

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



Photo by U. S. Department of Interior

In this issue... Comparative Earnings of Men and Women • Consumers' Purchases in Chicago • Wages in Manufacture of Full-fashioned Hosiery • Family Allowances

MAY 1939

Digitized by FRASER
s://fraser.stlouisfed.org
Vol. 40 • No. 5
Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Frances Perkins, Secretary



BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Isador Lubin, Commissioner

Sidney W. Wilcox, Chief Statistician

Hugh S. Hanna, Chief, Editorial and Research

A. F. Hinrichs, Chief Economist

Henry J. Fitzgerald, Administrative Officer

CHIEFS OF DIVISIONS

Jacob Perlman, Wage and Hour Statistics

Sven Kjaer, Industrial Accidents

Lewis E. Talbert, Employment Statistics

Florence Peterson, Industrial Relations

J. M. Cutts, Wholesale Prices

Charles F. Sharkey, Labor Law Information

Stella Stewart, Retail Prices

Faith M. Williams, Cost of Living

Boris Stern, Labor Information Bulletin

Herman B. Byer, Construction and Public Employment

John J. Mahaney, Machine Tabulation

Published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, under authority of Public Resolution No. 57, approved May 11, 1922 (42 Stat. 541), as amended by section 307, Public Act 212, 72d Congress, approved June 30, 1932. For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Price, 30 cents a copy. Subscription price per year in the United States, Canada, and Mexico, \$3.50; other countries, \$4.75. This publication approved by the Director, Bureau of the Budget.



MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

♦♦♦♦♦♦♦♦ ♦ HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR ♦ ♦♦♦♦♦♦♦

KALAMAZOO PUBLIC LIBRARY

CONTENTS

JUN 5 1939

MAY 1939 Vol. 48 No. 5

Cover:

Vernal Fall, Merced River, Yosemite National Park—one of the Nation's vacation spots.

Special articles:

	Page
Comparative earnings and hours of men and women, 1937-38.....	1003
Consumer purchases in Chicago.....	1007
Family allowances in 1937 and 1938.....	1026

Industrial relations:

Joint industrial councils in Great Britain.....	1046
---	------

Social security:

Annuity and pension payments under Railroad Retirement Act, 1938..	1055
--	------

Labor involved in industrial production:

Labor and material costs in small-house construction.....	1058
---	------

Industrial and labor conditions:

Oppressive labor practices: Summary of Senate inquiry.....	1062
Mechanization in British coal mining.....	1069

Women in industry:

Labor legislation for women in Latin-American countries.....	1071
Women's rights and the Lima Conference.....	1072

Child labor:

Migrant child workers in New Jersey.....	1073
Regulation of child labor in India.....	1076

The older worker:

Employment problems of older workers.....	1077
Self-help cooperatives for older workers.....	1081

Housing conditions:

Progress of Federal housing program.....	1084
Public housing in New York State.....	1085

Industrial accidents:

Injury experience in the iron and steel industry, 1936 and 1937.....	1089
--	------

Labor laws and court decisions:

Arkansas Workmen's Compensation Act.....	1101
"Anti-kick-back" legislation.....	1103

Labor laws and court decisions:—Continued

	Page
Recent court decisions of interest to labor:	
Oklahoma wage and hour law upheld.....	1105
Hours of labor law of South Carolina held invalid.....	1106
Taxation of public salaries.....	1106
Workmen's compensation for injury outside State.....	1107
Compensability of injury resulting from violation of rules.....	1108
Life-insurance agents and Unemployment-Compensation Act....	1108
Picketing of one-man business to obtain closed shop.....	1108
 Industrial disputes:	
Analysis of strikes in 1938.....	1110
Trend of strikes.....	1131
Analysis of strikes in January 1939.....	1132
Activities of United States Conciliation Service, March 1939.....	1139
 Cost of living:	
Changes in cost of living of Federal employees in Washington, D. C. .	1141
 Minimum wages and maximum hours:	
Injunction against steel wage determination under Public Contracts Act.....	1145
 Wages and hours of labor:	
Earnings and hours in the manufacture of full-fashioned hosiery, 1938..	1147
Occupations and salaries of college alumni, 1936.....	1171
Idaho—Wages in metal mines, 1938.....	1176
Soviet Union—Wages in coal mining, 1939.....	1177
 Labor turn-over:	
Labor turn-over in manufacturing, February 1939.....	1179
 Employment offices:	
Operations of United States Employment Service, March 1939.....	1183
 Building operations:	
Summary of building construction in principal cities, March 1939....	1190
 Retail prices:	
Food prices in March 1939.....	1195
Electricity and gas—Price changes between December 1938 and March 1939.....	1201
 Wholesale prices:	
Wholesale prices in March 1939.....	1204
 Trend of employment and pay rolls:	
Summary of reports for March 1939:	
Total nonagricultural employment.....	1209
Industrial and business employment.....	1209
Public employment.....	1212
Detailed reports for industrial and business employment, February 1939.....	1215
Unemployment in foreign countries, winter of 1938-39.....	1225
 Recent publications of labor interest.....	1230

This Issue in Brief

Employment Problems of Older Workers.

Workers between 40 and the retirement age have 3 major handicaps—today's general unemployment, employers' prejudices, and their own fears—according to a report to the United States Secretary of Labor by the Committee on Employment Problems of Older Workers. The investigators found ample evidence in the figures of the 1937 Unemployment Census of an increasingly serious situation among persons over 45. Figures from the same source confirm the fact, which public and private placement offices have known for some time, that older employees who lose their jobs have more and more difficulty in getting new ones.

A study of factual data on productivity, accidents, sickness, group insurance, and pension plans led the committee to the conclusion that the relationship between age and costs is of slight significance and that prejudice against placing older workers on pay rolls is based largely on erroneous and inadequate impressions. Page 1077.

Comparative Earnings of Men and Women.

Week's earnings of both men and women in many of the more important industries which employ large numbers of women were higher in September 1938 than they were a year previous. Both week's and hourly earnings of women, however, were lower than those of men in the same establishments. Men received an average of over 50 cents an hour in all but 2 of 22 manufacturing industries studied, but women's earnings averaged as high as 50 cents in only 5 industries. Average earnings and hours of men and

women in 23 manufacturing and 2 nonmanufacturing industries in September 1938 and a comparison with the preceding year are shown on page 1003.

Industrial Councils in Great Britain.

Joint councils of employers and employees, established to deal directly with industrial problems, are effective instruments for voluntary negotiation in Great Britain. They are known as Whitley councils and have been established in well-organized industries since the World War, as a result of recommendations made by the Whitley Committee between 1917 and 1919. The Government encouraged the introduction of voluntary machinery for well-organized industries in order that their problems might be dealt with as effectively as had been done by the trade-board system in industries less well organized. The article on page 1046 describes the history, organization, and operation of the Whitley councils. Most councils have equal numbers of employer and employee members, the size of each depending upon the needs of the particular industry concerned.

Family Allowances, 1937-38.

Family allowances were being paid in 1937-38 to salaried and wage-earning heads of families in at least 28 foreign countries. These special cash supplements proportioned to family responsibility represent an attempt to ameliorate, from the social viewpoint, the situation produced by wage and salary systems which are not devised to take into account the great variations in the number of workers' dependents. In some countries, such as Argentina, Chile, and Japan, only a few experiments with these grants have

been made. In Belgium, France, and Italy, however, compulsory, nationwide systems are in operation. Important developments in the movement for family allowances are recorded for the period under review in an article on page 1026.

Workmen's Compensation Law of Arkansas.

With the recent passage of a workmen's compensation law for Arkansas, there now remains only one State which has not yet legislated to provide this type of protection for the workers injured in industrial accidents. A summary of the provisions of the Arkansas act is given on page 1101.

Consumer Purchases in Chicago.

Data collected from 2,711 non-relief white families in Chicago show very different patterns of expenditure at low and high income levels. As family income increased, the number of dollars spent for each important group of consumption goods and services also increased. Expenditures for the different groups of items did not increase at the same rate, however. The average family with an income of \$500 to \$750 spent 7 percent more than its total current income for food and home maintenance, and had total current expenditures which exceeded current income by 30 percent. Families with an income of \$7,500 to \$10,000 spent 42 percent of current income for food and home maintenance combined. One of the most striking changes with income is in relative expenditure for transportation which took about 4 percent of current income at the lowest income level covered in the Chicago study and about 8 percent at the upper levels. Page 1007.

Industrial Accidents in the Iron and Steel Industry.

In the iron and steel industry the frequency of industrial accidents remained about the same in 1937 as in 1936. For every million man-hours worked in 1937 there were 15.38 disabling injuries, as compared with 15.41 in the previous year. The severity rate—i. e., the average number of working days lost because of accidents for each thousand man-hours worked—rose slightly, from 2.01 to 2.16. Bessemer converters were the most hazardous department. The detailed findings of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' annual study of accidents in this industry are given on page 1089.

Wages in Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry.

Hourly earnings in the full-fashioned hosiery industry averaged 65.8 cents in September 1938, as shown by a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Male wage earners averaged 83.5 cents, while females, who make up over 55 percent of the industry's labor force, received 50.9 cents an hour. A considerable regional difference was found, workers in northern mills averaging 69.3 cents an hour, as compared with 58.1 cents for employees of southern establishments. Only 3.1 percent of all workers in the industry earned under 25 cents an hour, the minimum effective on October 24, 1938, under the Fair Labor Standards Act. On the other hand, a 40-cent minimum (recently recommended by the Hosiery Industry Committee under that act) would require an upward adjustment in the earnings of one-fifth of the workers. Page 1147.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR MAY 1939

COMPARATIVE EARNINGS AND HOURS OF MEN AND WOMEN, 1937-38

INCREASES in the level of week's earnings of both men and women, in many of the more important woman-employing manufacturing industries and in laundries, occurred during the period from the autumn of 1937 to the autumn of 1938. These increases were due to slightly longer hours of work (though the average for women's work was less than 40 hours a week in most industries) rather than to higher hourly rates. Decreases in average hourly earnings of women were shown in 15, and of men in 11, of the 24 industries reporting hours.

Average hourly earnings of women were highest and also lowest in the clothing industries, being as high as 86.7 cents in women's coat and suit making and 73.8 cents in dress shops (other than cotton dresses), and as low as 35.5 cents in cotton-dress factories. Average hourly earnings of women were less than 40 cents also in knit underwear, cotton goods, silk and rayon goods, confectionery, paper boxes, and laundries.

These findings are from a report to the Secretary of Labor on the results of an analysis made by the United States Women's Bureau of employment and pay-roll records of plants in 23 large woman-employing manufacturing industries and in 2 nonmanufacturing industries, in 12 States,¹ gathered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The reporting manufacturing industries employ about two-thirds of all the woman workers in manufacturing, and the 12 States selected have the largest numbers of women in manufacturing. The special analysis of women's earnings and hours covered over 298,000 woman workers in manufacturing plants and nearly 26,000 women in 2 non-manufacturing industries. This is the first yearly comparison of men's and women's wages on a large scale, as heretofore such comprehensive data have not been available by sex.

Women's earnings, both on a weekly and on an hourly basis, were found to be lower than men's in the same plants in all the reporting industries. Of the 22 manufacturing industries reporting hours, in only 2—cotton textiles and cigars—were the average hourly earnings

¹ California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

of men less than 50 cents in September 1938; and in only 5 were women's earnings as high as 50 cents an hour. In 10 industries the average earnings of women were 25 cents or more below those of men.

Woman workers in all the industries worked fewer hours on the average in September 1938 than did men, though an average week of over 40 hours for men was shown in only 4 of the manufacturing industries and in the 2 nonmanufacturing industries.

TABLE 1.—Average Hours and Average Hourly and Weekly Earnings in Selected Industries in September 1938, by Industry and Sex

Industry	Women reported		Average week's earnings		Average hours worked ¹		Average hourly earnings ¹	
	Number	Per cent of all reported employ-ees	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Textile industries.....	81,757	48	\$20.27	\$14.00	37.5	33.9	Cents 54.0	Cents 41.1
Cotton goods.....	21,435	39	16.06	12.69	37.2	34.2	43.1	36.9
Knit goods.....	31,339	62	28.55	15.89	38.0	34.4	75.5	45.7
Hosiery ²	19,556	56	29.34	16.89	37.7	34.8	78.0	48.1
Underwear ²	11,783	75	22.78	12.87	40.2	33.1	57.4	38.6
Silk and rayon.....	11,820	53	19.02	12.90	37.2	34.2	51.4	38.0
Woolen and worsted.....	17,163	40	21.92	14.89	37.4	32.5	58.7	45.9
Clothing industries.....	99,560	69	31.28	16.35	33.3	32.0	94.6	51.0
Men's clothing.....	55,247	65	27.39	14.20	33.6	31.8	81.7	44.3
Suits and overcoats, etc. ²	25,948	52	28.53	16.07	32.6	30.9	87.0	52.2
Cotton; work; shirts and col-lars ²	29,299	83	22.55	12.40	37.9	32.6	59.0	36.8
Women's clothing.....	44,313	75	37.91	18.50	32.8	32.1	116.5	57.6
Undergarments, etc. ²	12,775	86	29.45	14.80	38.5	34.5	71.6	40.2
Coats and suits ²	3,853	39	41.09	23.63	30.1	27.9	141.7	86.7
Dresses, cotton ²	11,766	92	24.62	12.02	39.5	33.8	63.0	35.5
Dresses, other ²	15,919	74	38.42	23.04	33.2	30.5	109.2	73.8
Food industries:								
Confectionery.....	17,273	61	26.67	15.40	44.6	39.1	59.9	39.6
Leather industries:								
Boots and shoes.....	21,508	44	20.80	13.26	35.2	34.4	60.6	40.1
Tobacco industries:								
Cigars.....	11,804	84	19.76	12.49	39.4	33.8	49.8	36.8
Paper and printing:								
Book and job.....	11,769	23	33.70	16.82	37.5	34.9	89.9	48.8
Paper boxes (set-up).....	6,599	63	24.72	14.32	42.0	38.4	59.1	37.8
Electrical industries:								
Electric machinery and supplies.....	22,634	21	27.67	16.92	34.6	32.3	77.8	50.1
Radios and phonographs.....	7,537	44	28.63	17.38	40.6	36.2	70.5	48.4
Metal industries:								
Hardware.....	3,716	21	22.68	14.79	36.0	33.9	63.0	43.6
Rubber goods:								
Auto tires and tubes ²	4,196	15	34.01	21.43	33.4	31.2	101.8	68.6
Boots and shoes.....	3,142	52	24.68	18.13	37.1	36.6	66.6	49.6
Chemical industries:								
Rayon.....	827	19	34.42	21.40	-----	-----	-----	-----
Glass and pottery ²	6,252	17	25.73	15.28	34.6	33.3	74.3	45.9
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Laundries ²	22,246	67	27.73	14.50	44.8	39.2	60.8	37.2
Dry cleaning ²	3,555	46	28.40	16.75	45.6	40.8	62.7	41.8

¹ Computed from smaller number of employees than total, since man-hours were not reported for all.

² Averages for this industry are unweighted.

The trends in employment, earnings, and hours of men and women employed in the 25 woman-employing industries during the year from September 1937 to September 1938 may be seen in table 2, which shows data for identical establishments:

TABLE 2.—Changes in Employment, Earnings, and Hours in Identical Establishments, September 1937 to September 1938, by Sex

WOMEN								
Industry	Number of wage earners		Average week's earnings		Average hours worked ¹		Average hourly earnings ¹	
	Percent of change ² September 1938 as compared with—							
	Sep-tem-ber 1937	March 1938	Sep-tem-ber 1937	March 1938	Sep-tem-ber 1937	March 1938	Sep-tem-ber 1937	March 1938
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Textile industries.....	-7.6	+4.2	+3.2	+4.0	+8.9	+7.6	-5.1	-4.5
Cotton goods.....	-13.4	+4	-3.5	+5.7	+5.8	+12.0	-8.0	-5.7
Knit goods.....	-5.2	+2	+10.3	+2.3	+10.6	+4.3	-4	-1.6
Hosiery ³	-5.1	-1.1	+10.2	+2.0	+8.2	+3.7	+4	-1.3
Underwear ³	-5.3	+2.4	+10.4	+3.5	+1.8	+6.2	-4.0	-2.7
Silk and rayon.....	-19.0	-4.8	-3.9	-1.8	+1.2	-3	-4.3	-1.6
Woolen and worsted.....	+7.3	+28.5	+8.8	+12.4	+18.8	+18.4	-8.9	-9.9
Clothing industries.....	-5.1	+7	+7.6	+7.3	+10.0	+4.9	-2.9	-4
Men's clothing.....	-8.0	+8	+4.4	+7.6	+8.9	+7.1	-5.8	-3.4
Suits and overcoats, etc.....	-6.8	+4.8	+8.9	+11.0	+11.1	+8.0	-7.0	-3.1
Cotton; work; shirts and collars.....	-9.1	-2.2	+9	+3.3	+7.1	+6.6	-4.2	-3.5
Women's clothing.....	-1.5	+5	+10.2	+7.1	+11.2	+2.9	-4	+2.1
Undergarments, etc. ³	-5.5	-2.9	+15.1	+9.6	+21.5	+6.5	-4.4	-1.7
Coats and suits ³	+1.1	+6.6	+12.6	-7.9	+14.8	-6.8	+9	-5.0
Dresses, cotton ³	-2.1	-3.0	-4.7	-7.8	-3.9	-8	+5.4	-1.3
Dresses, other ³	+1.8	+4.6	+12.0	+14.7	+12.1	+4.9	-4	+6.3
Food industries:								
Confectionery.....	-3.1	+14.8	+8	+11.1	+5	+12.7	-3	-1.2
Leather industries:								
Boots and shoes.....	-5	-4.4	+7.8	-7.5	+23.0	-3.8	-11.9	-4.2
Tobacco industries:								
Cigars.....	+5	+5.2	-4.7	+7.7	-2.4	+6.6	-1.3	-3
Paper and printing:								
Book and job.....	-16.5	-3.3	+2.6	-1.9	-3	+1.5	+3.6	-2.8
Paper boxes (set-up).....	-13.1	+10.0	+7	+7.7	+7.2	+13.6	-4.3	-4.5
Electrical industries:								
Electrical machinery and supplies.....	-37.3	-3.9	-9.8	+5.8	-7.6	+10.6	-2.9	-4.6
Radios and phonographs.....	-39.0	+45.7	+9	+42.5	+2.3	+39.6	-2.5	+1.3
Metal industries:								
Hardware.....	-22.4	+1.4	-3.1	+12.0	-2.8	+11.9	+1.0	0
Rubber goods:								
Auto tires and tubes ³	-31.1	+2.8	+12.8	+42.7	+15.5	+42.4	-2.3	-2
Boots and shoes.....	-34.2	-5.0	-4.1	+15.0	-4.2	+17.7	+2	-2.0
Chemical industries:								
Rayon.....	-28.2		-2.1					
Glass and pottery ³	-18.8	-5	+8	+8.2	-6.9	+5.4	+8.7	+2.5
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Laundries ³	-8.4	+2.6	+2.4	+3.3	-8	+2.9	+2.5	+8
Dry cleaning ³	-5.7	+17.3	-5	+12.8	-2.2	+14.4	+1.4	0

¹ Computed from smaller number of employees than total, since man-hours were not reported for all.

² The percent changes are based on figures reported for identical firms.

³ Averages for this industry are unweighted.

TABLE 2.—Changes in Employment, Earnings, and Hours in Identical Establishments, September 1937 to September 1938, by Sex—Continued

MEN								
Industry	Number of wage earners		Average week's earnings		Average hours worked		Average hourly earnings	
	Percent of change September 1938 as compared with—							
	September 1937	March 1938	September 1937	March 1938	September 1937	March 1938	September 1937	March 1938
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Textile industries.....	-10.7	+8.0	+0.5	+3.6	+6.4	+9.0	-6.1	-4.6
Cotton goods.....	-15.7	+1.9	-5.5	+6.0	+3.9	+11.5	-9.1	-4.6
Knit goods ²	-2.7	+1.6	+6.1	+6	+6.2	+1.6	+3	+5
Hosiery ²	-2.1	+1.5	+6.8	+5	+6.6	+1.3	+4	+8
Underwear ²	-4.6	+2.3	+ (9)	+1.4	+2.5	+3.8	-1.9	-2.7
Silk and rayon.....	-18.3	+2.8	+2	+1.1	+5.4	+1.9	-5.0	-6
Woolen and worsted.....	-5.6	+28.8	+3.6	+5.7	+12.9	+18.5	-9.1	-11.0
Clothing industries.....	-4	+2.7	+10.1	+2.4	+13.1	+3.4	-2.5	-2.4
Men's clothing.....	-1.1	+3.0	+7.4	+5.9	+10.0	+5.0	-5.7	-2.1
Suits and overcoats, etc.....	-1.4	+2.6	+9.0	+7.1	+11.6	+5.8	-6.4	-1.8
Cotton; work; shirts and collars.....	+2	+4.9	-7	-1	+4.5	+3.0	-1.0	-4.0
Women's clothing.....	+9	+2.1	+13.8	-1.7	+19.6	+9	+1.5	-2.7
Undergarments, etc. ²	-8.9	+3.8	+19.6	+4.2	+27.0	+3.2	+4.2	+2.5
Coats and suits ²	-9	-1.7	+17.9	-8.5	+24.8	-3.2	+4.2	-2.0
Dresses, cotton ²	+2.6	+6.9	-11.4	-2.7	+5.0	-3.8	+1.2	+9
Dresses, other ²	+6.8	+4.8	+10.1	+5.7	+14.8	+5.4	-2.6	-4.8
Food industries:								
Confectionery.....	-3.6	+5.3	+2.3	+6.2	0	+7.8	+3.3	-1.3
Leather industries:								
Boots and shoes.....	-5.8	-1.6	+10.4	-6.1	+15.0	0	-5.8	-4.3
Tobacco industries:								
Cigars.....	-3.2	+6	-10.3	+6.9	-3.3	+5.1	-9.0	+2.1
Paper and printing:								
Book and job.....	-7.7	-3.3	-1.5	-1.0	-3.3	-1.6	+2.7	+1
Paper boxes (set-up).....	-9.8	+6.0	+4.9	+4.5	-2	+7.4	+3.7	-2.8
Electrical industries:								
Electrical machinery and supplies.....	-35.2	-9.1	-9.4	+6.5	-9.2	+6.8	+1.2	-6
Radios and phonographs.....	-31.5	+16.7	+6	+20.2	-2.6	+20.5	+2.1	-1.7
Metal industries:								
Hardware.....	-20.1	-3.2	-2.3	+12.0	-3.6	+12.5	+2.5	-9
Rubber goods:								
Auto tires and tubes ²	-30.3	-2.1	+7.7	+38.4	+8.8	+36.8	-1.3	+1.3
Boots and shoes.....	-31.5	+6	-11.1	+11.7	-8.6	+13.5	-2.6	-1.6
Chemical industries:								
Rayon.....	-27.0		-4.0					
Glass and pottery ²	-20.4	+1.6	-7.4	+3.8	-5.7	+3.3	0	+5
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Laundries ²	-4.2	-1.5	+1.3	-1	-2.6	-9	+3.4	+8
Dry cleaning ²	-6.3	+9.0	+2.1	+11.7	+2.5	+10.0	+5	+1.5

² Averages for this industry are unweighted.⁴ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

CONSUMER PURCHASES IN CHICAGO¹

Consumer Purchases and Income

FAMILY incomes in Chicago aggregated more than \$1,327,000,000 in 1935-36. Half the families had incomes under \$1,412; half had incomes above this figure. These are estimates for all families in Chicago, irrespective of nativity and family composition, irrespective of whether or not they received relief sometime during the year. Slightly less than one-third of all families had incomes under \$1,000; another two-fifths had incomes between \$1,000 and \$2,000; and 28 percent had incomes of \$2,000 or more.²

This aggregate income and its distribution among families determined the economic well-being of the community. It determined also what kinds of goods were bought. While the people who were "selling the Chicago family market" resorted to a thousand and one competitive devices to increase their share in this market—some highly effective, others perhaps merely costly—they were collectively dependent for their business upon this pool of income. More than that, they depended upon the way in which it was distributed among families. It is not enough to know that a given city is, for example, a \$1,000,000,000 market. Among low-income groups, \$370,000,000 out of \$1,000,000,000 goes for food. At higher income levels, a smaller number of families with an aggregate income of \$1,000,000,000 spends only \$170,000,000 for food, though each family spends more for food than is spent at lower income levels. One million dollars in the hands of higher income families obviously leaves a larger margin for luxury goods. The kinds of goods that are bought, in other words, depend not only upon the amount of the aggregate income but also upon the way that aggregate is distributed among families.

In order to see how income and certain other characteristics of the family affect the pattern of expenditure, it is desirable to study the expenditures of as homogeneous a group of families as is possible. Therefore in surveying expenditures,³ the group covered was limited

¹ This article presents a preliminary report on the forthcoming Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 642, Vol. II: Family Expenditures in Chicago, 1935-36, by A. D. H. Kaplan, Faith M. Williams, and Mildred L. Hartsough.

The Chicago survey was part of an investigation conducted in 1936 by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics in 32 cities, varying in size and representing different sections of the country. It was paralleled by a study of small city, village, and farm families conducted by the Bureau of Home Economics of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. Both surveys, which together constitute the Study of Consumer Purchases, were administered under a grant of funds from the Works Progress Administration. The National Resources Committee and the Central Statistical Board cooperated in the Nation-wide study.

² See Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 642, Vol. I: Family Income in Chicago, 1935-36.

³ The expenditure schedule used in the Study of Consumer Purchases provided for recording information on family expenditures classified under 16 categories. The schedule contained information also on such matters as the size and facilities of dwellings occupied, and on the ownership of automobiles and household equipment, including radios, phonographs, mechanical refrigerators, washing machines and vacuum cleaners. In addition, account was taken of transactions during the report year that increased or decreased the family assets or liabilities.

to white families that included a husband and wife, both native born, and that had received no relief during the year.⁴

These limitations resulted in the selection of a sample for the study of expenditures of families whose average income is higher than the average for all families in Chicago. Half of the families represented in the section of the Chicago investigation dealing with consumer expenditures were found in the income brackets above \$1,860.⁵

Expenditure data covering the year 1935-36 were collected from 2,711 Chicago families.⁶ They show that as family income increased the number of dollars spent for each important group of consumption goods and services increased. Expenditures for the different groups of items do not increase at the same rate, however.⁷ Thus expenditures for transportation increase more rapidly than income. On the other hand, while more dollars are spent for food and home maintenance by families at high incomes than at low, the percentage of the income that goes for these two important groups of expenditures declines. Other types of expenditure receive an increasing percentage of income up to incomes of about \$3,000. Beyond this level each major type of expenditure for consumption except that including gifts, contributions, and personal taxes received a declining share of income, while savings received a sharply increasing share.

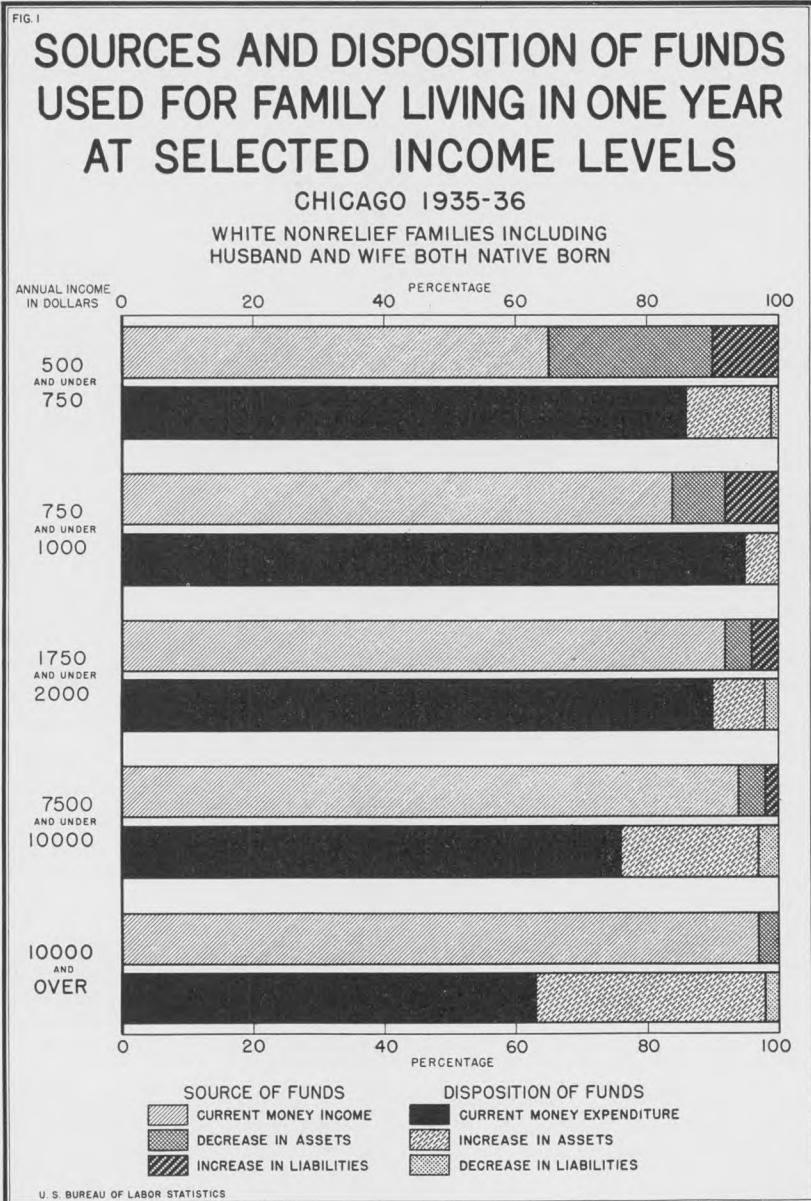
⁴ The purpose of these qualifications was to eliminate as far as possible factors of economic stress, broken family ties, and alien customs which might tend to obscure the relationship of income, occupation, and family type to family expenditure patterns. Since native white families greatly outnumber all other racial and national groups in Chicago, it seemed wise to confine the restricted resources available for the survey to a study of the expenditures of this relatively homogeneous group. Half of Chicago's families are native-born white, about three-eighths foreign-born white, and practically all of the remainder Negro. In communities where Negro families constituted a substantial portion of the population, a separate sample was taken to provide information on the expenditures of Negro families. This was generally true in the Southeast.

⁵ The fact that they were in general at a somewhat higher economic level than the total family population in Chicago was due in part to the omission of the relief group and of families with incomes under \$500 from the expenditure survey, and in part to the fact that both the foreign born as a group, and the "incomplete" families as a group, had a less favorable income distribution than families including husband and wife, both native born. It follows from this fact that no attempt is made to describe the expenditures of an "average Chicago family." Rather the purpose of this study is to show the distribution of expenditures at different income levels of the bulk of the families containing a husband and wife, and to show the further influence on the expenditure pattern of family composition and occupational status.

⁶ These families constituted a sample composed as nearly as possible of the same number of each income class, within each family type and each occupational group. Since this method of collection, by design, failed to preserve the proportions of the several groups that were found in the population of families eligible for the expenditure schedule, it was necessary to use the proportions obtaining in the eligible sample as weights for all averages that represented combinations of occupational groups, of family types, or of income classes.

⁷ Throughout this report when the expenditures of families at one income level are larger than those at the income level next lower, this difference will be spoken of as "an increase in expenditures." It is important for the reader to bear in mind the fact that the data at each income level represent the expenditures of different families, and that we can only infer that the average expenditures of families at a given income level in a given year would resemble the average expenditures of families now in the income bracket next higher if their income were increased.

The rate at which the outlay for a group of items increases among families at successive income levels constitutes a measure of the "elasticity" of expenditures for that group. Such a measure may be based on a comparison of the rate of increase in expenditures for the category in question with the rate of increase either in income or in total expenditures. In the present report elasticity over the income range in expenditures for individual categories has usually been measured in relation to increases in total expenditures for current living, since the expenditure base generally has been used in the distribution of family expenditures. It will be apparent from tables 1 and 3 that the elasticity of any given category is much lower when computed in relation to income rather than to expenditures, because of the influence of deficits at the lower economic levels and of savings in the upper portion of the income scale.



The demand for food and home maintenance is so urgent that the average family with an income of \$500 to \$750 spent 7 percent more than its current income for these items alone (see table 1). Families in this income bracket constituted 4.2 percent even of the total number of native white nonrelief complete families. Their total current expenditures exceeded their current income by 30 percent.⁸

TABLE 1.—Distribution of Family Income in Chicago Families¹

Income class	Average adjusted income	Percent of total income represented by ² —								Net surplus ⁸
		Expenditures for current family living							Other items ⁷	
		Total	Food ³	Home maintenance ⁴	Clothing and personal care	Transportation ⁵	Medical care	Contributions and personal taxes ⁶		
\$500-\$749.....	\$684	130.6	56.3	50.3	9.4	3.8	3.5	1.5	5.8	-----
\$750-\$999.....	908	114.1	46.3	41.5	10.4	4.3	5.0	1.1	5.5	-----
\$1,000-\$1,249.....	1,132	106.5	41.4	38.1	10.4	5.7	4.0	1.4	5.5	-----
\$1,250-\$1,499.....	1,369	102.8	39.2	35.8	10.0	5.5	4.2	1.8	6.3	-----
\$1,500-\$1,749.....	1,621	101.0	36.6	34.0	10.5	6.4	4.8	2.0	6.7	-----
\$1,750-\$1,999.....	1,875	98.2	33.3	33.5	10.7	7.5	4.2	2.3	6.7	2.2
\$2,000-\$2,249.....	2,113	96.4	31.4	31.9	11.1	8.3	4.4	2.7	6.6	4.1
\$2,250-\$2,499.....	2,372	96.2	32.2	31.4	11.0	7.1	4.7	2.7	7.1	4.1
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	2,735	93.5	29.1	30.0	11.6	8.4	4.3	3.0	7.1	6.8
\$3,000-\$3,499.....	3,238	88.3	26.9	27.4	10.7	8.0	4.0	3.9	7.4	11.5
\$3,500-\$3,999.....	3,731	86.9	25.7	27.6	11.8	7.8	3.9	3.6	6.5	13.2
\$4,000-\$4,999.....	4,453	87.1	24.2	25.8	11.6	9.0	4.4	5.5	6.6	13.2
\$5,000-\$7,499.....	5,966	80.1	19.3	25.2	10.1	8.5	3.9	5.8	7.3	19.8
\$7,500-\$9,999.....	8,642	80.9	16.9	25.0	12.4	8.5	3.3	6.7	8.1	18.5
\$10,000 and over.....	16,277	64.8	11.0	19.1	8.8	6.2	1.5	11.8	6.4	34.7

¹ The adjusted family income figure used in this table represents total family income as used in the income classification (money income plus the value of housing received without money expense), and in addition the value of food and fuel obtained without money expense.

² The family was asked to list changes in assets during the year. As has been explained elsewhere, schedules were accepted if money receipts and money disbursements for all purposes balanced within 5 percent. If schedules had balanced perfectly, the sum of the column headed "total value of current family living" and of that headed "net surplus" should equal 100 percent of total income. Inasmuch as schedules were accepted that did not balance exactly, the total of these columns closely approximates but does not equal 100 percent.

³ Includes expenditures for food and the value of food obtained without direct money outlay.

⁴ Includes expenditures for housing, household operation and furnishings and equipment, and the value of housing and fuel obtained without direct outlay.

⁵ Includes expenditures for automobile purchase and operation, and other transportation.

⁶ Excludes sales taxes, which were included in the expense for the items to which they applied; automobile taxes, which were included in automobile operation expense; taxes on owned homes, included in housing expense; and taxes on other real estate, which were deducted from the gross income from such property.

⁷ Includes expenditures for recreation, reading, education, tobacco, and miscellaneous items.

⁸ Net surplus represents the excess of average money income over average current money expenditures. Average net deficits declined from 30.6 percent to 1.0 percent of adjusted family income in the income classes below \$1,750.

Average deficits became smaller at succeeding income levels until, among families with incomes between \$1,750 and \$2,000, aggregate savings exceeded aggregate deficits. The incomes of the families falling in this bracket averaged \$1,875. It should be noted that even among the relatively favored group of families whose expenditures were studied—native white families with both husband and wife which had received no relief during the year—approximately half had incomes of less than this amount. Above \$2,000, the average net surplus rose

⁸ Although the term "expenditure" is used, it should be understood that some part of this deficit accrued in the form of unpaid bills and obligations, as well as by withdrawals from past savings.

rapidly, and amounted to one-fifth of total income for the group with incomes of \$5,000 to \$7,500.

Although each group of families at the lower income levels showed a net deficit, this does not mean that all the families with incomes from \$500 to \$1,750 went "into the red." In fact, at each interval along the income scale there were some families reporting a surplus. On the other hand, there were families at every income level except the highest that ended the year with a deficit. In addition, there were a few families at most income levels that just broke even for the year, and reported neither surplus nor deficit.

Only about one family in five in the income class \$500 to \$750 reported a surplus, but more than half of those in every income group beginning with \$1,000 kept expenditures below income. Among the families studied that had incomes of \$5,000 and over, more than 95 percent had a surplus for the year. Not only does an increasing proportion of families have a surplus as incomes rise, but the average savings of that group of families who are able to save also increases. Thus, average savings of \$40 were found among that 44 percent of the families with a net surplus at incomes of \$750 to \$1,000, while 76 percent of the families at \$2,500 to \$3,000 had net surpluses averaging \$328. On the other hand, while the proportion of families operating at a current deficit decreases with larger incomes, the size of the net deficit among families operating "in the red" shows no appreciable relation to incomes up to \$3,000 of income. They averaged between \$200 and \$300 at the various income levels.

TABLE 2.—Average Net Surplus and Deficit Among Chicago Families

Income class	Families having surplus ¹		Families having deficit ¹		Average net surplus or deficit (—)	
	Percent	Average amount	Percent	Average amount	Amount ²	Percent of money income
\$500-\$749.....	22	\$77	70	\$316	—\$204	—33
\$750-\$999.....	44	41	55	238	—113	—13
\$1,000-\$1,249.....	52	60	43	216	—62	—6
\$1,250-\$1,499.....	58	81	38	200	—29	—2
\$1,500-\$1,749.....	66	88	28	218	—3	(*)
\$1,750-\$1,999.....	73	163	26	296	42	2
\$2,000-\$2,249.....	77	183	21	257	87	4
\$2,250-\$2,499.....	75	216	23	278	98	4
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	76	328	22	291	185	7
\$3,000-\$3,499.....	85	499	14	379	371	12
\$3,500-\$3,999.....	90	584	10	350	491	14
\$4,000-\$4,999.....	88	727	12	425	589	14
\$5,000-\$7,499.....	94	1,328	5	1,340	1,181	20
\$7,500-\$9,999.....	99	1,627	1	1,200	1,599	19
\$10,000 and over ⁴	100	5,647	5,647	35

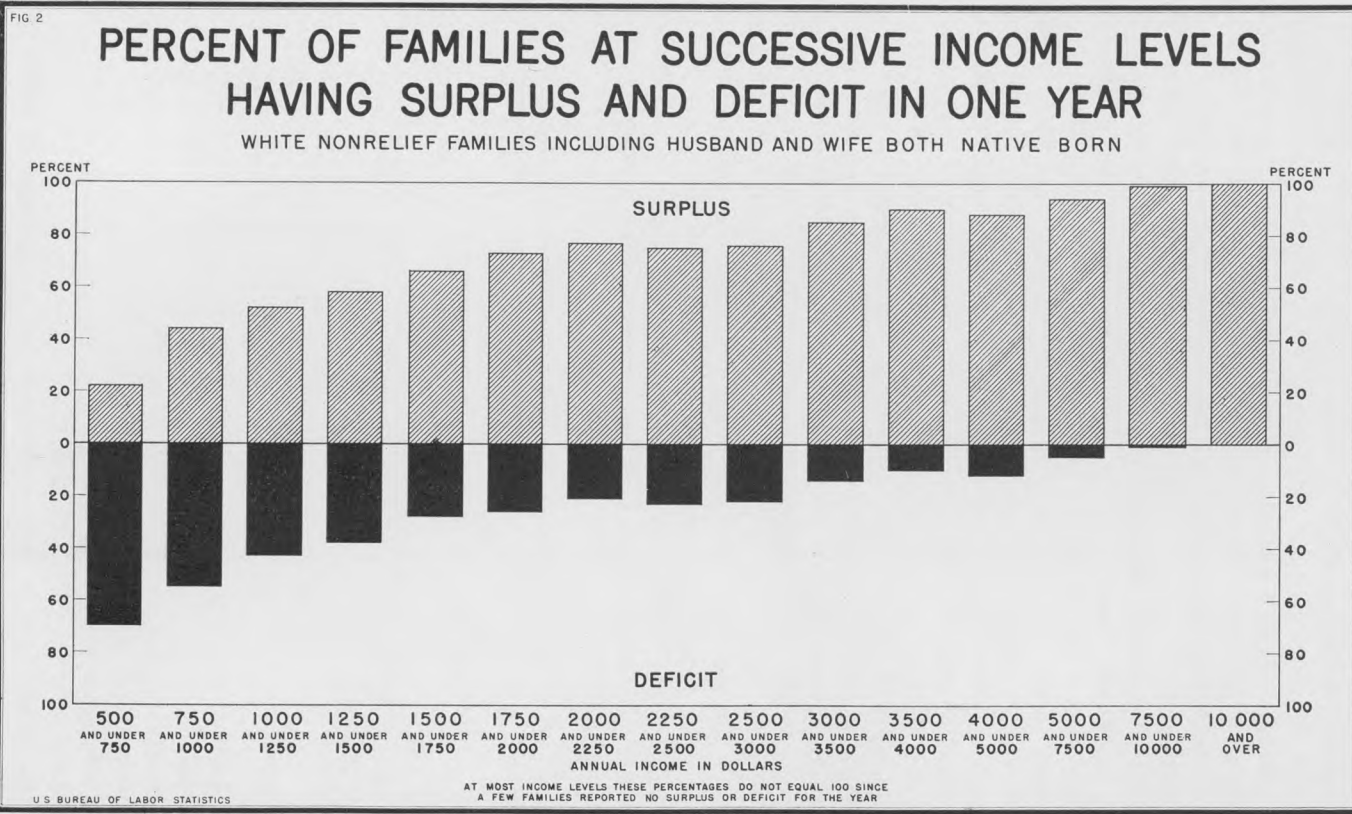
¹ Excludes families whose schedules showed an exact balance for the year.

² For a reconciliation of the average net surplus or deficit with the difference between average income and expenditure, see table 1, footnote 2.

³ Less than 1 percent.

⁴ Average income, \$16,277.

A current surplus may represent either an increase of assets or a decrease of liabilities. The increases in assets, comprising principally insurance premiums, deposits in bank accounts and, at the upper income levels, investments of one kind or another, were more important



than decreases of liabilities in accounting for the change from average net deficit to average net surplus with rising income. With the exception of one income group, such gross increases in assets did not average as much as \$100 among families with incomes of less than \$1,750, amounted to more than \$1,000 per family in the \$5,000 to \$7,500 bracket, and progressively larger amounts at higher income levels.

Among the surplus items among all families with incomes up to \$4,000, insurance premiums were of the greatest importance. Amounting to \$33, on the average, even for families with incomes of less than \$750, the average value of these premiums rose steadily at successive income levels. Insurance premiums alone accounted for more than half of all surplus items among families with incomes of \$750 to \$2,000, and for at least one-third up to the \$7,500 level. The importance attributed to insurance by the average American urban family is further attested by the remarkably constant ratio of insurance premiums paid to money income (see table 3). The proportion was 5 or 6 percent among all families with incomes of less than \$4,000. At higher incomes, it was somewhat greater.

TABLE 3.—Average Insurance Premiums Paid, as Percent of Average Money Income and of all Surplus Items, Among Chicago Families

Income class	Percent insurance premiums formed of—	
	Money income	All surplus items ¹
\$500-\$749	5	24
\$750-\$999	6	89
\$1,000-\$1,249	5	59
\$1,250-\$1,499	5	74
\$1,500-\$1,749	5	65
\$1,750-\$1,999	6	54
\$2,000-\$2,249	6	42
\$2,250-\$2,499	6	40
\$2,500-\$2,999	6	33
\$3,000-\$3,499	6	33
\$3,500-\$3,999	6	32
\$4,000-\$4,999	7	36
\$5,000-\$7,499	8	32
\$7,500-\$9,999	6	25
\$10,000 and over	10	25

¹ Increases in assets and decreases in liabilities make up the surplus items.

Aside from insurance, increases in family assets consisted chiefly of additions to bank accounts or investments ⁹ in business, real property, or securities. Increases in bank accounts were relatively unimportant among families with incomes of less than \$1,750. Above \$2,500, such increases were about as important as insurance. The amount of increases in items other than insurance premiums and in bank deposits varied somewhat erratically; but they constituted the

⁹ This item took no account of changes in the market value of securities or real estate held; the amounts reported were the cost of new investments.

most important increases in assets among families with incomes of \$7,500 and over.

Families who incur a current deficit are of course forced either to draw upon past savings or to borrow. Both methods of incurring deficits are of about equal importance up to the \$4,000 income level. Above that level, families in which current income was inadequate to meet current needs borrowed on the average less than they withdrew from their own reserves.

At all income levels from \$750 to \$10,000, withdrawals from bank accounts constituted the chief resources when assets were called upon to make up deficits, exceeding in value at most income levels the amount borrowed from any given type of credit agency. The importance of reductions in bank accounts should not be overemphasized, however, since the average net withdrawal over the year exceeded \$100 at only two income levels.

While the families studied in Chicago spent as a whole less than they currently received, they nevertheless carried over heavier liabilities into the year following the study than they had at the beginning of the year. This was perhaps natural in a period following several years of depression and marked by improving economic conditions.

When the figures on increases and decreases in amounts due on installment purchases are compared, as in table 4, it will be seen that, although a number of the Chicago families studied reduced installment obligations during the year of the study, the families which reported an increase were more numerous at every income level between \$1,000 and \$4,000. Furthermore, the gross increase of installment obligations exceeded the gross decrease among the groups of families at every income level between \$750 and \$4,000. Only those families with the lowest and the highest incomes reported a net decrease in the amounts due on installment purchases.¹⁰

The level at which a family lives in any given year depends not only upon its current income, its past savings, and its credit standing, but also upon goods and services received without direct money expense. The most important of these nonmoney items for most families is the unpaid services of the housewife, but it is so difficult to secure an adequate evaluation of these services that this contribution to the real income of the family was omitted from this survey. It was possible, however, to secure data on the value of housing received by home owners without direct expense in the year of the survey, of

¹⁰ In the process of coding and tabulation, only net amounts were tabulated for the smaller items on which there would be recurring installment purchases. Thus, for example, if the family had \$30 outstanding at the beginning of the year for installment purchases of clothing which were paid up during the year, and \$100 due on installment clothing purchases at the end of the year, the family's record would show a net increase in liabilities of \$70 on clothing installments. Moreover, the liabilities account of the family was not affected by installment purchases made and cleared up within the schedule year. Thus the net figures given in the summary which accompanies the text must not be treated as representing an aggregate of installment purchases by the families.

housing received as gift or pay, and of food and fuel received without money expense. These nonmoney items are included both on the income and expenditure sides of the family ledger in this article.

