motion. Thirty-six States have no laws prohibiting children 16 to 18 from this hazardous occupation.

Thirty-seven States have no laws prohibiting children from 14 to 16 from heavy work in the building trades, scaffolding, etc.

Twenty-one States have no laws prohibiting children 14 to 16 from working in and around poisons, acids, dyes, gases, dust, lead, etc.

Twenty-five States have no laws prohibiting boys 14 to 16 from running elevators.

Twenty-four States have no laws prohibiting children 14 to 16 from adjusting belts to machinery.

Thirty States have no laws prohibiting children, 14 to 16, from working around explosives.

(3) Why Is a National Law Needed?

Because this is the only way in which the child labor problem in the United States can effectively be handled. To give an example of how the State laws are abused: Manu-

facturers in New York send work across the Hudson River to Jersey City and Newark, where children in tenements are employed. This is a violation of the laws of both New York and New Jersey, but the New Jersey authorities cannot prosecute these manufacturers, because they are in New York. And the New York authorities are powerless because the work is actually done outside the boundaries of the State.

Carloads of children are taken from States where they are not permitted to work into other States where they may do various kinds of work. These are not isolated cases, but everyday occurrences.

Child labor is not a problem of each separate State isolated from its neighbor, but it has become one in which two or more States are involved. Therefore, it is not a State question but a national one, and as such must be dealt with by the Federal Government. The States today are willing to accept Federal aid in building their roads, in health, pure food and various other problems. If this is so, why are the States so loath to accept Federal aid in dealing with their most far-reaching problem—child labor?

(4) Why is a Constitutional Amendment Needed?

Everyone thought Congress had the power to protect the children of the nation, because the Constitution was drawn "to provide for the general welfare" of the people. So, when the people of the United States were convinced that there was need for a national child labor law they asked Congress to enact such legislation. Congress tried first, in 1916, to regulate child labor under the specific power given to it over interstate commerce. Then the cotton mill owners brought a case protesting against the constitutionality of the law. The Supreme Court of the United States, by a vote of 5—4, decided that Congress had been given no specific power to regulate child labor. Then Congress, realizing the need of the children for protection, voted the Second Child Labor Act, in 1919. This time it tried to regulate child labor under the specific power given it over taxation. But again a case was brought to test its constitutionality, and the Supreme Court held that the Constitution had not provided for control over child labor, which was natural enough, for there were no mills or factories in 1789, when the Constitution was adopted. So, in 1924, Congress, following the will of the people, adopted this Amendment, so that there should be the necessary power to pass a national child labor act which would be constitutional.

(7) *Why the 18-Year Age Limit?*

The proposed Child Labor Amendment, if ratified, would empower Congress to limit, regulate and prohibit the labor in gainful occupations of persons under eighteen years of age. Congress would determine the age under which children should be prohibited from working and then between that age and eighteen years it would limit and regulate their labor.

One of the objects of Federal legislation is to make the Child Labor laws of the various States uniform. The several States now have the power of limiting, regulating and prohibiting the labor of persons up to twenty-one years of age. Twenty-eight States have laws regulating the labor of children up to twenty-one years in certain occupations, while two-thirds of the States forbid their employment under eighteen years of age in hazardous occupations.

We believe a standard age should be fixed under which all employment should be prohibited. Above that standard age and up to eighteen years, work should be permitted only conditionally and within regulations necessary to protect the children physically.

The limiting and regulating of the work of children in gainful employment would be confined to dangerous occupations like the manufacture of explosives or poisonous gases or handling powerful, unguarded machinery.

During the adolescent period, the young person is apt to be absent-minded and so to get injured. The Department of Labor has pointed out from records covering twelve months of accidents to minors in Wisconsin, Massachusetts and New Jersey, that children of 17 and 18 years have a larger percentage (38.8) of the accidents due to power working machinery than of the accidents either to children of 14 and 15 years or to those from 18 to 20 years (30.3). This startling fact is the more striking because a greater proportion of the minors of 18 and over are employed in the more dangerous occupations. The 16 and 17 year old children need protection from accidents about as much as those a few years younger.

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