TABLE 4.—Increases and Decreases in Amounts Due on Installment Purchases by Chicago Families

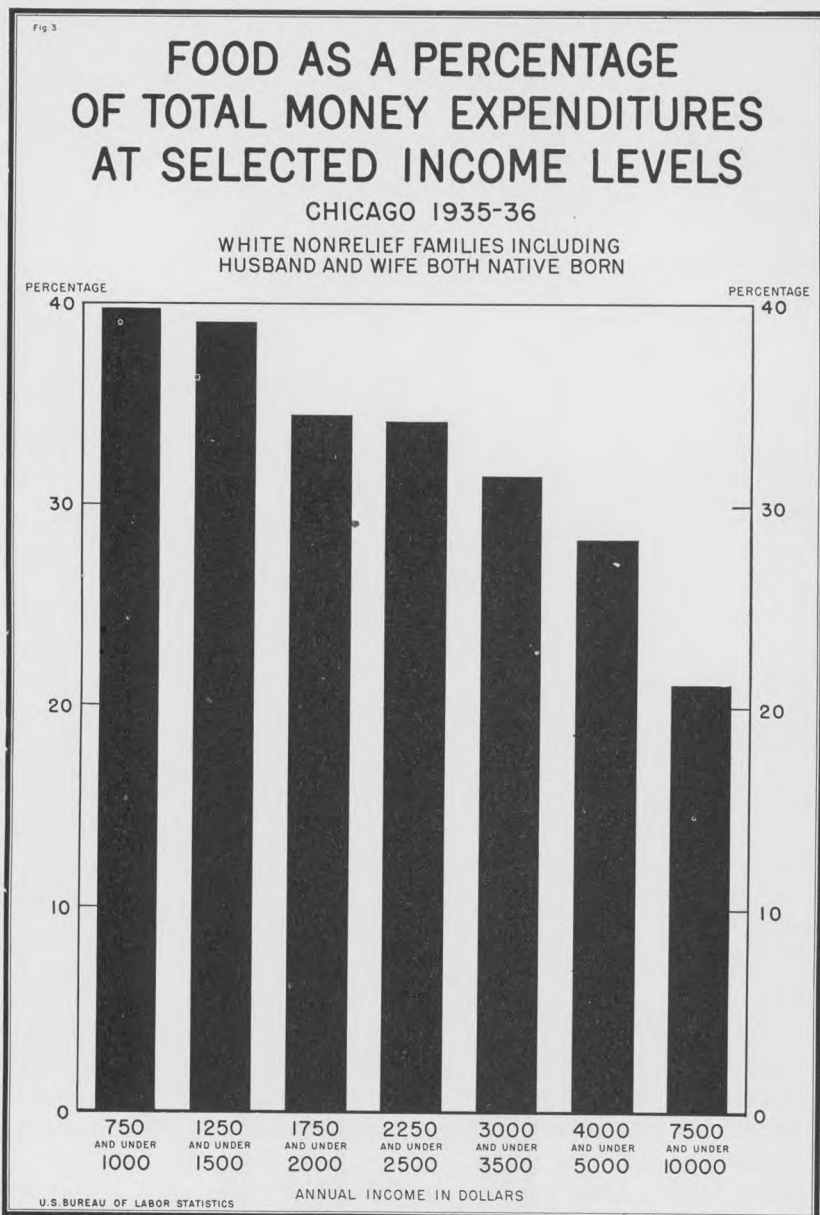
Income class	Families reporting increases		Families reporting decreases	
	Percent	Average amount	Percent	Average amount
\$500-\$749.....			11	\$120
\$750-\$999.....	8	\$98	9	33
\$1,000-\$1,249.....	12	79	9	43
\$1,250-\$1,499.....	14	90	4	70
\$1,500-\$1,999.....	16	98	5	124
\$2,000-\$2,499.....	16	138	6	123
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	15	229	7	186
\$3,000-\$3,499.....	13	287	6	143
\$3,500-\$3,999.....	9	292	7	291
\$4,000-\$4,999.....	8	204	12	245
\$5,000 and over.....	4	348	7	666

The relative importance of different-types of expenditure may be viewed either against the background of income or of expenditure.¹¹ In table 1, expenditures were expressed as a percentage of income. Since families at low incomes on the average spent more than their income and those at high incomes had substantial savings, it follows that the percent of income going for necessities falls sharply. Thus home maintenance at the lowest income level took one-half of the income and at the highest income level shown took less than one-fifth. However, a clearer picture of the way in which \$100 is spent at various income levels is shown in table 5.

Food, most urgent of the essentials of living, absorbed a larger proportion of total expenditures than any other category up to the \$1,750 level. Food expenditures rose with income from an average of \$385 among families with an income of \$500 to \$750 to an average of \$1,460 among families with an income of \$7,500 to \$10,000 for example. Despite this fact, food became a progressively smaller part of the total expenditure. At the lowest income level studied, 43.1 percent of all expenditures went for food; at the highest income level, 17.0 percent. This decrease occurred even though at the higher income levels a larger part of the food bill went for entertainment and meals eaten away from home.

Expenditures for home maintenance, like those for food, take a smaller part of the total expenditure as income rises. The decrease is less marked than in the case of food, however. Thus, at the lowest

¹¹ Throughout the discussion, the term "expenditures" is used to include the value of the nonmoney items consumed by the family during the year, and "total current expenditures" as equivalent to total value of current living. The term "money disbursement" is used to mean money expenditures for current living plus savings.



income level studied \$38.50 of each \$100 disbursed was spent for housing, fuel and power, furnishings and equipment, and household operation. At income levels above \$4,000, only about 30 percent was so used. This decrease occurred even though household service was included in the costs of household operation.

Considered together, these two basic essentials absorbed four-fifths of the total expenditures among families with incomes of less than \$750 and as much as one-half among families with \$7,500 to \$10,000.

TABLE 5.—Distribution of Total Current Expenditures Among Chicago Families, by Major Groups of Items

Income class	Total current expenditures ¹	Percent of total current expenditures						
		Food ²	Home maintenance ³	Clothing and personal care	Transportation ⁴	Medical care	Contributions and personal taxes ⁵	Other items ⁶
\$500-\$749	\$893	43.1	38.5	7.2	2.9	2.7	1.1	4.5
\$750-\$999	1,036	40.5	36.4	9.2	3.8	4.3	1.0	4.8
\$1,000-\$1,249	1,206	38.9	35.8	9.8	5.4	3.7	1.3	5.1
\$1,250-\$1,499	1,408	38.2	34.9	9.7	5.3	4.1	1.7	6.1
\$1,500-\$1,749	1,637	36.2	33.7	10.4	6.3	4.8	2.0	6.6
\$1,750-\$1,999	1,841	34.0	34.1	10.9	7.6	4.3	2.3	6.8
\$2,000-\$2,249	2,036	32.6	33.2	11.5	8.6	4.5	2.7	6.9
\$2,250-\$2,499	2,283	33.5	32.7	11.4	7.4	4.9	2.7	7.4
\$2,500-\$2,999	2,556	31.1	32.2	12.4	8.9	4.6	3.2	7.6
\$3,000-\$3,499	2,853	30.5	31.0	12.1	9.0	4.6	4.4	8.4
\$3,500-\$3,999	3,241	29.6	31.8	13.6	9.0	4.4	4.1	7.5
\$4,000-\$4,999	3,879	27.7	29.7	13.4	10.3	5.0	6.3	7.6
\$5,000-\$7,499	4,776	24.0	31.5	12.7	10.6	4.9	7.2	9.1
\$7,500-\$9,999	6,988	20.9	30.9	15.3	10.5	4.1	8.3	10.0
\$10,000 and over	10,552	17.0	29.6	13.6	9.5	2.3	18.2	9.8

¹ Includes money expenditures for consumption goods and services plus the money value of food, housing, and fuel received without direct expense.

² Includes expenditures for food and the value of food obtained without direct money outlay.

³ Includes expenditures for housing, household operation and furnishings and equipment, and the value of housing and fuel obtained without direct money outlay.

⁴ Includes expenditures for automobile purchase and operation, and other transportation.

⁵ Excludes sales taxes, which were included in the expense for the items to which they applied; automobile taxes, which were included in automobile operation expense; taxes on owned homes, included in housing expense; and taxes on other real estate, which were deducted from the gross income from such property.

⁶ Includes expenditures for recreation, reading, education, tobacco, and miscellaneous items.

Expenditures for clothing and personal care (barber, cosmetics, and beauty parlor) generally took the third largest share of total expense. Unlike the food and home maintenance items, such expenditures increased as income rose, relative to total current expenditures as well as in absolute amount. Thus, out of each \$100 spent by families with incomes of \$4,000, approximately twice as large a proportion went for clothing and personal care as among families with incomes of less than \$750. In the highest income brackets, the share received by these expenditures varied from one income level to the next with no clear indication of further relative increase.

In a metropolitan area like Chicago, the ownership of an automobile is far from being a necessity, for 90 percent of the families in the lowest income groups made expenditures for transportation only for trolley

and bus fares, with an occasional week-end trip to a resort on Lake Michigan or a railroad excursion to visit relatives or friends in the country. Ten percent of the families with incomes under \$1,000, however, reported the ownership of an automobile on which they spent on the average about \$55 during the year. However, the percentage of families owning automobiles rose very rapidly at higher income levels. More than three-quarters of the families at the \$3,500 to \$4,000 level owned cars, and in the group with incomes of \$7,500 to \$10,000 all families had at least one.

At almost all income levels except the lowest and the highest, expenditures for medical care constituted, on the average, between 4 and 5 percent of the total. These average expenditures ranged from \$24 among families with incomes of \$500 to \$750 to \$266 for families with incomes of \$7,500 or more. The variations concealed in the average expenditure for medical care at any given income level, however, tended to be greater than those found in expenditures for any other category. At every income level up to \$7,500, there were a few families which reported no expenditures for medical care, while at every income level above \$750, some families incurred expenses of over \$400. That the number of dollars for medical care did tend to increase at succeeding income levels, however, in spite of these wide differences between families, is indicated by the change in the proportion of families spending less than \$40 for medical care during the year. Almost three-fourths of the families with incomes of \$500 to \$750 spent less than \$40 for medical care. Even among families at the median interval (\$1,750 to \$2,000), more than two-fifths reported less than \$40. However, among families with incomes of \$3,000 to \$3,500, less than one-fifth reported expenditures under \$40, and among families with incomes above \$5,000, only one-tenth reported as small an expenditure as this for all medical care received. On the other hand, almost half the families above the \$5,000 level reported medical expenditures exceeding \$200.

Such marked differences in prevailing expenditures raised the question as to whether the families at low income levels actually had less illness, secured less expensive medical attention or free clinical services, or simply went without medical care during illnesses that at higher income levels were professionally attended. Preliminary examination of some of the detailed figures on medical services confirms the evidence derived from other studies¹² that the explanation is not to be found in less illness at the lower income levels. In general, large medical expenditures, when incurred by the Chicago families studied, reflected the cost of hospitalization and emergency surgical attention. The average number of days of

¹² See for example, the National Health Survey, *Sickness and Medical Care Series*, Preliminary Bulletin No. 2; *Illness and Medical Care in Relation to Economic Status*. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1938.

hospitalization (for those families reporting hospitalization) tended to be definitely greater among the low-income than among the high-income families. This suggests that the greater frequency of high medical expenditures among the high-income families was in large part a result of more costly treatment and more adequate preventive care, rather than of greater incidence of illness.

As would be expected, expenditures for gifts, community welfare, and personal taxes, were among the most elastic categories of expenditure. At the \$4,000 level the average expenditure was \$246, or more than 6 percent of total current expenditure, as compared with \$10, or approximately 1 percent of the expenditures of families with incomes under \$1,000 (see tables 1 and 5).

Amounts reported for taxes under this heading do not include sales taxes, which were included in the expense for the items to which they applied; automobile taxes, which were included in automobile operation expense; taxes on owned homes, which were treated as an expense of home ownership; nor taxes on other real property, which were deducted from the gross income from such property.

Income taxes and personal property taxes are, however, included here. They amounted to no more than \$7 a year, on the average, among families with incomes less than \$3,500, but increased rapidly, as would be expected, among families in the higher income brackets. Considerably less than 1 percent of total expenditures was taken by such direct taxes among families with incomes below \$5,000. In the three succeeding income intervals, namely, \$4,000 to \$5,000, \$5,000 to \$7,500, and \$7,500 to \$10,000, these taxes accounted for 1, 3, and 7 percent, respectively, of total expenditures.

The inclusion of these personal taxes caused the rise in the proportion of expenditures in the broad group of expenditures classified under the single heading of "contributions and taxes" in the income levels from \$4,000 to \$10,000. Contributions (exclusive of taxes) included such items as contributions to religious organizations, community welfare agencies, gifts to persons outside of the household, and support of relatives not living in the household. Such expenditures took on the average about 6 percent of total current expenses at all three income levels. The proportion rose again to about 11 percent of total expenditures among families with incomes of more than \$10,000.

Expenditures for recreation as such, tobacco, reading, education, and miscellaneous items have been grouped in tables 1 and 5 under the heading "other items." Tobacco received about 2 percent of total current expense at every income level, and books, newspapers, and magazines about 1 percent. Expenditures for amusements and recreational equipment received an increasing share of the total with increasing income.

TABLE 6.—*Distribution of Expenditures, by Chicago Families, for Contributions and Personal Taxes*

Income class	Average total amount	Percent of total contributions and personal taxes spent for—					
		Religious institutions	Support of relatives ¹	Gifts to other persons ¹	Community welfare agencies	Personal taxes ²	Other
\$500-\$749	\$10	53		15	3	29	
\$750-\$999	10	60	13	17	1	5	4
\$1,000-\$1,249	16	47	12	29	2	7	3
\$1,250-\$1,499	24	40	13	31	3	8	5
\$1,500-\$1,749	33	34	24	26	5	6	5
\$1,750-\$1,999	43	41	19	27	5	5	3
\$2,000-\$2,249	56	33	21	32	6	6	2
\$2,250-\$2,499	63	32	17	33	6	6	6
\$2,500-\$2,999	82	32	26	28	5	5	4
\$3,000-\$3,499	126	29	37	21	4	5	4
\$3,500-\$3,999	133	25	26	28	6	11	4
\$4,000-\$4,999	246	23	37	21	6	9	4
\$5,000-\$7,499	346	17	32	22	8	18	3
\$7,500-\$9,999	582	10	29	17	6	31	7
\$10,000 and over	1,923	7	37	7	6	36	7

¹ Refers to persons outside the economic family.

² Amounts reported for taxes under this heading include income and personal property taxes. They do not include sales taxes, which were included in the expense for the items to which they applied; automobile taxes, which were included in the automobile operation expenses; taxes on owned homes, which were treated as an expense of home ownership; nor taxes on other real property, which were deducted from the gross income from such property.

Of the sum spent on recreation, a larger share went for motion picture admission fees than for any other group of related items.

Even for the median income group (\$1,750 to \$2,000) almost half of the total spent for recreation went for motion pictures. Expenditures for other admissions—to theaters, concerts, lectures, spectator sports, dances, etc.—increased with income. They also increased as a proportion of the total recreation outlay, but the total was small in relation to expenditures for movies. They were also smaller, at most income levels, than expenditures for equipment and fees for participation in games and sports. These expenditures for active rather than passive leisure-time activities tended in general to increase with increasing income more rapidly than total recreation expenditures, and much more rapidly than family income.

Patterns of Expenditure

Variation of family expenditure is inherent in the process of a free selection of goods by the housewife and necessarily results from the exigencies of family living. Probably no two of the 2,700 families studied in Chicago spent the same amount for each of the long list of items currently bought by the American family.

The present report has concerned itself with groups of expenditures, rather than with particular items. Thus, it has summarized expenditures for food, rather than discussed butter and eggs. Expenditures for clothing have been treated as a single category. Such a consolidation naturally reduces the amount of variation.

When these highly individualized family purchases are considered together, however, certain patterns of expenditure begin to emerge. Differences even in the variability of family behavior can be broadly described. For example, there is relatively less variation in the expenditures for food at any given income level than in the expenditures of any other group of items. Variation of expenditure is also relatively small in any income group for such recurrent items in family spending as clothing, housing (including fuel, light, and refrigeration), and personal care.

The three most variable groups of items in the budget are medical care, furnishings and equipment, and automobile expenditures. At most of the income levels, the expenditures for medical care vary tremendously from family to family. Some families show no expenditures at all, others show small sums for medicine only, while a few show large expenditures for the care of the sick.

Expenditures for housefurnishings and for automobile purchase and operation are not so large in Chicago in relation to income as in some communities where dwellings are in general larger, where automobile operation is cheaper, and where municipal transportation is less developed. The outlays of families of the same size and income for these items frequently range from zero to fairly substantial amounts.

The variations of expenditures among families with a given income reflect, in part, the differences due to the composition of the family or the occupation of the breadwinner. Thus, large families, especially those with more adults, spend more for food, clothing and housing and less for items such as automobile purchase and operation or contributions to the community and to persons outside the economic family. Similarly, the effect of the occupation of the breadwinner on expenditures is shown by the fact that the outlay of wage-earner families for housing and household operation tends to be less, at any given income level for any given family type, than the expenditures of independent professional families. The lack of any consistent pattern of expenditure for medical care indicates a lack of preventive medicine, and annual physical and dental examinations. Such expenditures, if generally made, would be reflected in less variation of expenditures from family to family.

The most fundamental cause of variation of family expenditures is of course the variation of the family income. The present survey reveals significant shifts in the pattern of expenditures at successive income levels. It is not merely that more is spent at higher incomes. There is in general a smaller increase in the expenditures for basic necessities than for luxury items with increases in income. This can be seen from the statement below, which indicates the difference between expenditures by families with \$1,000 to \$1,250 and those by families with incomes of \$500 to \$750. With 75 percent more income, the

higher income group spent only 40 percent more for current living. The first use made of the large income was to balance expenditures more nearly with incomes, with the result that deficits were cut from approximately 30 percent of income to 6 percent. The increase in income did not result in any rise in the average expenditures for education (which in any event were very small). Expenditures for housing (including fuel, light, and refrigeration) increased by only 17 percent. Those for food, tobacco, household operation, and personal care rose less than did average total expenditures and substantially less than income. On the other hand, expenditures for furnishings and equipment increased 10 times as much as total expenditures. Between these income levels, expenditures for automobile purchase increased more than for any other group of items: 9 times as much as income, and 17 times as much as total expenditures.

The following statement indicates how expenditures increase as lower-level incomes increase.

	<i>Percent of increase in expenditures with increase in income from a \$500-\$749 range to a \$1,000-\$1,250 range</i>
Education.....	0
Value of housing ¹	17
Housing.....	22
Food ²	22
Tobacco.....	35
Household operation.....	38
Personal care.....	39
Transportation other than by automobile.....	43
Reading.....	44
Contributions and personal taxes.....	60
Recreation.....	75
Medical care.....	88
Clothing.....	102
Furnishings and equipment.....	400
Automobile operation.....	575
Automobile purchase.....	700

¹ Including fuel, light, and refrigeration, imputed income from owned homes and rent received as gift or pay.

² Including food received without money expense.

Although it is evident from this illustration that some expenditures grow much more rapidly than income and thus show a high degree of elasticity, it should be noted that the relative elasticity of expenditures for various items changes at different points on the income scale. Thus the figures above may be compared with those in the statement below which shows changes in expenditures over the income range from \$4,000 to \$9,999, an increase in average incomes of approximately 95 percent, in total current expenditures of 82 percent, and an increase in net savings of 172 percent.

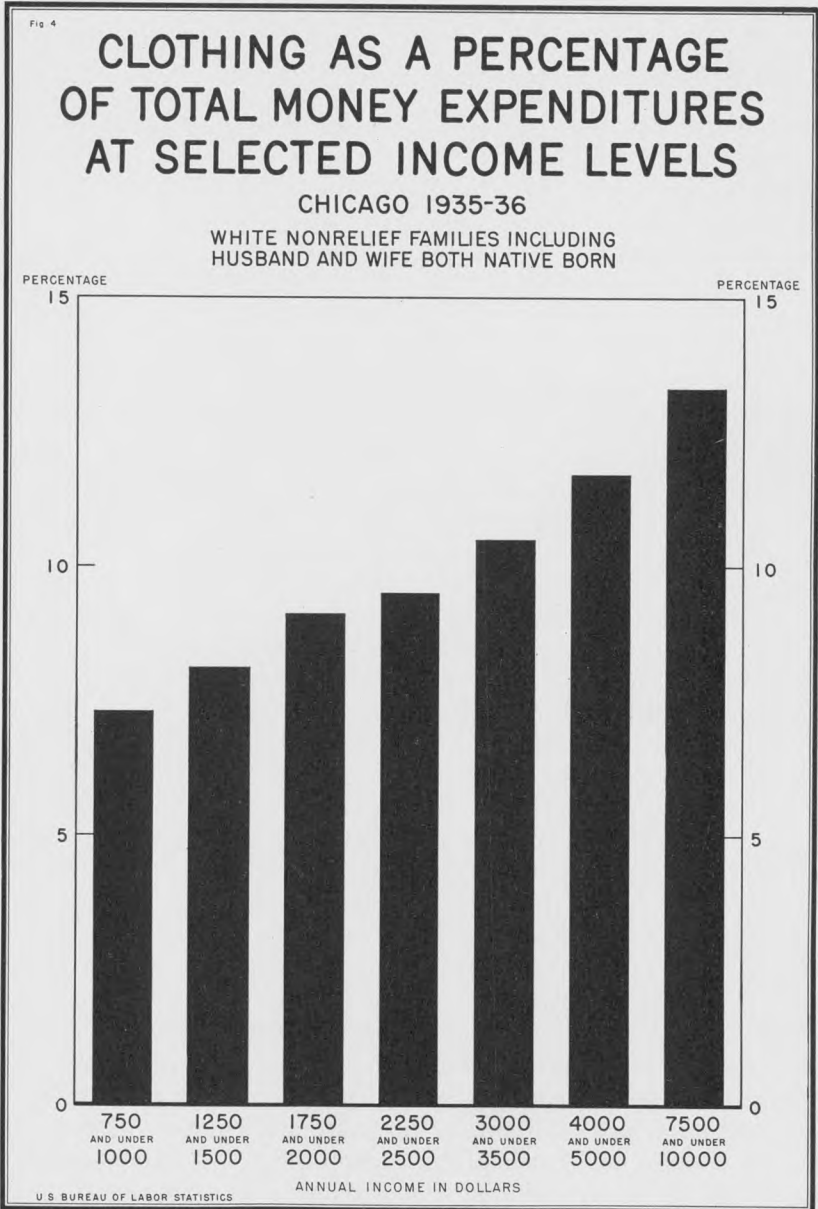
Percent of increase in expenditures with increase from a \$4,000-\$4,999 range to a \$7,500-\$9,999 range

Transportation other than by automobile.....	20
Food.....	36
Tobacco.....	45
Medical care.....	48
Value of housing.....	66
Furnishings and equipment.....	68
Housing.....	73
Reading.....	74
Automobile operation.....	88
Personal care.....	104
Clothing.....	108
Automobile purchase.....	114
Contributions and personal taxes.....	137
Recreation.....	157
Household operation.....	163
Education.....	206

The most striking change in elasticity of expenditures between the lower income range and the upper is found in the case of education. Average outlay for education by Chicago families in the income class \$1,000 to \$1,250 was the same as the average outlay of families in the \$500 to \$750 group. Children among the lower income groups are almost invariably sent to public school, and direct expenditures for formal education are kept to the minimum necessary for the purchase of school supplies. Between the income levels \$4,000 to \$5,000 and \$7,500 to \$10,000, on the other hand, average expenditures for school equipment, and school and college tuition increased over 200 percent. Expenditures for medical care were considerably more elastic at the lower part of the income scale than at the upper. The same was true of expenditures for furnishings and equipment, automobile purchase, and automobile operation.¹³

It is apparent from these figures that \$1,000,000 of current income spent by Chicago families above the \$4,000 level affects the market quite differently than \$1,000,000 spent by families at the \$1,250 level. One million dollars spent by 660 families with incomes between \$1,000 and \$2,000 is used to buy about \$370,000 worth of food products, including food served in restaurants and hotels. About \$350,000 goes for home maintenance, including current expenditures for household operation, and additions to furniture and equipment; \$110,000 goes for clothing and personal care; about \$65,000 for transportation expense of all kinds, including the purchase and operation of automobiles. Expenditures for drugs, medicines, medical appliances, and medical services total about \$40,000, while the category representing

¹³ Because of the fact that the range over which the increases were measured was greater both absolutely and relatively at the higher level than at the lower, the percentage increases in the two ranges are not wholly comparable. It is noteworthy, however, that elasticity in expenditures for food and clothing were very similar at both ends of the income scale.



gifts, contributions and personal taxes, receives about \$20,000 and that representing other consumption goods about \$65,000. At this income level current expenditures slightly exceed income and about 1 percent of total expense is financed by withdrawals from past reserves, or by borrowing.

The disposition of \$1,000,000 by Chicago families with incomes that averaged above \$5,000 is quite different. At this level \$1,000,000 is divided among about 130 families. Only about \$165,000 is spent for food; \$240,000 goes for home maintenance; \$100,000 for clothing and personal care; about \$80,000 for transportation, and \$30,000 for medical care. At this income level \$75,000 is spent for gifts, contributions to community organizations, and personal taxes. Approximately \$70,000 is spent for the goods and services classified in the minor consumption categories. The balance of this \$1,000,000 (about \$240,000) reaches the banks and the investment market, either directly or indirectly. It is used to cancel obligations incurred in the past, or reserved for future use, either in the form of bank deposits, insurance premiums, or in capital investments.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN 1937 AND 1938

By MARY T. WAGGAMAN, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

Summary

FAMILY allowances are special cash supplements to salaried workers and wage earners, who are heads of families, to enable them to meet more adequately the additional expenses resulting from their responsibility for the maintenance of their dependents. These payments, proportioned to family responsibility, represent an attempt to ameliorate, from the social viewpoint, the situation produced by wage and salary systems based upon output and hours worked, which are not devised to take into account the great variations in the number of the workers' young children.

Although very little use of family allowances has been made in the United States,¹ the successful experiments along this line abroad have been of considerable social significance in many of the countries where such payments have been instituted.

During 1937-38 grants of this character were being made in at least 28 countries. In some countries, such as Argentina, Chile, and Japan, only a few sporadic experiments in this field had been made. In Belgium, France, and Italy, however, compulsory, nation-wide systems had been established. Other countries, with varying degrees of acceptance of the family-allowance principle, fell between these extremes.

Considerable expansion in the movement took place in 1937 and 1938. Among the noteworthy developments were those in Belgium, France, Italy, and New Zealand.

In Belgium, where family allowances were being paid in the coal-mining industry as early as 1915, the system spread until by 1936 it covered children of all persons employed by others throughout the country. By an act passed in 1937 children of employers and independent workers were covered under the system; this legislation will be put into effect by degrees, beginning January 1, 1938. France, which has had an all-industry plan, established in 1932 but going into force for various groups at specified later dates, issued two decrees in 1938 which broadened and liberalized this system. One of these

¹ One industrial establishment in the United States, the Columbia Conserve Co. (Indianapolis, Ind.), has been paying family allowances to its workers for many years; and the Salvation Army makes such allowances to its officers also. The principle of the basic wage and dependency allotments is used as a guide in Bennington College (Bennington, Vt.) in fixing salaries and determining increases in pay. Wells College (Aurora-on-Cayuga, N. Y.), which formerly had such a plan, reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (letter of August 29, 1938) that it had abandoned it.

From October 1917 to July 31, 1921, enlisted men in the United States Army and Navy were required to allot portions of their pay to their families, and these allotments were matched by the Federal Government. For some years family allowances were paid in cases of disabled veterans who were undergoing rehabilitation.

extended the coverage to practically all the rural population, including proprietors; and the other created a national fund to which all family-allowance funds must affiliate, provided for minimum allowances (to be revised annually) based on collective agreements, and raised the maximum age for child beneficiaries. An Italian law of 1937 broadened the coverage of the family-allowance system so extensively that it is expected that when the act has gone into full operation more than 5¼ million workers and their families will benefit by allowances.

In New Zealand the family-endowment scheme, formerly carried on under a separate statute, was incorporated in a general social security system effective April 1, 1939, and the provisions relative to child endowment were liberalized.

Wage supplements based upon the number of workers' dependents were reported in some countries before 1914. The movement received a great impetus during and immediately following the World War as a result of the tremendous rise in the prices of the necessities of life and the demands of the workers for a "living wage." The setting of a living wage in turn posed the question of the size of the family to be considered in fixing such a wage. On the theory that the living wage could take into consideration only a family of average size, the "standard" family most generally adopted was that consisting of man, wife, and two or three children. The incomes of even standard families, however, were found to be utterly inadequate in the face of the wartime level of living costs. Larger families were, of course, in countless cases suffering even greater privations.

In this situation governments and private industries turned to systems of family allowances under which they could relieve the hard-pressed married workers in their personnel, and which had the additional advantage of releasing them from having to pay increases to all workers in the midst of lean years. Undoubtedly, also, the relation of family allowances to the maintenance of the future labor supply and to the problem of man power² in the event of war has given a strong added impulse to the movement for the "sursalaire" or social wage.

The systems of family allowances in force at present are of three major types:

- (1) Those confined to public-service employees.
- (2) Those financed entirely by private industry, jointly by the State and private industry, or by the State, private industry, and the workers; these may be either compulsory or voluntary.
- (3) Those involving direct family endowment by the State.

² It was reported to the 1938 Congress of French Family Allowance Funds that in 1937 the birth rate in families receiving family allowances was 15 percent above the general birth rate in that country; in 1926 it had reached a high point of 38 percent above the general rate.

PRACTICES IN PAYING FAMILY ALLOWANCES

Various methods have been adopted for the payment of family allowances. Under some plans these grants are paid to all married men, regardless of whether or not they have children. Under others they are paid only to those with children, but frequently the word "children" is interpreted to include not only legitimate children, but also legitimized and illegitimate, adopted and foster children, and stepchildren. Wives also may be included in benefits, and in some instances even common-law wives and divorced wives. The number of children for whom benefits may be paid varies, as well; some systems pay for a specified number of children, some for all children below a given age, or for all but the first one or two. Even children in the higher age groups (up to 24 years) are included in some plans, though generally only under specified circumstances.

The workers benefiting by the system are in some instances only those in the lower-income groups, but other systems cover all with family responsibilities regardless of income level.

Payment may be made on an hourly, weekly, monthly, or annual basis. The grant may be a percentage of the wage or salary, or may take the form of a higher wage. In some cases the allowance has no connection with wage or salary received.

FAMILY-ALLOWANCE FUNDS

The cost of benefits naturally varies considerably from company to company and group to group, according to the relative number of dependents for whom grants must be made. To meet this situation "compensation funds" have been created in some countries, notably Belgium and France. These funds, operating over a considerably wider field than that presented by the industrial firm, serve to "spread the risk" and to equalize the cost of benefits among the employers.

The membership of these funds may cover all employers in the area, or may be confined to specified industries or trades. The employers affiliate with the appropriate fund, making their contributions to it. Such contributions are calculated in various ways—on the basis of number of days worked, total number of workers employed, total wage bill, etc. The contributions of some agricultural funds have been based on the amount of ground under cultivation by affiliated members. In some cases employers with large numbers of young workers without dependents pay smaller contributions.

The advantages of the compensation funds are that, by spreading the cost over a larger group of employers, they prevent the penalizing of those who have hired workers with large numbers of dependents, and thus they also forestall the discrimination against such workers that would result if an individual employer had to be responsible personally for the payments of benefits to his force.

Family Allowances in Private Industry

In the field of family allowances the most important countries are Belgium, France, and Italy. In the first two of these, the progress of the family-allowance movement has been remarkable. Initiated by private employers, the systems in both countries are now compulsory but are still financed by private industry. In Italy the scheme is compulsory upon private enterprises, but the funds are derived from contributions from the State, employers, and workers.

BELGIUM

As early as 1915 family allowances were being paid in the coal-mining industry in Belgium. The first family-allowance fund was set up in 1921. At the close of 1929 there were 44 family-allowance funds, trade or regional, in private industry. A law making family allowances compulsory in private industry was passed August 4, 1930. A royal decree of March 30, 1936, modified the law and coordinated all previous royal decrees on the subject.

Contributions to the family-allowance funds are made by the employer on the basis of the number of employed, without regard to the number of children any of the individual workers may have to support.

With certain specified exceptions the law is applicable to every employer of one or more persons of either sex, regardless of age, in industrial, commercial, or agricultural enterprises, as assistants in the liberal professions, or as domestic servants. As already noted, the employees of the Government, Provinces, communes, public establishments, and public-utility organizations are also covered by the law.

An act of June 10, 1937, extended the scope of family allowances to the children of employers and independent workers. This legislation will become effective by degrees from January 1, 1938, and through royal decrees mutual-benefit funds, attached to existing family-allowance funds, will be created to provide for the payment of these new allowances.

Family-allowance funds.—All employers are required to become members of a family-allowance fund. The funds are of four different types: (1) Primary funds, organized by private employers previous to the enactment of the law of August 4, 1930 (but recognized by that law), and new funds created after that date, having at least 50 employer members with a combined force of at least 3,000 workers. (2) Special funds, created to cover intermittent employments. These include hotel keepers, barkeepers, shipowners, employers of workers engaged in ship repairing, stevedoring, fishing, or domestic labor, or traveling as salesmen for one or more employers. (3) The Auxiliary Fund, to which all employers are automatically affiliated who were not members of a primary or special fund when the law of August 4,

1930, became effective. (4) The National Equalization Fund, to which the other funds contribute part or all of their net surpluses as a means of meeting the net deficit of any of the funds. The wide variation in the birth rate in different parts of Belgium makes a great difference in the expenses of the compensation funds in different regions of the country. The National Fund also pays allowances for certain children cared for by persons whose employers are not required to pay contributions, i. e., children supported by charwomen, children orphaned by industrial accidents, children of pensioners, etc.

At the First International Congress of Family Allowances, held in Paris on July 8, 1937, it was reported that 80 funds had been approved by the Government. At that time there were also 7 special funds, 1 State auxiliary fund, and the National Equalization Fund.

Amounts of contributions and of allowances.—The employers' contributions to the funds vary according to the cost-of-living index and are increased or decreased by royal decree. In April 1938 the daily rates were 1.10 francs for each man and 0.60 franc for each woman employed. If at least 23 days are worked in the month, the employer makes a monthly lump-sum contribution which is also based on the cost-of-living index. The monthly contributions in April 1938 were at the rate of 27.50 francs for a man and 15 francs for a woman, this differential, it was explained, being due to the fact that few women were supporting families and that in practically all cases they gave up work when they acquired a family. The funds may also claim a small additional contribution for administrative expenses.

Bids for supplying material to the Belgian Government or for public works, made by firms in foreign countries where family allowances are not granted, must be raised 1 percent in order that they compare with the bids of Belgian manufacturers.

Allowances are paid for children up to 18 years of age, except in the case of children who go to work after they are 14 years of age. When children are mentally or physically defective, they are eligible for allowances indefinitely.

The minimum allowances, as reported in April 1938, were as follows:

	<i>Francs per day</i>	<i>Francs per month</i>
First child.....	0. 80	20. 60
Second child.....	1. 40	35. 00
Third child.....	2. 25	58. 00
Fourth child.....	3. 50	98. 00
Fifth and each subsequent child.....	4. 95	124. 00

The amount paid in allowances under the Belgian system in 1937 was 336,631,410 francs—104,751,678 francs more than in the preceding year. In 1937 the assessments made to finance family allowances under the law totaled 389,286,790 francs—an increase of 115,562,411 over 1936.

Statistics for the last quarter of 1936 and 1937 are shown below:

	1937	1936
Affiliated enterprises.....	130,780	120,855
Workers, male and female.....	1,571,667	1,486,000
Families receiving allowances.....	566,722	549,514
Child beneficiaries.....	1,049,067	990,126

The following statement gives the number of families, with specified numbers of dependent children, in receipt of allowances in 1936 and 1937:

	Number of families	
	1937	1936
1 child.....	299,718	301,385
2 children.....	151,407	143,545
3 children.....	61,686	56,743
4 children.....	28,328	25,475
5 children.....	13,694	12,001
6 children.....	6,732	5,766
7 children.....	3,081	2,780
8 children.....	1,285	1,161
9 children.....	539	468
10 children.....	186	144
11 children.....	52	35
12 children.....	10	8
13 children.....	3	2
14 children.....	1	1

In 1937 more than one-third (36.05 percent) of the workers had family responsibilities. The number of child dependents of these workers averaged 1.80; almost 53 percent of these families had only 1 child and about 27 percent had 2 children. The average allowance per family for the same year was 604.04 francs.

CHILE

A Chilean act of February 5, 1937, regulated by decrees of March 22 and May 11, 1937, which fixes minimum salaries for salaried employees of private establishments and semiofficial institutions, provides that such employees, without regard to salary grade, who support mothers, wives, or children under 18 years of age are entitled to a family allowance of equal amount for each of these dependents. These grants are to be financed from a fund to which employers are to contribute 2 percent of the amount paid in salaries and their employees an equal sum.

The employer pays the family allowance at the same time he pays the salary. If the contributions do not suffice to cover the amount due in allowances, the deficit is met by the Welfare Fund for Employees of Private Firms. If contributions exceed the sum to be paid in allowances, the employer reimburses the fund for what he owes for previous advances.

The amount of the allowance per dependent is to be determined by the fund at the close of each year and is to be based upon the experience of the preceding year. Employers who establish their own family-allowance schemes, toward which their staff does not contribute, are exempted from compliance with this provision of the law if the allowances they pay are equal to or exceed the employer's contribution under the act. Semiofficial institutions are prohibited from taking advantage of this act in order to reduce the family allowance already established for their employees.

Family allowances are not subject to taxation or attachment.

A Chilean decree (No. 821) of April 14, 1938, approves family allowances for the staff of the railway from Arica to La Paz; and another decree (No. 1079) of May 27, 1938, authorizes a supplementary payment in the form of family allowances for the staff of the railway from Iquique to Pintados, if their salaries or wages do not exceed 1,537 pesos per month.

In 1938 the iron mines near Cruz Grande granted to their workers, numbering about 400, an allowance of 1 peso per day for a wife or dependent mother and 0.50 peso per day per child. At the Coronel coal mines, monthly allowances of 10 pesos for a wife and 10 pesos for each child were paid.

In breweries the workers receive a supplement of 0.50 peso per day for the wife and for each child under the age of 14. Grants of 100 pesos per month for the wife and 50 pesos for each minor child are made in an explosives plant.

FRANCE

It was not until 1932 that a law was enacted making the payment of family allowances compulsory for all employers, although allowances had been granted voluntarily and extensively by private employers years before, and by certain mine operators even before the World War. The 1932 law became effective by degrees, certain classes of industries coming under its provisions on dates specified by administrative regulations. Employers in these industries are required to be affiliated with a family-allowance fund or some other institution, approved by the Minister of Labor, organized by employers for the purpose of equalizing the cost of family allowances.

Two decrees in 1938 so extended the system of family allowances in agriculture as to benefit practically all the rural population, including agricultural laborers working fewer than 75 days per annum, members of farmers' families doing work comparable to that of wage earners, tenant farmers, and even small proprietors and farmers. In the case of small proprietors and farmers, however, no allowance is paid for the first child.

Under a decree issued November 12, 1938, and effective April 1, 1939, the minimum scale of family allowances is to be determined

annually for each Department by the Minister of Labor. This minimum for the first child must be at least 5 percent of the adult male wage earner's monthly salary, for the second child 10 percent, and for each subsequent child, 15 percent. The prefect of each Department is to fix the average wage each year on the basis of collective agreements. The grants must be made until the child is 17 years of age. If both the father and mother are employed—and therefore both entitled to family allowances—only one (the more substantial) allowance is to be paid.

This new measure includes penalties for families' failure to rear their children under satisfactory nutritional and hygienic conditions; accords increases in allowances to families in which the mother remains at home; and takes away the arbitrators' authority relative to family allowances that was conferred by the law of March 4, 1938, concerning conciliation and arbitration procedures, as it was found that arbitration of questions concerning family allowances created difficult problems.

The decree also provides for the creation of a national fund, which is to receive contributions from the family-allowance funds in order to assist those funds which are most heavily burdened with workers' dependents.

Family-allowance funds.—The first family-allowance funds in France were established in 1918, and at the end of 1920 such funds numbered 57. Although created at the outset to equalize the expenses of their affiliated members, these organizations have steadily increased their activities along the line of welfare services for workers' families.

The importance of the present system in France is disclosed in the report made at the eighteenth annual congress of French Family Allowance Funds at Nancy in May 1938, presenting the following statistics.

TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Family-Allowance Funds in France, January 1, 1937, and January 1, 1938*

[Average exchange rate of franc in 1937=4.05 cents, and in 1938=2.88 cents]

Item	Jan. 1—		Percent of increase, 1937 to 1938
	1938	1937	
Family-allowance funds.....number	228	225	1.3
Affiliated employers.....do	390,000	280,000	39.0
Wage earners and employees.....do	5,315,000	4,800,000	10.0
Workers receiving allowances.....do	1,617,000	1,495,000	8.0
Child beneficiaries.....do	2,869,000	2,600,000	10.0
Amount paid in family allowances during year preceding.....francs	1,340,000,000	872,000,000	53.0

The percent of increase in the number of affiliated employers, the above table shows, was almost four times that in the number of wage earners and salaried workers.

The very large increase in the number of employers from 1937 to 1938 is accounted for by the fact that most of the adherents to the funds during the latter year were small establishments—in general, those of retailers. The increase in the number of families (8 percent) as compared to that in the number of children (10 percent) might seem to suggest that the families of retailers averaged more dependent children than the other families. This is explained, however, by the raising in the last quarter of 1936 of the school-leaving age from 13 to 14 years. Although the percent of increase in the amount of allowances was more than five times that in the number of beneficiaries, this was because the allowance rates had been raised very appreciably.

Addition of the total allowances paid by special services (coal mines, railways, and concessions in public services) to the annual allowances paid by the compensation funds, would raise the disbursement by private enterprises to a total of 2,300,000,000 francs.

Social services.—In 1937, 8 funds were added to those which maintain social services, bringing the number to 178 out of a total of 228. Thirty-five funds which already had such services added new branches during the year. The number of visiting nurses increased from 487 to 586, and the number of children sent to vacation colonies from 17,500 to 22,700.

GERMANY

Even before the World War, family responsibilities were taken into consideration by private industry in Germany in the payment of wages. In 1923, the period of highest inflation of the currency, family-allowance systems suffered a considerable set-back, but during the past few years there has been a revival of interest in the subject. About 1937 a plan for family allowances was introduced for the tobacco industry, and in 1938 such benefits were being paid in establishments in the bituminous coal, brown coal, boot and shoe, iron and steel, leather goods, mineral oil, paper, potash, shipbuilding, and soap industries in certain districts in Germany. A compensation fund organized by doctors, dentists, and pharmacists has also been reported.

GREAT BRITAIN

For more than 150 years the Wesleyan Methodist Church in England has paid children's maintenance allowances to its ministers. In 1938 the rate was 8 guineas a year for each child up to 18 years of age, plus £12 per annum for the last 6 years of education. Children's allowances are also paid in the primitive Methodist Church and to the clergy in some of the dioceses of the Church of England.

For over 7 years the London School of Economics has supplemented the basic salaries of the members of its staff eligible for such benefits by an allowance of £30 annually for each child up to 13 years of age

and of £60 for each child 13 to 22 years of age, provided that in the latter age group the child is being educated in a place regarded as satisfactory.

E. S. & A. Robinson (cardboard manufacturers) of Bristol started experimenting with family allowances in 1917. In 1938 they paid weekly benefits of 2s. 6d. for each child, beginning with the third, to employees whose normal weekly wages were not over £4. The beneficial social results from these subsidies are reported as out of all proportion to their cost, and the firm's factories in Scotland have recently adopted the scheme.

Pilkington Bros., Ltd. (glass manufacturers), granted an allowance in 1938 of 5s. per week per dependent child, beginning with the fourth, to employees earning less than £400 a year. The estimated cost of these benefits was 0.6 percent of the total wage bill.

The following table shows the variations in family responsibilities, among employees of Pilkington Bros., Ltd.:

TABLE 2.—Variations in Family Responsibilities Among Members of Pilkington Bros., Ltd., Staff

Size of family	Number of children up to—		
	14 years	15 years	16 years
Total families.....	2,369	2,465	2,563
1 child	1,176	1,176	1,183
2 children.....	691	735	755
3 children.....	280	299	339
Over 3 children.....	222	255	286

Macleans', Ltd. (manufacturers of chemicals), paid 5s for each child, beginning with the second, to employees whose weekly wage including allowances did not exceed £5. The cost was 1.88 percent of the wages bill of the male factory personnel and a very much lower percentage of the total bill for wages.

One concern which adopted a plan of family allowances as recently as 1938 is Tootal Broadhurst Lee Co., Ltd. (textile manufacturers). It was estimated that several hundred of the firm's 4,000 to 5,000 workers would receive allowances. Under its plan a man who has 4 or more children under 14 years of age is entitled to an allowance of 5s. per week for each child in excess of 3. A worker with 5 children will be granted 10s. per week; one with 6 children, 15s., etc. Employees whose weekly earnings are above £6 are not eligible for these bonuses.

Other companies experimenting with allowances are: J. Bibby & Sons, of Liverpool; Brittain's, Ltd. (paper manufacturers); John Thompson Engineering Co., Ltd.; Barloch Typewriter Co., Ltd.; and Rountrees, Ltd., York.

GREECE

A collective agreement of June 29, 1937, governing the employment of bank clerks, included rules which will constitute a basis for future individual contracts. This agreement, in addition to setting the salary scale, fixed rates of family allowances.

A collective agreement concluded at the close of 1937, fixes minimum salary rates for salaried workers in all kinds of limited liability companies (industrial, commercial, and other) except banks and offices for private insurance, solicitors' offices, and incorporated institutions. Under this agreement heads of families, either men or women, receive a monthly supplement to their salaries of from 75 to 100 drachmas for every child not at work. Moreover, the agreement provides for an additional allowance of 200 drachmas per month to all married employees, except those acting as bank messengers, warehousemen, office messengers, and similar staff members, whose allowance is only 100 drachmas.

A collective agreement which provides for family allowances was signed in the early part of 1938 by the private insurance companies and their employees.

ITALY

During the World War some collective agreements in Italy took into consideration the workers' family responsibilities, but after 1920 few contracts contained stipulations for supplemental allowances for dependents. In 1934, however, a restricted family-allowance system was established, which extended aid to heads of families whose earnings were cut by the shorter working week fixed for industrial establishments by the collective agreements of October 11, 1934, and later dates. A royal decree-law of August 21, 1936, made the system obligatory for all industrial workers with dependent children, regardless of the number of hours worked per week. Under this law collective contracts have also been made in other branches of business (as in finance and commerce) which are extending the coverage of the system. Under the act of June 17, 1937, and the decree of July 21, 1937, the family-allowance system was still further extended, the payment of family allowances being made compulsory as to wage-earner heads of families, regardless of age, sex, or nationality.

The law of June 17, 1937, provides for weekly allowances, to heads of families employed as wage earners in industry, of 3.60 lire for one child, 4.80 lire for two or three children, and 6.00 lire for four or more children; higher rates are fixed for salaried employees. Under collective agreements of August 3, 1937, clerks, commercial travelers, and canvassers engaged as salesmen, who are heads of families, receive monthly allowances ranging from 19.20 lire for one child to as much as 28.80 lire for four or five children.

Allowances are restricted to workers' children under 14 years of age, but the age limit is extended to 16 years of age in case of children permanently and totally disabled or those attending a first-grade vocational or secondary school. Salaried employees' children receive allowances up to 18 years of age.

The State contributes to the system, but its contribution may not exceed 0.60 lira for each weekly allowance granted. Industrial employers contribute 3½ percent of the gross earnings, and their employees 1 percent. Agricultural employers and workers have their special rates of contribution.

TABLE 3.—*Extent of Family Allowances in Italy, May 1938*

[Average exchange rate of lira in May 1938=5.26 cents]

Division	Contributions due or collected	Number of enterprises assessed	Amount of allowances	Number of children entitled to allowances	Number of family heads eligible for allowance
All divisions.....	<i>Lira</i> 76,945,000	265,959	<i>Lira</i> 65,675,000	3,040,540	1,353,028
Agriculture.....	6,535,000	120,115	10,730,000	766,460	292,074
Industry.....	66,732,000	121,823	50,639,000	2,076,188	964,032
Commerce ¹	3,678,000	24,021	4,206,000	177,892	96,922

¹ Includes workers employed by professional men and artists and also the workers in credit and insurance enterprises and services dependent upon them.

Employees in the credit and insurance business were also assured the benefit of family allowances, under an agreement of August 1, 1938, between the National Fascist Federation of Savings Institutions and workers in affiliated institutions and the National Fascist Federation of Officials of Credit, Insurance, and Subordinate Services.

It is expected that the system contemplated by the legislation of June 17, 1937, will eventually cover some 5,255,000 workers and employees, including 2,500,000 industrial workers, 2,200,000 agricultural workers, 220,000 industrial and agricultural employees, 265,000 commercial workers, and 70,000 workers employed in credit and insurance establishments. The system when in full operation will, it is estimated, involve an annual expenditure of 717,578,400 lire.³ The contribution of the State under the new scheme for industry and agriculture will total about 84,043,000 lire.

JAPAN

Prior to May 1937 a large number of factories in Japan had raised their wage rates, because of the upward trend in prices, and labor organizations had started a campaign for pay increases. In this connection several companies in the textile industry introduced a new system of family allowances.

The Tokyo Cotton Spinning Co.'s family-allowance scheme affected 38,000 workers in 42 factories. Its plan provided for an allowance

³ Exchange rate of lira in 1938=5.26 cents.

of 1 yen per month to male workers and 50 sen to female workers. A male worker with more than 1 dependent in his household received a special allowance of at least 2 yen per month, and woman workers with similar responsibilities 1 yen 50 sen. In general the allowances were 30 percent higher for workers in factories located in urban districts. Two other important spinning concerns, the Kanegafuchi Co. and the Dai Nihon Co. had recourse to similar measures.

NETHERLANDS

In some branches of private industry, such as stores, cigar making, shoe manufacturing, etc., a weekly allowance of half a florin is usually granted for each dependent child.

A collective agreement of July 29, 1935, which was renewed on January 1, 1937, between the Federation of Footwear Manufacturers and the three trade unions in the industry in the Netherlands, provides that workers with four or more children shall receive a weekly allowance of 1 florin for each child under 14 years of age, beginning with the fourth. The Federation has undertaken to set up a fund from which the allowances will be paid.

NEW SOUTH WALES

In New South Wales bank employees receive allowances for their children under an award by the New South Wales Industrial Commission in June 1927. Banks are required to pay allowances, to employees covered by the award, at an annual rate of £32 for each child under 14 years of age (or under 16 years of age if the child still attends school), provided the amount of this allowance together with the salary, aside from other allowances, is not in excess of £750 per annum. Certain modifications have been made in this provision for some institutions through agreement between the parties.

SPAIN

The July 19, 1938, issue of the Official State Bulletin of the Franco Government contained the text of a law instituting a compulsory centralized system of family allowances, to which the Government, employers, and wage and salaried workers are to contribute. These contributions are to be fixed by administrative regulation.

The Institute of Social Insurance is required to organize a national fund which will cover all employers and their workers, except the personnel of the State, Provincial, and municipal administrations, certain other public bodies, and cities of less than 20,000 residents; the excepted administrations may affiliate voluntarily with the national fund.

The resources of the national fund, it is stated, are to be made up of a grant of 5 million pesetas from the State, the contributions of

employers, and a tax of 10 percent on such part of dividends as exceeds 6 percent.

No allowance is provided for families with 1 child, but 15 pesetas are to be paid per month for 2 children with higher allowances for additional children; they range up to 145 pesetas per month for 12 children and an increase of 25 pesetas for the thirteenth and each additional child.

URUGUAY

A family-allowance fund in Montevideo was reported in 1937. A number of establishments have also adopted a system of family allowances for their employees.

OTHER COUNTRIES

Family allowances are paid in certain professions of Czecho-Slovakia to certain land workers in Hungary and Latvia, and to a varying extent in private industry in Estonia, Luxemburg, Poland, Portugal, Switzerland, and Yugoslavia.

Family Allowances in Public Employment

Based on information for 1937 or 1938, family allowances are being paid in the State civil service of at least 19 foreign countries—Australia, Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Norway, Rumania, Switzerland, and Yugoslavia.⁴ Furthermore, grants of this kind are being made in the Navy of Great Britain, in certain State mines in Hungary, in the public service of the municipality of Buenos Aires, Argentina, in certain communal agencies in Chile, and to the Peruvian police force. Data for some of the countries in which these supplements to wages or salaries are being paid in public employment are given below.

ARGENTINA

An order of December 23, 1937, provided that beginning with May 1, 1938, the municipality of Buenos Aires should add to the monthly remuneration of its salaried and wage-earning employees receiving up to 300 pesos per month an allowance of 5 pesos for each child under 15 years of age wholly dependent upon the head of the family.

AUSTRALIA

Employees of the public service of the Commonwealth of Australia have been receiving family allowances since November 1920. The rate is 5s. per week for each dependent child under 14 years of age,

⁴ The granting of allowances for dependents of persons in State civil employment in Greece was instituted at the beginning of the World War, but no definite information is available as to present practice.

provided the salary plus the allowances is not more than £500 per annum. In practice the entire cost of the scheme is met by the employees themselves, as in fixing the basic wage for the determination of the salaries and wages of the personnel of the Commonwealth service, the public-service arbitrator deducts from the rate which he would otherwise award an amount sufficient to cover the cost of the allowances for children.

BELGIUM

During the World War a number of Belgian local public services paid family allowances and such grants were also made in the Provinces and communes. The National Government first instituted family allowances on March 1, 1920, and since that time the staffs of the Provinces, communes, public establishments, and public utility organizations have been added.

FINLAND

As early as 1917 family allowances were being paid to certain classes of State employees in Finland. Under the present system an allowance of 1,200 Finnish marks per annum is accorded to employees in the State civil service in 21 of the 30 grades for each child under 16 years of age, beginning with the second. Officials and other employees in the 9 highest grades are not eligible for these grants.

FRANCE

On April 17, 1917, legislation was passed providing for the payment of family allowances in all State services in France. In 1937 the allowance for public employees, including pensioned persons, was estimated at 1,000,000,000 francs.⁵

GERMANY

Family allowances were first paid to the Federal civil-service employees in Germany in 1915. At present all employees in public service receive these grants, which vary from 10 reichsmarks per month for the first child to 30 reichsmarks for the fifth and subsequent children.

Wage earners employed in public establishments are paid an allowance of 3 reichspfennige per hour of work for each child.

GREAT BRITAIN

According to orders of the British Admiralty Fleet in the latter part of 1938, married officers of the age of 30 and over (25 and over for warrant officers) in sea service receive children's allowances of 2s. per day for the first child and 1s. for each subsequent child.

⁵ Exchange rate of franc in 1937=4.05 cents.

IRISH FREE STATE

Family allowances for public employees in Ireland take the form of a higher salary for married men (woman employees must resign when they marry) and children's allowances. The higher salary to married men is not paid in grades where the annual salary, exclusive of the cost-of-living bonus, exceeds £700.

Children's allowances are paid only to employees in those grades in which the salary of an unmarried man does not exceed £500 per annum exclusive of the cost-of-living bonus. The total amount of allowances paid to an employee may not exceed £60 or £75 per annum, according to the grade to which he belongs.

Allowances are paid for each child up to 16 years of age, and where a child is pursuing his studies or is infirm the allowance is continued until he reaches his twenty-first year.

LATVIA

A system of family allowances was established in the Latvian civil service in March 1919, and State employees are now being granted such allowances.

Under an act effective May 1, 1937, supplementary family allowances are being paid for children, up to 10 years of age, of agricultural laborers, citizens of Latvia, who work throughout the year on State or local government farms in that country. A monthly allowance of 4 lats is paid for each of the first two dependent children and 5 lats for each dependent child in excess of two. No one family, however, may receive more than 23 lats per month in supplementary family allowances.

LUXEMBURG

The greater number of the communes in Luxemburg grant their employees family allowances. Employees in the State civil service are also granted family allowances. Under a law of April 30, 1937, allowances are paid for the children of civil-service officials and salaried employees, the amounts being 138 francs per annum for the first child, 156 francs for the second, and 174 francs for the third and additional children.

Under a collective agreement of March 31, 1938, workers and artisans employed by the State are granted a monthly allowance of 75 francs for each of the first three children and 85 francs beginning with the fourth.

Family Endowment by the State

Although the term "family endowment" is sometimes used interchangeably for "family allowances," as used in this section it refers to grants for family responsibilities made directly by the State, not as an emergency or relief measure but as regular cash supplements based

on the fact that the budgets of larger families call for greater expenditures. One of the latest developments in this field is the repeal of the New Zealand Family Allowance Act of 1926, and the incorporation of similar but more liberal provisions in the Social Security Act of 1938.

BRAZIL

Under the new constitution of the United States of Brazil, large families are entitled to allowances according to the number of their dependent children. Needy parents have the right to apply to the State for assistance and protection, in order to secure the maintenance and education of their children.

GERMANY

An ordinance of September 15, 1935, provided that families having at least 4 children under 16 years of age could obtain aid for the care of their children if the income of the head of the family was not sufficient to cover necessities for the household, this allowance to be given in a lump sum not to exceed 100 reichsmarks per family. In addition, families with more than 5 children under 16 years of age were to receive up to 10 reichsmarks for each child beyond the fourth. However, parents with an income of over 2,100 reichsmarks (including the income of their children) were excluded from this benefit. From April 1, 1938, the wage or salary limit of heads of families accorded this aid was extended to 8,000 reichsmarks, and the benefits were changed to 10 reichsmarks for the third and fourth children and 20 reichsmarks for the fifth and subsequent children. After that date the number of children under 16 years of age eligible to receive these allowances increased to 2,000,000, as compared to a total of 500,000 eligibles between October 1937 and April 1938.

Under a decree of March 30, 1938, laws and decrees relating to the granting of children's bonuses to large families were made applicable to Austria.

NEW SOUTH WALES

Family allowances were introduced in New South Wales in July 1927 as a development of the system of wage regulation. However, these allowances are not restricted to children of wage earners and salaried workers, but may also be paid under similar conditions for children in families whose income is less than a specified amount, the limit being based on the living wage fixed from time to time by the New South Wales Industrial Commission. This wage covers the requirements of a family with one child under 14 years of age and, since December 1929, one child is excluded from endowment.

The Industrial Arbitration (amendment) Act, assented to October 7, 1937, provides "for the adoption, in awards and industrial agreements of the needs basic wage with appropriate loadings (additional

amounts) under and in accordance with decisions of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration."

The allowances are granted until the children complete their fourteenth year and may be paid until children are 16 years of age if they are incapacitated. Children in charitable institutions are also eligible for endowment. In general, allowances are not paid for illegitimate children.

Where practicable, the allowances are paid to the mother, and, with specified exceptions, a residence of 2 years in New South Wales immediately preceding the date of the claim is required for both mothers and children.

The maximum endowment rate is 5s. per week for each eligible child, but this may be less in cases in which this rate would bring the income of the family above the amount of the "needs basic wage with the loading added thereto," plus £13 per annum for each dependent above the first. This clause was substituted for "living wage" by an amendment in 1937 to the 1927-1932 Family Endowment Act (New South Wales).

The Official Year Book of New South Wales, 1936-37, states:

The family income is defined as the combined income of the claimant, her spouse, and children under 14 years, including weekly payments of workers' compensation, and 5 percent per annum of the value of real or personal property (except their residence and the furniture and personal effects therein), which produces less than 5 percent per annum. In assessing the income the following amounts are excluded, viz., sick pay and funeral benefits from any society; money received under fire-insurance policy; lump-sum payments as workers' compensation or superannuation or gratuity; earnings of children under 14 years; earnings of mothers from casual employment; war pensions; earnings from overtime up to £26; payments by the State in respect of a child's attendance at school; and where income is derived otherwise than from wages, the amount expended in the production of that income.

Before January 1, 1934, the funds for endowment were collected in taxes levied upon employers and based on their pay rolls. Since that date endowment has been paid out of the State's general revenue.

In 1936-37 the number of endowment claims granted, including renewals for the period of 1 year, was 53,093 exclusive of 277 other claims. The total amount of endowment was £1,595,183⁶ or 11s. 11d. per capita for the population. The figures are exclusive of claims submitted by charitable institutions and of claims for additional endowment on account of children born in families already receiving endowment benefits.

NEW ZEALAND

The Family Allowances Act of New Zealand was passed in 1926 and became operative April 1, 1927. It provided for an allowance of 2s. per week beginning with the third child. The average income per

⁶ A average exchange rate of Australian pound in 1936=\$3.96 and in 1937=\$3.94.

week of the applicant and his wife and children (including the allowance) might not exceed £4 plus 2s. for each child after the second. In general, the term "child" means a child under 15 years of age. The application for allowances was made by either the father or the mother.

During the year ended March 31, 1938, the number of claims for family allowances filed under the New Zealand act providing such benefits totaled 1,021 and the number of claims carried over from the preceding year was 152, making a total of 1,173. Of these 1,173 cases, 744 had been approved and 313 rejected by the end of the fiscal year.

The total amount paid out for 1937-38 was £106,402,⁷ and the total annual value of all allowances in force at the end of that year amounted to £94,168.

The number of children in the 6,853 families receiving allowances March 31, 1938, was 32,302, of whom 18,596 were in families having more than 2 children. The average number of children per family was 4.71. The distribution of the 774 families granted allowances in the year 1937-38, according to the number of children in the family is shown in the following statement:

	Number of families		Number of families
3 children.....	386	7 children.....	28
4 children.....	178	8 children.....	15
5 children.....	102	9 children.....	3
6 children.....	59	10 children.....	3

The New Zealand Social Security Act of 1938 (1938, No. 7, 2 Geo. VI, sections 28-32) repeals the Family Allowances Act of 1926 and certain other acts dealing therewith. It incorporates the main provisions of the repealed legislation, but raises the age limit of children for whom a benefit may be granted from 15 to 16 years; increases the rate of benefit for each child in excess of two from 2s. to 4s. per week, and raises the income limit of the family (including the benefit) from £4 a week and 2s. for each child in excess of two to £5 per week and 4s. for each child beginning with the third.

SOURCES.—This article is based on data from the following sources:

Argentine Republic.—Departamento Nacional del Trabajo. Boletín Informativo, Buenos Aires, January and February 1938.

Australia.—Bureau of Census and Statistics. Official Year Book, 1937. Canberra, 1938.

Belgium.—Comité Central Industriel de Belgique, Bulletin, Brussels, June 8 and September 7, 1938; report of William H. Beach, American consul at Antwerp.

Chile.—Departamento de Prevision Social, Santiago, May-June 1938; Ministerio del Trabajo, Revista del Trabajo, Santiago, March and May-June 1937; report of John B. Faust, American consul general at Santiago.

France.—Comité Central des Allocations Familiales, Bulletin des Allocations Familiales et des Assurances Sociales, Paris, August-September 1935 and July and August-September 1938; Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, November 15, 1938.

Germany.—Report of A. Dana Hodgdon, American consul at Berlin.

⁷ Average exchange rate of pound in New Zealand in 1936=\$3.97 and in 1937=\$3.92.

Great Britain.—New York Times, New York, August 2, 1938; Industrial Welfare Society, Industrial Welfare and Personnel Management, London, September 1938; report of George Tait, American consul at Manchester.

Italy.—Gazzetta Ufficiale, Rome, August 22, 1938; Istituto Nazionale Fascista della Previdenza Sociale, Supplément de la Revue, Les Assurances Sociales, Rome, July–August 1937; Le Assicurazioni Sociali, Rome, September–October 1938; Il Lavoro Fascista, Rome, September 2 and 23, 1938.

New South Wales.—Industrial Gazette, Sydney, October 31, 1937; Official Year Book of New South Wales, 1936–37, Sydney, 1938.

New Zealand.—Census and Statistics Department, New Zealand Official Year Book, 1938, Wellington, 1937; Pensions Department, Fortieth Annual Report for year ended March 31, 1938, Wellington, 1938; Social Security Act, 1938, No. 7, 2 Geo. VI, Wellington, 1938.

Other sources.—U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bull. No. 401—Family Allowances in Foreign Countries, by Mary T. Waggaman, Washington, 1926; reports of Arthur Bliss Lane, American minister plenipotentiary to Latvia, at Riga, and Edward Hunt, of the American consulate at Tallinn, Estonia; International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, May 17, July 26, August 23, and December 13, 1937, January 17, February 7 and 21, April 4, and August 15, 1938; Legislative Series 1933, Portugal 1, Geneva; Bulletin Mensuel des Allocations Familiales et des Assurances Sociales, Paris, May and June 1937, and May and October 1938; Première Journée Internationale des Allocations Familiales, Paris, July 8, 1937, Paris, 1937; Family Endowment Chronicle, London, May 1932, and February and April 1937; Green, Marjorie E., Family Allowances, London, Family Endowment Society, 1938; International Transportworkers' Federation, Press report, Amsterdam, July 5, 1937; Second International Conference on Social Work, Frankfurt-am-Main, Proceedings, Karlsruhe (Baden), 1933; Social Science, Menasha, April 1936.

Industrial Relations

JOINT INDUSTRIAL COUNCILS IN GREAT BRITAIN¹

WHITLEY or joint industrial councils have been established in a number of well-organized British industries since the World War, in order to facilitate the settlement of industrial problems by direct voluntary negotiation between employers and employees. Formation of these bodies was encouraged by the Government, which sought through the introduction of this machinery to secure stabilized conditions of employment in well-organized industries as effectively as had been done under the trade-board system¹ in the industries that were less well organized. The history, organization, and functions of joint industrial councils are discussed in this article.²

History

The first Whitley report—upon which the system of joint industrial councils now in existence in Great Britain is founded—appeared in 1917. It was one of five reports issued by the Whitley Committee between 1917 and 1919. In the half century which preceded the deliberations of this committee, many industrial enterprises in Great Britain had developed systems of negotiation and voluntary agreement for settling questions involving conciliation boards, joint committees, and other machinery for collective bargaining. Thus has grown up the practice of settlement of industrial disputes by the interested parties with a minimum of Government intervention.

Having had experience with voluntary methods, members of industry were interested in the proposals of the first Whitley report for the establishment in each industry of an organization composed of representatives of employers and of workpeople, to have as its object the regular consideration of matters affecting the progress and well-being of the industry.

The Whitley Committee commenced its work while the World War was still in progress. It had been foreseen that the transition from the

¹ From report of Harry E. Carlson, American consul, London. The work of these councils was touched upon in an article in the *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1938, dealing with industrial relations in Great Britain and Sweden.

² For a description of the trade-board system, see *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1938.

abnormal labor conditions brought about by the war to the requirements of the post-war years would be difficult. The committee strove to minimize industrial strife during the period of reconstruction and to create a basis for placing the relations between employers and workpeople upon a new and permanent foundation.

In the first place the Whitley Committee reports stressed the value of joint industrial organization. The need for acceptance of trade-unionism and for settlement of industrial disputes by means of joint discussion was shown. The reports advocated, furthermore, that representative bodies be set up to cover individual industries as a whole, and to deal with wages, hours, conditions of labor, and all other matters concerning the progress and welfare of the industry. For industries less well organized or those in which sweated labor was likely to be used, the committee contemplated an extension of the system of trade boards to fix and enforce minimum-wage rates. It recommended that joint industrial councils in well-organized industries should have equal representation of employers and workpeople, and that these bodies were to be developed out of joint machinery wherever it already existed.

The first Whitley report came before the War Cabinet in June 1917. The Cabinet decided that it should be circulated by the Ministry of Labor to the principal trade-unions, trade-union federations, and employers' associations, and to various general organizations, in order to ascertain the attitude of the interested parties. The Cabinet also decided that the report should be presented to Parliament for publication. A month later it appeared in printed form.

The report had in the meantime been circulated by the Ministry of Labor to about 290 organizations of employers and workpeople. In an accompanying letter the Ministry of Labor drew attention to the desire of the War Cabinet that steps be taken to deal with the problems of industrial organization which post-war conditions would bring, and that they should be fully and frankly discussed by employers and workers before they actually arose. About 100 replies were received, which, in general, indicated that the policy was favorably received.

The War Cabinet adopted the policy of the first Whitley report in October 1917, and the Ministry of Labor was entrusted with the work of applying its recommendations to the country's industries. Notice to this effect was given to the trade-unions and the employers' associations in a circular letter dated October 20, 1917, by the Minister of Labor. This letter not only requested the interested organizations to consider the recommendations of the first Whitley report, but it also gave an explanation of the Government's attitude toward the proposed measure, setting forth the Government's readiness to cooperate in every possible way in the formation of the proposed joint industrial councils.

As the proposals of the committee were for voluntary action, the work of the Ministry of Labor in 1917 and 1918 in furthering the adoption of the scheme by the industries was educational. In this work the Ministry was assisted by various members of the committee, including the chairman, J. H. Whitley. In January 1918, a special department was established in the Ministry of Labor for the administration of the Whitley plan to facilitate introduction of industrial councils.

The procedure followed by the Ministry of Labor in assisting the establishment of a Whitley council was to hold informal discussions with representative bodies, followed by conferences with smaller bodies, which in turn appointed a still smaller joint council to draft a constitution subject to confirmation by the constituent bodies. If approved, the final step was to secure formal recognition of the joint industrial council by the Minister of Labor.

In setting up the councils certain difficulties were encountered. For example, in industries where the recognition of trade-unionism had been completely established, the Whitley scheme was not considered by the trade-unions concerned as suitable to the realization of their industrial policy. The character of the trade-union organization was also a complicating factor, as it was not always possible to secure joint action by organizations of skilled and unskilled workers, and sometimes the existence of overlapping or competitive unions blocked organization of joint bodies.

Considerable difficulty was likewise encountered owing to the heterogeneous nature of industrial organizations. In applying the Whitley system to certain industries, revision of the constitutions and an extension of the scope of existing employers' associations were necessary.

Despite these and other problems the Ministry of Labor was comparatively successful in its efforts to apply to industrial establishments the provisions of Whitleyism.

Organization

The Whitley Committee foresaw machinery for each industry consisting of a national joint industrial council, district councils, and works or shop committees. The national council was to have employer and employee representation and to deal with the broad problems of the industry; the district councils, also made up of representatives of both parties, were to deal with questions falling within their geographical jurisdiction, and to make decisions subject to approval by the national organization; and the works or shop committees were to handle local matters, subject to review by the bodies already described.

As the plan has been worked out, there is no uniformity in personnel and size of the British national joint industrial councils, which vary in accordance with the requirements of the various industries. They are usually composed of an equal number of representatives of trade-unions and of employers' associations. Largely because of opposition on the part of the trade-unions, there have been only a few instances in which foremen and technical staffs have been given representation in the joint industrial councils.

Practically all the councils which have been established operate under constitutions. As a rule these constitutions cover rules, finance, objects, quorum, voting, membership, meetings, committees, officers, etc.

In some instances, separate constitutions have been made for district councils and works committees in the various industries. In such cases the jurisdictions of the national joint industrial councils and of the bodies subordinated to them differ according to circumstances.

National joint industrial councils vary in size from 14 to 70 members, depending upon the size of the industry. Officers of a council consist of a chairman, a vice chairman, one or more secretaries and, sometimes, an elected treasurer. In some cases an employers' representative and a trade-union representative act as chairman in alternate years. In other cases, one individual may retain the chairmanship year after year.

An important part of the work of the British joint industrial councils is undertaken by committees. These are usually an executive committee and standing or ad hoc committees, depending upon the needs of the industry.

There is usually a relatively small amount of expense involved in the maintenance of Whitley councils. Outlays of funds depend largely upon the size of the councils and the number of meetings. Whatever expenditures are made are shared by both employers and employees.

One of the fundamental requirements of Whitleyism is regularity of meetings, this being the essence of the movement. Arrangements are sometimes made for the attendance of a liaison officer from the Ministry of Labor at these meetings. Appointments are made only when there has been an expression of a desire for governmental representation on the part of a council. Appointees are experienced civil servants, who attend meetings only in an advisory capacity. Government buildings may be used for meetings by the Whitley councils.

In establishing district councils for each industry operating under the Whitley system, the country is divided into district areas. Members of the national joint council in any industry who are residents of

a particular district are ex-officio members of the district council, in addition to the appointed employer and employee members already mentioned. Progress made in the establishment of district councils in the different industries has varied considerably.

The Whitley Committee stressed the importance of linking works committees with district and national councils. A study of existing works councils by the Ministry of Labor disclosed that their powers varied considerably and that actual conflict sometimes was experienced between works committees and trade-unions. While the Ministry of Labor made some suggestions as to the functions of works committees, and the procedure to be followed, the conclusion was reached that the national joint industrial council in a particular industry would have to decide on the powers to be vested in its works committees.

Operation of the System

Various industries have established Whitley councils during the 20 years the system has been in operation. From 1918 to 1921, inclusive, 73 councils were established, as well as 33 interim industrial reconstruction committees to deal temporarily with urgent trade questions. A number of the temporary organizations were subsequently reconstituted as joint industrial councils. After 1921, some councils were disbanded and the industrial membership of others was changed, until in 1938 the industrial coverage was as shown in the accompanying list.

LIST OF JOINT INDUSTRIAL (WHITLEY) COUNCILS, GREAT BRITAIN

Industrial Group

National Joint Industrial Councils:

- Asbestos Manufacturing Industry.
- Bobbin and Shuttle Making Industry.
- Boot and Shoe Manufacturing Industry.
- British Coir Mat and Matting Industry.
- Carpet Industry.
- Cast Stone and Cast Concrete Products Industry.³
- Cement Manufacturing Industry.
- Chemical Trade.⁴
- Clay Industry.
- Cooperage Industry.
- Dock Labor, National Joint Council for.
- Electrical Cable-Making Industry.
- Electrical Contracting Industry.
- Electricity Supply Industry (also National Joint Board for Technical Staffs).
- Flour Milling Industry.
- Furniture Warehousing and Removing Industry.
- Gas Industry.

³ Reconstituted council.

⁴ Reestablished.

- Glove Making Industry.
 - Heating and Domestic Engineering.
 - Hosiery Trade.
 - Lead Manufacturing Industry.
 - Lock, Latch, and Key Industry.
 - Match Manufacturing Industry.
 - Metallic Bedstead Industry.
 - National Maritime Board.
 - Needle, Fish Hook, Fishing Tackle, and Allied Trades.
 - Paint, Color, and Varnish Trades.
 - Paper Making Industry.
 - Pottery Industry.
 - Printing and Allied Trades of the United Kingdom.
 - Printing Ink and Roller Making Industry.
 - Process Engraving Trade.
 - Quarrying Industry (Five Sectional Councils: Lime and Limestone; Granite and Roadstone; Freestone; Slate; Chalk).
 - Seed Crushing and Compound and Provender Manufacturing Industry.¹
 - Silk Industry.
 - Soap and Candles Industry.
 - Road Passenger Transport Industry (Tramways, Trolleybusses, and Motor Omnibusses).
 - Wallpaper Makers Industry.
 - Waterworks Undertakings Industry.
 - Welsh Plate and Sheet Trade.
 - Wool (and Allied) Textile Industry.
- Interim Industrial Reconstruction Committees: Cocoa, Chocolate, Sugar Confectionery, and Jam Industry.
- Sectional Trade Councils:
- Plastering Trade.
 - Plumbing Trade.
- District Councils:
- Indoor Brewery Workers, Beer Bottlers, and Malsters in the North Midland Area.
 - Joint Council of Employers and Employees in Nottingham and District Hosiery Finishing Trades.
 - Making-up and Packing of Textiles for Export and Clothworking (London).
 - Midland District Council of Hosiery Dyers and Finishers.
 - West of Scotland Textile Industry.
 - Kidderminster District Council for the Carpet Industry.

Public Administration Group

Civil Service: National Council for the Administrative and Legal Departments, with which are associated numerous departmental councils.

Government Departmental Industrial Councils:

- Admiralty.
- Air Ministry.
- His Majesty's Office of Works.
- His Majesty's Stationery Office.
- War Department.

Government Trade Joint Councils:

- Building.
- Engineering.
- Shipbuilding.
- Miscellaneous Trades.
- Coordinating Committee for Government Industrial Establishments.

Local Authorities' Service:

- Local Authorities' Non-Trading Services (Manual Workers) England and Wales (with District Councils).
- Local Authorities' Non-Trading Services (Manual Workers), Scotland.⁵
- Local Authorities' Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Services National Joint Council, England and Wales.³
- Local Authorities' Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Services, Scotland.⁵
- Insurance Committees' Administrative, Technical, and Clerical Services.

In a number of cases the introduction of joint councils was facilitated by the existence of machinery for collective bargaining. However, in other industries the proposal for the Whitley plan was rejected because the machinery already existing was considered satisfactory. The coal-mining, iron and steel, engineering, shipbuilding, and cotton-textile industries have not established councils, and the one established for the building trades was maintained for only a short time.

Among the large industries having a Whitley council is railroading. The Railways Act, 1921, provided for the establishment of joint councils, sectional councils, and local department councils. Whitleyism has also been introduced extensively in public utilities and by local governments and departments of the National Government. Joint councils exist in the British civil service, this move having been recommended by a special interdepartmental subcommittee in 1919. The organization of councils in governmental industrial establishments followed, two kinds of councils being agreed upon, that is, department joint councils to represent the interests of the separate State departments, and trade joint councils to deal with matters customarily handled on a trade basis. This machinery was supplemented locally with department, shop, trade, and works or yards committees.

Joint industrial councils deal with varied problems, ranging from individual wage claims to the framing of industrial policies of fundamental importance. Because of the abnormal economic conditions existing for the greater part of the time since the Whitley councils have been in effect, these bodies have devoted a great deal of attention to wages, hours, and conditions of employment. In fact many councils have dealt with such matters exclusively. A few councils do not consider wages, leaving the rates of pay to be established by negotiation between organizations of employers and employees. In some cases district councils are empowered to fix wages and hours. Where councils have dealt with wages, the scope of collective bargaining has been

⁵ New councils.

broadened, and a permanent system of machinery for the review of wages and working conditions has been instituted. Conditions of employment other than rates of pay and hours of work decided by Whitley councils include overtime and holiday pay, and allowances of different kinds.

A few joint councils have systems for conciliation, mediation, and arbitration of industrial disputes. Some constitutions provide that no stoppage of work may take place until the disputed issue has been considered by the appropriate council. Special committees are sometimes formed by councils to settle disputes, or ad hoc tribunals are set up to inquire into and to make recommendations to the councils on existing differences. Whatever the method of approaching the problem, Whitley councils have made it possible to deal with disputes at an early stage and have diminished the possibilities of disputes arising.

Among the other industrial questions dealt with by Whitley councils several are specifically mentioned. The councils may consider general industrial problems including employment, unemployment, labor recruitment, regularization of employment, bonus plans, legislation, and foreign trade. In the field of education, training, and apprenticeship, a number of councils have included in their functions supervision of entry into and training for the particular industry, and cooperation with the school authorities in arranging for training. Some councils carry on research activities relating to developments within their respective industries. Welfare, health, and safety work usually represent an important section of the work of joint industrial councils. For example, the flour-milling industry created a special fund for the relief of displaced workmen, and at the same time aided them in obtaining work. The scheme was administered locally by joint committees made up of employer and union representatives.

The mortality of joint industrial councils during the years immediately after the system was introduced was fairly heavy. Up to the end of 1922, 17 of the 73 Whitley councils were abandoned. Where the plan was given up, the chief reasons were wage conflicts, weaknesses in the organization of the participants, and divergences of interests between different localities, different sections of an industry, or large and small enterprises.

Complaints are sometimes made by employers who take issue with the decisions of the councils to which they belong, and cases are reported in which employers withdraw from organizations in order to be free to establish labor standards below the minimum requirements. Proposals have been made to give legal force to majority decisions of

the respective councils to correct this abuse. Those supporting such a proposal advocate that majority decisions should be made applicable to the entire industry.

In spite of the set-backs experienced, the influence of Whitleyism has been extended in the years of operation. The system has contributed toward the advancement of industrial organization and materially extended collective bargaining. Whitleyism is also credited with having placed the trade-unions on a sounder basis and having given them a better standing because of the success of collective bargaining under the joint council system. In addition, employers and employees have had an opportunity to cooperate with each other and the Government.

Although there is no evidence that the councils will be extended materially in the near future, official reports indicate that, on the whole, the system is functioning well, that the existing Whitley councils are performing much useful work and are gradually extending the scope of their activities. They have rendered service in many difficult industrial situations.

Social Security

ANNUITY AND PENSION PAYMENTS UNDER RAILROAD RETIREMENT ACT, 1938¹

THE Railroad Retirement Board administers the Railroad Retirement Act of 1935 and the amendatory act of 1937,² as well as the unemployment-insurance law for railroad employees which becomes effective, with respect to benefits and contributions, July 1, 1939. Employees who, before June 24, 1937, relinquished their rights to return to service in the railroad industry, and were eligible for an annuity under the provisions of the 1935 act, have been or will be granted annuities under that act, while all other employees who have become or will become eligible for annuities will be covered by the 1937 act. As of June 30, 1938, approximately half as many annuities were being paid under the 1935 act as under the 1937 act, and over 2,100,000 employees had accumulated rights based on service after January 1, 1937, to annuities or death benefits which will be paid under the 1937 act. Those employees who were in active service on August 29, 1935, may become eligible for annuities based on service prior to January 1, 1937.

The Board administers five classes of payments under the acts of 1935 and 1937. These are disability and old-age annuities paid to eligible employees after retirement; survivor annuities paid, under joint and survivor elections, to the surviving spouse of a deceased employee annuitant; death-benefit annuities, paid only under the 1935 act, to the spouse or dependent next of kin of the deceased; lump-sum death benefits, payable only under the 1937 act, to the beneficiaries of employees who were employed after December 1, 1936; and pensions paid to employees who were on the railroad private pension rolls on March 1 and July 1, 1937. Up to and including October 1, 1937, there was also on the pension rolls a group of "temporary pensioners" who were eligible on July 1, 1937, for annuities under either the 1935 act or the 1937 act, and who were paid pensions until their annuities were awarded and certified, but not later than October 1, 1937.

The total payments certified by the Board from August 29, 1935, to July 1, 1938, amounted to \$87,598,519.05, of which all but \$4,604,-

¹ Annual report of Railroad Retirement Board for fiscal year ended June 30, 1938. Washington, 1938.

² See Monthly Labor Review, October 1935 (p. 923); August 1937 (p. 377).

232.83 was paid out in the fiscal year 1937-38. The following table shows the payments for annuities, pensions, and death benefits and annuities, from July 1937 to October 1938, by months.

*Annuity and Pension Payments by the Railroad Retirement Board, July 1937 to October 1938, by Months*¹

Month	Total payments	Employee annuities	Survivor annuities	Death benefit annuities	Lump-sum death payments	Permanent pensions ²	Temporary pensions
Prior to July 1, 1937.....	\$4,604,233	\$4,487,496	\$47,491	\$69,246	-----	-----	-----
<i>1937</i>							
July.....	³ 6,949,567	682,762	8,782	16,304	-----	³ \$5,526,136	\$715,582
August.....	4,551,475	1,444,367	22,051	44,808	-----	2,750,706	289,542
September.....	4,621,983	1,653,006	19,169	34,806	-----	2,736,585	178,417
October.....	4,885,834	2,134,042	13,613	27,466	-----	2,710,713	-----
November.....	7,217,574	4,468,178	20,952	36,018	-----	2,692,426	-----
December.....	8,626,157	5,820,114	34,797	70,256	-----	2,700,989	-----
<i>1938</i>							
January.....	6,793,328	4,044,885	34,776	55,672	\$303	2,657,692	-----
February.....	6,457,030	3,767,390	24,496	34,446	1,598	2,629,099	-----
March.....	8,358,696	5,677,666	29,389	46,970	2,174	2,602,497	-----
April.....	8,380,827	5,576,418	80,050	123,399	12,609	2,588,351	-----
May.....	7,805,606	5,139,457	46,361	70,668	10,457	2,538,662	-----
June.....	8,346,211	5,689,707	46,800	64,293	11,813	2,533,597	-----
July 1, 1937, to June 30, 1938.....	82,994,286	46,097,992	381,238	625,107	38,955	34,667,454	1,183,542
July.....	8,408,326	5,725,977	52,321	64,558	27,539	2,537,930	-----
August.....	8,554,062	5,899,260	61,258	68,040	35,059	2,490,444	-----
September.....	8,545,650	5,906,595	66,114	64,036	37,270	2,471,635	-----
October.....	8,920,444	6,326,128	60,714	51,349	26,484	2,455,768	-----

¹ Figures are net encumbrances in each month, or total amount of vouchers certified to the Treasury for payment minus cancellations. The figures differ somewhat from those presented in the last annual report, which did not include all subsequent adjustments.

² Total monthly payments on pensions are frequently less than the designated monthly amounts payable because of the large number of terminations due to deaths among pensioners. The total monthly payments are adjusted for cancellations.

³ Vouchers for both the July 1, 1937, and Aug. 1, 1937, payments to pensioners were certified to the Treasury and encumbered on the books of the Railroad Retirement Board in July 1937.

The relatively high figure for July 1937 is due almost entirely to the taking over of the private pensions during that month and the certification of payments to those pensioners covering both July 1 and August 1, 1937. Pension payments formed the major part of total payments until November 1937, after which the increasing rate of certification of employee annuities caused total payments for annuities to exceed pension payments. The certification of lump-sum death benefits under the 1937 act began in January 1938. These payments, up to June 1938, amounted to only \$38,954.69, but they will in the near future in all probability exceed the amount of death-benefit annuities, which amounted to over \$625,000 during the fiscal year 1937-38. The lump-sum payments are payable on account of the death of every employee under the act, whether an annuitant or not, and earnings subsequent to December 31, 1936, on which these payments are based, will increase with the passage of time.

New applications during the year 1937-38 for annuities under the Retirement Act numbered 53,255, making a total of 105,954 claims

received since the establishment of the Railroad Retirement System. At the end of January 1939, according to a press release by the Board, more than \$7,800,000 per month was being paid to 125,113 annuitants and pensioners. Total benefit payments amounting to \$148,886,775 had been made up to that time.

The average annuity paid to the 51,273 annuitants, as of June 30, 1938, was \$69.20 per month. The average for 45,290 persons age 65 and over was \$68.49, and for the 1,154 persons under age 65, \$63.51, while for the 4,301 persons having 30 years of credited service who were receiving disability annuities the average was \$81.76, and for the 528 persons with less than 30 years' service, it was \$40.43.

The number of pensions in force on June 30, 1938, was 43,914. The average monthly pension at that date, after adjustment at time of transfer to the rolls of the Board, was \$58.89 for age pensioners, \$56.99 for disability pensioners, and \$58.18 for all pensioners. The largest proportion of both age and disability pensioners received between \$20 and \$30 per month. The maximum of \$120 was received by 7 percent of the age pensioners and by 4.4 percent of the disability pensioners.

Total tax collections up to June 30, 1938, amounted to \$150,040,901. Total payments were \$87,598,519, and administrative expenses since 1935 were \$4,721,761, making a total expenditure of \$92,320,280. Investments of \$66,200,000 in special 3 percent Treasury notes were credited to the Railroad Retirement Account in the Treasury, as of June 30, 1938, and interest on these investments credited during the year amounted to \$1,410,822.

Labor Involved in Industrial Production

LABOR AND MATERIAL COSTS IN SMALL-HOUSE CONSTRUCTION¹

A VARIETY of designs and construction costs (for labor and materials) ranging from 19.7 to 27.8 cents per cubic foot are represented in a series of eight demonstration houses erected in a small community near Washington, D. C. The houses range in size from two to seven rooms, and kitchen and bath. The cost ranged from \$2,280 to \$3,500, but these figures did not include cost of land, contractor's profit, or certain other items. About 35 percent went for labor at the site and 65 percent for materials.

The plans for the 8 houses were developed by the National Small Homes Demonstration, sponsored by the National Lumber Manufacturers' Association, the National Retail Lumber Dealers' Association, and some 30 building-materials manufacturers and organizations. The purpose of the project is "to foster improved design and to promote local demonstration of economy in building and financing of small low-cost homes;" it also serves to demonstrate new and varied uses of wood. During 1938 some 2,000 demonstration houses were built in over 1,000 communities.

The figures on costs, for the general contractor, were supplied to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the National Small Homes Demonstration. Those for the subcontractors were obtained by the Bureau from the subcontractors themselves.

For each of the eight houses table 1 gives a description and data on pay-roll and materials cost.

Of the total reported cost of \$23,000 for all eight houses, \$8,000 (35 percent) was pay roll at the site, and \$15,000 (65 percent) was cost of materials.

In the eight demonstration homes, about \$11,000 was spent for carpentry, including about \$4,000 for labor and \$7,000 for materials. The material and installation costs of kitchen cabinet and sink combinations, of hardware, and of insulation were classed as carpentry as well as the lumber, millwork, and roofing. Of this \$7,000, the cost of lumber and millwork accounted for \$5,000. Expenditures for masonry and concrete work, for electrical work including stoves and refrigera-

¹ Prepared under the direction of Herman B. Byer, chief of the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment.

tors, for plumbing, heating, painting, plastering and lathing, each made up more than 5 percent of the total reported cost.

TABLE 1.—Labor and Material Costs of 8 Small Demonstration Houses Near Washington, D. C.

Description of house	Total number of cubic feet ¹	Reported cost ²		
		Total	Pay roll at site	Materials
1. A 1-story house (without basement), with extra-large living room, 1 bedroom, kitchen, and bath. Foundation size, 24' 6" x 24' 8". Subfloor of 2" plank on joists spaced at 6' intervals, providing greater insulation and permitting a saving in labor and costs.	8, 191	\$2, 280	\$813	\$1, 467
2. A 1-story house with living room, 2 bedrooms, kitchen, bath, and quarter basement providing ample space for heating plant and fuel. Foundation size, 30' 10" x 23'. Exterior siding and interior of living room of plywood.	9, 729	2, 683	952	1, 731
3. A 1-story house with living room, 2 bedrooms, kitchen, bath, and full basement. Foundation size 23' x 29'7".	13, 930	2, 738	918	1, 820
4. A 1-story house (without basement), with large living-dining room, 3 bedrooms, kitchen, bath, and utility room. Foundation size, 23' x 38' 5".	12, 008	2, 753	920	1, 833
5. A 2-story house of semimodern style, with entrance hall, dining room, kitchen, utility room, and garage or porch on first floor; and living room, 2 bedrooms, and bath on second floor. Foundation size, 24' x 27".	12, 679	3, 448	1, 273	2, 175
6. A compact 2-story, colonial-type, 6-room house with overhanging second floor. Small foundation size, 16' 3" x 24' 10". Oak wainscoting used on lower walls of living and dining rooms.	11, 681	3, 036	1, 098	1, 938
7. A compact 2-story house of 7 rooms, with 4 finished bedrooms. Foundation size, 23' 4" x 27' 11". Wood dado throughout living and dining rooms.	15, 248	3, 500	1, 271	2, 229
8. A bungalow with large studio-type living room, 2 bedrooms, kitchen, bath, and utility room. Foundation size, 23' x 36' 6". "Plank walls" eliminate application of sheathing and siding. Beamed ceiling in living room.	11, 376	2, 665	905	1, 760

¹ The number of cubic feet is computed from exterior wall to exterior wall and from the bottom of the basement floor, or from grade in case the house has no basement, in accordance with recommended procedure of the American Institute of Architects.

² Includes range and refrigerator, but does not include land, financing, contractor's profit, grading, screening, weatherstripping, landscaping, and laying of walks.

TABLE 2.—Labor and Material Costs for 8 Small Demonstration Houses, by Class of Work

Class of work	Total	Percent of total	Pay roll at site	Cost of materials	Percent chargeable to—	
					Pay roll at site	Materials
All classes ¹	² \$23, 103	100.0	\$8, 150	\$14, 953	35.3	64.7
Excavation and backfill.....	145	.6	145	-----	100.0	-----
Masonry and concrete work.....	2, 373	10.3	725	1, 648	30.6	69.4
Carpentry.....	10, 924	47.3	3, 592	7, 332	32.9	67.1
Lumber.....	-----	-----	-----	3, 183	-----	-----
Millwork.....	-----	-----	-----	2, 191	-----	-----
Kitchen cabinet and sink combination.....	-----	-----	-----	658	-----	-----
Roofing.....	-----	-----	-----	399	-----	-----
Hardware.....	-----	-----	-----	437	-----	-----
Insulation.....	-----	-----	-----	464	-----	-----
Plastering and lathing.....	1, 359	5.9	726	633	53.4	46.6
Sheet-metal work.....	177	.8	108	69	61.0	39.0
Plumbing.....	1, 909	8.3	570	1, 339	29.9	70.1
Heating.....	1, 730	7.5	390	1, 340	22.5	77.5
Electrical work.....	³ 2, 249	9.7	295	1, 954	13.1	86.9
Painting.....	1, 621	7.0	1, 262	359	77.9	22.1
Papering.....	303	1.3	156	147	51.5	48.5
Miscellaneous.....	313	1.3	181	132	57.8	42.2

¹ The following classes are not included: Grading, screening, weatherstripping, landscaping, and laying of walks.

² Includes \$1,382 for 8 ranges and 8 refrigerators and, in addition, includes the cost of range wiring, both labor and materials.

For individual houses the proportions of the total labor and material cost accounted for by the various classes of work and the percentages chargeable to labor and material followed closely those for all eight houses shown in table 2. On house No. 4, for example, the percentage of the total labor and material cost chargeable to pay roll at the site was 33.4 and to material was 66.6.

TABLE 3.—Labor and Material Costs for Demonstration House No. 4, by Class of Work

Class of work	Total	Percent of total	Pay roll at site	Cost of materials	Percent chargeable to—	
					Pay roll at site	Materials
All classes ¹	\$2, 753	100.0	\$920	\$1, 833	33.4	66.6
Excavation and backfill.....	23	.8	23	-----	100.0	0
Masonry and concrete work.....	237	8.6	60	177	25.3	74.7
Carpentry.....	1, 264	46.0	367	897	29.0	71.0
Lumber.....	-----	-----	-----	383	-----	-----
Millwork.....	-----	-----	-----	237	-----	-----
Kitchen cabinet and sink combination.....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Roofing.....	-----	-----	-----	97	-----	-----
Hardware.....	-----	-----	-----	62	-----	-----
Insulation.....	-----	-----	-----	51	-----	-----
Plastering and lathing.....	171	6.2	94	77	55.0	45.0
Sheet-metal work.....	21	.8	12	9	57.1	42.9
Plumbing.....	235	8.5	75	160	31.9	68.1
Heating.....	254	9.2	57	197	22.4	77.6
Electrical work.....	281	10.2	35	246	12.5	87.5
Painting.....	202	7.3	161	41	79.7	20.3
Papering.....	55	2.0	30	25	54.5	45.5
Miscellaneous.....	10	.4	6	4	60.0	40.0

¹ The following classes are not included: Grading, screening, weatherstripping, landscaping, and laying of walks.

² Includes \$176 for range and refrigerator and, in addition, includes the cost of range wiring, both labor and materials.

Equipment and fixtures for the eight demonstration houses cost \$4,170. This amount includes \$1,382 for eight ranges and eight refrigerators, \$1,020 for heating plants, \$860 for plumbing, \$658 for kitchen cabinet and sink combinations, \$150 for electrical supplies and fixtures, and \$100 for miscellaneous items such as medicine cabinets and shades.

TABLE 4.—Cost of Materials Used in 8 Small Demonstration Houses, by Type of Material

Material	Amount	Percent	Material	Amount	Percent
Total, all classes ¹	\$14, 953	100.0	Sheet metal.....	\$69	0.5
Premixed concrete.....	639	4.3	Equipment and fixtures.....	4, 170	27.9
Cinder blocks.....	611	4.1	Rough hardware.....	220	1.5
Brick and building tile.....	203	1.3	Pipe and fittings.....	797	5.3
Sand and gravel.....	99	.7	Electric wire and fittings.....	422	2.8
Cement, lime, and plaster.....	426	2.8	Insulation materials.....	464	3.1
Lumber.....	3, 183	21.3	Paint.....	359	2.4
Roofing (cedar shingles).....	399	2.7	Finish hardware.....	217	1.4
Millwork, including flooring.....	2, 191	14.6	Wall paper.....	147	1.0
Lath, metal and wood.....	280	1.9	Miscellaneous.....	57	.4

¹ The following items are not included: Screening, weatherstripping, landscaping, and walks.

About 11,000 man-hours of labor at the site were reported for construction of the eight demonstration homes. Carpenters and carpenters' helpers put in 4,400 hours; painters, 1,700 hours; and there were 2,400 hours of common labor.

It is estimated that the materials orders resulted in 16,000 or 17,000 man-hours off the site, in fabrication, transportation, office and sales and similar operations. This is in the ratio of about 1½ man-hours of off-site labor for each man-hour of labor on the site.

TABLE 5.—Man-Hours and Pay Roll at the Site, for 8 Small Demonstration Houses, by Occupation

Occupation	Man-hours	Pay roll at site		Occupation	Man-hours	Pay roll at site	
		Amount	Per-cent			Amount	Per-cent
All occupations.....	10, 712	\$8, 150	100. 0	Skilled—Continued.			
Skilled.....	6, 261	5, 559	68. 2	Paperhangers.....	195	\$156	1. 9
Carpenters.....	2, 440	2, 131	26. 1	Sheet-metal workers....	72	72	. 9
Bricklayers.....	275	309	3. 8	Linoleum layers.....	8	8	. 1
Cement finishers.....	77	77	. 9	Shovel operators.....	12	9	. 1
Lathers.....	235	207	2. 5	Semiskilled.....	2, 093	1, 533	18. 8
Plasterers.....	375	375	4. 6	Carpenters' helpers.....	1, 934	1, 413	17. 3
Plumbers.....	445	445	5. 5	Steamfitters' helpers....	46	35	. 4
Steamfitters.....	276	298	3. 7	Electricians' helpers....	113	85	1. 1
Electricians.....	168	210	2. 6	Unskilled labor.....	2, 358	1, 058	13. 0
Painters.....	1, 683	1, 262	15. 5				

Industrial and Labor Conditions

OPPRESSIVE LABOR PRACTICES: SUMMARY OF SENATE INQUIRY

VIOLATIONS of civil liberties unusually persistent and menacing have occurred in the field of labor relations. These violations have arisen principally from a labor relations policy hostile to the free organization of unions and collective bargaining with them. This policy has found expression most significantly in four ways: (1) The widespread use of labor spies by employers, particularly the industrial espionage services supplied by commercial detective agencies; (2) the use of strikebreakers, particularly those furnished by commercialized strike-breaking and strikeguard agencies; (3) the use of private police in the field of labor relations, often resulting in brutality, bloodshed, and the usurpation of public authority; and (4) the use of industrial munitions and the accumulation of large private arsenals in connection with labor disputes. These are the main findings of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, through a subcommittee, commonly known as the Civil Liberties Committee, after extensive hearings and investigations.¹ On the basis of the findings, remedial legislation was recommended.

Labor Espionage

Previous to the hearings and investigations of the Senate Civil Liberties Committee, evidence of the work of undercover agents in spying on workers was fragmentary. Hearings held by the committee and the extensive documentary evidence collected by it revealed labor spying as a grave menace to the rights of workers to organize and to take advantage of the civil liberties granted by the Constitution. The committee found that the work of labor spies has been directed most significantly toward obtaining for employers information regarding employee interest in unions, and regarding the membership of labor organizations. Closely related has been the work of labor spies in obtaining information regarding the political or economic views or activities of employees or prospective employees and of the officials or members of labor organizations. The use of such informa-

¹ The extensive hearings and reports in this general field were authorized by S. Res., 266 (74th Cong., 2d sess.). The subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor appointed June 6, 1936, under this resolution, was composed of Senator Robert M. LaFollette, Jr., chairman, and Senator Elbert D. Thomas, and, until his death on July 6, 1936, Senator Louis Murphy. The hearings on "Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor" are the basis of the committee reports here reviewed.

tion in connection with the employment or the status of workers has been a grave form of infringement of civil liberties, including the rights of free discussion and independent judgment underlying American institutions.²

Strikebreaking Services

The committee uses the term "strikebreakers" as meaning persons who, during or in anticipation of a labor dispute, are hired to replace regular workers and are offered compensation, in any form, at a rate in excess of the rate paid regular employees. The committee found that a significant form of strikebreaking was connected with the employment of strikebreakers in such manner as to indicate an intention to cease or to transfer the operations of the plant when in fact the employer had no such intention.³

The committee's report on strikebreaking services deals mainly with the services rendered by detective agencies and employers' associations. An extensive occupational class has grown up for strike work, usually in the service of these organizations, but members of this class sometimes offer their services directly or set out to recruit their fellows for strike jobs. There have been three main types of strike services. Strikebreakers in the narrow sense of the word are commonly understood to be persons who temporarily replace striking workers. In most cases strikebreakers have not been qualified employees but have been, as frequently advertised by strikebreaking agencies, industrial shock troops with which to break strikes and cause the strikers to return to work.

In addition to strikebreakers as thus narrowly defined, guards or watchmen, usually armed, have been used extensively to protect strikebreakers, regular workers who remained at work, or plant property. Guards of this type must be distinguished from regular plant police and the local public police force. Such guards have usually been strangers both to the controversy and to the locality, although they have often been deputized as local police officers. Men who offer themselves as guards in strikes have formed a more or less distinct occupational group.

The committee found that the almost inevitable effect of employing outsiders either as strikebreakers or as strikeguards has been to produce resentment, bitterness, violence, and bloodshed. This is to be expected because of the fact that these outsiders have made a business of selling their services for the purpose of weakening or destroying the organizations which workmen have built up for their own protection.

² U. S. Congress. Senate Committee on Education and Labor. *Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor—Industrial Espionage*. Washington, 1938. Senate Report No. 46, pt. 3 (75th Cong., 2d sess.). This report was summarized in the *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1938 (pp. 693-698).

³ *Idem*, *Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor—Strikebreaking Services*. Washington, 1939. Senate Report No. 6 (76th Cong., 1st sess.).

A third type of outsiders, employed to render special service in connection with strikes, has included persons engaged to mingle with striking employees or with their families or with townspeople under various disguises. They have variously represented themselves to be strikers or strike sympathizers or salesmen. Thus the connection between employees of this type and their employers has been concealed. Such persons are known in the strikebreaking trade as "missionaries" or "strike missionaries" or "street operators."

The three types of services have frequently been furnished by the same agencies. Although they represent specialized functions, they have had a single purpose, namely, the breaking of strikes. "Like industrial espionage, these strike services are weapons for the employer in his battle against the recognition of organizations of his employees. Thus, united in purpose, these services can be most profitably organized and offered by agencies or associations specializing in the practices of antiunionism."

The committee found evidence of the use of strikebreakers and strikeguards in the records of almost every State or Federal investigation of a major industrial dispute, extending back as far as 1882. However, the third type of strikebreaking service, that of the "missionaries," seems to have developed in its more extensive and characteristic forms during recent years.

One of the gravest aspects of the situation has been the commercializing of these various services, rendering them available to employers upon call.

The committee finds that strike services are offered by detective agencies and employers' associations not so much for the purpose of assisting employers to protect property and maintain operations during strikes but rather for the purpose of destroying unions and the processes of collective bargaining. This conclusion does not question the right of the employers to engage watchmen to protect their premises, nor the right permanently to replace employees for good cause by other skilled and competent workmen. These acknowledged rights of the employer, however, cannot be invoked to justify employment of the strikebreakers, strikeguards, and missionaries furnished in the usual course of business by detective agencies, strikebreaking agencies, or employers' associations for the following reasons:

(a) The strikebreaker furnished as a part of strike service by the above-mentioned agencies, is, in most cases, not a qualified workman but an incompetent mercenary, posing as a workman for the purpose of breaking strikes. He usually receives compensation higher than that of the regular employees, and is discharged after the strike.

(b) The strikeguard furnished by the agencies mentioned above, is not a man trained and qualified for police and patrol duty. He is, for the most part, a specialized kind of ruffian, a "regular fink" well versed in violence, often dishonest, and sometimes a gangster.

(c) The propagandist, missionary, or street operator furnished by the organizations mentioned above, practices deception and deceit, and often performs in the role of agent provocateur or spy.

No employer who has accepted the principle of collective bargaining in good faith can consider using such persons against his employees. Not only do such persons tend to provoke violence and disorder, but their purpose is to discredit and destroy instruments of collective bargaining and make amicable settlement of disputes an impossibility. Through their acts of intimidation, coercion, and provocation such persons violate the rights of free speech and free assembly and the freedom of association of employees. Furthermore, during the period of this committee's investigation, the use of such strike services, and the business of purveying them violated the policy of labor relations enunciated by the Congress.

Private Police

Company-police systems have had a long history. They have been particularly prominent in those industries that have remote or isolated locations, such as mining and lumbering. In some instances, private policing has been necessary for protection against thievery and vandalism. The committee, while recognizing these circumstances, pointed out that in carrying out even these essential functions, private-police systems are created to defend the interests of the employer. They can be held accountable for antisocial actions only by criminal proceedings in the courts or by statutory limitations on their activities.⁴

There is almost universal agreement in the conclusions of governmental bodies that have investigated and studied company-police systems in the past, that they have been used as instruments of opposition to union organization of labor. In the company towns and in incorporated communities, where there is opposition to the principle of collective bargaining, the company-police system was used to abridge the constitutional rights of free speech and assembly and freedom of the press. In times of strike these private armies have often assumed the attitude of a State toward a foreign enemy at war, or the attitude of the public police toward criminals, shooting and killing union people in an effort to compel submission to the wishes of employers. In the face of such evidence, naturally, the attitude of investigating bodies in the past has been one of condemnation.

The concern of the committee, in relation to private-police systems, was primarily with their use as an instrument of labor-relations policy. The committee's report is confined mainly to analysis of the activities of private police and deputies in Harlan County, Ky., and of the company police of a single corporation outside of that area. It is stated, however, that evidence in the possession of the committee and of the National Labor Relations Board indicates that conditions described in the report were not exceptional. Certain general conclusions are stated regarding the consequences of the use of private armed guards as employers' agents in labor relations. These consequences affect gravely not only the civil rights of workers but also the maintenance of public peace and safety, the operations of the economic system, and the functioning of government.

U. S. Congress. Senate Committee on Education and Labor. *Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor—Private Police Systems*. Washington 1939. Senate Report No. 6, Part 2 (76th Cong., 1st sess.).

Where private-police systems are used as instruments of antiunion policy, they (a) abridge and violate the civil liberties of workers and other individuals; (b) violate the rights of labor guaranteed by Federal statutes; (c) result in riots and bloodshed, causing loss of life and injury to persons and property; and (d) endanger the public safety. On the economic front, the use of private-police systems as agents in employers' antiunion policy causes disorganization of markets and interruptions in the free flow of commerce. The ruthless and brutal activities of armed private guards to prevent union organization (a) give unfair competitive advantage to those employers who oppress labor; (b) create bitterness between labor and management; (c) lead to strikes; and (d) cause interruptions in the flow of commerce.

The use of private deputies in an antiunion campaign is inimical to the maintenance of orderly representative government. It leads to (a) private usurpation of public authority; (b) corruption of public officials; (c) oppression of large groups of citizens under the authority of the State; and (d) perversion of representative government.

Industrial Munitions

The Senate committee, in its study of labor espionage, found that spying was closely related to the use of strikeguards and private policemen and that all three types of service involved the ultimate use of force. In its study of these services, the committee learned of the extensive use of firearms and chemical munitions and therefore turned its attention to the character and effect of industrial munitioning. It was found that the use of munitions was particularly prominent at critical periods in the course of the relations of certain companies with their employees. The largest purchasers of industrial munitions were almost invariably employers who had assumed an attitude of hostility to collective bargaining; and whenever such companies established cordial relations with their employees through collective bargaining, the purchase of munitions usually ceased.⁵

Like the previous reports of this committee, this report is concerned with the relation of the industrial practices, which are its subject matter, to the national policy of collective bargaining and self-organization by employees. The committee's investigation of munitions covers the period from January 1, 1933, through the middle of 1937, thus coinciding with the existence of Federal laws establishing the principles of collective bargaining for businesses affecting interstate commerce. The record indicates that the possession and use of large quantities of arms by certain employers constitute a manifestation of hostility to such principles of labor relations, a hostility carried over from an earlier period of industrial history when the rights of labor were, for the most part, without statutory protection. Wherever large stores of arms were found in industrial plants, for example, some part of them, at least, was found to have been acquired in the years prior to 1933. Large purchases subsequent to 1933 indicate a continuance of the same attitude of hostility to collective bargaining in spite of the national labor policy and in the face of the rising tide of union organization. The attitude of those employers making the largest purchases of weapons in the period of 1933-37 is demonstrably one of determined opposition to labor unions. A large proportion of the strikes suffered by such employers involved the issue of recog-

⁵ U. S. Congress. Senate Committee on Education and Labor. *Violations of Free Speech and Rights of Labor—Industrial Munitions*. Senate Report No. 6, Part 3 (76th Cong., 1st sess.).

nitition; in many cases such employers resorted to labor espionage, or employed strikebreaking agencies to use the weapons they had acquired.

The committee found a large assortment of "ingenious devices ranging from baseball bats to steam lines and charged wires." There were pistols and revolvers ranging from .22 caliber target pistols to heavy police and army-type service revolvers. There were rifles, shotguns, machine guns, and submachine guns, with a large variety of each of these types of firearms. The inventory of one company included five tripods and two gun carriages for its eight army-type machine guns. For these various types of firearms, large quantities of munitions were kept readily available. The committee found evidence of large stores of various types of tear gas and sickening gas, and in one important case a much more deadly gas, chlorpicrin. The weapons for dispersing the gas were adaptations of war-time weapons designed to cope with the limitations of street fighting. The devices included long-range gas weapons. This is true in spite of the fact that the sales manager of one of the companies that handled such weapons stated that "there is no long-range projectile in existence that does not carry a hazard of hurting somebody or killing somebody when it is fired."

The ordinary types of tear gas and sickening gas are peculiarly adapted, the committee pointed out, to the dispersing of groups of people by means less likely to alienate public opinion than is the use of firearms. Gas weapons were described by the salesman of one of the companies as "multiplied manpower." This salesman claimed that 12 trained men properly equipped could handle 5,000 persons better than could 1,000 policemen armed with riot sticks. The exercise of constitutionally guaranteed rights of freedom of speech and of assembly necessarily involves freedom to conduct uninterrupted meetings and gatherings in public and private places, and the exercise of the lawfully guaranteed rights of organization for collective bargaining is possible only when free speech and free assembly are maintained. During the period of intensified organizing campaigns undertaken after 1933, the exercise and maintenance of civil liberties, especially free speech and assembly, were connected most vitally with trade-union activities.

In its study of the extent of industrial munitioning, the committee was unable to make a comprehensive inquiry but it found that more than 300 industrial purchasers had registered the purchase of machine guns and submachine guns during the period from shortly after the World War to the time of the committee's inquiry; and there was evidence that registration under the National Firearms Act of 1934 was incomplete. Toxic gases in several forms for industrial use and the equipment used in their discharge had been sold principally for use in labor disputes. Approximately half of the sales of gas weapons

were to industrial employers, the other half being to public authorities. Gas munitions were sold in almost every industrial community of the country and in almost every State of the Union. Arrangements for the sale of gas apparatus were made by manufacturers with agencies and individuals that have supplied employers with other anti-union services, such as the hiring of undercover operatives and strikeguards.

One of the gravest aspects of the industrial munitions trade, the committee found, has been the effort of sales agents of the companies to establish business relations between themselves and officials of local governments.

In some instances examined, there was strong evidence of collusion between salesmen and the public officials, either for the purpose of increasing public purchases of munitions or relaxing the enforcement of applicable State laws. In other cases police officers became salesmen for the gas companies. The tendency of such a relationship to result in overzealousness on the part of local police in the use of gas during strikes, is obvious.

The committee found a few instances of the use of firearms by striking workmen or those in sympathy with them. It did not, however, discover any examples of the use of tear or sickening gas or their variations or of machine guns by strikers. The committee found no recorded sales of machine or submachine guns to labor unions or to persons identified as affiliated with labor unions.

It was recognized that under some circumstances certain companies have legitimate need for arms in the hands of their watchmen. This need, however, does not explain the extent to which arms have been purchased and stored. There was a preponderance of weapons obviously designed for aggressive rather than protective purposes. The aggressive nature of industrial munitioning is indicated also by the fact that the purchases of munitions and the arsenals maintained by certain corporations have been much larger than the amounts required for the normal protection of industrial property. The committee found, for example, that tear gas and tear-gas weapons had been purchased by corporations in quantities many times greater than those required by the police departments of some of our largest cities.

The hearings and report on industrial munitions are summarized by the committee in the form of three general observations:

1. The possession and use of industrial munitions by employers is the logical end of a labor-relations policy based on nonrecognition of unions—in opposition to the spirit of national labor laws. The principal purpose of such weapons is aggression. Their use results only in violence, embitters industrial relations, and hampers peaceful settlement of industrial disputes.

2. The maintenance of arsenals of industrial munitions creates bitterness on the part of employees and disrupts normal, peaceful labor relations. Their use invites retaliatory violence.

3. Beyond their effects on striking employees, industrial munitions jeopardize public peace. Their use threatens the physical safety of citizens not involved in the industrial disputes in which they are employed. Further, and more important, their irresponsible use constitutes usurpation of public police functions.

Legislative Recommendations

Following up the extensive hearings and investigations and conforming in general to the recommendations of various earlier agencies, the members of the committee on March 28, 1939, introduced a bill for eliminating the "oppressive labor practices" connected with industrial espionage, strikebreaking, private policing, and industrial munitioning.⁶ The bill was described as several decades overdue.

We doubt that any person will undertake to justify labor espionage or commercialized strikebreaking, the use of private police for these purposes, and the use or possession of industrial munitions during or in anticipation of labor disputes. No bill could more directly aid industrial peace. In no way does the bill deprive the employer of the fullest protection of property. It does not touch his legitimate private protective equipment nor limit policing activities on his own premises. It does strike at aggressive private armies by whomsoever employed. While the investigation has apparently corrected some ills the committee emphasizes that investigation alone has long been proved insufficient. Legislation is needed to end the evils. The bill contains nothing that will cause concern to the great majority of businessmen, most of whom now conform to present enacted national policies. A powerful minority have, however, fostered the oppressive practices banned in this bill and have developed their use to the point of constituting a menace to civil liberty generally; hence the urgency for legislation.



MECHANIZATION IN BRITISH COAL MINING

USE of mechanized methods of mining coal has been extended rapidly for some years in Great Britain. Returns for 1937 show that the increase was continued during that year, when more coal was cut and loaded by machinery than in 1936. The annual report of the Secretary for Mines covering the calendar year 1937 also contains figures showing that employment and production increased over the previous year, and that the average number of days worked was higher.⁷

Greater advance was made in the mechanical conveyance of coal than in cutting by machine, during the last 10 years for which figures are available. This results from the fact that mechanical loading is the more recent development of the two and therefore opportunities for progress have been greater. The number of mechanical conveyors in the mines increased from 2,856 in 1928 to 6,727 in 1936 and 7,300 in 1937. The percentage of these machines driven electrically rose from 43 in 1928 to 58 in 1937. The quantity of coal conveyed

⁶ Congressional Record, March 28, 1939, pp. 4760-4763.

⁷ Great Britain. Mines Department. Seventeenth Annual Report of the Secretary for Mines and Thirteenth Annual Report of H. M. Chief Inspector of Mines, for the year ended December 31, 1937. London, 1938.

mechanically increased from 28 million tons in 1928 to 123 million tons in 1937, or from 12 to 51 percent of the total salable output. Coal tonnage conveyed per machine amounted to 9,800 tons in 1928, as compared with 16,800 tons in 1937.

Coal-cutting machines in use increased in number from 7,131 in 1928 to 7,600 in 1936 and 7,781 in 1937. Electricity has tended to supplant compressed air as motive power for cutting. In 1928, only 50 percent of the total number of coal cutters were driven electrically, as compared with 64 percent in 1937. Mechanically cut coal in 1928 amounted to 61 million tons, or 26 percent of the salable output, and for 1937 the figures were 137 million tons and 57 percent, respectively. The quantity of product cut per machine increased from 8,600 tons in 1928 to 17,600 tons in 1937.

The extent to which different kinds of machinery are used is shown in the following table.

Mechanized Plant and Equipment in Use in British Coal Mines, 1913, 1920, and 1928-37

Year	Number of mines in operation	Percent of output—			Electric motors in use	Safety lamps in use—percent of total	
		Cut by machine	Con-veyed mechan-ically	Cleaned		Flame	Electric
1913.....	3,267	8	-----	-----	<i>Horsepower</i> 256,652	95	5
1920.....	2,838	13	-----	-----	461,944	72	28
1928.....	2,539	26	12	25	824,672	53	47
1929.....	2,419	28	14	28	835,588	51	49
1930.....	2,328	31	17	30	861,680	49	51
1931.....	2,243	35	22	30	872,615	47	53
1932.....	2,158	38	25	34	885,131	43	57
1933.....	2,126	42	30	37	904,194	41	59
1934.....	2,123	47	37	40	927,082	38	62
1935.....	2,075	51	43	41	953,328	36	64
1936.....	2,080	55	48	43	1,074,284	34	66
1937.....	2,120	57	51	44	1,010,350	28	72

† Revised figure.

Employment increased throughout the year 1937, and the number of persons engaged in the coal industry was 802,100 at the end of that year, as compared with 771,200 at the end of 1936. The average number employed in 1937 was 791,700 and in 1936 it was 767,100.

Production has increased annually since the depression years of 1932 and 1933. In 1937 the total output was 240½ million tons. This was an increase of 12 million tons over 1936 and 33½ million tons above the total for 1933. Notwithstanding this increase, the production figure for 1937 was 3½ million tons below that for 1930.

The number of man-shifts worked in 1937 per person employed was 270, or 8 more than in 1936. Coal was wound on 266 days in 1937, this being 13½ days more than in 1936 and 23 days more than in 1930.

Women in Industry

LABOR LEGISLATION FOR WOMEN IN LATIN-AMERICAN COUNTRIES

ALL Latin-American countries, with the exception of the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Paraguay, have some legislation which applies especially to women. In Honduras, however, the only measure (restricting night work for women) is a multilateral agreement with several other countries. A brief summary of the legal safeguards accorded to women in the various Latin-American countries was published by the United States Women's Bureau in *The Woman Worker* for March 1939. The following tabulation, taken therefrom, shows the more important points covered by such legislation in these countries. The coverage and other specific provisions vary, of course, in the different countries. A number of the countries have ratified conventions of the International Labor Organization on some of the points covered in the table and enacted laws to make them effective, and these have also been noted.

Labor Legislation for Women in Latin-American Countries

[X=national legislation of some type]

Country	Protection before and after child-birth	Some prohibition of night work	Protection from lead poisoning	Prohibition of underground work in mines	Prohibition of work in certain dangerous occupations
Argentina.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	X	X
Bolivia.....	X	X	X	(2)	X
Brazil.....	(1)	(1)	-----	-----	X
Chile.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	X	-----
Colombia.....	(1)	(3)	(3)	-----	-----
Costa Rica.....	X	(1)	(1)	-----	-----
Cuba.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	X	X
Ecuador.....	X	X	X	X	X
Guatemala.....	X	(1)	-----	(2)	-----
Honduras.....	-----	(1)	-----	-----	-----
Mexico.....	X	X	-----	X	X
Nicaragua.....	(1) ³	(2) ⁴	-----	X	-----
Panama.....	X	X	-----	-----	-----
Peru.....	X	X	-----	X	X
Salvador.....	X	(1)	-----	-----	-----
Uruguay.....	(1)	(3)	(1)	-----	-----
Venezuela.....	X	(1)	(1)	X	-----

¹ Ratified convention of International Labor Organization on this subject and passed national law putting it in force.

² Banned for minor girls.

³ Legislation in progress to implement International Labor Organization convention on this subject, which was ratified.

⁴ By multilateral agreement.

⁵ Since withdrawn from International Labor Organization.

Minimum wages for women and men have been provided for in some measure by 14 Latin-American Republics, and 4 of them—Brazil, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay—have recognized this need in their constitutions. The following are the methods of fixing the minimum wage provided in the laws: In Costa Rica and Mexico, wage commissions are authorized; in Bolivia wages are fixed directly in the law; in Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Ecuador, and Venezuela, both methods are provided; in Peru wages are to be fixed by other government bodies; and in Argentina and Uruguay, all three systems are provided. Guatemala, Panama, and Haiti have also taken some action.

Equal pay to women for equal work is established by law for salaried employees in Bolivia; for wage earners in Brazil and Mexico; for both classes of workers in Cuba; and for home workers in Peru. Home workers are protected by wage laws in Argentina, Cuba, Peru, and Uruguay, and wages of agricultural workers in Costa Rica, Cuba, Ecuador, Guatemala, Peru, and Uruguay.

All the Latin-American countries but Peru and Salvador have fixed maximum working hours of women and men on some basis.



WOMEN'S RIGHTS AND THE LIMA CONFERENCE

THE RIGHT of women to "full protection in and opportunities for work" was upheld at the Eighth International Conference of American States held in December 1938 at Lima, Peru.¹ The inclusion of this right in the Lima Declaration of Women's Rights, adopted officially by the Conference, was sponsored by the delegates from the United States and insisted upon by the representatives of those Latin-American countries in which the question of industrialization was becoming important.

In the Lima Declaration of Women's Rights the Conference resolved—

1. To declare that women have the right—

- a. To political treatment on the basis of equality with men;
- b. To the enjoyment of equality as to civil status;
- c. To full protection in and opportunities for work;
- d. To the most ample protection as mothers.

2. To urge the governments of the American Republics which have not already done so to adopt as soon as possible the necessary legislation to carry out fully the principles contained in this declaration, which shall be known as The Lima Declaration of Women's Rights.

¹ U. S. Women's Bureau: *The Woman Worker*, Washington, March 1939.

Child Labor

MIGRANT CHILD WORKERS IN NEW JERSEY

THE FAMILIES of 251 migrant agricultural workers were interviewed in their homes in Philadelphia by investigators for the National Child Labor Committee.¹ All were working, during the summer of 1938, in New Jersey. In this group, only 103 heads of families were employed in Philadelphia at the beginning of the agricultural season, and none of these was earning enough to maintain a family in decency and comfort. Average weekly wages ranged from \$11.89 for those with irregular employment, which they gave up when they went to New Jersey, to \$20.71 for those who had steady jobs which they continued to hold while members of their families were working on fruit and vegetable farms.

Some of the migrants had had a long experience in agriculture and seemed to prefer this type of employment. The average experience for the whole group of families was 7.9 years. However, approximately 50 percent of the 251 families had been migrating to New Jersey for not over 4 years, and for 20 percent of them the 1938 season was their first. They had recourse to migrancy and agricultural labor in order to get away from the deprivation and humiliation of their status as recipients of relief or as laborers with wages below the subsistence line.

The remuneration for agricultural work was very meager. The season of 1938 was poor. Flooding rains destroyed many crops and lowered the quality and market prices of others. Some of the families which found no employment remained in New Jersey only a few weeks. Others remained there and accepted wages much lower than they had been led to expect. The average weekly earnings for those who were in the country approximately 18 weeks were only \$17; this sum represented, on the average, the total remuneration of four members of the family, including the children. Total earnings were only slightly above the expenses for the period spent in the country and for rent for the homes from which the families came. However, some families found it possible to pay off a few prior debts. A small number of families had been able to support themselves the year round without employment in industry or assistance from relief agencies; these were families (with several children able to work)

¹ National Child Labor Committee. *A Summer in the Country*. New York, March 1939.

which had had the most experience in agricultural labor. But in the group included in the present study many of those who had been on relief before leaving Philadelphia in the spring were obliged to apply for aid soon after their return to the city in the fall.

The children and their parents suffer from the evils of the padrone system under which so many of the agricultural workers for New Jersey are hired and handled.

Padrones and bosses, many of whom have grown rich, exercise tremendous power. Being unsupervised and unregulated by the State, there is no way to hold them responsible for the promises they make regarding wages, amount of work, housing or living conditions. By their manipulation of the labor supply they can to a very great extent determine how much individual families earn. By withholding information concerning the amount of earnings or by reporting them as higher than they actually are, they may influence the amount of relief granted to a needy family, or delay its approval.

Being fundamentally interested in profits, the farmers and padrones consider the welfare of these migrant child workers secondary to the crop needs. The children as well as their parents are therefore obliged to work hard and fast for long hours in heat, cold, or rain and mud, because the vegetables and fruits must be gathered before they spoil, and handled in accordance with the marketing schedule.

The housing for the migrant workers in New Jersey is deplorable. Many of the dwellings are not fit for human habitation. Large families are herded in one or two rooms with a leaking roof and no door or window screens. Overcrowding means physical discomforts and moral hazards for the children.

Toilet facilities are in general bad and "in some localities a disgrace." Frequently no provision is made for protecting drinking water from pollution. When the workers or their families are ill or accidents occur the sick or injured must either go to the city for treatment or do without it. No health services are provided by the farmers, and nonresidents are not eligible for free service.

It is, however, in the reports on school attendance and educational programs that the ill effects of family migrancy and child labor are most conspicuously shown. The boys and girls are away from school for so long in the spring and fall that they cannot keep up with their classes. The school children of the 251 families included in this study lost on the average 39 days from school as a result of their migrancy, and for some children the time loss amounted to over 120 days. Two out of five were found to be retarded, which is reported as double the average retardation for the city of Philadelphia as a whole. As these migrant children are not regularly promoted and are obliged to stay in classes with younger and smaller pupils, they become discouraged and do not want to go to school. "Had these families remained in Philadelphia, all of their children between 7 and 17 years of age would

have been required to attend classes for the entire school year. Across the State line in New Jersey, Pennsylvania laws could not reach them, and even if they could have been spared from their work in the fields, the local schools might not have admitted them. The intention of legislators is in conflict with the needs of crops and hungry families."

Committee's Recommendations

In New Jersey, as in other parts of the United States, child labor is but one phase of the complex problem of migrancy. The basic issue, according to the report under review, "is unquestionably the low wages paid to agricultural workers, which in turn impel parents to use the labor of their children to supplement family incomes."

For the solution in part of this difficulty, the inclusion of agriculture under State and Federal minimum-wage and maximum-hour laws is recommended by the National Child Labor Committee, as is also the organization of farm laborers into unions for the advancement and protection of their interests.

The creation by the Farm Security Administration of model camps in New Jersey similar to those established in Arizona and California might serve as a guide to further progress in housing, according to this report.

For the immediate improvement of conditions, especially those which are most adverse for children, the following legislative measures are proposed:

Child labor.—Children under 14 years of age should not be permitted to engage in agricultural employment, except children working directly for their parents about the home or home farm.

Children 14 to 16 years of age should not be permitted to engage in agricultural employment during the hours that the schools are in session in the district of their residence or in the district in which their family resides temporarily for work.

Children 14 to 16 years of age desiring to work outside of school hours and during the vacation period should be required to bring a certificate of age from the district of their residence.

Hours of work for children 14 to 16 years of age engaged in agricultural employment should be limited to 8 a day and 48 a week.

Housing.—A rural housing and sanitation code should be adopted, specifying minimum standards for housing, toilet facilities, protection of the water supply, garbage disposal, etc. Operators of camps should be licensed and held responsible for sanitation and general living conditions in the camps.

Employment agents.—Padrones or others who agree to recruit or furnish labor should be considered employment agents and should be subject to legal regulation, including bonding, in both Pennsylvania and New Jersey. A written contract, including all factors entering into the labor contract, should be required, and liability for failure to execute the contract should be fixed by law.

Workmen's compensation.—Agricultural employment should be included under the Workmen's Compensation Act.

REGULATION OF CHILD LABOR IN INDIA

THE regulation of the admission of children to certain employments in industry in British India is provided for in "The Employment of Children Act, 1938," assented to by the Governor General in December of last year.¹ Under section 3 of this legislation no child under 15 years of age shall be employed or permitted to work in any occupation connected with the transportation of mail, goods, or passengers, by railway. Furthermore, no child under that age shall be employed or allowed "to work in any occupation involving the handling of goods within the limits of any port to which for the time being any of the provisions of the Indian Ports Act, 1908 (XV of 1908) are applicable."

Violations are punishable by a fine which may amount to as much as 500 rupees, but no prosecution may be instituted except with the sanction of an inspector appointed in accordance with the act. No offense under the law may be tried by any court inferior to that of a Presidency Magistrate or a magistrate of the first class.

The competent authority (in specified cases the Central Government and in all other cases the Provincial Government) may under defined conditions make rules to carry this legislation into effect.

* * * Such rules may (a) regulate the procedure of inspectors appointed under section 6, and (b) make provision for the grant of certificates of age in respect of young persons in employment or seeking employment, the authorities which may issue such certificates, the form of such certificate, the charges which may be made therefor, and the manner in which such certificates may be issued: *Provided*, That no charge shall be made for the issue of any such certificate if the application is accompanied by evidence of age deemed satisfactory by the authority concerned.

¹Bombay Labor Office. Labor Gazette (Bombay), December 1938.

The Older Worker

EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS OF OLDER WORKERS

OLDER workers have an advantage in seniority rules and general personnel policy, on the whole, but when they are once displaced by lay-offs, shut-downs, mergers, technological progress, or other impersonal causes, it is very difficult for them to secure reemployment. Workers between 40 and the age of retirement have three major handicaps: Today's general unemployment, employers' prejudices, and their own fears. These statements are made in a report to the United States Secretary of Labor by the Committee on Employment Problems of Older Workers,¹ which was appointed by her to consider this subject and to suggest possible remedial measures. The committee, of which Harry Woodburn Chase, chancellor of New York University, was chairman, had no funds for first-hand field investigations, but it did analyze and correlate the very considerable available information. Such data included statistics supplied by a number of cooperating companies in regard to their operating experience with workers in various age groups; figures from the November 1937 Census of Unemployment; and certain surveys made by the Works Progress Administration. Findings from the committee's report are given below.

The 1937 Unemployment Census disclosed that unemployment was most extensive in the 20-24 age group. The committee did not wish in any way to minimize that problem. However, it had been appointed to study the problem of older workers, and the 1937 Unemployment Census furnished ample evidence of "a serious situation—an increasingly serious one—among persons over 45." After the age of 25, employment improves for a while, "but some time after age 40 for men and after age 35 for women" the trend turns downward.

The following table taken from the Unemployment Census of 1937 shows the mounting rate of unemployment for the older groups.

Percent of Nonfarm Workers Totally Unemployed or Employed on Emergency Work, 1937

Age group	Males	Females	Both sexes
All ages.....	19.4	24.7	21.0
20-24 years.....	25.2	24.1	24.7
25-29 years.....	16.3	19.5	17.4
30-34 years.....	13.8	20.0	15.7
35-39 years.....	14.0	22.4	16.4
40-44 years.....	15.0	23.3	17.0
45-49 years.....	16.7	24.1	18.4
50-54 years.....	18.4	23.5	19.4
55-59 years.....	22.2	26.2	22.9
60-64 years.....	23.5	24.0	23.7

¹ U. S. Department of Labor. Division of Labor Standards. Labor Standards (Washington), March 1939.

The foregoing table confirms a fact which placement officials in public and private employment service have known for some time, namely, that older employees who lose their jobs have more and more difficulty in getting new ones. According to a report on workers separated from WPA employment, published by the United States Works Progress Administration in 1938, those who secured employment with private industry after being separated from WPA rolls were, on the average, 10 years younger than those who were unable to get jobs.

Moreover, as other studies have indicated, the unemployment of older workers is likely to be a great deal more prolonged than that of workers in the younger age groups. The duration of unemployment in Philadelphia was 4 times as long among men in the age group 40 to 44 as in the age group 20 to 24, as shown in a report on employment and unemployment in Philadelphia in May 1937.¹ Furthermore, family responsibilities are heaviest in the middle years of life, and the joblessness of these mature workers means both deprivation and additional burdens for the young.

Unthinking acceptance of the idea that workers of 40 or over are less desirable than younger workers has created a serious situation. An examination of factual data on productivity, accident, sickness, group insurance, and pension plans, has led us to the conclusion that there is little significant relationship between age and costs, and that the prejudice against hiring older workers rests largely on inadequate and erroneous impressions. We urge that everything possible be done to dispel the idea that workers are through after 40.

Productivity

The available productivity records were too incomplete and too scattered to constitute a basis for any general conclusion concerning older workers. However, none of the records analyzed (drawn from several wholly different classes of skilled work) indicated a diminution in earning power with advancing years. In fact, in certain cases the productivity of older employees was higher than that of younger workers. In occupations calling primarily for physical strength and endurance, age may make an employee less useful, but the age at which impairment begins varies greatly among different persons, and an arbitrary age limit would be an injustice to many. The committee found no evidence that would support, and much that would invalidate, a wholesale prejudice against older employees based on age alone.

Considerations of Cost

Accident-compensation costs.—Most of the occupational-accident information available in the United States, and a 4-year investigation of this subject by the Swiss National Accident Fund, indicate that

¹ U. S. Works Progress Administration. National research project, in cooperation with University of Pennsylvania, Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. Employment and Unemployment in Philadelphia in 1936 and 1937; part II, May 1937 (table C-19). By Margaret W. Bell and Gladys L. Palmer.

older workers do not have so many accidents as younger workers, although these fewer accidents are of greater severity. These two trends offset each other "so that the net cost is about the same throughout the age range." The fact that numbers of industrial-accident insurance carriers, in computing workmen's-compensation premiums, disregard the age distribution of the workers insured and have not considered such distribution important enough to develop experience tables on an age basis, is an additional indication that discrimination against older workers on this score is not justifiable.

Group insurance.—The employers' quota of the cost of group life insurance is usually so slight that, in the estimation of the committee, it should not have an influence on the fixing of hiring-age limits. Although premiums will vary with the age distribution of the personnel, insofar as the cost concerns the employer this matter can be met by raising the amount paid by the workers or by introducing age-group differentials in the workers' rates of contribution. "Certainly, any adjustment in the rate is preferable to reducing cost by a hiring-age limit."

Pension plans.—In general, private pension schemes have been regarded as offering an inducement to cut down costs by not taking on older workers. It is, however, quite practicable to establish these schemes so that they do not operate in this way.

A few private plans were set up in the beginning to provide annuities based on contributions or on years of service without a maximum service requirement and without regard to age at entrance; others are now in process of changing to this basis. The modification has been hastened by the introduction of Nation-wide compulsory and contributory old-age annuities. Since workers will carry credits for these annuities with them when they change jobs, their final pension will depend upon length of working time in insured employments, rather than on length of service with any one firm. Private plans can still supplement the Government plan, but the employer who admits late entrants need no longer fear retiring his superannuated workers on inadequate pensions, or risking the insolvency of the plan.

We recommend that private plans be adjusted to do away with minimum service requirements and limitations on age at entrance, thereby eliminating age as a controlling factor.

Government Policy

The committee strongly recommends that the United States Civil Service Commission and Federal appointing officers eliminate age limits for entrance into Government service, except for positions which call for physical strength and endurance. "Although the Government provides a larger share of employment for older workers than private industry, nevertheless, the practice of setting age limits in public employment does constitute an artificial and unjustifiable limitation and does set an undesirable example to private industry." The committee urges that appointments and reinstatements to

Government positions be based solely on qualifications regardless of age.

In order to keep down the expense of examining the numerous additional older persons who will be eligible for examination when the age limits are abolished, various new types of examinations which are fair to applicants and can be rapidly graded might be used. Moreover, investigation of modern examining techniques will disclose means of reducing the cost of holding examinations for larger numbers of candidates. Recommendation is made by the Committee that the Federal Civil Service Commission give further study to the development of these techniques and that "in rating experience, weight be given to successful performance rather than length of experience."

The Government's retirement system should either be absorbed into the old-age insurance provided by the Federal Social Security Act, so that credits could be transferable between public and private employment, or else provision should be made under the Social Security Act or otherwise for those who enter the Federal Service too late to complete the 15 years of service required to qualify for pension rights under the Civil Service Retirement Act. In either case the 15-years-service rule would no longer be necessary, and one important reason for limitations on age at entering public service could be eliminated.

These same recommendations apply to the State and municipal civil-service systems.

Developing Employment Service facilities.—The committee recommends that the United States Employment Service make a study of the opportunities for work in a particular community or group of firms, to ascertain the jobs or kind of jobs most suitable for middle-aged workers. Special attention should be given to the qualifications, experience, and aptitudes of middle-aged persons seeking employment. When necessary, this agency should be in a position to offer applicants training facilities that would make it possible for them to adapt their skills and techniques to new job opportunities.

Conclusion

Based on the information submitted to the committee, the prejudice against taking on older workers seems to result mainly from insufficient or inaccurate data. "It is not true that 'workers are through after 40,' and everything possible should be done to dispel this idea."

Employers who have previously adopted hiring-age limits are urged by the committee to give up this practice. It is also urged that those employers whose hiring policies have been influenced by a preference for youth to the extent of refusing to hire applicants over 40 should reconsider the basis of this preference in the light of this report, and study their production procedures and work methods in order to find out what occupations older workers may suitably follow.

In the judgment of the committee, any private or Governmental policy "which arbitrarily discriminates against applicants or employees on the basis of a fixed age, is undesirable from the point of view of employees, employers, and the public as a whole, and is not justified by the findings of this committee."

Finally, the committee calls attention to the fact that employees themselves can aid in breaking down the prejudices against older workers and that in some cases the problem has been successfully handled through trade-union contracts. In connection with such a solution full cooperation between unions and managements is recommended.



SELF-HELP COOPERATIVES FOR OLDER WORKERS

SELF-HELP cooperatives can be of substantial assistance to the community in providing employment to some of the permanently unemployed, particularly those 45 years of age and over. This is the conclusion reached in a detailed analytical study of self-help groups and their members, in Los Angeles.¹ The study was financed mainly by the Social Science Research Council, New York City, and the University of California, but clerical and other assistance was given by the California Emergency Relief Administration and the Works Progress Administration.

On the basis of the information obtained in the study, the report recommends that—

1. Self-help organizations should be encouraged and aided to continue their work and to improve their procedures.
2. The Federal Government should continue to subsidize the more efficient units, make them more substantial grants than heretofore, and seek to coordinate their activities. "However, the Federal Government should preserve and foster independence on the part of these organizations, since this is one of their more constructive features."
3. State Governments should also assume the duty of providing loans to the units, in order to enable them to obtain necessary materials and equipment.
4. County authorities should give encouragement to units which prefer to remain independent of Federal or State subsidy; should act as coordinating agencies for the exchange of information, services, and goods; and foster the sense of independence of the cooperators themselves.
5. Federal, State, and county educational authorities "should collaborate in a program of education in cooperation, not only for the members of the self-help organizations and those interested in them,

¹ University of California. *Self-help Cooperatives in Los Angeles*, by Constantine Panunzio, Wade Church, and Louis Wasserman. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1939.

but also for the public in general. Both should be instructed to regard self-help as an agency supplementary to the present-day economy, rather than as a movement in opposition to it."

The greater part of the report sets forth data regarding the co-operators themselves—their family make-up, age, education and training, occupational background, living conditions, health, their views as to the cooperatives and their methods, etc. Detailed estimates are also given of the cash value of goods and services provided by the groups, and of the social values provided by them.

Future of Self-Help Cooperatives

On the basis of the study the investigators reached the following conclusions regarding the value and the future of the self-help groups:

"First, that the cooperatives can perform a desirable function there would seem to be little question. If the findings presented throughout this report are valid, and we believe they are, the self-help organizations constitute an excellent means for the employment and the partial self-support of persons of relatively advanced age who prefer to do something for themselves rather than resort to charity. Moreover, the percentage of persons of 45 years of age and over in the population of the United States is rising rapidly: It rose from 17.7 percent in 1900 to 18.9 in 1910, to 20.8 in 1920, to 22.8 in 1930, and to an estimated 24.6 in 1935. And what the future holds in this respect may indeed be considered alarming. Since, as is well known, industry is increasingly discarding workers as they reach the age of 45 or so, it is to be expected that an ever-increasing number of persons 45 years of age and over will be permanently unemployed. Shut off from even idle lands, and with no resources of their own, they will inevitably become a greater and greater burden upon the community unless they have a chance to do something for themselves. Self-help surely offers as good a means as any to this end. The self-help organizations are capable of producing even larger savings than they have produced in the past if they are directed to providing a self-sustaining means of livelihood to the thousands of persons who are every year reaching the age of 'obsolescence.' It would seem, therefore, that so far as the cause of relieving the already overburdened taxpayers may be served, the community can ill afford not to support the self-help organizations. And if there be such a thing as social intelligence, the community will surely do that very thing.

"Moreover, the self-help cooperatives are sound according to standards of advanced practice in social work. It is now generally recognized that the only justifiable type of aid given to the needy is that which affords them opportunity to do for themselves. Direct relief, though still largely practiced, is generally discredited by competent social workers. Aid which offers opportunity for self-help is

sounder and more productive of constructive results; and the more independent of governmental or other agencies the self-help is, the more it tends to produce sound results.

"Further, self-help is a humane form of relief. It is a commonplace that there is nothing more destructive of self-respect, of courage, of endurance, than economic dependency. The self-help units, as the members themselves frequently aver, offer a sense of self-reliance and self-respect. In some respects they are more adequate than relief enterprises organized and conducted by the government, such as the Works Progress Administration. In the self-help cooperatives, the members organize and conduct their own activities, supervise and deal with other workers, and make and dispose of goods according to their own judgment, rather than have these things done for them or be lost in a maze of red tape. In short, self-help gives its people a chance to do for and by themselves, to be and act as independent, self-respecting human beings.

"Self-help has even larger possibilities. It arose, as pointed out above, merely as a means of self-support, but in reality it has initiated or at least materially pushed forward cooperative production in the United States. And as production is the very core of the cooperative movement, the self-help units may, wholly fortuitously, prove to be a very important link in the establishment of the cooperative movement in this country.

"It is in this, perhaps, that the deepest significance of self-help lies. For though cooperation is sometimes opposed it is in reality part and parcel of the capitalistic order. That is, it applies the very cooperative procedure which capitalism employs in the production and distribution of goods for profit, to the making of profits by reducing the cost of living.

"All this seems relatively clear. But what factors will condition the continuance of the self-help cooperatives? The continuance of self-help rests, first, upon the degree to which the leaders are able to understand and deal with opposition.

"Even more important is whether the workers in the United States are really capable of developing such a device as self-help. The working classes of the United States have fared well under the individualistic system; they therefore are not habituated to cooperative endeavor, nor do they have any knowledge of it.

"But the problem of supplying work to the mounting millions above 45 still remains. And the self-help organization is about as well suited to meet the needs of some of them as is any other device. If self-help is to survive, it needs help and that right early; and the only agencies which are in a position to give that help are those of government."

Housing Conditions

PROGRESS OF FEDERAL HOUSING PROGRAM

PROGRESS in the execution of construction contracts, reduction in costs, and lowered rental rates were reported by the Administrator of the United States Housing Authority on March 30, 1939.¹ At that time, 37 States were qualified to cooperate with the Federal Government in clearing slums and providing low-rent housing. The States of Arizona, Idaho, New Mexico, and Washington enacted the necessary laws in the first quarter of 1939. Of the 11 States without the required legislation to benefit under the Government program, it seemed probable that 5 would take favorable action in a short time.

When the statement here reviewed was issued, main construction contracts had been approved on 19 projects in 14 cities.² The projects in 3 cities—Austin, Tex., Jacksonville, Fla., and Buffalo, N. Y.—were nearing completion.

Comparing costs under the USHA program with those of private building, the net construction costs of the Federal dwellings are found to be lower. For the purpose of this comparison, costs of Government dwellings and those of units constructed by private builders, for which the values of building permits are averaged by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, are used. Net construction cost, it is stated, is "the amount paid the contractor for building the houses, and includes the cost of plumbing, heating, and electrical installation, but does not include the cost of land, nondwelling facilities, movable equipment, architects' fees and financial charges during construction."

The Administrator finds that on this basis the average net construction cost of dwellings for projects where main construction contracts actually have been let is \$2,830 per home. For private construction the average permit valuation per dwelling unit is \$3,800 in the same locality.³ Thus the net construction cost per family unit averages

¹ Press release No. 56657 H.

² For allocation of funds of the U. S. H. A. see Monthly Labor Review, February 1939 (p. 334).

³ No reference is made to the size of the dwelling unit nor to the kind of construction in either case, nor is any allowance made for any existing difference between permit value and actual cost.

about \$1,000 less for a dwelling built under the public program than for one built by private initiative, notwithstanding that wages on USHA projects are paid at prevailing rates and the construction is such as to insure a useful life of 60 years.

The costs of dwelling facilities provided under the USHA program are also below the statutory limits on such costs. These limits are \$1,000 per room and \$4,000 per dwelling unit in cities under 500,000, and \$1,250 per room and \$5,000 per unit in larger cities. Dwelling-facilities cost is made up of net construction cost of dwelling, plus cost of dwelling equipment, architect's fees, and financial charges during construction. For smaller cities the average dwelling-facilities costs under the USHA program are \$828 and \$3,333, respectively, and in cities of 500,000 population and over, \$940 and \$3,754, respectively.

Over-all costs, that is the total costs of providing a new home for a family living in the slums, including dwelling facilities and the cost of land, average \$4,507 per home, according to the best estimates available. The Administrator adds that comparison of the over-all cost of dwellings with the Bureau of Labor Statistics figures on construction by private industry would involve a serious error, owing to the more inclusive coverage of the former figures.

It is stated that "equal progress has been made in continuous reduction of rents." Within 18 months from the date when this report was issued it is expected that 150,000 families will move into homes constructed under the USHA program. These families will have incomes ranging from a maximum of \$1,000 to as little as \$300 a year.



PUBLIC HOUSING IN NEW YORK STATE

ONLY 19 apartments were vacant, among the 5,907 dwelling units available for occupancy in 14 projects of the New York State Housing Board, on December 15, 1938. Vacancies therefore represented slightly less than one-third of 1 percent. This is shown in the report of the State Board of Housing to the Governor and legislature of the State of New York,¹ which also includes information on building, maintenance and operating costs; extent of land area involved and percent of coverage by buildings; height of buildings; number of dwelling units; and related facts.

The total number of residential apartments in the multiple dwellings operated by the State Board of Housing, and the number and percent of vacancies, are shown in table 1.

¹New York. State Board of Housing. *Low-Rent Housing*. Albany, 1939. (Legislative document (1939), No. 60.)

TABLE 1.—Residential Apartments in New York State Housing Board Projects, and Vacancies, December 15, 1938

Project	Total number of residential apartments	Vacant apartments	
		Number	Percent of total
All projects.....	5,907	19	0.32
Academy Housing Corporation.....	476		
Amalgamated Dwellings, Inc.....	238	1	.42
Amalgamated Housing Corporation ¹	625	10	1.60
Boulevard Gardens Housing Corporation.....	956		
Brooklyn Garden Apartments, Inc.:			
Fourth Avenue project.....	164	2	1.22
Navy Yard project.....	140	2	1.43
Farband Housing Corporation.....	129	1	.78
Hillside Housing Corporation.....	1,411		
Knickerbocker Village, Inc.....	1,585	2	.13
Manhattan Housing Corporation.....	44		
Stanton Homes Corporation.....	44	1	2.27
Stuyvesant Housing Corporation.....	95		

¹ Includes three separate groups of buildings, designated as the first 6 units, units 7 and 8, and unit 9.

Annual maintenance costs per room for these projects ranged from \$42.55 to \$63.59 for the year ended August 31, 1938. The distribution by intervals of \$5 was as follows:

	<i>Number of projects</i>
\$40 and under \$45.....	4
\$45 and under \$50.....	2
\$50 and under \$55.....	3
\$55 and under \$60.....	2
\$60 and over.....	3
Total.....	14

Of the total maintenance costs, wages represented from \$6.56 to \$10.76 per room for the year and were distributed as shown below among the different projects.

	<i>Number of projects</i>
\$6 and under \$7.....	3
\$7 and under \$8.....	4
\$8 and under \$9.....	1
\$9 and under \$10.....	4
\$10 and over.....	2
Total.....	14

The average annual operating cost (including maintenance) per "construction" room (excluding dining alcoves and baths, but including rooms for professional use and for administration) of all the State Housing Authority projects, from the date of inception to August 31, 1938, was \$105.04, of which the cost of maintenance per room was \$47.60.

Some of the physical characteristics of the 14 projects are summarized in table 2. Coverage of land varies considerably, ranging

from about one-quarter to almost three-quarters. Although most of the buildings are 5 and 6 stories high, one project has 4 stories and another 13. Half the projects have stores. Ceiling heights range from 8 feet 1 inch to 9 feet; and half the buildings have ceilings 9 feet high.

TABLE 2.—Physical Characteristics of 14 New York State Housing Board Projects

Project	Buildings		Cubage (approximate)	Number of stories	Number of elevators	Number of stores	Height of apartment ceilings
	Area of land	Percent of coverage of land					
	Sq. ft.	Sq. ft.					Ft. In.
All projects.....	2,077,177	770,389		55,792,745			
Average.....			54.2				
Academy Housing Corporation.....	140,000	61,424	43.9	4,546,500	6	16	8 6
Amalgamated Dwellings, Inc.....	60,000	35,800	59.7	2,800,000	16	8	4 8 9
Amalgamated Housing Corporation:							
First 6 units.....	148,477	69,636	50.2	4,247,796	5	(2)	8
Units 7 and 8.....	65,000	33,000					
Unit 9.....	26,506	17,870					
Boulevard Gardens Housing Corporation.....	507,041	125,579	24.8	8,949,600	6	20	8 5
Brooklyn Garden Apartments, Inc.:							
Fourth Avenue.....	40,066	21,020	52.5	1,226,166	5	(2)	12 8
Navy Yard.....	27,500	16,220	59.0	900,000	5	(2)	8 1
Farband Housing Corporation.....	33,530	23,185	69.1	1,576,000	6	2	9
Hillside Housing Corporation.....	702,849	238,968	34.0	12,551,923	4		8 6
Knickerbocker Village, Inc.....	216,311	99,476	46.0	13,200,000	13	24	24 8 6
Manhattan Housing Corporation.....	10,486	7,280	69.4	546,000	6	1	9
Stanton Homes Corporation.....	10,000	6,875	68.8	490,000	6	1	6 9
Stuyvesant Housing Corporation.....	19,411	14,056	72.4	1,054,200	6	2	12 9

¹ 7 stories on Broome St.
² Walk-up type apartments.
³ 9 stories on Catherine St.

Construction rooms, as previously defined, numbered 20,376. Residential rooms, including dining alcoves and bathrooms which are regarded as one-half rooms under the State housing law, but excluding rooms used for professional or administrative purposes, totaled 22,383.5.

The cost of land per square foot averaged \$4.65 for all 14 projects, and ranged from \$0.63 on 1 project to \$15.13 on another, the distribution being—

	Number of projects		Number of projects
Under \$1.....	1	\$9 and under \$10.....	1
\$1 and under \$2.....	2	\$10 and under \$11.....	1
\$2 and under \$3.....	3	\$15 and over.....	1
\$3 and under \$4.....	3		
\$5 and under \$6.....	2	Total.....	14

Approximate dates when projects were completed, construction costs and total costs per room, and average rent per room, are given in table 3. Costs of construction per room varied widely among projects, the lowest average being \$901.65 and the highest \$1,466.85.

However, the average for all projects was \$1,178.01. Total costs, reduced to a room basis, ranged from \$1,089.64 to \$1,940.05, and the average was \$1,489.11. Average rent per room was lowest in Brooklyn, where rooms in one project rented at an average of \$9.11 each. The highest average was \$12.50.

TABLE 3.—Construction Cost, Total Cost, and Average Rental per Room, of New York State Housing Board Projects

Project	Date of completion	Cost per "construction" room ¹		Average rent per room
		Construction cost	Total cost ¹	
Average—14 projects.....		\$1, 178. 01	\$1, 489. 11	
Academy Housing Corporation.....	July 1931.....	1, 226. 35	1, 353. 46	\$10. 51
Amalgamated Dwellings, Inc.....	November 1930.....	1, 291. 62	1, 680. 71	12. 10
Amalgamated Housing Corporation:				
First 6 units.....	December 1927.....	1, 466. 85	1, 726. 82	} 10. 73
Units 7 and 8.....	December 1929.....	1, 391. 88	1, 648. 44	
Unit 9.....	March 1932.....	1, 222. 79	1, 423. 29	
Boulevard Gardens Housing Corporation.....	October 1935.....	943. 33	1, 116. 72	11. 00
Brooklyn Garden Apartments, Inc.:				
Fourth Avenue.....	July 1929.....	1, 014. 13	1, 170. 81	9. 11
Navy Yard.....	September 1930 ²	901. 65	1, 089. 64	9. 78
Farband Housing Corporation.....	November 1928.....	1, 403. 04	1, 589. 69	10. 00
Hillside Housing Corporation.....	September 1935.....	1, 048. 80	1, 138. 59	10. 99
Knickerbocker Village, Inc.....	December 1934.....	1, 188. 37	1, 813. 64	12. 50
Manhattan Housing Corporation.....	August 1931.....	1, 125. 99	1, 499. 39	12. 39
Stanton Homes Corporation.....	January 1931.....	1, 199. 31	1, 940. 05	12. 21
Stuyvesant Housing Corporation.....	December 1931.....	1, 068. 05	1, 656. 36	12. 34

¹ I. e., exclusive of dining alcoves and baths.

² Additional wing completed in August 1932.

Industrial Accidents

INJURY EXPERIENCE IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY, 1936 AND 1937 ¹

INDUSTRIAL injury rates for the iron and steel industry showed very little change between 1936 and 1937, as indicated by reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 1,637 departments of identical establishments. The frequency rate of the injuries remained practically unchanged—15.38, as compared with 15.41 in 1936. The severity rate rose slightly, from 2.01 to 2.16.² Although fewer employees were disabled in 1937 per million hours worked, the injured, on the average, suffered more serious disabilities than was the case in 1936. This fact is reflected in the increase in the number of permanent partial disabilities per 1,000 injuries and in the average days lost per permanent partial disability. There were 64 such permanent partial disabilities per 1,000 injuries in 1937 as against 59 in 1936, and the average time-loss charge per injury rose from 784 to 830 days. Similarly, the temporary total disabilities were relatively more serious in 1937 than in 1936, with an increase in the average days lost from 22 days per disability to 25.

For the entire industry employee-hours worked increased from 1,011 million in 1936 to 1,084 million in 1937; disabling injuries increased from 15,584 to 16,670; and time lost increased from 2,035,000 days to 2,346,000. The increases were 7.1, 7.0, and 15.3 percent, respectively. In terms of specific types of disability, there were, in 1937, 168 deaths, 11 permanent total disabilities, 1,070 permanent partial disabilities, and 15,421 temporary total disabilities.

¹ This article was prepared by Roy F. Fleming and Jacob Lotven, under the direction of Swen Kjaer, chief of the Bureau's Industrial Accidents Division.

² The frequency rate is the average number of disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked. The severity rate is the average number of days lost for each thousand employee-hours worked. The standard time-loss ratings for fatalities and permanent disabilities are given in Method of Compiling Industrial Injury Rates, approved by the American Standards Association, 1937.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Injury Data for 1,637 Identical Departments in the Iron and Steel Industry, 1936 and 1937

Item	1937	1936	Percent of change, 1936 to 1937
Total employee-hours of exposure (in thousands).....	1,083,600	1,011,408	+7.1
Total number of injuries.....	16,670	15,584	+7.0
Total days of disability.....	2,345,717	2,034,595	+15.3
Frequency rate.....	15.38	15.41	-.2
Severity rate.....	2.16	2.01	+7.5

Injury Data, by Departments

Table 2 gives the injury data of the industry for 1936 and 1937 by departments, arranged into four classes (melting and rolling, finishing, service and maintenance, and not elsewhere classified) so as to permit a more adequate comparison of the department groups.

TABLE 2.—Injuries and Injury Rates for 1,637 Identical Departments in the Iron and Steel Industry, by Extent of Disability, 1936 and 1937

Department	1937								
	Number of departments	Em- ployee- hours (in thous- ands)	Total inju- ries	Number of injuries resulting in—			Total time lost (days)	Fre- quen- cy rate ²	Se- verity rate ²
				Death and perma- nent total disabil- ity ¹	Perma- nent partial disabil- ity	Tem- porary total disabil- ity			
All departments ³	1,637	1,083,600	16,670	(11) 179	1,070	15,421	2,345,717	15.38	2.16
Melting and rolling.....	475	412,386	4,865	(5) 74	370	4,421	919,999	11.80	2.23
Bessemer converters.....	14	6,639	78	(2) 6	7	65	47,194	11.75	7.11
Blast furnaces.....	61	41,494	410	11	31	368	112,836	9.88	2.72
Electric furnaces.....	31	6,692	392	1	10	381	27,222	58.58	4.07
Open-hearth furnaces.....	68	54,441	662	23	45	594	206,353	12.16	3.79
Bar mills.....	13	5,863	55	0	6	49	7,782	9.38	1.33
Cold reduction ⁴	6	4,436	141	2	7	132	21,510	31.79	4.85
Cold rolling.....	20	8,815	125	1	5	119	11,739	14.18	1.33
Heavy-rolling mills.....	51	54,641	399	(1) 9	41	349	101,656	7.30	1.86
Hot mills.....	21	23,808	310	0	7	303	10,517	13.02	.44
Light-rolling mills.....	51	33,738	394	(2) 4	37	353	65,876	11.68	1.95
Plate mills.....	21	17,487	145	2	16	130	33,924	8.46	1.94
Rod mills.....	23	7,710	81	0	7	74	8,028	10.51	1.04
Sheet mills.....	34	48,131	608	4	32	572	73,180	12.63	1.52
Strip mills.....	22	29,947	384	6	46	332	91,591	12.82	3.06
Tube mills.....	33	66,955	655	5	71	579	98,110	9.78	1.47
Miscellaneous.....	6	1,589	23	0	2	21	2,481	14.47	1.56
Puddling furnaces.....	2	322	3	0	1	2	1,878	-----	-----
Puddling mills.....	4	1,268	20	0	1	19	603	-----	-----
Finishing.....	674	344,730	8,812	(4) 37	453	8,322	729,920	25.56	2.12
Axle works.....	4	1,771	34	0	0	34	504	19.19	.28
Bolts and nuts.....	35	17,612	435	0	28	407	19,825	24.70	1.13
Car wheels.....	29	5,742	281	0	14	217	16,180	40.23	2.82
Cold drawing.....	12	4,017	167	0	6	161	7,333	41.57	1.85
Fabricating shops.....	113	66,728	1,432	(1) 11	88	1,333	165,245	21.46	2.48
Forge shops.....	156	61,324	1,736	(1) 4	76	1,656	107,054	28.31	1.75
Foundries.....	152	86,596	3,158	(2) 18	126	3,014	260,685	36.47	3.01
Galvanizing and tinning.....	35	36,972	288	1	27	260	41,822	7.79	1.13
Nails and staples.....	16	3,555	54	0	6	48	7,804	15.19	2.19
Stamping.....	45	19,074	606	0	39	567	44,500	31.77	2.33
Wire drawing.....	46	30,716	425	3	34	388	50,421	13.84	1.64
Wire springs.....	16	8,045	220	0	8	212	6,140	27.55	.76
Woven-wire fence.....	15	2,578	26	0	1	25	2,407	10.09	.93

¹ Figures in parentheses show the number of permanent total disability cases included.

² The frequency rate is the average number of disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked. The severity rate is the average number of days lost for each thousand employee-hours worked. The standard time-loss ratings for fatalities and permanent disabilities are given in Method of Compiling Industrial Injury Rates, approved by the American Standards Association, 1937.

³ Except coke-oven and erection departments.

TABLE 2.—Injuries and Injury Rates for 1,637 Identical Departments in the Iron and Steel Industry, by Extent of Disability, 1936 and 1937—Continued

Department	1937									
	Number of departments	Em- ployee- hours (in thous- ands)	Total inju- ries	Number of injuries resulting in—			Total time lost (days)	Fre- quen- cy rate	Se- verity rate	
				Death and perma- nent total disa- bility	Perma- nent partial disa- bility	Tempo- rary total disa- bility				
Service and maintenance.....	290	150,749	1,321	(1)	47	132	1,142	435,624	8.76	2.89
Electrical.....	59	21,083	131		10	12	109	76,571	6.21	3.63
Mechanical.....	131	97,251	934		18	98	818	218,469	9.60	2.25
Ore docks and yards.....	3	345	1		0	1	0	1,200	2.90	3.48
Power houses.....	22	6,554	28		6	2	20	38,973	4.27	5.95
Yards and transportation.....	75	25,516	227	(1)	13	19	195	100,411	8.90	3.94
Not elsewhere classified.....	198	175,735	1,672	(1)	21	115	1,536	260,174	9.51	1.48
Coke ovens.....	26	21,081	87		4		75	40,124	4.13	1.90
Erecting.....	2	2,989	259		9	14	236	68,894	86.64	23.05
1936										
All departments ³	1,637	1,011,408	15,584	(4)	166	924	14,494	2,034,595	15.41	2.01
Melting and rolling.....	475	398,129	4,564	(2)	71	353	4,140	805,247	11.46	2.02
Bessemer converters.....	14	6,561	50		3	6	41	24,800	7.62	3.78
Blast furnaces.....	61	35,201	396	(1)	15	28	353	129,776	11.25	3.69
Electric furnaces.....	31	4,201	220		1	3	216	9,909	52.37	2.36
Open-hearth furnaces.....	68	52,210	504		16	49	439	147,376	9.65	2.82
Bar mills.....	13	6,140	44		1	6	37	12,651	7.17	2.06
Cold reduction ⁴	6	4,037	93		0	9	84	9,695	23.04	2.40
Cold rolling.....	20	8,709	157		0	4	153	6,280	18.03	7.2
Heavy-rolling mills.....	51	55,764	399	(1)	12	32	355	109,092	7.16	1.96
Hot mills.....	21	24,622	323		6	7	310	46,578	13.12	1.89
Light-rolling mills.....	21	35,405	413		7	37	369	84,995	11.67	2.80
Rod mills.....	21	17,599	127		2	20	105	32,880	7.22	1.47
Plate mills.....	23	7,857	85		1	8	76	11,258	10.82	1.87
Sheet mills.....	34	56,055	690		2	46	642	61,891	12.31	1.09
Strip mills.....	22	23,095	424		0	42	382	35,960	18.36	1.56
Tube mills.....	33	59,694	614		5	53	556	80,375	10.29	1.35
Miscellaneous.....	6	978	25		0	3	2	731	25.56	2.79
Crucible furnaces.....	2	43	4		0	1	3	359	-----	-----
Puddling mills.....	4	935	21		0	2	19	2,372	-----	-----
Finishing.....	674	307,224	8,142	(2)	38	363	7,741	647,424	26.50	2.11
Axle works.....	4	1,315	38		0	1	37	2,383	28.89	1.81
Bolts and nuts.....	35	15,978	372		0	24	348	19,215	23.28	1.20
Car wheels.....	29	4,642	158		1	0	157	9,471	34.04	2.04
Cold drawing.....	12	3,400	137		0	2	135	6,038	40.29	1.78
Fabricating shops.....	113	49,020	1,184		7	71	1,106	138,932	24.15	2.83
Forge shops.....	156	48,324	1,757		7	60	1,690	106,187	36.36	2.20
Foundries.....	152	74,967	2,875	(1)	12	75	2,788	164,699	38.35	2.20
Galvanizing and tinning.....	35	41,185	324		4	24	296	51,889	7.87	1.26
Nails and staples.....	16	2,956	26		0	5	21	2,186	8.80	7.74
Stamping.....	45	18,640	621		4	47	570	67,834	33.32	3.64
Wire drawing.....	46	36,347	382	(1)	3	43	356	67,355	10.51	1.85
Wire springs.....	16	7,493	246		0	9	237	9,378	32.83	1.33
Woven-wire fence.....	15	2,957	22		0	2	20	1,257	7.44	4.43
Service and maintenance.....	290	137,091	1,189	39	120	1,030	361,043	8.67	2.63	
Electrical.....	59	19,299	108		7	6	95	50,653	5.60	2.62
Mechanical.....	131	87,855	890		21	90	779	220,794	10.13	2.51
Ore docks and yards.....	3	339	1		0	1	0	3,000	2.95	8.85
Power houses.....	22	5,756	18		1	1	16	7,045	3.13	1.22
Yards and transportation.....	75	23,842	172		10	22	140	79,551	7.21	3.34
Not elsewhere classified.....	198	168,964	1,689	18	88	1,583	220,881	10.00	1.31	
Coke ovens.....	26	19,383	87		10	6	71	64,300	4.49	3.32
Erecting.....	2	3,068	330		10	8	312	84,724	107.56	27.62

³ Except coke-oven and erection departments.

⁴ Included in cold-rolling and strip-mill departments until 1937.

Melting and rolling.—For the 475 departments included in the melting and rolling class, employee-hours increased by 14 millions, total number of injuries increased by 301, and days lost increased by 115,000. The frequency rate of the injuries increased slightly, from 11.46 to 11.80, and the severity rate from 2.02 to 2.23. Nine of the 16 department groups had increases in the frequency rate of the injuries, and the same number, though not always the same department groups, had increases in their severity rates. The bessemer-converter departments had the largest percentage increase in the frequency rate, rising from 7.62 to 11.75, and the largest increase in the severity rate, 3.78 to 7.11. The electric-furnace group, which had the highest frequency rate of all the department groups in both years, had a further increase in the frequency rate, rising from 52.37 to 58.58. Other groups having considerable increases in their frequency rates were bar mills, cold reduction, and open-hearth furnace departments.

The strip-mill departments had the most favorable reduction in the frequency rate in the melting and rolling class, dropping from 18.36 to 12.82. However, the severity rate for this department group nearly doubled, rising from 1.56 to 3.06, due almost entirely to the occurrence of 6 deaths in 1937 as against none in 1936. The cold-rolling group and the miscellaneous group also had large decreases in the frequency rates, the former dropping from 18.03 to 14.18 and the latter falling from 25.56 to 14.47.

Sizable increases in the severity rates occurred in electric furnaces (2.36 to 4.07), cold reduction (2.40 to 4.85), open-hearth furnaces (2.82 to 3.79), and cold rolling (0.72 to 1.33). Department groups having noteworthy reductions in their severity rates were blast furnaces (3.69 to 2.72), bar mills (2.06 to 1.33), hot mills (1.89 to 0.44), light-rolling mills (2.40 to 1.95), rod mills (1.43 to 1.04), and miscellaneous group of departments (2.79 to 1.56).

Finishing.—The departments in the finishing class, as a whole, had the highest frequency rates in both years. The frequency rate for this class, however, declined slightly from 26.50 in 1936 to 25.56 in 1937. During the same period the severity rate remained practically constant, 2.11 in 1936 and 2.12 in 1937. For all departments, the employee-hours of exposure increased 12.2 percent, the total number of injuries increased 8.2 percent, and the days of disability increased 12.7 percent.

Cold-drawing departments had the highest frequency rate in both years, with 40.29 in 1936 and 41.57 in 1937. The foundry group had the highest number of deaths and permanently crippling injuries for every million employee-hours worked in 1937. The nail and staple group had the largest increase in the frequency rate, rising from 8.80 to 15.19. Other department groups with sizable increases in the

frequency rates were car wheels (34.04 to 40.23), wire drawing (10.51 to 13.84), and woven-wire fence (7.44 to 10.09).

In 1937 the severity rate of 3.01 for the foundry group was the highest in the finishing class. The largest increase in the severity rate occurred in the nail and staple group, rising from 0.74 to 2.19. The only other significant increase in the severity rate was in the car-wheel group, from 2.04 to 2.82.

The axle-work group had the largest point and percentage decrease in both injury rates. The frequency rate fell from 28.89 to 19.19, and the severity rate dropped from 1.81 to 0.28. Fabricating shops, stampings, and wire springs all had considerable decreases in both the frequency rates and severity rates. Among the major department groups in the finishing class, forge shops probably made the most favorable reduction in the injury rates. The frequency rate was reduced from 36.36 to 28.31 and the severity rate from 2.20 to 1.75.

Service and maintenance.—In the service and maintenance class both injury rates for the class as a whole increased in 1937 over 1936. Nevertheless, this class was outstanding in both years for its low injury hazard, as indicated by the frequency rate of 8.67 in 1936 and 8.76 in 1937. On the other hand, the injuries that did occur proved to be much more serious in character than those in the other classes. This is indicated in the severity rate and the ratio of deaths and permanent disabilities per 1,000 injuries. The severity rate, which ranked last among the classes in each of the 2 years, was 2.63 in 1936 and 2.89 in 1937. The ratio of deaths and permanent total disabilities was high in both years, 33 in 1936 and 36 in 1937. Similarly, the ratio of permanent partial disabilities outranked the other classes, with 101 in 1936 and 100 in 1937.

The 290 departments in this class reported an increase in the employee-hours worked from 137 million to 151 million, or 10.0 percent; an increase in the total number of injuries from 1,189 to 1,321, or 11.1 percent; and an increase in the total days of disability from 361,000 to 436,000, or 20.7 percent. The department groups having increases in their frequency rates were electrical, power houses, and yards and transportation. The mechanical and the ore dock and yard groups had slight decreases in the frequency rates. In 1937 yards and transportation had the highest death and permanent disability rate for the service and maintenance class, with $1\frac{1}{4}$ employees injured either fatally or permanently for every million employee-hours worked. The largest increase in the severity rate occurred in the power-house group of departments, rising from 1.22 in 1936 to 5.95 in 1937.

Because coke-oven and erecting departments do not properly fall within the iron and steel classification, although operated by some iron and steel firms, the figures for these two department groups are shown separately and are not included in the general industry data. Attention is called to the extremely high injury rates of the erecting group.

Relative Frequency and Severity Ranks of Departments

The relative frequency and severity ranks of the various groups of departments as units of the iron and steel industry are given in table 3. The rank assigned to each department group is determined by its frequency and by its severity rate. That is, the department having the lowest frequency rate is assigned first rank, the second lowest, second, etc. The same procedure is followed in assigning severity-rate ranks. It is pertinent to note that rank is not an absolute measure of injury rates, but expresses the standing of one department group in relation to the rates of other groups.

At the extreme positions few or no changes occurred in the frequency-rate ranks from 1936 to 1937. The highly favorable first, second, third, and fourth ranks were occupied in both years by ore docks and yards, powerhouses, electrical departments, and heavy-rolling mills, respectively. The unfavorable thirty-fifth rank was occupied by electric furnaces, and thirty-fourth rank by cold drawing. Foundries occupied thirty-third place in 1936 and thirty-second place in 1937, car wheels thirty-first place in 1936 and thirty-third place in 1937. Wide shifts in frequency-rate ranks occurred in some of the groups not located at the extreme positions. Nails and staples shifted unfavorably 13 places, moving from eleventh place in 1936 to twenty-fourth place in 1937. Both bessemer converters and cold reduction shifted seven places, the former moving from ninth place in 1936 to sixteenth place in 1937, and the latter from twenty-fourth place in 1936 to thirty-first place in 1937. The most favorable shift in frequency-rate rank occurred in blast furnaces, a shift of six places, from eighteenth place in 1936 to twelfth place in 1937.

Severity-rate ranks fluctuated much more than frequency-rate ranks. In the powerhouse group the shift was most severe; it moved from sixth place in 1936 to thirty-fourth place in 1937. Nails and staples shifted 17 places in 1937, moving from third to twentieth position. Strip mills also changed ranks unfavorably, moving from twelfth place in 1936 to twenty-seventh place in 1937. The most favorable change in position occurred in hot mills. This group occupied seventeenth place in 1936 and second place in 1937. Not far behind in favorable gain in rank position came axle works and bar mills. The former ranked fourteenth in 1936 as against first in 1937, and the latter twentieth in 1936 as against eighth in 1937.

Practically no correlation existed in the movements of frequency- and severity-rate ranks. In 17 department groups both frequency- and severity-rate ranks shifted in the same direction, but the number of places shifted differed widely. In 7 department groups frequency- and severity-rate ranks moved in opposite directions. In the rest of the department groups the frequency-rate ranks either retained the same position while the severity-rate ranks moved up or down, or the

severity-rate ranks retained the same position while the frequency-rate ranks moved up or down.

TABLE 3.—Rank, According to Frequency and Severity Rates, of Departments in the Iron and Steel Industry, 1936 and 1937¹

Department	Fre- quency- rate rank		Sever- ity-rate rank		Department	Fre- quency- rate rank		Sever- ity-rate rank	
	1937	1936	1937	1936		1937	1936	1937	1936
Melting and rolling:					Finishing—Continued.				
Bessemer converters.....	16	9	35	34	Cold drawing.....	34	34	16	13
Blast furnaces.....	12	18	24	33	Fabricating shops.....	26	26	23	30
Electric furnaces.....	35	35	32	23	Forge shops.....	29	32	15	21
Open-hearth furnaces.....	17	12	30	29	Foundries.....	32	33	26	21
Bar mills.....	8	5	8	20	Galvanizing and tinning.....	5	10	6	7
Cold reduction.....	31	24	33	24	Nails and staples.....	24	11	20	3
Cold rolling.....	22	22	8	2	Stamping.....	30	30	22	32
Heavy-rolling mills.....	4	4	17	18	Wire drawing.....	21	16	14	15
Hot mills.....	20	21	2	17	Wire springs.....	28	29	3	9
Light-rolling mills.....	15	19	19	24	Woven-wire fence.....	13	8	4	1
Plate mills.....	6	7	18	16	Service and maintenance:				
Rod mills.....	14	17	5	11	Electrical.....	3	3	29	27
Sheet mills.....	18	20	12	4	Mechanical.....	10	14	21	26
Strip mills.....	19	23	27	12	Ore docks and yards.....	1	1	28	35
Tube mills.....	11	15	10	10	Power houses.....	2	2	34	6
Miscellaneous.....	23	27	13	28	Yards and transporta- tion.....	7	6	31	31
Finishing:					Not elsewhere classified.....	9	13	11	8
Axle works.....	25	28	1	14					
Bolts and nuts.....	27	25	6	5					
Car wheels.....	33	31	25	19					

¹ The lowest rate is ranked first, the second lowest, second, etc. Two departments tying for the same rank were assigned the same rank number, but the next number was omitted to avoid distortion of subsequent rank numbers.

Disability Distribution per 1,000 Injuries

On a basis of 1,000 injuries, table 4 shows the distribution of injuries by deaths and permanent total disabilities, permanent partial disabilities, and temporary total disabilities, thus indicating the shift from 1936 to 1937 in the seriousness of injuries. In addition, the table shows the average number of days lost per permanent partial disability and per temporary total disability.

So measured, the data reveal that in the melting and rolling class of the iron and steel industry the number of deaths and permanent total disabilities decreased from 16 in 1936 to 15 in 1937. Permanent partial disabilities also decreased slightly from 77 in 1936 to 76 in 1937.

Deaths and permanent total disabilities in the finishing class followed the same trend as in the melting and rolling class, decreasing from 5 per 1,000 injuries in 1936 to 4 in 1937; but the trend in permanent partial disabilities was in the opposite direction, increasing from 45 in 1936 to 51 in 1937. This increase was offset somewhat by a decrease in the average time lost per permanent partial disability, which declined from 790 days in 1936 to 745 in 1937.

The service and maintenance class, on the other hand, experienced an increase in the number of deaths and permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries from 33 in 1936 to 36 in 1937. Permanent partial

disabilities, however, decreased slightly from 101 in 1936 to 100 in 1937. The average number of days lost per permanent partial disability rose from 775 to 865, indicating that the slight decrease in the number of permanent partial disabilities was offset by a greater time loss per injury.

TABLE 4.—*Disability Distribution per 1,000 Injuries and Average Days Lost, in the Iron and Steel Industry, by Departments, 1936 and 1937*

Department	Number per 1,000 injuries						Average days lost per disability			
	Death and permanent total disability ¹		Permanent partial disability		Temporary total disability		Permanent partial disability		Temporary total disability	
	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936	1937	1936
All departments.....	11	11	64	59	925	930	830	784	25	22
Melting and rolling.....	15	16	76	77	909	907	929	763	30	27
Bessemer converters.....	77	60	90	120	833	820	1,257	850	37	41
Blast furnaces.....	27	38	76	71	897	891	1,103	1,079	34	27
Electric furnaces.....	3	5	26	14	971	981	1,460	(2)	17	14
Open-hearth furnaces.....	35	32	68	97	897	871	1,073	709	34	38
Bar mills.....	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1,100	925	24	30
Cold reduction.....	14	0	50	97	936	903	900	800	24	30
Cold rolling.....	8	0	40	25	952	975	570	675	24	23
Heavy-rolling mills.....	23	30	103	80	874	890	857	761	36	36
Hot mills.....	0	19	23	22	977	959	471	536	24	22
Light-rolling mills.....	10	17	94	90	896	893	861	922	28	24
Plate mills.....	14	16	108	157	878	827	1,000	865	46	34
Rod mills.....	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	857	450	27	22
Sheet mills.....	7	3	53	67	940	930	1,016	739	29	23
Strip mills.....	16	0	120	99	864	901	977	656	32	22
Tube mills.....	8	8	108	86	884	906	707	677	31	26
Miscellaneous.....	0	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1,050	800	18	15
Finishing.....	4	5	51	45	945	950	745	790	20	17
Axle works.....	0	0	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	0	(2)	15	16
Bolts and nuts.....	0	0	64	65	936	935	479	602	16	14
Car wheels.....	0	6	61	0	939	994	825	0	21	22
Cold drawing.....	0	0	36	15	964	985	875	(2)	13	14
Fabricating shops.....	8	6	61	60	931	934	740	1,026	26	22
Forge shops.....	2	4	44	34	954	962	684	658	19	15
Foundries.....	6	4	40	26	954	970	747	658	19	16
Galvanizing and tinning.....	3	12	94	74	903	914	1,080	852	26	25
Nails and staples.....	0	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1,075	360	28	18
Stamping.....	0	6	64	76	936	918	887	728	17	17
Wire drawing.....	7	8	80	113	913	879	582	914	33	30
Wire springs.....	0	0	36	37	964	963	525	878	9	9
Woven-wire fence.....	0	0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	24	18
Service and maintenance.....	36	33	100	101	864	866	865	775	35	33
Electrical.....	76	65	92	56	832	879	950	800	47	41
Mechanical.....	19	24	105	101	876	875	862	789	32	31
Ore docks and yards.....	0	0	(2)	(2)	0	0	(2)	(2)	0	0
Power houses.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	34	47
Yards and transportation.....	57	58	84	128	859	814	782	630	39	41
Not elsewhere classified.....	13	11	69	52	918	937	805	857	27	24

¹ Each death or permanent total disability is charged with a time loss of 6,000 days.

² Computations not given because of small number of total injuries.

Deaths and permanent total disabilities.—In the bessemer-converter group of departments the already high number of deaths and permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries rose from 60 in 1936 to 77 in 1937, an increase of 17. In the strip-mill and cold-reduction groups the number of deaths or permanent total disabilities also increased

in 1937; there were no deaths or permanent total disabilities in either of these groups in 1936 but in 1937 the former had 16 and the latter 14. Two other groups showed increases in the number of deaths and permanent total disabilities—electrical departments with a rise of 11 deaths and permanent total disabilities (from 65 in 1936 to 76 in 1937); and the cold-rolling group with an increase of 8 (from none in 1936 to 8 in 1937).

The hot-mill group with 19 deaths and permanent total disabilities in 1936 and none in 1937, showed the most favorable record in reducing the number of fatalities and permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries. Next in line is the blast-furnace group of departments with a reduction of 11 deaths and permanent total disabilities. Closely grouped together with fairly extensive reductions in the number of deaths and permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries were galvanizing and tinning with 9 less (12 in 1936 and 3 in 1937), heavy-rolling mills with 7 less (30 in 1936 and 23 in 1937), and light-rolling mills with 7 less (17 in 1936 and 10 in 1937).

With 77 fatal and permanent total disability cases per 1,000 injuries, bessemer converters showed the worst record in this respect in 1937. The electrical group of departments, with one less death and permanent total disability, was next. In 1936 the electrical group had shown the worst record, with 65 deaths and permanent total disabilities, and bessemer converters came next with 60 deaths and permanent total disabilities. Other groups with high death and permanent total disability ratios (at least 20 or more per 1,000 injuries) were yards and transportation, with 58 deaths and permanent total disabilities in 1936 and 57 in 1937; blast furnaces with 38 in 1936 and 27 in 1937; open-hearth furnaces with 32 in 1936 and 35 in 1937; and heavy-rolling mills with 30 in 1936 and 23 in 1937.

Permanent partial disability.—Among the departments in which permanent partial disabilities occurred in both years, the electrical group showed the greatest increase in 1937 over 1936 in the number of such disabilities per 1,000 injuries. In 1936 there were 56 permanent partial disabilities with an average time loss of 800 days. In 1937 the number rose to 92, with an average time loss of 950 days, indicating not only a numerical increase, but also a prevalence of more serious disabilities. Other groups of departments showing an increase of 20 or more permanent partial disabilities per 1,000 injuries in 1937 over 1936 were heavy-rolling mills with 80 in 1936 and 103 in 1937, tube mills with 86 and 108, cold drawing with 15 and 36, strip mills with 99 and 120, and galvanizing and tinning with 74 and 94. In practically every one of these groups the average number of days lost per permanent partial disability increased, indicating that there were not only more such disabilities, but that they also were of a more severe nature.

With a decrease of 49 permanent partial disabilities per 1,000 injuries the most favorable reduction in the number of such injuries in 1937 occurred in plate mills. That favorable record was somewhat marred, however, by the greater average time lost, an increase of 135 days per permanent partial disability, from 865 days in 1936 to 1,000 in 1937. Another decline almost as large occurred in cold reduction, with a drop of 47 permanent partial disabilities, but again the average time loss was greater, rising from 800 days in 1936 to 900 days in 1937. Other noteworthy decreases occurred in wire drawing and in bessemer converters. In wire drawing the improvement was further enhanced by a reduction in the average number of days lost from 914 in 1936 to 582 in 1937.

In 1937 the largest number of permanent partial disabilities (120 per 1,000 injuries) occurred in strip mills. This group was followed by plate mills and tube mills, each with 108 permanent partial disabilities. In 1936 the largest number of such disabilities (157 per 1,000 injuries) was in plate mills, followed by yards and transportation with 128 and bessemer converters with 120.

Temporary total disability.—The number of temporary total disabilities, per 1,000 injuries, changes inversely to the increases or decreases in deaths and permanent disabilities. It might be well to note, however, that in a number of department groups temporary total disabilities were fairly high in both years, indicating an injury experience consisting primarily of less serious injuries. Department groups with 950 or more temporary total disabilities per 1,000 injuries both in 1936 and 1937 were electric furnaces, cold rolling, hot mills, cold drawing, forge shops, foundries, and wire springs departments.

The average time lost per temporary total disability increased 12 days in plate mills, 10 days in both strip mills and nails and staples, and 7 days in blast furnaces. Other increases in the average number of days lost per temporary total disability occurred, but were not so large as those already mentioned. The outstanding decrease in the average number of days lost occurred in powerhouses, declining from the high number of 47 days in 1936 to 34 in 1937. In the bar-mill and cold-reduction groups the average number of days lost decreased 6.

Experience of a Select Group of Establishments

The experience of a select group of establishments that has been interested in safe working conditions since about 1906 shows what can be accomplished in accident prevention when safety work is carried out as a definite managerial policy. The steady decline in the frequency rate exemplifies the great progress made in the reduction of disabling injuries since the inception of safety work in this select group. Had the remainder of the iron and steel industry had as favorable a

record in 1937 as had this select group, the total number of injuries would have been 7,368 instead of 16,670.

Table 5 and the accompanying chart give, by broad classifications of injury causes, the frequency rate of injuries in this group of establishments from 1913 to 1937. In sharp contrast to the frequency rate of the entire industry (15.38) in 1937, the rate of this group was 6.8.

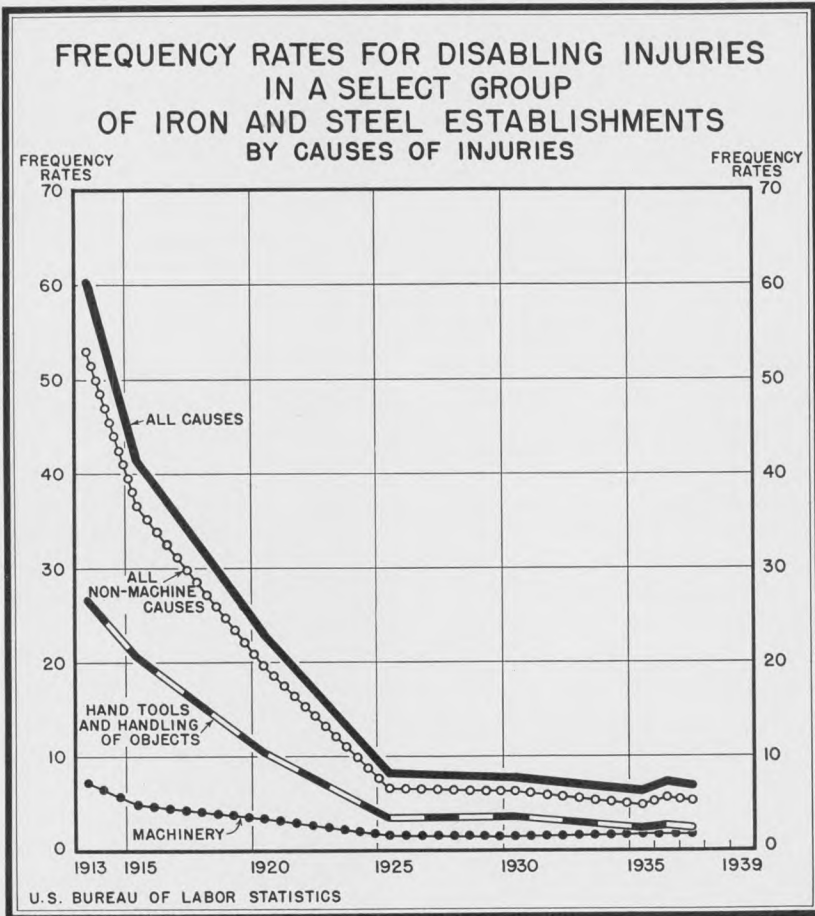


TABLE 5.—Frequency Rates for Disabling Injuries in a Select Group of Iron and Steel Establishments, 1913 to 1937, by Causes of Injuries

Cause of injury	1913	1915	1920	1925	1930	1935	1936	1937
All causes ¹	60.3	41.5	23.1	8.2	7.7	6.3	7.2	6.8
Machinery.....	7.3	4.9	3.4	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Other than cranes.....	3.8	2.6	1.5	.7	.5	.6	.6	.7
Caught in.....	2.5	1.7	1.0	.5	.4	.5	.4	.5
Breaking.....	.1	.1	.1	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Struck by load.....	1.2	.8	.4	.2	.1	.2	.2	.2
Hoisting apparatus.....	3.5	2.3	1.9	.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0
Overhead cranes.....	2.8	2.0	1.5	.7	.7	.7	.8	.8
Locomotive cranes.....	.3	.2	.2	.1	.2	.3	.2	.2
Other.....	.4	.1	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1
Vehicles.....	2.3	1.6	1.1	.3	.3	.2	.2	.3
Hot substances.....	5.4	3.7	2.4	.6	.4	.4	.5	.6
Electricity.....	.5	.2	.3	.1	(²)	.1	(²)	(²)
Hot metal.....	3.6	2.3	1.7	.4	.3	.3	.3	.4
Steam, hot water, etc.....	1.3	1.2	.4	.1	.1	.1	.2	.2
Falls of persons.....	4.5	3.5	2.5	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	.8
From ladders.....	.3	.1	.1	.1	(²)	.1	.1	(²)
From scaffolds.....	.2	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1
Into openings.....	.2	.1	.1	(²)	(²)	(²)	.1	(²)
Slipping or stumbling.....	3.8	3.1	2.1	.9	.9	.8	.8	.6
Falling material, not handled by injured.....	1.2	.7	.2	.1	.1	(²)	.1	(²)
Hand tools and handling of objects.....	26.7	20.6	10.4	3.4	3.6	2.5	2.8	2.5
Objects dropped in handling.....	11.2	7.6	4.4	1.6	1.9	1.0	1.2	1.1
Caught between material.....	3.4	2.6	1.3	.4	.7	.4	.4	.4
Hand trucks, etc.....	1.9	1.4	.6	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1
Strain in handling.....	2.5	2.5	1.1	.3	.2	.3	.4	.3
Objects flying from tools.....	.2	.1	.1	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Slivers, sharp edges, etc.....	3.8	3.8	1.5	.4	.2	.4	.3	.2
Hand tools.....	3.7	2.6	1.4	.5	.4	.4	.4	.4
Miscellaneous.....	12.9	6.5	3.1	1.1	.8	.5	.8	.8
Asphyxiation.....	.3	.1	.1	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Objects flying from material, striking body.....	.8	.6	.3	.1	(²)	.1	.1	.1
Objects flying from material, striking eye.....	2.9	1.7	1.1	.2	.2	.1	.2	.2
Heat.....	.9	.4	.1	(²)	.1	(²)	(²)	(²)
Other.....	8.0	3.7	1.5	.8	.5	.3	.4	.5

¹ Totals and subtotals are based on employee-hours rather than on totals of rounded individual figures.

² Less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1.

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

ARKANSAS WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT

THE Legislature of Arkansas at its 1939 session passed a workmen's compensation law (No. 319). Arkansas is the forty-seventh State to adopt this type of legislation, leaving Mississippi as the only State now without such a law. The law was approved March 15, 1939.

The Arkansas act will be administered by a commission of three members appointed by the Governor. One member of the commission must be chosen to represent labor, another the employers, and the third must be an attorney.

The law covers all employments with 5 or more employees, except domestic service, agricultural farm labor, charitable institutions, the State and its subdivisions, and news agents. The act provides also for compensation for certain occupational diseases, including silicosis and asbestosis. An employer must either insure his risk in a stock or a mutual insurance company, or provide self-insurance. Most of the benefits provided by the law are liberal; thus, in the case of disability, 65 percent of the wages are paid for a period of 450 weeks, with maximum payments up to \$7,000.

Summary of Principal Provisions

The principal provisions of the Arkansas Workmen's Compensation Act are summarized below.

Date of enactment.—March 15, 1939.

System.—Compulsory.

Injuries compensated.—Injury by accident arising out of and in the course of employment, and such occupational disease or infection as arises naturally out of such employment or as naturally or unavoidably result from such injury. No compensation in the case of injury caused by intoxication, or by willful intention of the employee to injure himself or another.

Industries covered.—All employments in which five or more employees are regularly employed in the same business or establishment, except domestic service, agricultural farm labor, institutions maintained and operated as public charities, the State and its political subdivisions, and any person engaged in the vending, selling, or offering for sale or delivery directly to the general public any newspaper, magazine, or periodical, or acting as sales agent or distributor as an independent contractor of or for any such newspaper, magazine, or periodical. However, a contractor doing building or building-repair work is subject to the act if he employs two or more employees.

Persons compensated.—Every person under any contract of hire or apprenticeship, including minors lawfully or unlawfully employed, except persons whose employment is casual and not in the course of the employer's trade, business, profession, or occupation.

Waiting period.—Seven days, but where disability continues more than 28 days, compensation is allowed from the first day after the injury.

Compensation for death.—(a) Burial expenses not to exceed \$250. (b) Amount payable not to exceed 65 percent of average weekly wage of the deceased employee; not over \$20 nor less than \$7 a week for 450 weeks; maximum amount \$7,000.

Compensation for disability.—(a) Such medical, surgical, or other attendance or treatment, nurse and hospital service (including medicine, crutches, and apparatus) as may be necessary during 60 days after the injury or for such additional time as in the judgment of the commission may be required. (b) For total disability, a payment of 65 percent of average weekly wages for a maximum period of 450 weeks; total compensation may not exceed \$7,000. (c) For temporary partial disability, a weekly payment of 65 percent of the difference between the average weekly wages before the injury and wage earning capacity of the employee after the injury; maximum period, 350 weeks; maximum compensation, \$7,000. (d) For certain specified permanent partial disabilities, 65 percent of wages for fixed periods ranging from 10 to 200 weeks. For serious and permanent facial or head disfigurement, maximum \$2,000. In other cases of permanent partial disability 65 percent of the difference between the average weekly wages and his wage earning capacity thereafter; maximum period, 450 weeks; maximum compensation, \$7,000. Claims must be filed within 1 year after the accident. Notice of injury must be given within 60 days to the commission and to the employer.

Occupational diseases.—Compensation is allowed for certain scheduled diseases, as follows: Poisoning (by arsenic, benzol, cadmium, carbon bisulphide, carbon monoxide, chlorine, cyanide, formaldehyde, halogenated hydrocarbons, hydrochloric acid, hydrofluoric acid, hydrogen sulphide, lead, manganese, mercury, methanol (wood alcohol), methanol chloride, nitrous fumes, nitric acid, petroleum or petroleum products, phosphorus, sulphuric acid, sulphuric dioxide, zinc); anthrax; blisters; synovitis, tenosynovitis, or bursitis; chrome ulceration; compressed air illness; dermatitis; exposure to X-rays or radio-active substances; disease of the eyes caused by electric arc and welding, and cataract in glassworkers; ulceration of the skin or of the corneal surface of the eye in certain cases; glanders; infectious or contagious disease contracted in a hospital or sanatorium; miners' nystagmus; asbestosis; and silicosis. In order to be compensable, such diseases must be incurred in the employment, and the death or disablement must result within 3 years in the case of silicosis or asbestosis, or 1 year in the case of any other occupational disease. The medical board has the final decision on medical facts in occupational-disease cases. The commission is empowered, after public hearing and subject to appropriate conditions, to add to the schedule of occupational diseases such diseases as the development of industrial processes creates.

Insurance.—Employer must insure in a stock or mutual company, or reciprocal exchange, authorized to do business in the State, or furnish to the commission proof of financial ability to become a self-insurer.

Security of payments.—Compensation claims are not assignable and are exempt from all claims of creditors. Compensation has the same preference of lien against the assets of an insurance carrier or employer as claims for unpaid wages. No agreement by an employee to pay any portion of the premium shall be valid, nor may an employee waive his right to compensation.

Administration.—The act is administered by a workmen's compensation commission of three members. Such commission shall hold hearings and make awards of compensation with the right of appeal to the courts of the State.

“ANTI-KICK-BACK” LEGISLATION ¹*Federal Legislation*

IN 1931 Congress passed the so-called Davis-Bacon Act, providing for the payment of the prevailing rate of wages to laborers and mechanics employed by contractors and subcontractors on public buildings of the United States. The act was amended in 1935.²

Events that followed the adoption of this legislation made it mandatory that some measure of relief be instituted to ameliorate the deplorable employment conditions existing on Government construction work. At a congressional hearing, evidence disclosed many instances where contractors who had obtained Government contracts took advantage of a period of unemployment to exploit labor and to deprive workmen of the wages to which they were entitled. It also was disclosed that some unscrupulous contractors would submit unreasonably low bids, thereby obtaining the contract; they would then pay the prevailing wage rate, and endeavor to recoup the difference in the bids by forcing their employees to return a part of the wage. Workmen, on the other hand, knowing that jobs were scarce and fearful that what little income they were receiving might be taken from them, were not anxious to make complaints. Information, however, gradually reached the attention of labor-union officials, and at once efforts were made to stop the practices. A congressional committee investigating the matter uncovered many cases in which employees had been deprived of their full wages. In addition to the so-called “kick-back,” other practices brought to the attention of the committee included “exorbitant deductions for supposed advances for rent and food, forced loans with high interest rates, and a refusal to comply with orders to pay the prevailing wage.”

It was to eliminate these and the other practices that Congress passed the so-called “anti-kick-back” law of June 13, 1934.³ That law provides that—

Whoever shall induce any person employed in the construction, prosecution, or completion of any public building, public work, or building or work financed in whole or in part by loans or grants from the United States, or in the repair thereof, to give up any part of the compensation to which he is entitled under his contract of employment, by force, intimidation, threat of procuring dismissal from such employment, or by any other manner whatsoever, shall be fined not more than \$5,000 or imprisoned not more than 5 years, or both.

The Secretary of the Treasury and the Secretary of the Interior were commissioned to prescribe regulations for the enforcement of the law. The act also requires each contractor and subcontractor to furnish a sworn statement, weekly, with respect to the wages paid

¹ As of April 1939.

² U. S. Code, 1934, Supp. IV, title 40, sec. 276a.

³ Idem, 1934, title 40, sec. 276b.

to each employee during the preceding week. A heavy penalty has been provided for all persons violating the terms of the law.

State Legislation

Several States⁴ have taken cognizance of the subject and adopted legislation prohibiting the practice of "kick-backs." A typical State law is that of New Jersey, which provides that—

Whenever an agreement for the performance of personal service requires that workmen engaged in its performance shall be paid the prevailing rate of wages, it shall be unlawful for any person, either for himself or any other person, to request, demand, or receive, either before or after such workman is engaged, that such workman pay back, return, donate, contribute, or give any part or all of such workman's wages, salary, or thing of value, to any person, upon the statement, representation, or understanding that failure to comply with such request or demand will prevent such workman from procuring or retaining employment. The violation of the provisions of this section shall constitute a misdemeanor; and any person who directly or indirectly aids, requests, or authorizes any person to violate any of the provisions of this section shall be guilty of a violation of the provisions thereof.

The New York law is similar to that of New Jersey, but adds a provision exempting a representative of a labor organization engaged in the collection of dues.

The Maine Legislature went farther and made it an offense to require a person, as a condition of securing or retaining employment in any factory, etc., to work without monetary compensation, or for any person to agree to return any part of the compensation on account of work performed (Acts of 1935, ch. 155).

In Pennsylvania it is an offense for anyone to solicit or demand money either for obtaining employment or for continuing a person in such employment. (Purdon's Stats. 1936, title 18, sec. 1292.) The Legislature of Washington State (Acts of 1939, ch. 195) has also declared it unlawful for any employer to engage in certain wage-payment practices, including the rebating of wages and the underpayment of agreed wages.

Court Decisions

The Comptroller General of the United States on January 19, 1939 (Dec. B-283), ruled that all contracts for the construction of buildings paid from funds appropriated to the District of Columbia should include the regulations governing "kick-backs," until the courts have decided that contractors engaged on such work are not subject to the act. The Comptroller pointed out that although the act does not expressly include the District of Columbia, nevertheless its preamble was sufficiently broad to cover such area, and that it was specifically included in the original Davis-Bacon Act of 1931.

⁴ California (Labor Code 1937, sec. 1778); New Jersey (Rev. Stats. 1937, title 2, ch. 114); New York (Supp. 1931-35 Consol. Laws, ch. 41, sec. 962); Washington (Acts of 1935, ch. 29).

Several cases have been before the courts involving the Federal "kick-back" law. In a case ⁵ decided in the District Court of Pennsylvania in 1935, the court dismissed a charge of alleged conspiracy brought against a contractor. The contractor had agreed with the public body to pay higher wages to skilled laborers, but hired men as common laborers and agreed to pay them as such when as a matter of fact they were skilled laborers and worked at that type of labor. The court made it clear that what the statute covered was the agreement between the contractor and the workman, and not the agreement between the contractor and the public body in charge of the work. In another case ⁶ brought in the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania it was held that subcontractors on a painting job had not committed a criminal offense of conspiracy to violate the act. In this case the alleged offenders had entered into a contract by which the employees promised to pay back part of the wages, and the contractors agreed to return it to the employees if the job turned out to be profitable. The contractors breached the contract when they failed to return the agreed amount to the employees after the latter had carried out their part of the agreement, and the job proved to be profitable. The court held in this case that there was no intent to defraud the employees, and that the contractors could not be held guilty of conspiring to violate the Kick-Back Racket Act.

The New York "kick-back" law ⁷ was upheld in the case of *People v. Desowitz* (2 N. Y. S. 87). The court pointed out that the statute strikes at the root of an evil and "protects the workman and as well those employers who are conducting their operations in an ethical manner with fairness and justice to their employees." Such a statute, the court stated, could not be regarded solely as labor legislation but "as an enactment equally beneficial to capital, insuring parity of labor cost in the same localities, and thus, within proper limits, establishing competitive equality on one of the basic calculations for those engaging the same classification of labor."



RECENT COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Oklahoma Wage and Hour Law Upheld

THE Oklahoma law regulating the wages and hours of labor of both men and women was recently held constitutional by the supreme court of that State. However, because of the insufficiency of the title of the act, it was held to be void insofar as it applies to wages for men.

⁵ *U. S. v. Golder*, 11 F. Supp. 870.

⁶ *U. S. v. Charlick*, 26 F. Supp. 203.

⁷ See also case of *Caivano v. Brill*, N. Y. Municipal Court, decided April 1, 1939.

The court declared that the invalidity of these provisions did not affect the validity of its regulation of the hours of labor of men and of the hours and wages of women.

In upholding the statute the court said that the act did not violate the due process clause of the State constitution or the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. The court called attention to the decision of the United States Supreme Court in *West Coast Hotel Co. v. Parrish* (300 U. S. 379) and observed that although that case involved the regulation of wages of women, "logical reasoning does not suggest that the liberties of men to manage their own affairs and contracts are any more sacred than the rights of women, nor that the general health and morals, as affected by the conditions of labor of men, are any less a proper subject for the exercise of the police power of the State than those of women." It was further declared that "it is just as essential for the police power of the State to protect the health and morals of adult males as of adult females." (*Associated Industries of Oklahoma v. Industrial Welfare Commission*, — Pac. (2d) —.)

Hours of Labor Law of South Carolina Held Invalid

The Hours of Labor Act of South Carolina was held invalid by the State supreme court as an unconstitutional exercise of the police power. The act prohibited the employment of workers in certain manufacturing and mercantile establishments for more than 56 hours a week and 12 hours a day. The court declared the law was unconstitutional since it was not restricted in its application to those classes of employees which have been held subject to hour regulation, such as women, minors, and persons employed in occupations in which continuous employment for long hours may affect their life and health or that of the public at large.

The statute could not be sustained as a health measure, it was said, as there was nothing to indicate that it was based on the theory that work for more than 56 hours in 1 week is injurious to the health or dangerous to the lives of the employees. It was also the opinion of the court that the statute was unconstitutional for the reason that the classification created by exempting certain individuals from the regulation was arbitrary and unreasonable. (*Gasque, Inc. v. Nates*, 2 (2d) 36 S. E. —.)

Taxation of Public Salaries

The United States Supreme Court held in a recent decision that the salary of a Federal employee was subject to the New York State income tax. In an opinion delivered by Mr. Justice Stone, the Court pointed out that previous decisions of the Court holding that States could not tax the salaries of Federal employees, or vice versa, were overruled insofar as they recognized "an implied constitutional im-

munity from income taxation of the salaries of officers or employees of the National or a State Government or their instrumentalities."

It was shown that Congress has the implied power to do whatever is needed or appropriate to protect an agency of the Government. However, it was declared that no such immunity as tax exemption is implied, since there was no basis for implying a purpose of Congress "to exempt the Federal Government or its agencies from tax burdens which are unsubstantial or which courts are unable to discern." In this connection, Mr. Justice Stone observed that the only possible basis for implying a constitutional immunity was that "the economic burden of the tax is in some way passed on so as to impose a burden on the National Government tantamount to an interference by one government with the other in the performance of its functions."

In a concurring opinion, Mr. Justice Frankfurter declared that the earlier rulings asserting the doctrine of reciprocal immunity from taxation were unwarranted interpretations of the Constitution.

Mr. Justices Butler and McReynolds based their dissenting opinion on the ground that where the power to tax exists, the legislatures even may exert it "to destroy, to discourage, to protect or exclusively for the purpose of raising revenue." (*Graves et al. v. People of the State of New York ex rel. O'Keefe*, 59 Sup. Ct. 595.)

Workmen's Compensation for Injury Outside State

The Supreme Court, in another case, upheld a ruling of the Supreme Court of California that an employee of a Massachusetts corporation injured while temporarily in California was entitled to recover compensation under the California Workmen's Compensation Act.¹ At the time of the injury, the employee was a resident of Massachusetts, but was in California on a specific errand for his employer.

In upholding the decision of the California court, Mr. Justice Stone declared that the State of California had not denied full faith and credit to the Massachusetts workmen's compensation statute even though that act would have been applicable in a proceeding instituted in Massachusetts. The Court observed that the clause extending full faith and credit did not require one State to substitute for its own statute the conflicting statute of another State, "even though that statute is of controlling force in the courts of the State of its enactment with respect to the same persons and events." Mr. Justice Stone also quoted with approval the observation of the State court that it would be obnoxious to deny to an injured employee the right to apply for compensation in California "when to do so might require physicians and hospitals to go to another State to collect charges for medical care and treatment given to such persons." (*Pacific Employers Insurance Co. v. Industrial Accident Commission of California et al.*, 59 Sup. Ct. 629.)

¹ See Monthly Labor Review, October 1938 (p. 818).

Compensability of Injury Resulting From Violation of Rules

An employee, injured while riding a hoist in violation of a rule of the employer, was held by the Ohio Supreme Court as not barred from recovering workmen's compensation. Under the State workmen's compensation act every employee injured in the course of the employment is paid compensation, provided the injury was not "purposely self-inflicted." The court held that notwithstanding the violation of the rule, the employee in this instance was injured in the course of his employment.

It was observed by the court that there is a distinction between rules which define the sphere of employment and those which merely direct the manner in which work within the sphere is to be done. Therefore, although the employee in using the hoist against the rule was guilty of an act of negligence, the act was one committed within the sphere of employment. The court declared that the workmen's compensation law of Ohio does not contain a provision which makes injuries compensable "only when and if sustained during proper performance of work." (*Laudato v. The Hunkin-Conkey Construction Co.*, 19 N. E. 898.)

Life-Insurance Agents and Unemployment-Compensation Act

Agents writing life insurance in Connecticut for a foreign life-insurance company were held by the State Supreme Court not to be employees of the company within the meaning of the State unemployment compensation law. It was the view of the court that the agents were independent contractors, since the relationship of master and servant did not exist between the company and its agents.

The ruling was based on the ground that the company did not have the right of general control that is necessary to the existence of the employer-employee relationship. It was observed in this connection that the company was not empowered to direct its agents as to the manner in which they should seek applications, etc., and had retained no control over the methods used in soliciting insurance. This conclusion, the court further observed, is in keeping with the view adopted in 29 other States and in the District of Columbia, in which life-insurance agents are not considered employees within the meaning of unemployment-compensation statutes similar to the Connecticut law. (*Northwestern Mutual Life Insurance Co. v. Tone*, 4 Atl. (2d) 640.)

Picketing of One-Man Business to Obtain Closed Shop

The picketing of a small meat market by a butchers' union was held unlawful by the Tennessee Supreme Court in a case where the proprietor employed no one to assist him. It was the alleged purpose of the union, by picketing and distributing circulars reciting that the

owner was unfair to organized labor, to compel him to join the union and enter into a closed-shop contract.

In holding that an injunction was properly granted, the court declared that picketing and the distribution of circulars by the union were unlawful for the reason that no "labor dispute" existed and that the object of a closed-shop contract was unlawful under the circumstances. It was observed by the court that upon this particular question the authorities are practically unanimous and that "the end sought by the picketing in these circumstances is unlawful." The court also cited several decisions in which the picketing of a business where the owner conducted his business alone has been held unlawful. (*Lyle v. Local No. 452, Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of North America et al.*, 124 S. W. (2d) 701.)

Industrial Disputes

ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN 1938 ¹

STRIKE activity in the United States during the year 1938 was substantially lower than in 1937. Fewer workers were involved in strikes than in any year since 1932 and there were fewer man-days of idleness because of strikes than in any year since 1931. The number of strikes in 1938, however, was greater, except for 1937, than in any year since 1920. These facts tend to show 1938 as a year of comparatively numerous small strikes of short duration.

A total of 2,772 strikes began during 1938. More than 688,000 workers were involved in these strikes and there were more than 9,000,000 man-days of idleness because of strikes during the year. The number of strikes was only 58.5 percent, the number of workers 37 percent, and man-days of idleness 32.2 percent as great as in 1937.

Each of the strikes recorded in the Bureau's statistics involves at least six workers who stopped work for 1 or more days. Disputes which involve a stoppage of work by fewer than six workers or which lasted less than 1 working day or shift are not counted.

The Bureau learns of strikes principally through the public press, union publications, and trade journals. Reports are received also from the various Government labor boards and conciliation services. For the first time the Bureau has also obtained information from one of the clothing unions, which began in 1938 to keep a complete record of all strikes conducted by the union. This has greatly improved the coverage of strikes in the women's clothing industry and has made it possible to include figures for many disputes in small clothing shops which would otherwise have escaped notice. When notice of a strike is obtained, blank report forms are sent to representatives of the employers and unions involved in order to obtain first-hand and detailed information.

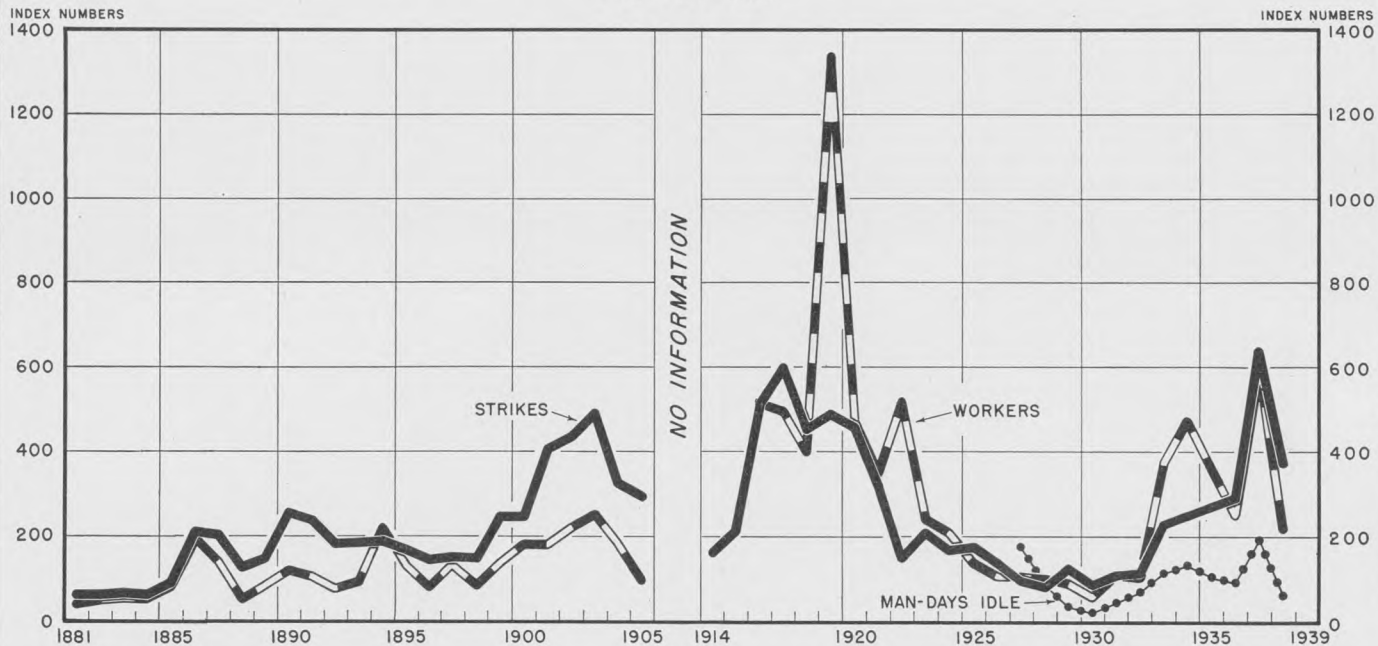
Notices were obtained concerning 17 strikes in 1938 on which detailed reports could not be obtained. With the exception of these strikes and the minor disputes referred to above, it is believed that the 2,772 strikes recorded for the year include practically all strikes that occurred, although it is possible that a few scattered cases escaped attention.

¹ Prepared by Don Q. Crowther of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

CHART I.

TREND OF STRIKES, 1881-1938

1927-29 = 100



U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Industrial Disputes

1111

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in the United States, 1881 to 1905 and 1914 to 1938*

Year	Number of—		Index (1927-29=100)		Year	Number of—			Index (1927-29=100)		
	Strikes	Workers involved	Strikes	Workers involved		Strikes	Workers involved ¹	Man-days idle	Strikes	Workers involved	Man-days idle
1881	477	130, 176	64	42	1914	1, 204	(²)	(²)	162	(²)	(²)
1882	476	158, 802	64	51	1915	1, 593	(²)	(²)	214	(²)	(²)
1883	506	170, 275	68	55	1916	3, 789	1, 599, 917	(²)	509	514	(²)
1884	485	165, 175	65	53	1917	4, 450	1, 227, 254	(²)	598	495	(²)
1885	695	258, 129	93	83	1918	3, 353	1, 239, 989	(²)	451	399	(²)
1886	1, 572	610, 024	211	196	1919	3, 630	4, 160, 348	(²)	488	1, 337	(²)
1887	1, 503	439, 306	202	141	1920	3, 411	1, 463, 054	(²)	458	470	(²)
1888	946	162, 880	127	52	1921	2, 385	1, 099, 247	(²)	321	353	(²)
1889	1, 111	260, 290	149	84	1922	1, 112	1, 612, 562	(²)	149	517	(²)
1890	1, 897	373, 499	255	120	1923	1, 553	756, 584	(²)	209	243	(²)
1891	1, 786	329, 953	240	106	1924	1, 249	654, 641	(²)	168	210	(²)
1892	1, 359	238, 685	183	77	1925	1, 301	428, 416	(²)	175	138	(²)
1893	1, 375	287, 756	185	93	1926	1, 035	329, 592	(²)	139	106	(²)
1894	1, 404	690, 044	189	222	1927	707	329, 939	26, 218, 628	95	106	178
1895	1, 255	407, 188	169	131	1928	604	314, 210	12, 631, 863	81	101	86
1896	1, 066	248, 838	143	80	1929	921	288, 572	5, 351, 540	124	93	36
1897	1, 110	416, 154	149	134	1930	637	182, 975	3, 316, 808	86	59	23
1898	1, 098	263, 219	148	85	1931	810	341, 817	6, 893, 244	109	110	47
1899	1, 838	431, 889	247	139	1932	841	324, 210	10, 502, 033	113	104	71
1900	1, 839	567, 719	247	182	1933	1, 695	1, 168, 272	16, 872, 128	228	376	115
1901	3, 012	563, 843	405	181	1934	1, 856	1, 466, 695	19, 591, 949	250	472	133
1902	3, 240	691, 507	435	222	1935	2, 014	1, 117, 213	15, 456, 337	271	359	105
1903	3, 648	787, 834	490	253	1936	2, 172	788, 648	13, 901, 956	292	254	94
1904	2, 419	573, 815	325	184	1937	4, 740	1, 860, 621	28, 424, 857	637	598	193
1905	2, 186	302, 434	294	97	1938	2, 772	688, 376	9, 148, 273	373	221	62

¹ The number of workers involved in strikes between 1916 and 1926 is known for only a portion of the total. However, the missing information is for the smaller disputes and it is believed that the total here given is fairly accurate.

² No information available.

Monthly Trend

In 1938, as in 1937, the usual seasonal trend of strikes was noticeable, with an increase in number during the early months to a peak in the spring or early summer, a fairly high level until autumn, and then a decline during the late months.

The smallest number (168) of strikes beginning in any month was in January, strikes then becoming more numerous until May when there were 300. The greatest number of workers involved in strikes, however, was in September, when one of the largest strikes of the year began in the motor-trucking industry in New York City and New Jersey. In 1937 more workers were involved in May, when the strike against "little steel" began, than in any other month. The largest number of man-days of idleness because of strikes in any month in 1938 was 1,174,000 in May. In 1937 the highest number was nearly 5,000,000 in June, due chiefly to the continuation of the steel strike. Comparative monthly figures for the 2 years are given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in 1937 and 1938, by Months*

Month	Number of strikes—				Number of workers involved in strikes—				Man-days idle during month	
	Beginning in month		In progress during month		Beginning in month		In progress during month			
	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938	1937	1938
Year.....	4,740	2,772	-----	-----	1,860,621	688,376	-----	-----	28,424,857	9,148,273
January.....	171	168	271	288	108,621	35,329	214,268	55,850	2,720,281	473,289
February.....	211	198	350	327	99,335	53,175	226,329	77,486	1,491,268	514,111
March.....	614	274	760	421	290,324	56,759	358,155	105,962	3,288,979	767,856
April.....	535	281	785	456	221,572	78,666	394,178	110,950	3,377,223	838,158
May.....	604	300	877	495	325,499	83,029	445,170	124,682	2,982,735	1,174,052
June.....	610	219	940	424	281,478	52,801	474,954	95,854	4,998,408	871,002
July.....	472	208	830	387	143,678	50,193	353,682	85,672	3,007,819	776,237
August.....	449	262	746	434	143,033	48,378	238,828	81,052	2,270,380	830,987
September.....	361	222	656	384	88,967	96,399	160,241	133,357	1,449,948	989,916
October.....	320	256	583	406	67,242	52,703	127,109	113,074	1,181,914	842,202
November.....	262	207	467	372	68,929	43,128	118,632	75,445	981,697	557,903
December.....	131	177	333	310	21,943	37,816	60,518	62,160	674,205	512,560

Industries Affected

Half of the Nation's strikes in 1938 were in four industry groups. The largest number was 536 (19 percent of the total) in the textile-fabric and clothing industries. Only 108 of these were in the fabric manufacturing industries, while 428 were in clothing factories. The majority of the latter were short stoppages of work in small clothing shops in New York. (See footnote to table 3.) The next highest number was 339 strikes (12 percent) in trade—92 in wholesale and 247 in retail establishments. There were 315 strikes (11 percent) on building and construction projects and 211 (8 percent) in the transportation and communication industries.

Industry groups with the largest numbers of workers involved in strikes during the year were textiles (109,000); transportation equipment—principally automobile plants—(83,000); transportation and communication—principally motor trucking—(76,000); the food industries (56,000); and building and construction (44,000).

The greatest number of man-days of idleness because of strikes during the year was in textiles (1,425,000), trade (826,000), lumber and allied products (783,000), transportation and communication (720,000), and the food industries (670,000). In textiles there were no particularly large strikes during the year, but the numerous small and medium-sized strikes resulted in a considerable amount of idleness in the aggregate. In trade the outstanding strike was that of San Francisco department-store workers from September 7 to November 1. In the lumber industry the dispute which caused the greatest amount of idleness was at the plants of the Bloedel-Donovan Lumber Mills at Bellingham, Wash. This dispute began in July and was still in progress at the end of the year. In transportation and communication the largest strike was in the trucking industry

in New York City and New Jersey, from September 15 to October 3. In the food industries the large amount of idleness was fairly well scattered among canning and preserving, baking, sugar refining, and slaughtering and meat packing. A large strike of pecan shellers early in the year in San Antonio, Tex., also accounted for a substantial amount of idleness in the food industries.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1938, by Industry*

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1938	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1938
All industries	2, 772	688, 376	9, 148, 273
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	85	29, 372	397, 022
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	8	8, 083	105, 605
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	5	514	6, 106
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	2	1, 365	8, 010
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools.....	4	1, 146	20, 676
Forgings, iron and steel.....	1	26	130
Hardware.....	3	490	7, 448
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures.....	6	1, 931	23, 309
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	2	1, 446	24, 896
Stoves.....	11	2, 220	47, 514
Structural and ornamental metalwork.....	12	1, 883	26, 682
Tin cans and other tinware.....	9	2, 676	46, 532
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	1	89	1, 750
Wire and wire products.....	10	4, 353	59, 910
Other.....	11	3, 150	18, 424
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	85	21, 158	580, 285
Agricultural implements.....	6	3, 008	47, 812
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	25	4, 352	45, 691
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	29	5, 146	141, 505
Machine tools (power driven).....	1	252	4, 536
Radios and phonographs.....	5	2, 857	201, 541
Other.....	19	5, 543	139, 200
Transportation equipment	49	82, 738	318, 449
Automobiles, bodies and parts.....	39	79, 710	288, 029
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	2	243	552
Shipbuilding.....	6	2, 116	20, 010
Other.....	2	669	9, 858
Nonferrous metals and their products	38	7, 708	149, 745
Aluminum manufactures.....	2	149	1, 333
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	5	1, 371	16, 660
Jewelry.....	2	1, 285	10, 647
Lighting equipment.....	6	1, 670	41, 803
Silverware and plated ware.....	5	314	13, 632
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	3	520	26, 450
Stamped and enameled ware.....	6	1, 159	29, 734
Other.....	9	1, 240	9, 486
Lumber and allied products	142	22, 128	782, 707
Furniture.....	67	7, 017	184, 992
Millwork and planing.....	15	4, 312	87, 674
Sawmills and logging camps.....	28	6, 302	400, 260
Other.....	32	4, 495	109, 781
Stone, clay, and glass products	42	7, 954	250, 224
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	15	2, 147	93, 607
Cement.....	4	174	17, 787
Glass.....	4	754	9, 830
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	8	3, 833	74, 227
Other.....	11	1, 046	54, 773
Textiles and their products	536	109, 357	1, 424, 937
Fabrics:			
Carpets and rugs.....	8	6, 895	95, 956
Cotton goods.....	23	11, 772	366, 319
Cotton small wares.....	6	429	5, 516
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	8	1, 153	24, 100
Silk and rayon goods.....	18	13, 842	83, 478
Woolen and worsted goods.....	14	3, 309	50, 934
Other.....	31	3, 612	34, 534

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1938, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1938	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1938
Textiles and their products—Continued.			
Wearing apparel:			
Clothing, men's.....	21	3,956	24,057
Clothing, women's ¹	314	25,019	241,899
Corsets and allied garments.....	2	180	1,530
Men's furnishings.....	1	40	1,340
Hats, caps, and millinery.....	15	3,680	45,682
Shirts and collars.....	12	2,651	84,960
Hosiery.....	13	27,888	165,822
Knitgoods.....	46	4,565	44,775
Other.....	4	366	154,035
Leather and its manufactures.....	59	14,330	159,462
Boots and shoes.....	36	11,448	99,634
Leather.....	7	1,530	48,532
Other leather goods.....	16	1,352	11,296
Food and kindred products.....	168	55,520	689,765
Baking.....	51	12,779	99,992
Beverages.....	10	2,850	16,582
Butter.....	3	191	2,821
Canning and preserving.....	24	14,040	177,938
Confectionery.....	15	2,322	32,692
Flour and grain mills.....	5	272	10,163
Ice cream.....	2	142	692
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	30	10,074	66,523
Sugar refining, cane.....	7	6,549	81,250
Other.....	21	6,301	181,102
Tobacco manufactures.....	9	2,579	147,255
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	1	1,035	23,805
Cigars.....	5	846	115,446
Other.....	3	698	8,004
Paper and printing.....	73	13,764	241,052
Boxes, paper.....	18	1,565	83,103
Paper and pulp.....	6	1,118	16,444
Printing and publishing:			
Book and job.....	9	429	4,461
Newspapers and periodicals.....	21	8,940	92,799
Other.....	19	1,712	44,245
Chemicals and allied products.....	38	4,040	78,101
Chemicals.....	2	152	796
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....	1	14	616
Druggists' preparations.....	4	203	3,599
Fertilizers.....	3	280	2,845
Paints and varnishes.....	8	204	14,423
Petroleum refining.....	3	1,101	25,939
Other.....	17	2,086	29,883
Rubber products.....	29	25,612	165,507
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	5	19,095	65,652
Other rubber goods.....	24	6,517	99,855
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	83	13,992	450,838
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas.....	5	391	10,383
Broom and brush.....	5	888	26,535
Furriers and fur factories.....	18	5,866	323,410
Other.....	55	6,847	90,510
Extraction of minerals.....	63	37,515	599,222
Coal mining, anthracite.....	17	26,416	357,854
Coal mining, bituminous.....	27	9,505	132,855
Metalliferous mining.....	6	772	7,172
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	6	365	9,676
Crude petroleum producing.....	1	8	932
Other.....	6	449	20,733

¹ The large number of strikes recorded for this industry is due in part to a better collection of strike data. Previous to 1938 the Bureau was unable to learn of many of the small strikes in the numerous clothing shops, particularly those in New York City. The number of strikes in the women's clothing industry here reported exceeds by about 200 the number which would have been reported if there had been no change in the method of collecting strike data. This should be noted when comparing figures for this industry with those reported in previous years.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1938, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1938	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1938
Transportation and communication	211	76,355	719,951
Water transportation.....	65	18,227	125,784
Motortruck transportation.....	88	41,408	389,653
Motorbus transportation.....	9	630	4,769
Taxicabs and miscellaneous.....	37	9,869	139,661
Electric railroad.....	6	5,716	58,973
Steam railroad.....	1	25	125
Telephone and telegraph.....	3	455	666
Radio broadcasting and transmitting.....	2	25	320
Trade	339	39,626	826,023
Wholesale.....	92	12,345	193,606
Retail.....	247	27,281	632,417
Domestic and personal service	178	14,187	169,634
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	94	4,436	72,826
Personal service, barbers, beauty parlors.....	3	1,240	15,480
Laundries.....	49	7,236	62,935
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....	20	605	9,624
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....	11	540	3,559
Other.....	1	130	5,210
Professional service	47	4,037	30,009
Recreation and amusement.....	40	3,652	26,082
Professional.....	1	100	200
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers.....	6	285	3,727
Building and construction	315	44,389	405,482
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.....	191	31,752	268,284
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings).....	124	12,637	137,198
Agriculture and fishing	48	24,313	409,951
Agriculture.....	34	11,023	94,040
Fishing.....	13	13,240	313,961
Other.....	1	50	1,950
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects	87	31,031	136,056
Other nonmanufacturing industries	48	6,873	106,596

States Affected

More than one-fourth (764) of the strikes in the United States in 1938 were in New York State. There were 352 in Pennsylvania, 198 in New Jersey, 168 in California, 138 in Illinois, 123 in Massachusetts, 116 in Ohio, and less than 100 in each of the other States. Wyoming is the only State for which no strikes were recorded in 1938.

States with the largest numbers of workers involved in strikes during the year were New York (122,000), Pennsylvania (115,000), and Michigan (77,000). The highest numbers of man-days of idleness were in New York (1,789,000), Pennsylvania (1,411,000), and California (967,000).

TABLE 4.—*Strikes in 1938, by States*

State	Number of strikes beginning in 1938	Workers involved			Man-days idle during 1938	
		Number	Percent of total	Average per strike	Number	Percent of total
All States.....	1 2, 772	688, 376	100. 0	248	9, 148, 273	100. 0
Alabama.....	41	6, 627	1. 0	162	366, 794	4. 0
Arizona.....	8	815	. 1	102	8 191	. 1
Arkansas.....	7	2, 076	. 3	297	10, 489	. 1
California.....	168	45, 791	6. 7	273	966, 712	10. 6
Colorado.....	11	1, 922	. 3	175	15, 070	. 2
Connecticut.....	45	7, 765	1. 1	173	94, 902	1. 0
Delaware.....	4	274	(²)	69	3, 690	(²)
District of Columbia.....	26	1, 545	. 2	59	20, 556	. 2
Florida.....	11	2, 033	. 3	185	15, 245	. 2
Georgia.....	16	1, 909	. 3	119	17, 635	. 2
Idaho.....	4	357	. 1	89	5, 343	. 1
Illinois.....	138	27, 394	4. 0	199	399, 630	4. 4
Indiana.....	67	14, 518	2. 1	217	239, 783	2. 6
Iowa.....	36	4, 779	. 7	133	123, 043	1. 3
Kansas.....	10	2, 073	. 3	207	17, 454	. 2
Kentucky.....	18	2, 942	. 4	163	48, 430	. 5
Louisiana.....	27	15, 407	2. 2	571	160, 655	1. 8
Maine.....	8	944	. 1	118	24, 842	. 3
Maryland.....	25	9, 467	1. 4	379	64, 658	. 7
Massachusetts.....	123	14, 941	2. 2	121	184, 914	2. 0
Michigan.....	95	76, 968	11. 2	810	349, 553	3. 8
Minnesota.....	57	8, 651	1. 3	152	141, 774	1. 5
Mississippi.....	2	195	(²)	98	1, 110	(²)
Missouri.....	68	8, 903	1. 3	131	193, 625	2. 1
Montana.....	7	744	. 1	106	30, 851	. 3
Nebraska.....	15	2, 209	. 3	147	106, 918	1. 2
Nevada.....	1	38	(²)	38	646	(²)
New Hampshire.....	6	1, 331	. 2	222	11, 177	. 1
New Jersey.....	198	49, 289	7. 2	249	384, 506	4. 2
New Mexico.....	6	1, 099	. 2	183	9, 406	. 1
New York ¹	764	122, 032	17. 7	160	1, 789, 181	19. 8
North Carolina.....	18	6, 999	1. 0	389	56, 875	. 6
North Dakota.....	5	75	(²)	15	780	(²)
Ohio.....	116	46, 846	6. 8	404	322, 222	3. 5
Oklahoma.....	13	1, 700	. 2	131	20, 870	. 2
Oregon.....	19	9, 273	1. 3	488	228, 610	2. 5
Pennsylvania.....	352	114, 568	16. 6	325	1, 410, 615	15. 4
Rhode Island.....	22	3, 148	. 5	143	48, 978	. 5
South Carolina.....	9	3, 114	. 5	346	55, 160	. 6
South Dakota.....	2	62	(²)	31	506	(²)
Tennessee.....	28	3, 544	. 5	127	82, 216	. 9
Texas.....	50	9, 185	1. 3	184	197, 452	2. 2
Utah.....	8	532	. 1	67	2, 808	(²)
Vermont.....	2	2, 659	. 4	1, 330	38, 931	. 4
Virginia.....	23	2, 412	. 4	105	27, 462	. 3
Washington.....	51	18, 840	2. 7	369	444, 879	4. 9
West Virginia.....	13	4, 099	. 6	315	55, 752	. 6
Wisconsin.....	88	21, 559	3. 1	245	302, 867	3. 3
Interstate.....	1 5	4, 723	. 7	945	44, 507	. 5

¹ The sum of this column is more than 2,772. This is due to the fact that 41 strikes which extended across State lines have been counted, in this table, as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper allocation of number of workers involved and man-days idle. In 5 additional strikes it was impossible to allocate accurately the workers and man-days to the various States into which the strikes extended.

² Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

³ The large number of strikes reported for New York is due in part to a better collection of data on small strikes in clothing shops of a type which the Bureau had been unable to learn about in previous years.

Cities Affected

There were 35 cities in the United States which had 10 or more strikes in 1938. Figures are shown in table 5 for these cities and 38 other cities which have been included in reports for previous years.

There were more strikes (639) in New York City in 1938 than in all the other large cities together. The number of workers involved and man-days idle in New York exceeded, by far, the corresponding figures for any other city. Philadelphia had the next highest number of strikes (122) and was also second to New York in man-days of idleness, although Detroit had twice as many workers involved as Philadelphia. The Detroit strikes were of short duration on the average, and did not cause as much idleness proportionately as the strikes in many of the other cities.

A number of strikes during the year were intercity in character, that is, they affected workers in two or more cities. For the purposes of table 5, such strikes have been counted as separate strikes in each city affected, insofar as the available information permitted, with the proper allocation of workers and man-days idle to the respective cities. By this method, the data for each individual city are more nearly complete, although some of the strikes recorded for certain cities were only fractional parts of large strikes. Eighty-two strikes affecting cities listed in table 5 were prorated in this way.

There were seven strikes affecting these cities, however, on which sufficient information could not be obtained to allocate properly the workers and man-days. The cities affected by these strikes were:

- Chicago, Ill., by a strike of construction workers on several paving jobs in Cook County.
- Jersey City, Newark, Paterson, and Passaic, N. J., by a strike against a chain grocery-store firm operating in northern New Jersey.
- Kansas City and St. Louis, Mo., by a strike against motor freight companies with terminals in Missouri, Oklahoma, Illinois, and Kansas.
- Newark, N. J., by a strike against moving and storage companies in Essex County.
- New Orleans, La., by a strike against the Federal Barge Lines, operating between various cities along the Mississippi River.
- New York, N. Y., by a strike in wineries throughout the city and nearby areas.
- Philadelphia and Reading, by a hosiery workers' strike which affected plants in several Pennsylvania and New Jersey centers.

TABLE 5.—*Strikes in 1938 in Cities Which Had 10 or More Strikes in Any Year From 1927 to 1938*

City	Number of strikes beginning in 1938	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1938	City	Number of strikes beginning in 1938	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1938
Akron, Ohio.....	12	21,658	68,145	New Bedford, Mass.....	4	567	18,716
Allentown, Pa.....	5	773	6,882	New Haven, Conn.....	2	279	3,069
Baltimore, Md.....	8	2,455	14,465	New Orleans, La.....	15	10,328	71,058
Birmingham, Ala.....	15	1,486	26,304	New York (Greater) ¹	639	102,330	1,575,330
Boston, Mass.....	34	3,872	32,316	Norfolk, Va.....	5	97	2,229
Buffalo, N. Y.....	14	3,363	17,059	Paducah, Ky.....			² 120
Chattanooga, Tenn.....	9	1,795	18,050	Passaic, N. J.....	15	1,569	6,672
Chicago, Ill.....	47	7,771	95,412	Paterson, N. J.....	26	5,591	31,033
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	16	1,899	29,888	Pawtucket, R. I.....	1	463	3,241
Cleveland, Ohio.....	22	4,895	55,049	Peoria, Ill.....	4	119	1,201
Columbus, Ohio.....	9	1,467	9,129	Philadelphia, Pa.....	122	27,905	488,843
Denver, Colo.....	4	594	9,508	Pittsburgh, Pa.....	44	13,527	124,477
Des Moines, Iowa.....	10	1,191	11,682	Portland, Oreg.....	8	6,622	196,492
Detroit, Mich.....	47	55,651	168,857	Providence, R. I.....	10	406	2,199
Duluth, Minn.....	4	589	22,779	Reading, Pa.....	6	1,529	26,775
Easton, Pa.....	3	100	2,592	Richmond, Va.....	6	641	6,670
East St. Louis, Ill.....	14	1,240	12,411	Rochester, N. Y.....	13	2,913	21,734
Elizabeth, N. J.....	7	787	4,542	Rockford, Ill.....	3	2,217	48,013
Erie, Pa.....	6	1,230	3,620	Saginaw, Mich.....	4	1,618	8,603
Evansville, Ind.....	4	2,234	4,116	St. Louis, Mo.....	33	4,950	97,833
Fall River, Mass.....	9	1,075	7,292	St. Paul, Minn.....	12	715	15,779
Flint, Mich.....	6	10,425	31,599	San Francisco (bay area).....	55	17,877	462,770
Haverhill, Mass.....	2	212	1,028	Scranton, Pa.....	11	2,661	9,734
Houston, Tex.....	16	1,223	12,834	Seattle, Wash.....	17	9,148	85,576
Indianapolis, Ind.....	19	1,894	19,309	South Bend, Ind.....	7	479	4,301
Jersey City, N. J.....	22	3,530	35,127	Springfield, Ill.....	8	687	76,354
Kansas City, Mo.....	21	1,462	30,769	Springfield, Mass.....	11	595	4,299
Lancaster, Pa.....	3	262	2,614	Terre Haute, Ind.....	13	224	4,068
Los Angeles, Calif.....	40	8,627	170,656	Toledo, Ohio.....	13	1,836	36,851
Louisville, Ky.....	3	133	1,524	Trenton, N. J.....	15	3,032	29,336
Lowell, Mass.....	6	808	3,124	Washington, D. C.....	25	1,545	20,556
Lynn, Mass.....	7	1,641	10,350	Waterbury, Conn.....	6	767	3,676
Memphis, Tenn.....	7	377	2,967	Wausau, Wis.....	2	383	2,943
Milwaukee, Wis.....	40	10,053	215,607	Wilkes-Barre, Pa.....	8	1,158	54,196
Minneapolis, Minn.....	20	4,741	76,403	Woonsocket, R. I.....	2	1,070	17,380
Newark, N. J.....	56	8,395	58,917	Worcester, Mass.....	4	255	1,955
				York, Pa.....	4	46	489

¹ The large number of strikes reported for New York City is due in part to a better collection of data on strikes in small clothing shops of a type which the Bureau had been unable to learn about in previous years.

² Man-days idle as result of a strike which began in 1937 and continued into 1938.

Number of Workers Involved

There was an average of 248 workers involved in the 2,772 strikes beginning in 1938. About one-fourth of the strikes involved fewer than 20 workers each and half of them involved fewer than 48 workers each. As shown in table 6, about two-thirds of the strikes involved fewer than 100 workers each, 24 percent involved from 100 to 500 workers each, and 10 percent involved 500 or more workers each. Only two strikes in 1938 involved as many as 10,000 workers. These were the short strikes of approximately 21,000 hosiery workers in Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York in February and early March, and the strike of about 18,000 workers in the motor-trucking industry of New York City and New Jersey in September.

The largest strikes, on the average, were in the transportation-equipment manufacturing industries (mostly automobile strikes), where the average number of workers involved was 1,689. The domestic and personal-service industries had the smallest average (80 workers) per strike.

TABLE 6.—*Strikes Beginning in 1938, by Number of Workers Involved and Industry Group*

Industry group	Total	Average number of workers per strike	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—							10,000 and over
			6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 250	250 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	
All industries:										
Number.....	2,772	248	704	1,130	437	236	117	134	12	2
Percent.....	100.0		25.4	40.8	15.8	8.5	4.2	4.8	0.4	0.1
<i>Manufacturing</i>										
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	85	346	8	31	17	8	11	10		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	85	249	13	29	18	12	8	5		
Transportation equipment.....	49	1,689	3	5	4	9	8	14	6	
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	38	203	5	13	11	6	2	1		
Lumber and allied products.....	142	156	24	57	37	17	4	3		
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	42	189	6	20	8	5	2	1		
Textiles and their products.....	536	204	132	260	75	37	18	13		1
Leather and its manufactures.....	59	243	8	21	16	9	2	3		
Food and kindred products.....	168	330	36	61	35	10	7	18	1	
Tobacco manufactures.....	9	287	1	3		4		1		
Paper and printing.....	73	189	30	21	11	6	3	2		
Chemicals and allied products.....	38	106	10	19	5	2	2			
Rubber products.....	29	883		7	11	6	2	1	2	
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	83	169	28	32	14	4	3	1	1	
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>										
Extraction of minerals.....	63	595	7	16	12	10	11	6	1	
Transportation and communication.....	211	362	45	95	30	14	5	21		1
Trade.....	339	117	129	138	34	21	9	8		
Domestic and personal service.....	178	80	85	68	14	4	5	2		
Professional service.....	47	86	16	20	8	2		1		
Building and construction.....	315	141	96	144	42	21	5	6	1	
Agriculture and fishing.....	48	507	3	16	10	9	3	7		
Works Progress Administration, relief and resettlement projects.....	87	357	8	31	17	15	7	9		
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	48	139	11	23	8	5		1		

Number of Establishments Involved

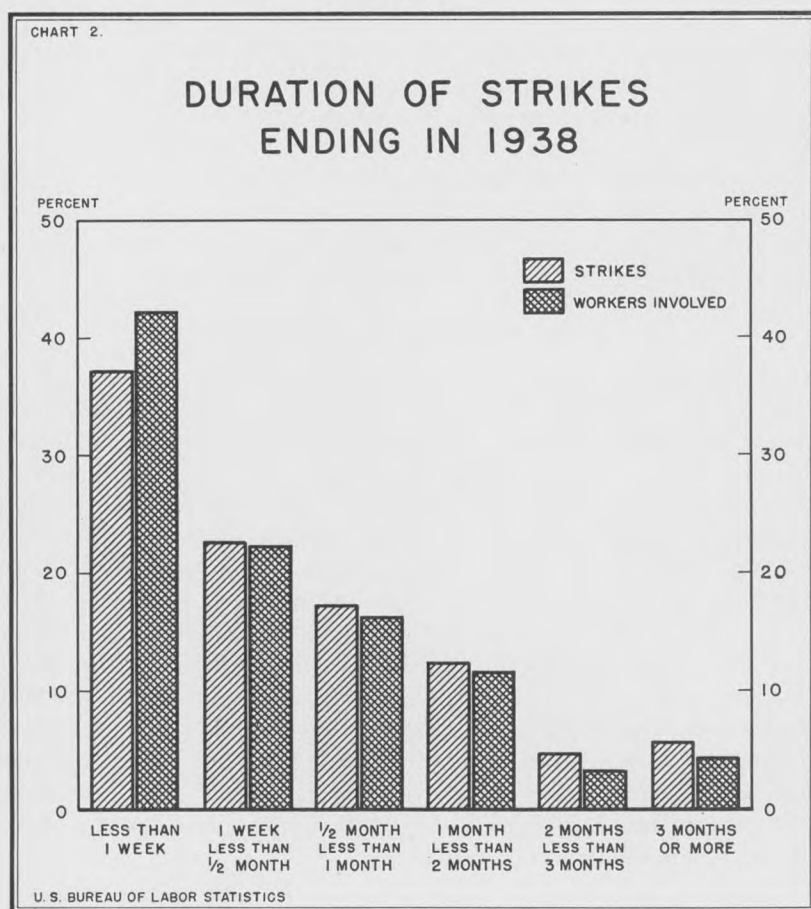
Nearly three-fourths of the strikes ending in 1938 were confined to single establishments. These strikes included only 43 percent of the total workers involved, however, and accounted for a similar proportion of the man-days idle. Twenty percent of the strikes involved 2 to 10 establishments, and 9 percent extended to 11 or more establishments of the same or different companies. This latter group included about one-third of the total workers involved, and accounted for 29 percent of the total man-days of idleness.

TABLE 7.—Strikes Ending in 1938, by Number of Establishments Involved

Number of establishments involved	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,772	100.0	687,629	100.0	8,926,099	100.0
1.....	1,967	71.0	293,688	42.7	3,728,170	41.8
2 to 5.....	437	15.8	115,165	16.7	1,958,865	21.9
6 to 10.....	117	4.2	39,153	5.7	560,611	6.3
11 and over.....	236	8.5	227,470	33.1	2,609,454	29.2
Not reported.....	15	.5	12,153	1.8	68,999	.8

Duration of Strikes

The average duration of the 2,772 strikes ending in 1938 was 23½ calendar days. About 37 percent of the strikes lasted less than a week, 40 percent lasted from a week to a month, 17 percent from 1 to 3 months, and nearly 6 percent had been in progress for 3 months or more when they were terminated.



The 37 percent of the strikes which lasted less than a week included 42 percent of the total workers involved but accounted for only 8 percent of the total man-days idle. On the other hand, the 6 percent of the strikes which lasted 3 months or more included only 4.4 percent of the total workers but accounted for 31 percent of the man-days idle.

TABLE 8.—Duration of Strikes Ending in 1938

Duration of strikes	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,772	100.0	687,629	100.0	8,926,099	100.0
Less than 1 week.....	1,031	37.2	289,689	42.2	715,036	8.0
1 week and less than ½ month.....	630	22.7	153,677	22.3	992,830	11.1
½ and less than 1 month.....	483	17.4	111,951	16.3	1,345,761	15.1
1 and less than 2 months.....	344	12.4	79,683	11.6	2,020,783	22.6
2 and less than 3 months.....	130	4.7	22,325	3.2	1,081,891	12.1
3 months or more.....	154	5.6	30,304	4.4	2,769,798	31.1

Sex of Workers

Only men were involved in 57 percent of the strikes ending in 1938. Women only were involved in 3 percent, and in 39 percent of the 1938 strikes both men and women were involved.

Of the 687,629 workers involved in the strikes ending in the year, 553,765 (81 percent) were men and 124,138 (18 percent) were women. The much greater proportion of men is largely accounted for in the comparatively large number of strikes in the automobile, motortruck and construction industries, where few women are employed.

Labor Organizations Involved

Unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were involved in 50 percent of the strikes ending in 1938. These strikes included 35 percent of the total workers involved in all strikes and accounted for 36 percent of the man-days of idleness. Affiliates of the Congress of Industrial Organizations were involved in 40 percent of the strikes, which included 55 percent of the workers and accounted for 52 percent of the total man-days idle. The relatively larger proportion of workers and man-days idle involved in the C. I. O. strikes is due to the fact that more of these strikes occurred in large plants in the mass-production industries. In addition to the above figures for A. F. of L. and C. I. O. unions, affiliates of both of these organizations were involved in most of the 92 strikes in which "two rival unions" were involved. These 92 strikes do not include jurisdictional disputes or strikes between factions within a union. Such strikes are included in table 9 under the appropriate A. F. of L., C. I. O., or unaffiliated classification.

The labor organizations indicated in table 9 did not in all cases officially call the strikes. Some were started without the formality of a union vote or sanction of a proper union official. However, most of the workers responsible for the strikes were union members, and after the workers were out the unions assisted in negotiating settlements. In a few cases unorganized workers struck, and some union later stepped in and offered leadership and assistance in carrying on the strike and in effecting a settlement.

TABLE 9.—*Strikes Ending in 1938, by Types of Labor Organizations Involved*

Labor organization involved	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,772	100.0	687,629	100.0	8,926,099	100.0
American Federation of Labor.....	1,385	50.1	242,975	35.3	3,209,914	36.0
Congress of Industrial Organizations.....	1,121	40.4	376,770	54.9	4,637,685	52.0
Railroad brotherhoods.....	1	(1)	25	(1)	125	(1)
Unaffiliated ¹	85	3.1	26,943	3.9	242,849	2.7
2 rival unions.....	92	3.3	29,108	4.2	784,734	8.8
Company unions ²	4	.1	395	.1	1,292	(1)
Organization involved but type not reported.....	6	.2	264	(1)	1,829	(1)
No organization.....	74	2.7	10,851	1.6	46,818	.5
Not reported as to whether or not any organization was involved.....	4	.1	298	(1)	853	(1)

¹ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

² Not affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, or the railroad brotherhoods. Of the 85 strikes in this group, the Workers' Alliance was involved in 33 (W. P. A. strikes) and the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union was involved in 31 which took place after November 1 when the union withdrew from the C. I. O. The unions involved in the remaining strikes were local organizations covering workers of more than 1 employer but belonging to no federation which was national in scope.

³ Organizations confined to 1 company.

Causes of Strikes

In half of the strikes ending in 1938 the major issues were recognition, closed shop, discrimination, or other union-organization matters. These strikes included nearly one-third of the workers involved, and caused about 44 percent of the total man-days idle resulting from all strikes ending in the year.

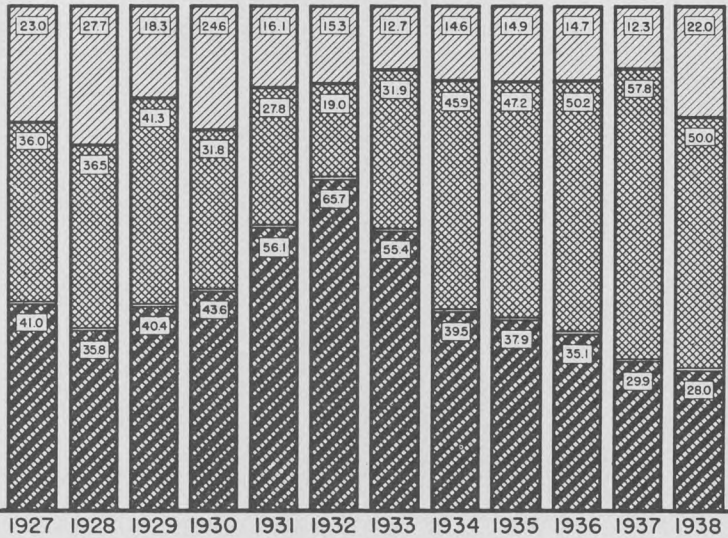
Wage increases, coupled with demands for decreased hours in some cases, were the principal issues in about 17 percent of the strikes, while about 10 percent were protests against wage decreases and hour increases. Altogether about 28 percent of the strikes were over wage-and-hour issues. Nearly 37 percent of the workers involved were concerned with these strikes, which accounted for about 35 percent of the total idleness.

In 22 percent of the strikes, which included 31 percent of the workers and caused 21 percent of the total man-days of idleness, the major issues were rivalry between unions or factions, jurisdictional questions, and miscellaneous grievances over working conditions and rules—disputes over such matters as delayed pay, disciplinary methods,

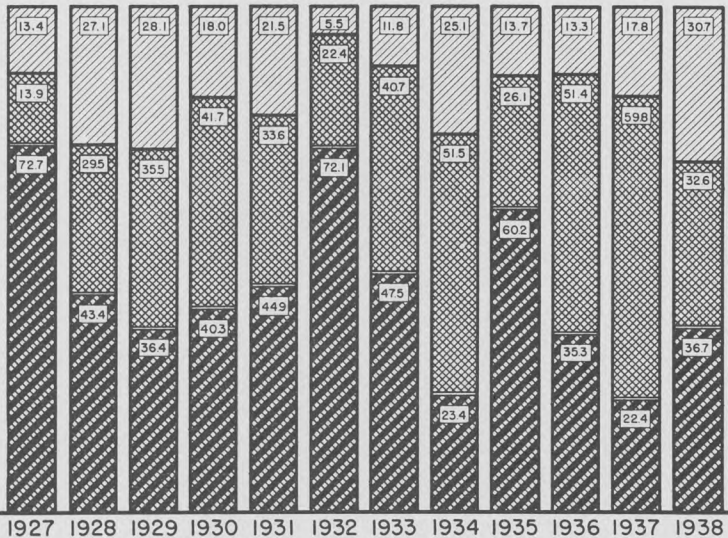
CHART 3.

MAJOR ISSUES INVOLVED IN STRIKES 1927-1938

PERCENT OF STRIKES



PERCENT OF WORKERS INVOLVED IN STRIKES



MAJOR ISSUES:
 MISCELLANEOUS
 UNION ORGANIZATION
 WAGES AND HOURS

U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

vacations, changes in work methods and methods of wage payment, and increased work loads or "speed-up," etc. Less than 1 percent of the total were sympathetic strikes.

TABLE 10.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Ending in 1938

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	2,772	100.0	687,629	100.0	8,926,099	100.0
Wages and hours.....	776	28.0	252,166	36.7	3,108,445	34.8
Wage increase.....	383	13.8	85,981	12.5	914,867	10.2
Wage decrease.....	260	9.4	101,872	14.9	1,326,050	14.9
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	98	3.5	46,875	6.8	643,173	7.2
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	13	.5	4,188	.6	174,391	2.0
Hour increase.....	5	.2	9,199	1.3	18,911	.2
Hour decrease.....	17	.6	4,051	.6	31,053	.3
Union organization.....	1,385	50.0	224,491	32.6	3,961,769	44.4
Recognition.....	277	10.0	24,860	3.6	703,237	7.9
Recognition and wages.....	248	8.9	40,556	5.9	758,691	8.5
Recognition and hours.....	8	.3	642	.1	5,991	.1
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	334	12.1	44,340	6.4	727,291	8.1
Closed shop.....	318	11.5	58,223	8.5	884,330	9.9
Discrimination.....	106	3.8	12,971	1.9	187,080	2.1
Other.....	94	3.4	42,899	6.2	695,149	7.8
Miscellaneous.....	611	22.0	210,972	30.7	1,855,885	20.8
Sympathy.....	25	.9	8,622	1.3	50,270	.6
Rival unions or factions.....	96	3.5	30,018	4.4	789,429	8.8
Jurisdiction.....	54	1.9	4,495	.7	62,162	.7
Other.....	347	12.5	164,706	23.8	914,532	10.3
Not reported ¹	89	3.2	3,131	.5	39,492	.4

¹ Most of the strikes in this group were against women's clothing manufacturers—many of them in New York City. The union involved regarded them as strikes for the enforcement of the union agreements, but the specific issue involved in each case was not reported.

Results

In any statistical analysis made soon after the strikes occur, the results must necessarily be evaluated in terms of the demands made or issues involved when the strikes were called. In other words, the basis for judging the outcome of a strike is necessarily the apparent gain or loss to the workers at the close of the strike, since it is impossible to keep in touch with each situation to determine what bearing the strike has on later developments.

Such interpretation may be misleading in the light of later developments. For example, a strike may come to a close with the workers obtaining none of the things demanded. Yet the experience of the strike may influence the employer to effect certain improvements in order to avoid another strike. On the other hand, an apparently successful strike may be the cause in later months of an employer's decision to close his place of business or move to another locality. A decision made or action taken by the National Labor Relations Board several months after a strike is closed may change the influence or effect of the strike.

Table 11 indicates that in 40 percent of the strikes which ended in 1938 the immediate results were substantial gains to the workers, 30

percent resulted in partial gains or compromises, and 21 percent brought little or no gains to the workers. Of the nearly 688,000 workers involved, 30 percent obtained substantially all that they demanded, 48 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 15 percent gained little or nothing.

About 27 percent of the total man-days idle resulted from the 40 percent of strikes which were successful from the workers' point of view; 44 percent of the idleness was in connection with the strikes which were compromised; and 19 percent was due to the strikes which brought little or no gains to the workers. Nearly 10 percent of the idleness was due to jurisdictional, rival union, or factional disputes, which cannot be measured in terms of results to all the workers.

TABLE 11.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1938

Result	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,772	100.0	687,629	100.0	8,926,099	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	1,110	40.0	203,201	29.6	2,379,845	26.7
Partial gains or compromises.....	829	29.9	333,207	48.4	3,956,864	44.3
Little or no gains to workers.....	578	20.9	100,156	14.6	1,673,684	18.8
Jurisdiction, rival unions, or factions.....	150	5.4	34,513	5.0	851,591	9.5
Indeterminate.....	25	.9	13,339	1.9	28,286	.3
Not reported ¹	80	2.9	3,213	.5	35,829	.4

¹ Most of the strikes in this group were against small shops in the women's clothing industry. The union involved regarded many of them as being satisfactorily settled, yet the exact terms of settlement were not reported.

Table 12 indicates that a larger proportion (46.4 percent) of the strikes over union organization matters were successful from the workers' point of view than those over questions of wages and hours (40.2 percent). However, almost one-fourth of the union-organization strikes were unsuccessful while only one-fifth of the strikes over wages and hours were lost. Of the wages-and-hours strikes, 36 percent were defensive, that is, in protest against a wage decrease or lengthening of hours. Practically the same proportion of the strikes called to gain better conditions (that is, wage increases and hour decreases) were successful as of the defensive strikes.

So far as workers involved were concerned, the greatest proportion were in strikes which resulted in compromise settlements. One-half (55.0 percent) of the workers who struck over wages and hours got compromise settlements, while slightly less than half (47.4 percent) of those involved in union-organization strikes were partially unsuccessful. On the other hand, almost twice as large a proportion of the workers (40.4 percent) in the union-organization strikes obtained substantially all they sought as those (22.4 percent) in the wages-and-hours strikes.

TABLE 12.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1938 in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total		Strikes resulting in—					
	Number	Per cent	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
All issues.....	2,772	100.0	40.0	29.9	20.9	5.4	0.9	2.9
Wages and hours.....	776	100.0	40.2	40.1	19.3	-----	.1	.3
Wage increase.....	383	100.0	35.5	44.4	19.8	-----	.3	-----
Wage decrease.....	260	100.0	40.8	37.7	21.5	-----	-----	-----
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	98	100.0	55.1	33.7	9.2	-----	-----	2.0
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	13	100.0	38.5	23.0	38.5	-----	-----	-----
Hour increase.....	5	100.0	20.0	60.0	20.0	-----	-----	-----
Hour decrease.....	17	100.0	58.9	23.5	17.6	-----	-----	-----
Union organization.....	1,385	100.0	46.4	28.8	24.4	-----	.3	.1
Recognition.....	277	100.0	53.7	13.7	31.8	-----	.4	.4
Recognition and wages.....	248	100.0	46.4	35.9	17.3	-----	.4	-----
Recognition and hours.....	8	100.0	87.5	12.5	-----	-----	-----	-----
Recognition, wages and hours.....	334	100.0	48.5	30.2	21.3	-----	-----	-----
Closed shop.....	318	100.0	39.7	35.2	24.8	-----	.3	-----
Discrimination.....	106	100.0	42.5	28.3	29.2	-----	-----	-----
Other.....	94	100.0	41.4	29.8	27.7	-----	1.1	-----
Miscellaneous.....	611	100.0	25.4	19.5	14.7	24.5	3.3	12.6
Sympathy.....	25	100.0	44.0	4.0	4.0	-----	48.0	-----
Rival unions or factions.....	96	100.0	-----	-----	-----	100.0	-----	-----
Jurisdiction.....	54	100.0	-----	-----	-----	100.0	-----	-----
Other.....	347	100.0	41.5	34.0	21.9	-----	2.3	.3
Not reported.....	89	100.0	-----	-----	14.6	-----	-----	85.4
	Workers		Percent of workers involved					
All issues.....	687,629	100.0	29.6	48.4	14.6	5.0	1.9	0.5
Wages and hours.....	252,166	100.0	22.4	55.0	22.5	-----	(¹)	.1
Wage increase.....	85,981	100.0	24.6	53.1	22.2	-----	.1	-----
Wage decrease.....	101,872	100.0	19.2	46.8	34.0	-----	-----	-----
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	46,875	100.0	26.0	72.5	.8	-----	-----	.7
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	4,188	100.0	36.6	7.4	56.0	-----	-----	-----
Hour increase.....	9,199	100.0	.2	99.7	.1	-----	-----	-----
Hour decrease.....	4,051	100.0	47.7	47.6	4.7	-----	-----	-----
Union organization.....	224,491	100.0	40.4	47.4	11.6	-----	.6	(¹)
Recognition.....	24,860	100.0	42.6	31.9	24.9	-----	.6	(¹)
Recognition and wages.....	40,556	100.0	40.5	48.4	8.5	-----	2.6	-----
Recognition and hours.....	642	100.0	74.3	25.7	-----	-----	-----	-----
Recognition, wages and hours.....	44,340	100.0	57.2	32.9	9.9	-----	-----	-----
Closed shop.....	58,223	100.0	34.3	53.4	12.2	-----	.1	-----
Discrimination.....	12,971	100.0	48.3	28.0	23.7	-----	-----	-----
Other.....	42,899	100.0	26.8	68.5	4.6	-----	.1	-----
Miscellaneous.....	210,972	100.0	26.6	41.7	8.2	16.4	5.7	1.4
Sympathy.....	8,622	100.0	31.6	8.1	.3	-----	60.0	-----
Rival unions or factions.....	30,018	100.0	-----	-----	-----	100.0	-----	-----
Jurisdiction.....	4,495	100.0	-----	-----	-----	100.0	-----	-----
Other.....	164,706	100.0	32.5	53.1	10.3	-----	4.1	(¹)
Not reported.....	3,131	100.0	-----	-----	8.6	-----	-----	91.4

¹ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

The data in table 13 indicate that as a general rule the successful strikes from the workers' viewpoint were of comparatively short duration and that the strikes which lasted for more than 2 or 3 weeks were less likely to succeed. About 45 percent of the strikes lasting less than 2 weeks were successful, but the proportion of successful

strikes decreased with the longer disputes to only 23 percent of the strikes which lasted 3 months or more. Only 18 percent of the strikes lasting less than 2 weeks were lost, as compared with 40 percent of those lasting 3 months or more.

TABLE 13.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1938 in Relation to Their Duration

Duration of strikes	Total	Number of strikes resulting in—				Total	Percent of strikes resulting in—			
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹
Total.....	2,772	1,110	829	578	255	100.0	40.0	29.9	20.9	9.2
Less than 1 week.....	1,031	465	259	195	112	100.0	45.1	25.1	18.9	10.9
1 week and less than ½ month.....	630	275	192	110	53	100.0	43.6	30.5	17.5	8.4
½ and less than 1 month.....	483	184	170	99	30	100.0	38.1	35.2	20.5	6.2
1 and less than 2 months.....	344	116	122	75	31	100.0	33.7	35.5	21.8	9.0
2 and less than 3 months.....	130	34	42	38	16	100.0	26.2	32.3	29.2	12.3
3 months or more.....	154	36	44	61	13	100.0	23.4	28.6	39.6	8.4

¹ Includes strikes for which sufficient information was not available, as well as those involving rival unions and questions of jurisdiction, the results of which cannot be evaluated in terms of their effect on the welfare of all workers concerned.

Table 14 indicates that the 1938 strikes involving fewer than 20 workers had a definite tendency to result in either substantial gains or losses, less than 20 percent of them being compromised. The proportion of compromise settlements became greater with the increase in size of the strikes, over half of those involving more than 1,000 workers resulting in compromises. On the other hand, except for the two strikes involving over 10,000 workers, the proportion of strikes which were lost became less as the size of the strikes increased. Over 30 percent of the smallest strikes resulted in little or no gains, while only about 12 percent of those involving over 1,000 workers were lost. Of the two largest strikes one was compromised and one was lost.

TABLE 14.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1938 in Relation to Number of Workers Involved

Number of workers involved	Total	Number of strikes resulting in—				Total	Percent of strikes resulting in—			
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹
Total.....	2,772	1,110	829	578	255	100.0	40.0	29.9	20.9	9.2
6 and under 20.....	692	301	132	210	49	100.0	43.5	19.1	30.3	7.1
20 and under 100.....	1,117	473	299	222	123	100.0	42.3	26.8	19.9	11.0
100 and under 250.....	458	171	174	71	42	100.0	37.3	38.0	15.5	9.2
250 and under 500.....	244	83	103	37	21	100.0	34.0	42.2	15.2	8.6
500 and under 1,000.....	116	44	44	19	9	100.0	37.9	37.9	16.4	7.8
1,000 and under 5,000.....	131	35	68	17	11	100.0	26.7	51.9	13.0	8.4
5,000 and under 10,000.....	12	3	8	1	1	100.0	25.0	66.7	8.3	-----
10,000 workers and over.....	2	-----	1	1	-----	100.0	-----	50.0	50.0	-----

¹ Includes strikes for which sufficient information was not available, as well as those involving rival unions and questions of jurisdiction, the results of which cannot be evaluated in terms of their effect on the welfare of all workers concerned.

Methods of Negotiating Settlements

In 44 percent of the strikes ending in 1938, settlements were worked out between employers and representatives of organized workers directly. These strikes, generally speaking, were smaller than the average—they included 34 percent of all workers involved in strikes during the year and accounted for only 25 percent of the man-days idle resulting from all strikes. In 37 percent of the strikes, which included 52 percent of the workers involved and accounted for 55½ percent of the idleness, settlements were negotiated with the assistance of Government officials or boards—either Federal, State or local. Private conciliators or arbitrators assisted in settling 1 percent of the strikes. When third parties assisted, the workers were usually represented by union officials.

Of the 1,025 strikes which Government officials or boards assisted in settling, 989 were terminated by conciliation methods and 36 were arbitrated. Of the 28 cases in which settlements were negotiated with the assistance of private conciliators or arbitrators, 11 were settled by conciliation methods and 17 by arbitration.

About 16 percent of the strikes ending in 1938 were terminated without formal settlements. Some of these strikes ended by the workers simply returning to work on the same conditions as when they left, and some were terminated through removal or permanent closing of the employers' business.

TABLE 15.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in 1938*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2, 772	100. 0	687, 629	100. 0	8, 926, 099	100. 0
Employers and workers directly.....	40	1. 4	6, 349	. 9	17, 562	. 2
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	1, 225	44. 2	233, 234	33. 9	2, 236, 747	25. 1
Government officials or boards.....	1, 025	37. 0	359, 154	52. 3	4, 962, 736	55. 5
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	28	1. 0	19, 464	2. 8	534, 130	6. 0
Terminated without formal settlement.....	454	16. 4	69, 428	10. 1	1, 174, 924	13. 2

Sit-Down Strikes

There were only 52 sit-down strikes in 1938, as compared with 477 in 1937.² In 1936,² the first year in which there was a significant number, there were 48 sit-down strikes. These figures exclude sit-down strikes of only a few hours and include only those in which all or part of the workers involved remained at their machines or other places of work for a full day or shift after stopping work. The number of sit-down strikes in 1936, 1937, and 1938 by months, with the number of workers involved, is given in table 16.

² For information on 1937 sit-down strikes see Monthly Labor Review, August 1938, and for data on 1936 sit-downs see Monthly Labor Review, May 1937.

TABLE 16.—*Sit-Down Strikes, 1936 to 1938, by Months*

Month	1936		1937		1938	
	Strikes	Workers involved ¹	Strikes	Workers involved ¹	Strikes	Workers involved ¹
Total.....	48	87,817	477	398,117	52	28,749
January.....	1	500	25	74,479	—	—
February.....	2	2,250	47	31,236	10	6,367
March.....	1	266	170	167,210	7	803
April.....	—	—	52	33,339	7	2,464
May.....	1	7,000	72	25,250	4	2,936
June.....	2	12,146	29	18,804	1	27
July.....	1	1,238	20	4,721	6	2,540
August.....	4	1,416	23	6,020	3	332
September.....	9	11,522	13	3,163	4	2,096
October.....	4	4,050	10	8,747	4	2,958
November.....	5	7,988	12	24,791	2	6,892
December.....	18	39,441	4	357	4	1,334

¹ These figures include the total number of workers involved in the strikes. Only a portion of them actually participated in the sit-down.

Industries affected.—The 52 sit-down strikes in 1938 were distributed in the following industry groups: Iron and steel 5; machinery manufacturing 5; transportation equipment 5; nonferrous metals and their products 3; lumber and allied products 2; textiles 5; food and kindred products 6; paper and printing 1; rubber 1; other manufacturing 2; transportation and communication 5; domestic and personal service 2; building and construction 2; W. P. A. projects 4; and other nonmanufacturing industries 4.

Causes and results.—A greater proportion (36 percent) of the sit-down strikes were due to specific grievances, such as work load, lay-off or rehiring policies, methods of wage payment, etc., than of the strikes in general, where only 22 percent were due to such reasons. On the other hand, only 35 percent of the sit-down strikes taking place in 1938 were due to union-organization questions, while 50 percent of all strikes were over union-organization matters. The proportion of 1938 sit-down strikes due to union organization was also considerably less than in 1937, when almost 54 percent of the sit-down strikes were over questions of union organization. About the same proportion (29 percent) of the 1938 sit-down strikes were due to wage-and-hour issues as were all strikes (28 percent) ending in 1938.

There was practically no difference in the results of the sit-down strikes from other strikes. As a result of about 44 percent of the sit-downs, as compared with 40 percent of all strikes, the workers obtained substantially all that was demanded; 29 percent, as compared with 30 percent of all strikes, were terminated with compromise settlements; and 23 percent, as compared with 21 percent of all strikes, brought the workers little or no gains.

TREND OF STRIKES

THE preliminary estimates of the number of strikes (220) beginning in March 1939 was about 20 percent greater than in February (184). The number of workers involved (40,000), however, was smaller by about 27 percent than the number in February (55,000). In spite of the smaller number of workers involved in March strikes, the amount of idleness was a greater than in February, due to the fact that a few fairly large strikes which began late in February continued through a good portion of March. Among these was the hotel workers' strike in Washington, D. C., which began February 28 and lasted until March 19. The largest strike beginning in March was the tri-State trucking strike involving truck drivers in Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. This strike began March 19 and was still in progress at the end of the month.

Trend of Strikes, 1933, to March 1939 ¹

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934		1,856				1,466,695		19,591,949
1935		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
1938		2,772				688,376		9,148,273
<i>1938</i>								
January	120	168	288	159	129	35,329	55,850	473,289
February	129	198	327	180	147	53,175	77,486	514,111
March	147	274	421	246	175	56,759	105,962	767,856
April	175	281	456	261	195	78,666	110,950	838,158
May	195	300	495	290	205	83,029	124,682	1,174,052
June	205	219	424	245	179	52,801	95,854	871,002
July	179	208	387	215	172	50,193	85,672	776,237
August	172	262	434	272	162	48,378	81,052	830,987
September	162	222	384	234	150	96,399	133,357	989,916
October	150	256	406	241	165	52,703	113,074	842,202
November	165	207	372	239	133	43,128	75,445	557,903
December	133	177	310	190	120	37,816	62,160	512,560
<i>1939</i>								
January	120	163	283	152	131	48,271	69,539	523,020
February ¹	131	184	315	190	125	55,000	75,000	500,000
March ¹	125	220	345	210	135	40,000	60,000	700,000

¹ Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

As compared with March a year ago, the estimates for March 1939 indicate only 80 percent as many strikes, 70 percent as many workers involved, and 91 percent as many man-days of idleness because of strikes.

The preliminary estimates given in the foregoing table for February and March are based on newspaper reports and other information available as this report goes to press. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.



ANALYSIS OF STRIKES IN JANUARY 1939¹

THE number of strikes in January 1939 was about the same as in January a year ago, although the number of workers involved was greater by about 36 percent and the amount of idleness because of strikes was greater by 10 percent. These increases were due chiefly to the New York taxi strike from January 3 to 5 and the Boston trucking strike from January 5 to 11.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in January 1939, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in January		In progress during January		Man-days idle during January
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries.....	163	48,271	283	69,539	523,020
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	2	897	7	1,670	23,639
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....			1	557	5,570
Hardware.....			1	77	1,617
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures.....	1	161	1	161	2,415
Structural and ornamental metalwork.....			1	28	700
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files and saws).....	1	736	1	736	11,776
Wire and wire products.....			1	105	1,435
Other.....			1	6	126
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	4	164	8	1,486	29,869
Agricultural implements.....	1	48	2	583	11,955
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	2	42	3	746	15,099
Foundry and machine-shop products.....			1	37	629
Other.....	1	74	2	120	2,186
Lumber and allied products.....	7	352	18	4,265	35,998
Furniture.....			2	1,530	4,809
Millwork and planing.....	2	134	4	302	5,720
Sawmills and logging camps.....			3	2,091	20,341
Other.....	5	218	9	342	5,128
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	2	55	2	55	650
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	1	20	1	20	20
Other.....	1	35	1	35	630
Textiles and their products.....	34	5,577	75	8,648	94,247
Fabrics:					
Carpets and rugs.....			1	311	2,799
Cotton goods.....	1	122	2	622	11,598
Cotton small wares.....			1	9	189
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	1	837	3	882	1,600
Silk and rayon goods.....	2	1,283	2	1,283	2,821
Other.....			2	200	2,620
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's.....			3	91	1,787
Clothing, women's.....	27	2,695	52	3,509	53,033
Hats, caps, and millinery.....	1	80	2	182	1,384
Shirts and collars.....			1	311	1,555
Hosiery.....	1	360	1	360	360
Knit goods.....			3	88	1,701
Other.....	1	200	2	800	12,800

¹ Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in January 1939, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Beginning in January		In progress during January		Man-days idle during January
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Leather and its manufactures.....	1	70	4	788	12,619
Boots and shoes.....			3	718	10,869
Leather.....	1	70	1	70	1,750
Food and kindred products.....	18	3,962	25	4,529	45,837
Baking.....	4	209	4	209	1,501
Beverages.....	3	2,230	3	2,230	24,140
Canning and preserving.....	2	630	3	646	5,446
Confectionery.....	2	97	3	124	1,153
Flour and grain mills.....	1	97	1	97	1,358
Ice cream.....	1	9	1	9	81
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	3	511	6	922	9,656
Other.....	2	179	4	292	2,502
Tobacco manufactures.....			1	13	13
Cigars.....			1	13	13
Paper and printing.....	5	937	8	1,831	32,627
Boxes, paper.....	1	91	2	106	952
Printing and publishing:					
Newspapers and periodicals.....	1	9	3	888	19,218
Other.....	3	837	3	837	12,457
Chemicals and allied products.....	3	1,191	6	2,100	28,303
Chemicals.....	1	1,145	1	1,145	10,060
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....			1	14	434
Paints and varnishes.....	1	27	1	27	135
Petroleum refining.....			1	800	16,800
Other.....	1	19	2	114	874
Rubber products.....	1	550	2	638	2,948
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	1	550	1	550	1,100
Other rubber goods.....			1	88	1,848
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	4	425	7	558	5,073
Furriers and fur factories.....	1	270	1	270	1,350
Other.....	3	155	6	288	3,723
Extraction of minerals.....	3	5,015	6	5,882	20,213
Coal mining, anthracite.....	1	4,213	1	4,213	9,589
Coal mining, bituminous.....	2	802	4	1,622	9,966
Metalliferous mining.....			1	47	658
Transportation and communication.....	24	20,441	27	22,261	95,361
Water transportation.....	9	3,985	9	3,985	9,280
Motortruck transportation.....	12	6,602	14	8,407	57,590
Taxicabs and miscellaneous.....	3	9,854	3	9,854	28,266
Radio broadcasting and transmitting.....			1	15	225
Trade.....	16	1,271	27	2,424	26,225
Wholesale.....	8	1,005	13	1,665	20,676
Retail.....	8	266	14	759	5,549
Domestic and personal service.....	10	577	12	630	3,163
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	6	403	8	456	2,733
Laundries.....	2	110	2	110	140
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....	1	49	1	49	245
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....	1	15	1	15	45
Professional service.....	2	47	3	164	3,092
Recreation and amusement.....	1	7	2	124	2,932
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers.....	1	40	1	40	160
Building and construction.....	23	6,144	35	6,802	41,991
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.....	12	2,663	18	3,038	11,912
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings).....	11	3,481	17	3,764	30,079
Agriculture and fishing.....	1	125	4	3,802	17,275
Agriculture.....			1	27	675
Fishing.....	1	125	3	3,775	16,600
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects.....	2	414	3	474	1,012
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	1	57	3	519	2,865

Of 163 strikes beginning in January, there were 34 in the textile industries, 24 in transportation, 23 in building and construction, 18 in the food industries, and 16 in trade. The strikes in these five industry groups accounted for 70 percent of the total. About 42 percent of the total workers involved in the January strikes were in the transportation industries, 13 percent were in building and construction, and 12 percent were in textile strikes. The amount of idleness in transportation and textiles because of strikes was about the same—approximately 95,000 man-days in each case. Although there was a fairly large number of workers involved in building and construction strikes, these disputes were short on the average and did not cause a large amount of idleness (42,000 man-days).

New York, with 51, had more strikes beginning in January than any 4 other States. Pennsylvania had 17, California 11, Illinois 10, New Jersey 9, and Massachusetts 8. Of the 48,271 workers involved in the January strikes, 34 percent were in New York, 15 percent in California, 13½ percent in Massachusetts, and 13 percent in Pennsylvania. Of the more than a half-million man-days idle during January, New York had 21 percent, California 10 percent, Pennsylvania 8 percent, and Massachusetts 7 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in January 1939, by States*

State	Beginning in January		In progress during January		Man-days idle during January
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States.....	163	48,271	283	69,539	523,020
Alabama.....			4	854	12,414
Arkansas.....	2	130	3	187	1,951
California.....	11	7,189	20	11,126	50,640
Colorado.....	2	459	2	459	1,809
Connecticut.....	2	87	3	113	1,432
District of Columbia.....			1	27	675
Florida.....	2	271	2	271	843
Georgia.....	3	194	4	220	2,300
Illinois.....	10	1,038	18	2,056	17,218
Indiana.....	1	97	3	757	14,078
Iowa.....			2	470	7,230
Kentucky.....	1	300	2	800	8,000
Louisiana.....	1	100	1	100	200
Maine.....			1	375	6,375
Maryland.....	1	230	1	230	230
Massachusetts.....	8	6,507	9	6,808	37,468
Michigan.....	5	1,042	5	1,042	7,962
Minnesota.....	2	60	3	595	12,171
Missouri.....	3	184	6	371	5,027
Nebraska.....	1	31	3	112	1,542
New Jersey.....	9	2,267	21	3,157	32,192
New York.....	51	16,214	95	18,807	109,878
North Carolina.....	1	200	1	200	200
North Dakota.....	1	410	1	410	2,050
Ohio.....	5	856	8	1,037	15,943
Oklahoma.....			1	800	16,800
Oregon.....	2	58	3	1,567	4,600
Pennsylvania.....	17	6,240	30	7,740	40,016
Tennessee.....	2	384	2	384	792
Texas.....	1	6	4	82	1,754
Utah.....	1	350	1	350	700
Virginia.....	3	273	4	340	3,031
Washington.....	4	155	6	2,315	25,340
West Virginia.....	3	44	3	44	481
Wisconsin.....	4	299	5	1,003	16,263
Interstate.....	4	2,596	5	4,321	63,415

Four of the strikes beginning in January extended into two or more States. The largest of these was a strike against a women's clothing jobber and his contractors with plants in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island.

Approximately 69 percent of the strikes beginning in January involved fewer than 100 workers each; 25 percent involved from 100 to 1,000 each; and in only 6 percent of the strikes were 1,000 or more workers involved. The average number of workers involved in the 163 strikes was 296. The two strikes which involved as many as 5,000 workers each, were the New York taxi strike and the Boston trucking strike.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in January 1939, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—					
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000
All industries.....	163	40	73	32	8	8	2
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	2			1	1		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	4		4				
Lumber and allied products.....	7	1	4	2			
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	2		2				
Textiles and their products.....	34	10	16	4	2	2	
Leather and its manufactures.....	1		1				
Food and kindred products.....	18	4	7	5	1	1	
Paper and printing.....	5	2	2		1		
Chemicals and allied products.....	3	1	1			1	
Rubber products.....	1				1		
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	4	1	1	2			
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	3			1	1	1	
Transportation and communication.....	24	5	8	8		1	2
Trade.....	16	6	8	1	1		
Domestic and personal service.....	10	3	5	2			
Professional service.....	2	1	1				
Building and construction.....	23	6	11	4		2	
Agriculture and fishing.....	1			1			
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects.....	2		1	1			
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	1		1				

In 56 percent of the strikes beginning in January the major issues were union-organization matters—recognition in the case of 41 percent, and closed shop, discrimination, and other union-organization matters in the case of 15 percent. Wages and other matters were also factors in some of the recognition strikes. About 35 percent of the total workers involved were in these union-organization strikes.

In 25 percent of the strikes, including 41 percent of the workers involved, the major issues were wages and hours. Miscellaneous grievances, including rival union and jurisdictional disputes, were the major issues in 19 percent of the strikes in which 24 percent of the workers were involved.

TABLE 4.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in January 1939

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	168	100.0	48,271	100.0
Wages and hours.....	41	25.2	19,844	41.1
Wage increase.....	25	15.4	5,650	11.7
Wage decrease.....	4	2.5	536	1.1
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	10	6.1	11,108	23.1
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	1	.6	2,000	4.1
Hour increase.....	1	.6	550	1.1
Union organization.....	91	55.8	16,719	34.6
Recognition.....	27	16.4	1,956	4.1
Recognition and wages.....	19	11.7	10,626	21.9
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	21	12.9	2,205	4.6
Closed shop.....	12	7.4	624	1.3
Discrimination.....	5	3.1	913	1.9
Other.....	7	4.3	395	.8
Miscellaneous.....	31	19.0	11,708	24.3
Rival unions or factions.....	6	3.7	2,095	4.3
Jurisdiction.....	4	2.5	1,063	2.2
Other.....	18	11.0	8,422	17.5
Not reported.....	3	1.8	128	.3

TABLE 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in January 1939

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than 1 month	1/2 and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries.....	152	60	32	20	27	6	7
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	1			1			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	2		1	1			
Lumber and allied products.....	9	1	1	3	1	1	2
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	1						
Textiles and their products.....	27	9	2	4	9	2	1
Leather and its manufactures.....	2						
Food and kindred products.....	17	7	4	1	4		1
Tobacco manufactures.....	1						
Chemicals and allied products.....	3	1	1		1		
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	1				1		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	6	2	1		3		
Transportation and communication.....	22	14	7		1		
Trade.....	17	6	4	3	1		
Domestic and personal service.....	8	5	2		1	1	2
Professional service.....	1	1					
Building and construction.....	25	10	8	6	1		
Agriculture and fishing.....	3		1		2		
W. P. A., relief, and resettlement projects.....	3	2					1
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	3	1		1		1	

Of the 283 strikes which were in progress during January, 152 were terminated during the month with an average duration of 24 calendar days. Nearly 40 percent of these strikes lasted less than a week, 34 percent lasted from a week to a month, and 26 percent lasted for a month or more. Seven strikes in the latter group had been in progress for 3 months or more. The largest of these were in the lumber and allied products industries—a dispute involving lumber workers at Bellingham, Wash., which began last July, and a strike of furniture workers in Portland, Oreg., which began in October. Wage decreases

were the issues in both disputes. In the Bellingham case the employer agreed to restore the cut in wage rates and in the Portland dispute there was a compromise on the amount of the wage cut.

Half of the strikes ending in January, which included 38 percent of the workers involved, were settled through direct negotiations between employers and representatives of the organized workers. Government officials or boards assisted the disputing parties in negotiating settlements of 34 percent of the strikes, which included 57 percent of the total workers. About 14 percent of the strikes were terminated without any definite agreements being reached. In most of these cases the strikes were simply abandoned or called off without settlements, or the strikers lost their jobs when employers discontinued business, moved, or replaced the strikers with new workers

TABLE 6.—*Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in January 1939*

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	152	100.0	50,318	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	1	.7	64	.1
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	76	49.9	19,083	37.9
Government officials or boards.....	51	33.6	28,813	57.3
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	3	2.0	731	1.5
Terminated without formal settlement.....	21	13.8	1,627	3.2

About 20 percent of the workers involved in the strikes ending in January gained substantially all that was demanded. Nearly 71 percent made partial gains or obtained compromise settlements, and 5 percent gained little or nothing. In terms of number of strikes, about 40 percent of the 152 strikes ending in January were substantially won, 32 percent were compromised, and 16 percent brought the workers little or no gains.

TABLE 7.—*Results of Strikes Ending in January 1939*

Results	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	152	100.0	50,318	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	60	39.5	9,852	19.6
Partial gains or compromises.....	48	31.6	35,494	70.5
Little or no gains to workers.....	25	16.4	2,727	5.4
Jurisdiction, rival union or faction settlements.....	11	7.2	1,542	3.1
Indeterminate.....	3	2.0	515	1.0
Not reported.....	5	3.3	188	.4

In terms of number of strikes, the union-organization disputes ending in January were a little more successful from the workers' viewpoint than the disputes over wages and hours. About 49 percent of the organization strikes were substantially won, 27½ percent were compromised, and 23 percent netted the workers little or no gains.

The corresponding figures for the wage-and-hour disputes were 41 percent won, 52 percent compromised, and 7 percent which resulted in little or no gains to the workers.

In terms of the number of workers involved, the wage-and-hour strikes were a little more successful. Of the workers in these disputes, 27½ percent substantially won what was demanded, 70 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 2 percent gained little or nothing. Of the workers in the organization strikes, 13 percent won their demands, 79 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 8 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in January 1939, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—					Not reported
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	
Number of strikes							
All issues.....	152	60	48	25	11	3	5
Wages and hours.....	44	18	23	3			
Wage increase.....	23	12	9	2			
Wage decrease.....	8	1	6	1			
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	12	5	7				
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	1		1				
Union organization.....	69	34	19	16			
Recognition.....	15	9	2	4			
Recognition and wages.....	20	7	8	5			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	10	4	4	2			
Closed shop.....	14	8	3	3			
Discrimination.....	5	4	1				
Other.....	5	2	1	2			
Miscellaneous.....	39	8	6	6	11	3	5
Rival unions or factions.....	6				6		
Jurisdiction.....	5				5		
Other.....	21	8	6	4		3	
Not reported.....	7			2			5
Number of workers involved							
All issues.....	50,318	9,852	35,494	2,727	1,542	515	188
Wages and hours.....	25,116	6,917	17,618	581			
Wage increase.....	3,503	1,025	1,904	574			
Wage decrease.....	8,078	3,500	4,571	7			
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	11,535	2,392	9,143				
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	2,000		2,000				
Union organization.....	14,775	1,965	11,658	1,152			
Recognition.....	1,228	738	399	91			
Recognition and wages.....	11,322	251	10,618	453			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	326	225	49	52			
Closed shop.....	1,320	491	462	367			
Discrimination.....	238	218	20				
Other.....	341	42	110	189			
Miscellaneous.....	10,427	970	6,218	994	1,542	515	188
Rival unions or factions.....	454				454		
Jurisdiction.....	1,088				1,088		
Other.....	8,627	970	6,218	924		515	
Not reported.....	258			70			188

ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, MARCH 1939

THE United States Conciliation Service, in March 1939, disposed of 275 situations involving 35,786 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties.

Of these situations, 134 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 29,971 workers. The remaining situations, involving 5,815 workers, were services rendered, such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, holding conferences regarding labor conditions, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 24 major industrial fields, such as the building trades and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 36 States and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, March 1939, by Industries

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries.....	134	29,971	141	5,815	275	35,786
Agriculture.....			3	3	3	3
Automobile.....	6	331	1	1	7	332
Building trades.....	12	596	13	362	25	958
Chemicals.....	2	300			2	300
Communication.....			1	1	1	1
Domestic and personal.....	8	2,940	5	5	13	2,945
Food.....	15	3,761	3	3	18	3,764
Iron and steel.....	11	5,200	9	341	20	5,541
Leather.....	3	607	3	3	6	610
Lumber:						
Furniture.....	2	167			2	167
Other.....	3	259	5	5	8	264
Machinery.....	10	2,024	9	9	19	2,033
Maritime.....	6	1,597	2	2	8	1,599
Mining.....	1	62	1	1	2	63
Motion picture.....	2	18			2	18
Nonferrous metals.....	1	92			1	92
Paper and printing.....	7	1,400	1	1	8	1,401
Petroleum.....	1	6	2	2	3	8
Rubber.....	4	2,315	3	3	7	2,318
Stone, clay, and glass.....	5	1,679	2	7	7	1,686
Textile:						
Cotton.....	1	466	1	6	2	472
Other.....	7	2,340	28	4,342	35	6,682
Tobacco.....	1	30			1	30
Trade.....	10	1,168	14	556	24	1,724
Transportation.....	10	1,490	8	13	18	1,503
Transportation equipment.....	1	300			1	300
Unclassified.....	5	491	27	481	32	972

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, March 1939, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States.....	134	29,971	141	5,815	275	35,786
Alabama.....	1	142	1	1	2	143
Arkansas.....	1	57	1	1	2	57
California.....	13	2,881	8	8	21	2,889
Colorado.....	1	175	2	251	3	426
Connecticut.....	1	466	1	1	2	466
District of Columbia.....	9	2,257	12	13	21	2,270
Florida.....	2	203	1	1	3	203
Georgia.....	3	872	2	2	5	874
Illinois.....	2	857	7	56	9	913
Indiana.....	10	1,165	8	9	18	1,174
Iowa.....	3	2,311	1	5	4	2,316
Kansas.....	3	141	1	1	4	142
Kentucky.....	2	132	1	166	3	298
Louisiana.....	1	100	1	1	2	101
Maryland.....	1	8	1	1	2	8
Massachusetts.....	3	1,382	7	1,010	10	2,392
Michigan.....	3	302	5	751	8	1,053
Minnesota.....	1	12	2	6	3	18
Missouri.....	6	468	4	53	10	521
Montana.....	1	100	1	1	2	100
New Hampshire.....	1	1	1	1	2	1
New Jersey.....	7	2,377	6	6	13	2,383
New York.....	11	906	27	223	38	1,129
North Carolina.....	1	1	5	1,050	5	1,050
Ohio.....	16	2,396	13	338	29	2,734
Oklahoma.....	1	1	1	1	2	1
Oregon.....	1	800	4	4	5	804
Pennsylvania.....	17	5,991	6	384	23	6,375
Rhode Island.....	3	312	1	1	4	313
South Carolina.....	1	1,100	3	856	4	1,956
Tennessee.....	3	104	2	601	5	705
Texas.....	3	248	2	2	5	250
Virginia.....	2	420	1	1	3	420
Washington.....	1	35	3	8	4	43
West Virginia.....	1	1	2	2	3	2
Wisconsin.....	2	1,251	1	1	3	1,252
Wyoming.....	1	1	2	4	3	4

Cost of Living

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING OF FEDERAL EMPLOYEES IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

LIVING COSTS of Washington Federal employees and their families were 1.7 percent lower on December 15, 1938, than on December 15, 1937, and 10.5 percent below the first half of 1928. The index for all items purchased by all groups of employees, based on costs in the first 6 months of 1928 as 100, was 89.5 in December 1938 as compared with 91.0 a year earlier.

The study on which these figures are based was conducted by pricing in representative Washington stores a list of goods most important in the spending of Federal employees and their families in the first 6 months of 1928. These expenditures were determined by a study of the expenditures of 336 families of Federal employees and 123 single individuals made in the fall of 1933.

Of the 12 groups of items for which separate indexes are computed, only the indexes for the recreation, transportation, medical-care, and life-insurance groups were higher on December 15, 1938, than on December 15, 1937. Food, clothing, and household furnishings were largely responsible for the decrease during the year 1938.

The average increase of 4.3 percent in the cost of the items included in the recreation index was due primarily to the advance in cost of newspapers, while the 0.8 percent rise in transportation costs resulted from the slightly higher cost of the types of automobiles purchased by Federal employees, and of railroad fares. The dividends paid by the mutual insurance companies were slightly less in 1938 than in 1937. Since the cost of insurance in the index is based on annual premium less dividends, the lowered dividends caused the index for life insurance to rise 1.8 percent.

The decline of 5.3 percent in average food costs was largely the result of the lowered cost of dairy products, fresh vegetables, meats, and poultry. Egg prices were higher than in December 1937.

Most of the items in the clothing group dropped during the year, causing the index for this group to decline 3.4 percent between December 15, 1937, and December 15, 1938. Men's outer garments and shoes showed the greatest decrease.

Textile furnishings were largely responsible for the 3.5 percent drop in the cost of the furnishings and equipment group of items.

Indexes are prepared in December of each year for four groups of Federal workers living in Washington as well as for the four groups combined—families of custodial employees with basic salaries less than \$2,500, families of other employees with basic salaries less than \$2,500, families of employees with basic salaries of \$2,500 and over, and employees living as single individuals.

Over the year 1938, the cost of goods purchased by families in the custodial group declined 2.5 percent, that of the two groups of families of employees in the other Federal services 1.8 and 1.7 percent, and the cost of goods purchased by employees living as single individuals only 0.6 percent. The differences in rates of change are primarily due to differences in the food consumption of each group, and in the relative importance of food in their total expenditures. Most of the employees living as single individuals pay for food in restaurants, cafeterias, and boarding houses and the cost of meals in this form changes more slowly than does the cost of food as purchased in retail stores and markets. The food costs of the families of custodial employees declined somewhat more than those of the other family groups. Because of their lower incomes and larger families, the custodial group rely more heavily on grain products, on the cheaper cuts of meat, and on lard than do other Federal employees. Each one of these food groups was lower at the end of the year than at the beginning, and their combined influence resulted in the slightly greater change in the food costs of the custodial workers.

Since food costs represent one-third of the total cost of goods purchased by custodial workers, this relatively small difference in food costs is reflected in average total costs.

Percentage changes from December 15, 1937, to December 15, 1938, by groups of items, for each employee group and these groups combined, are shown in table 1.

Table 2 presents indexes by commodity groups and types of employees, for each date at which this survey has been made. These indexes are based on costs in the first 6 months of 1928 as 100.

TABLE 1.—Percent of Change, From Dec. 15, 1937, to Dec. 15, 1938, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Federal Employees in Washington, D. C.

Group	All employees	Employees living in family groups			Employees living as single individuals
		Custodial employees with basic salaries of less than \$2,500	Other employees with basic salaries of less than \$2,500	Other employees with basic salaries of \$2,500 and over	
All items.....	-1.7	-2.5	-1.8	-1.7	-0.6
Food.....	-5.3	-6.7	-5.6	-6.0	-2.0
Clothing.....	-3.4	-1.9	-3.6	-3.6	-3.4
Housing.....	-4	-3	-3	-6	-4
Household operation.....	-2	+2	-4	-1	-4
Furnishings and equipment.....	-3.5	-4.2	-3.5	-3.4	-3.5
Transportation.....	+8	+7	+7	+1	+3.2
Personal care.....	-8	-2.1	-7	-6	-1.2
Medical care.....	+1	+6	+1	-1	+1
Recreation.....	+4.3	+2.7	+3.5	+5.6	+4.2
Formal education.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Life insurance.....	+1.8	+1.8	+1.8	+1.8	+1.8
Retirement fund.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

¹ No change.

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Federal Employees in Washington, D. C., March 1933 Through Dec. 15, 1938

[First 6 months of 1928=100]

ALL EMPLOYEES

Group	March 1933	December 1933	June 1934	Nov. 15, 1934	Mar. 15, 1935	July 15, 1935	Oct. 15, 1935	Jan. 15, 1936	Apr. 15, 1936	Dec. 15, 1936	Dec. 15, 1937	Dec. 15, 1938
All items.....	82.7	85.0	86.4	87.3	88.1	87.8	88.2	88.5	87.8	89.1	91.0	89.5
Food.....	70.9	72.8	75.5	78.6	81.9	82.0	82.5	82.4	79.8	81.7	83.2	78.9
Clothing.....	67.0	83.5	84.7	84.7	83.2	82.9	83.0	83.6	83.5	87.7	92.4	89.2
Housing.....	91.6	87.9	88.2	88.8	88.8	89.0	89.3	89.7	89.9	91.1	92.5	92.1
Household operation.....	87.2	88.0	86.5	88.0	86.8	84.4	86.6	86.5	85.8	85.9	86.5	86.3
Furnishings and equipment.....	71.3	87.3	91.3	91.2	91.1	91.2	92.4	93.6	94.0	97.8	103.5	99.9
Transportation.....	87.7	88.6	92.2	90.6	91.2	91.1	90.6	91.8	92.4	88.8	94.3	95.1
Personal care.....	89.9	88.5	85.2	82.9	82.6	82.4	82.0	81.3	81.3	88.4	86.5	85.8
Medical care.....	96.0	95.9	96.0	96.9	97.2	97.1	97.0	96.6	96.5	96.8	96.8	96.8
Recreation.....	91.1	92.2	94.6	92.5	92.0	91.5	91.5	91.6	91.6	92.2	94.3	98.4
Formal education.....	107.8	108.1	108.1	108.2	108.2	108.4	108.5	108.5	108.5	110.4	110.4	110.4
Life insurance.....	105.3	105.5	106.1	106.1	106.7	107.4	107.4	108.3	107.9	108.5	107.2	109.1
Retirement fund.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

EMPLOYEES LIVING IN FAMILY GROUPS

All items.....	Custodial employees with basic salaries of less than \$2,500											
	78.8	82.8	84.0	85.6	87.3	87.0	87.8	87.5	86.1	87.4	88.7	86.5
Food.....	64.8	69.6	72.4	76.7	81.9	81.9	83.3	82.3	78.6	81.2	81.5	76.1
Clothing.....	65.5	85.0	88.6	87.8	87.0	86.7	86.9	87.3	86.9	89.7	93.3	91.4
Housing.....	90.4	88.1	87.5	87.2	87.2	87.9	87.9	87.9	88.0	88.0	89.4	89.1
Household operation.....	87.5	88.5	86.1	88.3	87.3	83.0	85.8	85.7	85.3	85.1	85.2	85.3
Furnishings and equipment.....	70.1	87.3	91.2	91.0	90.9	91.1	92.4	93.8	94.3	98.0	103.6	99.2
Transportation.....	93.1	94.8	96.9	97.4	99.6	99.3	98.2	99.1	99.7	97.9	105.0	105.8
Personal care.....	92.0	93.1	86.6	82.6	82.1	81.8	81.2	80.3	80.4	81.0	81.3	79.6
Medical care.....	98.4	97.9	98.2	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.2	97.5	97.5	97.7	97.7	98.3
Recreation.....	93.4	94.9	97.9	97.2	96.1	95.9	95.7	95.8	95.8	96.1	97.6	100.2
Formal education.....	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1	110.1
Life insurance.....	105.3	105.5	106.1	106.1	106.7	107.4	107.4	108.3	107.9	108.5	107.2	109.1
Retirement fund.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Federal Employees in Washington, D. C., March 1933 Through Dec. 15, 1938—Continued

[First 6 months of 1928=100]

EMPLOYEES LIVING IN FAMILY GROUPS—Continued

Group	March 1933	December 1933	June 1934	Nov. 15, 1934	Mar. 15, 1935	July 15, 1935	Oct. 15, 1935	Jan. 15, 1936	Apr. 15, 1936	Dec. 15, 1936	Dec. 15, 1937	Dec. 15, 1938
Other employees with basic salaries of less than \$2,500												
All items.....	82.1	84.7	86.3	87.1	87.9	87.9	88.1	88.4	87.6	89.2	91.2	89.6
Food.....	68.7	71.6	75.5	78.0	81.7	82.6	82.5	82.0	79.1	81.2	82.7	78.0
Clothing.....	66.7	83.2	84.6	84.7	83.0	82.7	82.8	83.4	83.3	88.1	92.9	89.6
Housing.....	92.1	88.4	88.6	89.0	89.1	89.2	89.6	90.4	90.7	92.0	93.3	93.0
Household operation.....	87.2	88.0	86.5	88.0	86.8	84.5	86.4	86.3	85.8	86.1	87.2	86.9
Furnishings and equipment.....	71.5	87.3	91.2	91.1	90.9	91.0	92.2	93.4	93.7	97.4	103.0	99.3
Transportation.....	86.5	88.0	91.8	90.4	91.0	90.8	90.3	91.6	92.3	89.2	95.0	95.7
Personal care.....	89.4	87.8	84.2	81.9	81.6	81.5	81.1	80.4	80.3	88.2	86.1	85.5
Medical care.....	95.7	95.8	96.0	97.0	97.3	97.2	97.1	96.7	96.7	96.9	96.9	97.0
Recreation.....	90.9	92.0	94.1	92.3	91.7	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.3	91.9	94.0	97.4
Formal education.....	108.1	108.7	108.7	108.8	108.8	109.1	109.3	109.3	109.3	111.2	111.2	111.2
Life insurance.....	105.3	105.5	106.1	106.1	106.7	107.4	107.4	108.3	107.9	108.5	107.2	109.1
Retirement fund.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Other employees with basic salaries of \$2,500 and over												
All items.....	82.0	84.8	86.1	87.4	88.1	87.5	88.2	88.7	87.8	89.2	91.3	89.7
Food.....	67.9	70.6	72.7	77.4	80.7	79.5	80.8	81.5	78.4	80.5	82.4	77.4
Clothing.....	67.3	83.9	85.1	85.2	83.8	83.5	83.6	84.1	84.0	87.9	92.7	89.4
Housing.....	91.5	88.0	88.9	89.7	89.7	90.0	90.2	90.7	91.0	92.5	94.0	93.4
Household operation.....	85.8	86.5	85.1	86.9	85.6	83.2	85.9	85.7	84.7	84.8	85.2	85.2
Furnishings and equipment.....	71.3	87.2	91.3	91.2	91.1	91.2	92.4	93.6	93.8	97.8	103.6	100.0
Transportation.....	84.4	86.4	90.7	88.1	88.7	88.6	88.1	89.6	90.1	87.5	93.0	93.1
Personal care.....	90.6	89.7	86.5	83.9	83.7	83.5	83.1	82.3	82.3	91.0	88.6	88.0
Medical care.....	95.7	95.3	95.5	96.3	96.6	96.4	96.3	95.9	95.9	96.1	96.1	96.1
Recreation.....	89.7	90.6	93.6	91.5	91.1	90.6	90.6	90.7	90.7	91.4	93.7	98.9
Formal education.....	107.1	107.1	107.1	107.2	107.2	107.2	107.3	107.3	107.3	109.2	109.2	109.2
Life insurance.....	105.3	105.5	106.1	106.1	106.7	107.4	107.4	108.3	107.9	108.5	107.2	109.1
Retirement fund.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

EMPLOYEES LIVING AS SINGLE INDIVIDUALS

Group	March 1933	December 1933	June 1934	Nov. 15, 1934	Mar. 15, 1935	July 15, 1935	Oct. 15, 1935	Jan. 15, 1936	Apr. 15, 1936	Dec. 15, 1936	Dec. 15, 1937	Dec. 15, 1938
All items.....	88.3	88.1	88.6	88.8	88.9	88.9	88.9	89.0	89.0	89.5	91.2	90.6
Food.....	86.5	82.4	83.1	83.9	85.0	85.2	85.3	85.4	85.3	85.9	87.4	85.7
Clothing.....	67.9	82.6	82.4	82.4	80.9	80.6	80.7	81.5	81.5	85.5	90.1	87.0
Housing.....	90.7	85.8	85.9	86.9	86.8	86.9	86.8	86.1	86.4	87.0	88.2	87.9
Household operation.....	94.7	95.2	94.9	94.9	93.1	93.0	93.3	93.3	92.4	92.5	90.6	90.3
Furnishings and equipment.....	70.2	87.9	92.7	93.2	93.4	93.6	95.3	96.6	97.4	101.6	108.1	104.3
Transportation.....	98.4	94.6	96.3	95.7	96.0	95.8	95.6	96.1	96.5	88.0	92.0	94.9
Personal care.....	89.2	86.9	85.3	83.8	83.6	83.4	83.1	82.5	82.5	88.3	86.7	85.7
Medical care.....	96.2	96.5	96.6	97.7	98.0	97.8	97.7	97.4	97.4	97.8	97.8	97.9
Recreation.....	93.0	93.9	95.9	92.9	92.6	92.2	92.3	92.3	92.3	92.9	94.9	98.9
Formal education.....	108.1	108.1	108.7	108.8	108.8	109.1	109.3	109.3	109.3	111.2	111.2	111.2
Life insurance.....	105.3	105.5	106.1	106.1	106.7	107.4	107.4	108.3	107.9	108.5	107.2	109.1
Retirement fund.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Corrected figure.

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

INJUNCTION AGAINST STEEL WAGE DETERMINATION UNDER PUBLIC CONTRACTS ACT

SEVEN steel companies secured a temporary injunction on March 27, 1939, restraining officials of the Federal Government from enforcing the determination of prevailing minimum wages to be observed by contractors who manufacture or supply iron and steel products under contracts with agencies of the Government within the terms of the Public Contracts Act. This determination, establishing wages of from 45 to 62½ cents per hour, was to have become effective on March 1, 1939.¹ The steel companies contended that the Secretary of Labor erred in selecting the appropriate unit within which prevailing minimum wages are to be determined and stated that the error was such as to render the decision invalid.

On February 25, 1939, these seven steel corporations, classified in the industry as either medium-sized or small companies, commenced proceedings in the United States District Court for the District of Columbia to restrain enforcement of the iron and steel industry minimum wage determination which was to have become effective March 1, 1939. The companies seeking the injunction were Lukens Steel Co., Alan Wood Steel Co., South Chester Tube Co., Central Iron & Steel Co., Harrisburg Steel Corporation, the Eastern Rolling Mill Co., and the Atlantic Wire Co. The District Court granted a temporary order, restraining the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of the Navy from giving effect to the minimum wage determination on any bids which the seven companies might make on certain designated steel purchase contracts.

The Government moved to dismiss the complaint on the ground that the steel companies, mere prospective bidders for Government business, had no legal right to obtain Government contracts and that, in any case, the minimum wage determination was a proper exercise of discretion by the Secretary of Labor. On March 14, 1939, the United States District Court for the District of Columbia sustained the Government's motion to dismiss the complaint, and dissolved the temporary restraining order. The steel companies appealed from this order to the Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia

¹ For a summary of the terms of the determination see Monthly Labor Review, March 1939.

and requested the Court of Appeals to grant a temporary injunction pending the hearing and decision upon the appeal.

On March 27 the Court of Appeals granted the steel companies' application for a temporary injunction and restrained the Secretary of Labor, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Assistant Secretary of Labor, the Administrator of the Division of Public Contracts, the Director of Procurement, the Secretary of the Navy, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Interior, and the Postmaster General from continuing to give effect to the determination until the further order of the court.

Arguments were heard on April 4 before the Court of Appeals on the merits of the steel companies' appeal from the District Court.

Wages and Hours of Labor

EARNINGS AND HOURS IN MANUFACTURE OF FULL-FASHIONED HOSIERY, 1938

By JACOB PERLMAN and H. E. RILEY, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*¹

FULL-FASHIONED hosiery workers in September 1938 were receiving an average of 65.8 cents per hour. Largely because of the higher level of pay for males in the skilled occupations, the general average for males (83.5 cents per hour) was 32.6 cents above the average for females (50.9 cents).

For the country as a whole, skilled full-fashioned hosiery workers (both sexes) received average hourly earnings of 77.3 cents, semiskilled workers 50.9 cents, and unskilled workers 37.8 cents. For each skill and sex group the average was considerably higher in the North than in the South.

On the whole, also, average hourly earnings were higher in establishments where employees were organized into trade-unions than in those not so organized.

The above findings are those of a survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics covering earnings early in the autumn of 1938 in 105 representative full-fashioned hosiery plants with 26,807 wage earners.² At the time of the survey the 8-hour shift and 40-hour week generally prevailed. For the North the average weekly hours were 37.8 and for the South 39.3. The combined average for the whole country was 38.2.

Weekly earnings averaged \$25.16 for the United States—\$26.17 in the North and \$22.81 in the South.

This branch of the hosiery industry is extensively unionized. Of the 105 mills included in the study, 52 were working under written agreements with the American Federation of Hosiery Workers. The employees for whom data were obtained in these plants constituted 47 percent of the total covered. Collective agreements appear to be confined almost entirely to the northern States, as only one of the southern mills covered had such an agreement.

¹ Messrs. Edward B. Morris and George E. Votava assisted in the collection and tabulation of the data.

² Data were also obtained for 97 plants, with 18,270 wage earners, manufacturing seamless hosiery. These will be covered in a subsequent article.

Nature of Product and Manufacturing Processes

The full-fashioned stocking is made by knitting a flat fabric, which is subsequently seamed into a tubular form. The fashioning process consists in changing the number of rows of loops by adding or dropping stitches. This makes it possible to widen or narrow the stocking, which then conforms to the shape of the leg.

A distinguishing characteristic of the full-fashioned branch is the homogeneity of its products. In 1935, the latest year for which census data are available, over 95 percent of the output consisted of women's stockings made of all-pure-thread-silk or pure-thread-silk with lisle or cotton tops, heels, and toes. Other products included small amounts of women's stockings made of all-cotton, rayon, and mixed fibers and of men's full-fashioned hosiery.

The manufacturing processes in full-fashioned hosiery are carried on in two stages. Beginning with the prepared yarn, the first stage involves the knitting of "gray" goods. The knitting is done on flat-bed, spring-needle knitting machines which are extremely complicated and difficult to adjust and operate, so that in case of error the losses due to damaged products may be quite large. Also, the principal raw material used, namely silk, is very fragile and must be handled with great care during every stage of the process. The second stage covers the dyeing and finishing of the "gray" goods.³

The knitting and finishing processes are usually carried on within a single establishment. In recent years, however, there has developed a group of commercial finishing plants that specialize in dyeing and finishing full-fashioned stockings. These mills work on "gray" goods produced by knitting establishments with no dyeing and finishing equipment or by plants whose finishing capacity is inadequate to handle the output of their knitting departments. A large part of the independent finishing is done on a commission basis for the knitting mill or for the jobber to whom the "gray" goods may be sold by the original producer.⁴

Extent of Survey

The survey included 105 plants and 26,807 wage earners in the full-fashioned branch of the hosiery industry, and covered, for the most part, a pay-roll period during September 1938. In view of the fact that all of the significant characteristics of the industry were considered in selecting the establishments to be surveyed, an analysis of the sample also furnishes a fairly accurate picture of the industry with respect to geographical location of mills, size of community, size of establishment, and unionization.

³ The production of ingrained full-fashioned hosiery (i. e., made of previously dyed yarn) is relatively insignificant.

⁴ Of the 105 full-fashioned establishments covered in this survey, 16 were engaged only in dyeing and finishing.

The manufacturing of full-fashioned hosiery is predominantly a northern industry, being most heavily concentrated in eastern Pennsylvania and to a lesser extent in the other Middle Atlantic States. Some of the northern mills are also found in the New England and East North Central States, with relatively little of the industry located in the States west of the Mississippi River. In recent years, the industry has exhibited a decided trend toward the Southern States. At the present time, the greatest concentration in the South is found in North Carolina, but a fair proportion of the plants are located in the surrounding territory.

As table 1 indicates, the sample included 78 establishments with 18,794 employees (70 percent) in the northern and 27 mills with 8,013 workers (30 percent) in the southern region. More than one-half of the northern employees were located in Pennsylvania, and over one-half of the southern workers were found in North Carolina.

TABLE 1.—Coverage of Survey in Full-fashioned Branch of Hosiery Industry, by Region and State, 1938

Region and State	Number of plants	Workers	
		Number	Percent
United States.....	105	26,807	100.0
North.....	78	18,794	70.1
Illinois.....	3	440	1.6
Indiana.....	3	992	3.7
Massachusetts.....	4	1,486	5.5
New Jersey.....	11	2,009	7.5
New York.....	4	1,354	5.1
Pennsylvania.....	47	9,788	36.5
Other States ¹	6	2,725	10.2
South.....	27	8,013	29.9
Georgia.....	3	587	2.2
North Carolina.....	13	4,079	15.3
Tennessee.....	4	1,299	4.8
Other States ²	7	2,048	7.6

¹ Include 1 plant in California, 1 in Iowa, 1 in Minnesota, 1 in New Hampshire, and 2 in Wisconsin.

² Include 1 plant in Alabama, 1 in Kentucky, 2 in Maryland, 1 in Mississippi, and 2 in Virginia.

In the northern region, full-fashioned hosiery manufacture is mostly concentrated in the larger communities. Of the 78 plants covered in that territory, 42 are in metropolitan areas having a population of 1,000,000 or more, the number of wage earners scheduled in the group amounting to 46 percent of the total in this region. The Philadelphia district alone contained 27 of these 42 mills. Furthermore, there are 64 establishments, with 89 percent of the employees, in places of 100,000 and over. By contrast, most of the southern plants are in smaller communities. Of the 27 mills surveyed in the South, only 3 with 15 percent of the total workers scheduled in that territory are in metropolitan areas of 100,000 to 250,000, 8 plants with 38 percent of the wage earners in places of 25,000 to 100,000, and the remaining

16 establishments with 47 percent of the employees in communities of under 25,000.⁵

The single-plant company is, on the whole, most typical of the full-fashioned industry. However, some of the mills recently established in the Southern States are controlled by companies having plants in the North. Moreover, several companies have more than one mill located within each region. Certain of the multiplant companies carry on only part of the manufacturing processes in each establishment, and it is quite common to make the hosiery in one mill and perform the dyeing and finishing operations in another plant.

The distribution of plants, by size, in the North differs considerably from that in the southern region. In the Northern States, the 78 mills covered a wide range, running up to those having over 2,500 employees. Of the small plants, there were 9 with 50 and under, and 16 with 51 to 100 employees. Among the large establishments, 12 reported between 501 and 1,000 and 9 over 1,000 employees. The number of medium-sized mills amounted to 32, with the majority having 101 to 250 employees. On the other hand, the 27 establishments in the southern territory covered a much narrower range of sizes. There were no mills with 50 employees or less, although 4 reported between 51 and 100 employees. There were 6 plants having between 501 and 1,000 employees, while only 1 had more than 1,000 employees. The remaining 16 establishments were equally distributed between the classes of 101 to 250 and 251 to 500 employees.⁶

Composition of Labor Force

The equipment used in the full-fashioned branch of the industry represents a high degree of technical development. In connection with the knitting operations, most plants employ two types of machines, namely the "legger" and "footer." The leg part of the stocking is knitted on the "legger," from which it is transferred to the "footer" to complete the knitting process. Following this step, the stocking is seamed up the back. It is then completed by the looping operation, which closes the heel and toe openings, after which the stocking is ready to go to the dyeing and finishing department.

A considerable amount of skilled labor is required at each step of the manufacturing process, especially in the knitting department. The operators of both "leggers" and "footers" must have long experience. A high degree of dexterity and good eyesight are the prerequisites for the toppers, who transfer the stocking from one machine to the other. The seaming and looping operators also require skill and dexterity.

⁵ Analysis of the plant averages for both regions indicated that there was no correlation between average hourly earnings and size of community.

⁶ Analysis of the plant averages indicated that there was no correlation between average hourly earnings and size of plant.

These are the most important of a number of skilled occupations in the industry.

As a result, the labor force of the industry contains a large proportion of skilled employees. For the country as a whole, skilled workers formed 64 percent of the total force, as compared with 23 percent in the semiskilled and only 13 percent in the unskilled groups. The majority (56 percent) of the employees in the industry are females, who predominate in each of the skill classes.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Percent of Full-fashioned Hosiery Workers Covered in Survey, by Region, Skill, and Sex, 1938*

Region	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Number: United States.....	26,807	11,888	14,919	17,138	8,267	8,871	6,243	2,354	3,889	3,426	1,267	2,159
North.....	18,794	8,463	10,331	11,869	5,881	5,988	4,676	1,810	2,866	2,249	772	1,477
South.....	8,013	3,425	4,588	5,269	2,386	2,883	1,567	544	1,023	1,177	495	682
Percent: United States.....	100.0	44.3	55.7	63.9	30.8	33.1	23.3	8.8	14.5	12.8	4.7	8.1
North.....	100.0	45.0	55.0	63.2	31.3	31.9	24.8	9.6	15.2	12.0	4.1	7.9
South.....	100.0	42.7	57.3	65.7	29.7	36.0	19.6	6.8	12.8	14.7	6.2	8.5

A comparison of the distributions by sex and skill reveals a somewhat higher proportion of skilled and unskilled workers in the southern as against the northern region. Likewise, the proportion of females is somewhat higher in the southern as compared with the northern territory.

Average Hourly Earnings

METHODS OF WAGE PAYMENT

The large majority of the workers in the full-fashioned branch are paid on a straight piece-rate basis. In fact, this method of wage payment was found in all establishments surveyed, with the exception of three finishing plants. In four mills, some of the wage earners were working under production-bonus systems. About 80 percent of all the workers covered were working at straight piece rates or under production-bonus plans. These employees were in the majority in such important occupations as knitters, toppers, loopers, seamers, menders, inspectors and examiners, pairers, and folders, wrappers and boxers. The remaining workers were either hourly or salaried employees, who were distributed over a great majority of the plants.

Policies concerning overtime pay for wage earners ⁷ varied considerably between trade-union and non-trade-union establishments.

Of the 52 trade-union plants, 15 reported that as a matter of general policy no overtime was worked. In the mills having some overtime, 9 paid the regular rate to all direct employees, 4 paid this rate to hourly

⁷ Overtime compensation earned either at regular or extra rates usually does not apply to salaried employees, who are expected to work above full-time hours without additional remuneration.

workers (no overtime was worked by piece workers), and the remaining 24 plants paid extra rates for overtime. An overtime rate of time and a half was paid to all direct employees in 16 establishments; 7 other mills paid this rate to direct hourly workers (in 5 no overtime was worked by piece workers, and in the other 2 there were no piece workers). One mill paid time and a half to direct hourly employees and the regular rate to piece workers. The relatively few indirect workers were subject to various overtime provisions, which in some plants differed from those applying to the hourly direct employees.

Among the non-trade-union plants, 44 of the 53 paid the regular rate for overtime to all direct employees. In 4 additional plants, extra rates applied only to certain direct hourly workers, such as dye-house employees; but in 2 of these plants no overtime was worked by piece workers. Overtime worked by direct hourly employees and piece workers was paid for at the rate of time and a half in 2 establishments. In 1 mill, time and a fourth was paid for overtime worked by employees in the "gray" inspection department and dye room, other direct workers receiving the regular rate for overtime. In 1 establishment, direct hourly employees received the regular rate for overtime, while no overtime was performed by piece workers. None of the employees in the remaining mill worked overtime.

In most instances, the overtime provisions for indirect employees were the same as for direct hourly workers. In considering overtime pay, it should be remembered that the pay-roll period covered by the survey occurred during September 1938. Since October 24, 1938, the Fair Labor Standards Act has required that all manufacturing establishments engaged in interstate commerce pay time and a half for all hours worked in any week above 44.

Penalties for faulty work were imposed in only 9 trade-union and 19 non-trade-union plants. These applied chiefly to the major piece-work occupations in the knitting department. Among the trade-union establishments having penalty provisions, 1 charged to the worker the cost of repairing damaged stockings for which he was responsible, 2 allowed only one-half the regular piece rate for faulty work, 4 computed wages only on good work, 1 charged to the employee the cost of any material spoiled by him, and 1 applied a penalty, the nature of which was not specified. Of the non-trade-union plants, 10 allowed no pay for faulty work, 1 paid only three-fourths of the regular piece rate, 3 charged the workers a small amount for each faulty stocking over a maximum allowance, and 3 applied a penalty, the exact nature of which was not specified. In 1 plant, the workers were required to remake their faulty work outside of their regular working time; and, in 1 establishment, the leggers were charged twice the piece rate for faulty work, while the loopers and seamers were required to remake any hosiery not satisfactory. On the other hand, in 5 plants,

all but 1 of which were non-trade-union, a bonus was given to some employees on the basis of the quality of work.

EARNINGS OF ALL WORKERS

Variations by Sex and Skill

Hourly earnings of the 26,807 full-fashioned hosiery workers included in the survey averaged 65.8 cents in September 1938.

The average hourly earnings of all males for the country as a whole amounted to 83.5 cents an hour, as compared with 50.9 cents for all females. The higher average for males was largely due to the 45.5 cents difference between the earnings of skilled males and skilled females. On the other hand, males averaged only 3.1 cents more than females for semiskilled workers, while among unskilled employees the averages were practically the same.

For the country as a whole, the skilled workers averaged 77.3 cents an hour, semiskilled 50.9 cents, and unskilled 37.8 cents. A somewhat different picture, however, is presented when the hourly earnings are shown separately for each sex. For males, the averages amounted to \$1.002 for skilled, 52.8 cents for semiskilled, and 37.7 cents for unskilled workers; this was a difference of 47.4 cents between skilled and semiskilled, as compared with 15.1 cents between semiskilled and unskilled. By contrast, the average hourly earnings for females were 54.7 for skilled, 49.7 for semiskilled, and 37.8 cents for unskilled employees, resulting in differences of only 5.0 cents between skilled and semiskilled and 11.9 cents between semiskilled and unskilled workers.

Similar differences in average hourly earnings are found among the sex-skill groups in both the northern and southern regions. It should be noted, however, that for each sex-skill group the average was considerably higher in the North than in the South.

TABLE 3.—Average Hourly Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, by Region, Skill, and Sex, 1938

Region	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
United States.....	\$0.658	\$0.835	\$0.509	\$0.773	\$1.002	\$0.547	\$0.509	\$0.528	\$0.497	\$0.378	\$0.377	\$0.378
North.....	.693	.867	.541	.809	1.028	.580	.537	.555	.524	.424	.437	.417
South.....	.581	.760	.440	.694	.939	.480	.430	.440	.424	.292	.285	.298

According to table 4, the distribution of hourly earnings of all workers in the country as a whole covers a very wide spread, ranging from under 17.5 cents to over \$1.50. There is no marked concentration in the data, but instead the hourly earnings are widely scattered throughout the distribution. In terms of 5-cent intervals, however, the distribution is roughly bimodal in character, with one small

concentration between 37.5 and 42.5 cents and another between 52.5 and 57.5 cents. Such massing as does occur is found within the relatively wide interval of 32.5 and 72.5 cents, which accounts for exactly three-fifths of the employees.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Full-fashioned Hosiery Workers, According to Average Hourly Earnings, by Skill and Sex, 1938

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 17.5.....	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.1	-----	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.2	3.0	3.9	2.5
17.5 and under 22.5.....	1.8	1.3	2.3	.2	(1)	.4	.8	1.0	.7	11.6	9.8	12.8
22.5 and under 25.0.....	.8	.5	.9	.3	(1)	.6	.8	.8	.9	2.8	3.6	2.3
25.0 and under 27.5.....	1.6	.9	2.1	.6	(1)	1.1	1.9	1.7	2.0	6.0	4.9	6.6
27.5 and under 30.0.....	.9	.5	1.2	.5	0.1	.9	1.4	1.3	1.5	2.1	1.8	2.3
30.0 and under 32.5.....	2.1	1.4	2.7	.9	.1	1.6	3.0	2.5	3.3	6.6	7.6	6.0
32.5 and under 35.0.....	3.3	2.2	4.2	1.3	.1	2.3	6.2	6.0	6.2	8.5	8.6	8.4
35.0 and under 37.5.....	3.3	1.9	4.5	1.5	.2	2.6	6.4	4.7	7.4	6.9	7.4	6.6
37.5 and under 40.0.....	5.1	2.6	7.0	2.6	.3	4.7	8.3	7.1	9.1	11.4	9.8	12.5
40.0 and under 42.5.....	4.6	3.0	5.9	3.0	.6	5.2	7.3	8.5	6.5	8.1	9.0	7.5
42.5 and under 47.5.....	7.6	4.0	10.4	6.0	1.1	10.5	11.1	11.5	10.8	9.5	9.2	9.7
47.5 and under 52.5.....	8.4	3.7	12.1	7.2	1.5	12.6	11.2	8.8	12.7	8.8	9.2	8.7
52.5 and under 57.5.....	8.5	4.0	11.9	8.3	2.0	14.3	9.1	8.3	9.5	7.2	8.6	6.3
57.5 and under 62.5.....	7.5	3.7	10.6	8.3	2.8	13.4	7.9	7.5	8.2	3.0	2.8	3.1
62.5 and under 67.5.....	6.6	4.2	8.5	7.6	3.6	11.3	6.5	7.6	5.9	1.3	1.5	2.0
67.5 and under 72.5.....	5.1	4.0	6.0	5.9	4.0	7.6	5.1	5.4	4.9	1.3	1.1	1.4
72.5 and under 77.5.....	4.0	4.3	3.8	4.7	4.5	5.0	3.9	5.5	2.9	.5	.6	.4
77.5 and under 82.5.....	3.1	4.0	2.4	3.5	4.5	2.6	3.4	4.1	2.9	.3	.2	.3
82.5 and under 87.5.....	2.5	4.1	1.3	3.3	5.3	1.5	1.6	2.1	1.3	.3	.2	.4
87.5 and under 92.5.....	2.6	4.9	.8	3.4	6.4	.6	1.9	2.0	1.8	.1	.1	(1)
92.5 and under 100.0.....	3.8	7.3	.6	5.4	10.6	.6	1.3	2.0	.8	.1	.1	.1
100.0 and under 110.0.....	4.9	10.8	.2	7.6	15.5	.3	.4	.6	.3	-----	-----	-----
110.0 and under 120.0.....	4.3	9.7	.1	6.7	13.9	.1	.2	.3	.2	-----	-----	-----
120.0 and under 130.0.....	3.1	6.9	(1)	4.8	9.9	(1)	(1)	.1	(1)	.1	-----	.1
130.0 and under 140.0.....	1.7	3.8	(1)	2.7	5.5	(1)	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----	(1)
140.0 and under 150.0.....	1.0	2.3	(1)	1.6	3.3	(1)	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
150.0 and over.....	1.3	3.0	-----	2.0	4.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 percent.

This wide dispersion in average hourly earnings is due to differences caused by a variety of factors, such as geographical location, sex, skill, occupation, unionization, type of plant, etc.

Plant Averages

In terms of plant averages, the hourly earnings of the 105 establishments ranged from 23.9 to 97.1 cents. Moreover, as indicated in table 5, there is no concentration within these limits, the averages being distributed more or less evenly throughout.

TABLE 5.—*Classification of Full-fashioned Hosiery Plants by Average Hourly Earnings and Region, 1938*

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	United States	North	South	Average hourly earnings (in cents)	United States	North	South
Under 35.0.....	3		3	65.0 and under 67.5.....	5	5	
35.0 and under 37.5.....	1	1		67.5 and under 70.0.....	6	4	2
37.5 and under 40.0.....	2		2	70.0 and under 72.5.....	8	7	1
40.0 and under 42.5.....	2		2	72.5 and under 75.0.....	4	3	1
42.5 and under 45.0.....	3	2	1	75.0 and under 77.5.....	4	4	
45.0 and under 47.5.....	7	5	2	77.5 and under 80.0.....	5	5	
47.5 and under 50.0.....	1	1		80.0 and under 82.5.....	7	7	
50.0 and under 52.5.....	5	3	2	82.5 and under 85.0.....	3	3	
52.5 and under 55.0.....	8	6	2	85.0 and under 87.5.....			
55.0 and under 57.5.....	7	5	2	87.5 and under 90.0.....	3	3	
57.5 and under 60.0.....	4	4		90.0 and over.....	2	2	
60.0 and under 62.5.....	5	2	3				
62.5 and under 65.0.....	10	6	4	Total.....	105	78	27

Geographical Differences

There is a fairly pronounced difference in the hourly earnings between the northern and southern regions, the averages for all workers being respectively 69.3 and 58.1 cents.

The difference in wage levels between the Northern and Southern States is confirmed by a comparison of the respective distributions of plant averages (table 5). Only 1 of the 78 northern establishments, as compared with 7 of the 27 southern mills, averaged less than 42.5 cents an hour. On the other hand, although as many as 24 of the plants in the northern region had averages of 75 cents and over, not a single establishment in the Southern States exceeded that figure. It should be pointed out, however, that there is considerable overlapping in the distribution of plant averages between the two regions. In other words, the averages for over two-thirds of the northern mills were between 42.5 and 75 cents, which is the range for the averages in all but 7 of the southern establishments.

Both the northern and southern distributions of workers cover a wide range of hourly earnings, with very little tendency toward a marked concentration in either case. However, it will be noted that whereas only about one-third (34.2 percent) of the northern employees earned below 52.5 cents an hour, over one-half (53.7 percent) of the southern workers were found under that limit. On the other hand, a higher proportion (17.9 percent) in the North than in the South (13.0 percent) averaged \$1.00 or more (table 6).

TABLE 6.—Percentage Distribution of Full-fashioned Hosiery Workers According to Average Hourly Earnings, by Region, 1938

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	NORTH											
	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 17.5.....	0.1	(1)	0.1	(1)	-----	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3
17.5 and under 22.5.....	.9	0.5	1.3	0.1	-----	.2	.5	.6	.4	6.5	4.3	7.7
22.5 and under 25.0.....	.5	.3	.6	.1	(1)	.2	.9	.9	1.0	1.6	.9	2.0
25.0 and under 27.5.....	.9	.6	1.1	.2	-----	.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	3.7	3.1	4.0
27.5 and under 30.0.....	.6	.4	.8	.2	(1)	.4	.9	1.2	.8	1.9	1.3	2.2
30.0 and under 32.5.....	1.0	.5	1.4	.4	0.1	.8	1.6	1.3	1.8	2.9	2.1	3.3
32.5 and under 35.0.....	2.8	1.7	3.6	.8	(1)	1.6	4.9	4.5	5.2	8.7	8.4	8.8
35.0 and under 37.5.....	2.3	.9	3.4	.8	.1	1.4	4.8	2.4	6.4	4.9	3.5	5.6
37.5 and under 40.0.....	5.3	2.9	7.2	2.3	.2	4.3	8.2	7.3	8.7	14.8	13.3	15.7
40.0 and under 42.5.....	4.4	3.2	5.3	2.5	.4	4.4	6.8	8.6	5.6	9.6	12.3	8.2
42.5 and under 47.5.....	7.2	4.3	9.7	5.0	.9	9.1	10.6	11.4	9.9	12.0	12.8	11.6
47.5 and under 52.5.....	8.2	4.1	11.6	6.1	1.2	11.0	11.8	9.2	13.4	12.0	14.5	10.9
52.5 and under 57.5.....	8.5	4.2	12.2	7.8	1.6	13.8	9.9	8.6	10.5	10.3	13.7	8.5
57.5 and under 62.5.....	8.1	3.7	11.8	8.5	2.1	14.9	9.0	8.4	9.2	4.2	4.4	4.1
62.5 and under 67.5.....	7.4	4.1	10.1	8.3	3.0	13.5	7.4	8.6	6.7	2.7	2.2	2.9
67.5 and under 72.5.....	5.9	3.8	7.7	6.7	3.3	10.0	5.9	6.2	5.8	1.9	1.6	2.0
72.5 and under 77.5.....	4.5	4.2	4.8	5.3	4.1	6.4	4.4	5.9	3.6	.7	.9	.6
77.5 and under 82.5.....	3.6	4.0	3.2	4.0	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.5	3.7	.4	.1	.5
82.5 and under 87.5.....	2.9	4.2	1.7	3.6	5.3	2.0	2.0	2.5	1.7	.5	.3	.6
87.5 and under 92.5.....	2.9	5.1	1.2	3.7	6.6	.8	2.4	2.3	2.4	.1	.1	.1
92.5 and under 100.0.....	4.1	8.1	.8	5.7	10.9	.7	1.7	2.6	1.2	.2	.1	.2
100.0 and under 110.0.....	5.3	11.5	.3	8.2	16.2	.4	.5	.8	.4	-----	-----	-----
110.0 and under 120.0.....	4.8	10.5	.1	7.4	14.9	.1	.3	.4	.2	-----	-----	-----
120.0 and under 130.0.....	3.5	7.7	(1)	5.5	11.0	(1)	.1	.1	(1)	.1	-----	.1
130.0 and under 140.0.....	1.8	4.1	(1)	2.9	5.8	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
140.0 and under 150.0.....	1.0	2.2	(1)	1.6	3.2	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
150.0 and over.....	1.5	3.2	-----	2.3	4.7	-----	(1)	.1	-----	(1)	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	SOUTH											
	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 17.5.....	1.5	1.8	1.4	0.2	-----	0.4	0.9	2.2	0.2	8.2	9.9	7.0
17.5 and under 22.5.....	3.9	3.1	4.4	.6	(1)	1.0	1.8	2.4	1.5	21.5	18.9	23.7
22.5 and under 25.0.....	1.4	1.2	1.6	.8	-----	1.5	.6	.4	.7	5.0	7.7	3.1
25.0 and under 27.5.....	3.2	1.6	4.4	1.5	0.1	2.7	3.6	2.8	4.0	10.4	7.7	12.3
27.5 and under 30.0.....	1.7	.8	2.3	1.1	.3	1.8	2.8	1.7	3.4	2.6	2.6	2.6
30.0 and under 32.5.....	4.7	3.6	5.6	2.0	.3	3.5	7.0	6.6	7.2	13.7	16.2	11.9
32.5 and under 35.0.....	4.7	3.3	5.7	2.3	.3	4.0	9.9	11.0	9.3	8.2	8.9	7.6
35.0 and under 37.5.....	5.7	4.2	6.9	3.1	.4	5.2	11.0	12.2	10.4	10.7	13.5	8.7
37.5 and under 40.0.....	4.6	2.0	6.5	3.2	.5	5.5	8.9	6.4	10.2	4.8	4.4	5.1
40.0 and under 42.5.....	5.2	2.5	7.1	4.1	.9	6.8	8.7	8.5	8.9	5.1	3.8	6.0
42.5 and under 47.5.....	8.4	3.5	12.1	8.0	1.7	13.3	12.7	11.4	13.3	4.6	3.6	5.3
47.5 and under 52.5.....	8.7	2.8	13.2	9.7	2.2	16.0	9.8	7.2	11.1	2.5	1.0	3.7
52.5 and under 57.5.....	8.0	3.3	11.4	9.8	3.0	15.3	7.0	7.2	6.9	1.3	.6	1.8
57.5 and under 62.5.....	6.0	3.8	7.7	7.6	4.4	10.2	4.9	4.4	5.2	.7	.2	1.0
62.5 and under 67.5.....	4.7	4.2	5.0	5.9	4.9	6.7	3.8	4.4	3.5	.3	.4	.1
67.5 and under 72.5.....	3.2	4.5	2.2	4.1	5.8	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6	.3	.4	.1
72.5 and under 77.5.....	2.8	4.4	1.5	3.6	5.4	2.1	2.1	4.2	1.0	-----	-----	-----
77.5 and under 82.5.....	1.9	3.9	.5	2.5	4.9	.6	1.3	2.8	.6	.1	.2	-----
82.5 and under 87.5.....	1.8	3.8	.3	2.6	5.2	.4	.3	.7	-----	-----	-----	-----
87.5 and under 92.5.....	1.9	4.3	.1	2.8	6.0	.1	.3	.9	-----	-----	-----	-----
92.5 and under 100.0.....	3.0	6.9	.1	4.6	9.9	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
100.0 and under 110.0.....	4.1	9.7	(1)	6.3	13.9	.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
110.0 and under 120.0.....	3.4	7.9	(1)	5.1	11.3	(1)	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
120.0 and under 130.0.....	2.1	5.0	-----	3.3	7.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
130.0 and under 140.0.....	1.4	3.3	-----	2.1	4.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
140.0 and under 150.0.....	1.0	2.4	-----	1.6	3.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
150.0 and over.....	1.0	2.2	-----	1.5	3.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Occupational Differences

Table 7 presents the average hourly earnings of workers in the various occupational classes.

For the country as a whole, the most important skilled occupations numerically for males are footer and legger knitters. Their respective average hourly earnings were \$1.125 and 99.2 cents. The relatively small group of single-unit knitters, which is a new occupation, averaged only slightly more than the legger knitters. The averages of machine fixers (\$1.084) and working foremen (\$1.055) occupied a middle position between these figures. Virtually all of the employees in the above occupations are males. On the other hand, the average for male toppers, which is primarily a female occupation, was only 61.5 cents.

As regards skilled females, the most important occupations numerically are toppers, seamers, and loopers. Their respective average hourly earnings amounted to 58.1, 50.8, and 54.8 cents. The relatively small group of miscellaneous knitters averaged 56.4 cents. For the group as a whole, however, the highest average (64.1 cents) was that of forewomen, while the lowest average (48.7 cents) appears for menders. It should be noted that, with the exception of forewomen, all skilled female occupations averaged below any of the individual skilled male occupations.

The highest-paid semiskilled male occupations for the country as a whole are automatic boarders and working subforemen, the former averaging 75.9 cents and the latter 65.9 cents an hour. On the other hand, the lowest-paid occupations are stock handlers, packers, and knitters' helpers, whose averages were respectively, 45.3, 43.3, and 42.2 cents. The averages of other boarders (60.7 cents), dye machine operators (60.7 cents), and factory clerks (53.5 cents) occupied a more or less intermediate position between the highest- and lowest-paid occupational groups.

Among the semiskilled females, the automatic and other boarders were the highest-paid occupations, their respective averages being 75.9 and 63.2 cents an hour. In fact, the automatic boarders were the highest-paid of all female occupations, while the other female boarders averaged only slightly less than the working forewomen. Pairers received 51.9 cents, while the average for working subforewomen was 50.7 cents. A relatively important occupation numerically in this group is that of inspectors and examiners, whose average was 44.5 cents. Winders showed an average of 43.9 cents. The lowest-paid occupations were factory clerks (39.6 cents), stock handlers (35.7 cents), and general workers and helpers (35.0 cents).

TABLE 7.—Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, by Occupation, 1938

Skill, sex, and occupation	United States				North				South			
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
<i>Skilled workers</i>												
Males:												
Foremen, working.....	141	\$1.055	43.5	\$45.87	102	\$1.056	42.9	\$45.28	39	\$1.051	45.1	\$47.41
Knitters, footer.....	1,801	1.125	37.4	42.13	1,289	1.180	36.8	43.41	512	.997	39.0	38.92
Knitters, legger.....	5,440	.992	39.0	38.65	3,790	1.020	38.5	39.33	1,650	.929	39.9	37.09
Knitters, single-unit.....	68	1.010	39.1	39.51	59	1.058	39.8	42.12	9	(1)	(1)	(1)
Machine fixers.....	263	1.084	43.8	47.45	171	1.082	44.2	47.80	92	1.089	42.9	46.79
Toppers.....	315	.615	36.5	22.46	276	.616	36.3	22.37	39	.610	37.8	23.08
Miscellaneous, skilled, direct.....	67	.700	41.2	28.80	53	.710	40.5	28.73	14	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, skilled, indirect.....	172	.696	45.3	31.51	141	.721	45.3	32.68	31	.581	45.0	26.15
Females:												
Forewomen, working.....	57	.641	41.5	26.58	35	.687	41.2	28.32	22	(1)	(1)	(1)
Knitters, miscellaneous.....	107	.564	39.6	22.31	72	.542	39.1	21.17	35	.606	40.7	24.65
Loopers.....	1,635	.548	36.5	20.01	1,082	.573	36.2	20.74	553	.500	37.2	18.59
Menders.....	891	.487	36.7	17.88	661	.523	36.2	18.94	230	.388	38.2	14.85
Seamers.....	2,254	.508	37.1	18.82	1,458	.535	36.4	19.45	796	.460	38.3	17.65
Toppers.....	3,927	.581	36.6	21.28	2,680	.622	36.0	22.43	1,247	.496	38.0	18.82
<i>Semiskilled workers</i>												
Males:												
Boarders, automatic.....	219	.759	37.6	28.57	204	.769	37.3	28.69	15	(1)	(1)	(1)
Boarders, other.....	441	.607	36.8	22.32	295	.625	37.2	23.23	146	.569	36.0	20.50
Clerks, factory.....	159	.535	43.5	23.26	121	.561	43.1	24.15	38	.457	44.7	20.42
Dye-machine operators.....	148	.607	42.0	25.45	124	.640	41.5	26.54	24	(1)	(1)	(1)
Knitters' helpers.....	657	.422	38.4	16.19	470	.448	38.7	16.79	187	.362	40.5	14.68
Packers.....	184	.433	42.6	18.43	164	.443	42.4	18.80	20	(1)	(1)	(1)
Stock handlers.....	156	.453	40.9	18.51	128	.472	39.8	18.81	28	.375	45.7	17.16
Subforemen, working.....	66	.659	44.7	29.45	41	.733	43.3	31.75	25	.547	47.0	25.68
Miscellaneous, semiskilled, direct.....	163	.515	40.7	20.98	141	.533	40.5	21.57	22	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, semiskilled, indirect.....	161	.508	46.3	23.55	122	.564	45.5	25.66	39	.347	48.9	16.95
Females:												
Boarders, automatic.....	153	.759	37.0	28.10	153	.759	37.0	28.10	-----	-----	-----	-----
Boarders, other.....	583	.632	36.6	23.15	461	.659	36.6	24.10	122	.529	37.0	19.56
Clerks, factory.....	101	.396	41.6	16.47	69	.394	40.9	16.12	32	.401	42.9	17.22
Inspectors and examiners.....	1,516	.445	38.2	16.97	950	.464	38.2	17.73	566	.412	38.1	15.69
Pairs.....	994	.519	36.9	19.17	827	.536	36.3	19.44	167	.444	40.1	17.82
Stock handlers.....	141	.357	39.9	14.26	93	.383	38.6	14.78	48	.312	42.5	13.26
Subforemen, working.....	122	.507	41.5	21.03	79	.537	40.7	21.85	43	.454	43.0	19.53
Winders.....	163	.439	37.0	16.21	142	.461	36.6	16.87	21	(1)	(1)	(1)
General workers and helpers.....	116	.350	37.0	12.95	92	.350	37.8	13.22	24	(1)	(1)	(1)

141510-39-11

<i>Unskilled workers</i>												
Males:												
Cleaners, machine.....	83	.375	42.4	15.88	37	.467	41.5	19.40	46	.303	43.1	13.04
Janitors and cleaners.....	120	.358	45.0	16.14	70	.420	42.2	17.73	50	.284	49.0	13.91
Learners and apprentices, full-fashioned knitters ¹	457	.383	39.9	15.27	239	.485	39.1	18.95	218	.275	40.8	11.24
Learners and apprentices, other.....	103	.245	36.5	8.96	38	.274	38.4	10.52	65	.227	35.5	8.05
Watchmen.....	167	.384	50.2	19.28	113	.412	48.9	20.14	54	.330	53.0	17.47
Work distributors.....	156	.399	41.0	16.36	123	.421	41.0	17.28	33	.314	41.2	12.94
Miscellaneous, unskilled, direct.....	133	.416	41.8	17.39	110	.437	41.8	18.28	23	(1)	(1)	(1)
Miscellaneous, unskilled, indirect.....	48	.429	42.5	18.22	42	.446	43.0	19.15	6	(1)	(1)	(1)
Females:												
Clippers.....	77	.402	37.4	15.04	39	.455	36.4	16.56	38	.350	38.5	13.48
Folders, wrappers, and boxers.....	888	.447	37.6	16.82	729	.458	37.3	17.09	159	.396	39.3	15.54
Learners and apprentices.....	609	.254	38.5	9.77	240	.281	37.8	10.63	369	.237	38.9	9.21
Stampers and labelers.....	337	.423	38.4	16.24	276	.440	37.9	16.67	61	.354	40.4	14.28
Work distributors.....	135	.359	39.3	14.13	103	.374	39.0	14.59	32	.311	40.5	12.63
Miscellaneous, unskilled, direct.....	113	.391	38.7	15.14	90	.406	38.5	15.64	23	(1)	(1)	(1)

¹ Not a sufficient number of workers to justify the computation of an average.

Significant numbers of both males and females are found in several of the semiskilled occupations. Both male and female automatic boarders averaged exactly the same, namely 75.9 cents, while among other boarders the average for females exceeded that for males by 2.5 cents. On the other hand, the males received higher averages than females as factory clerks, stock handlers, and working subforemen.

Except for the miscellaneous learners and apprentices, whose average was 24.5 cents, there was relatively little difference among the averages for the unskilled male individual occupations in the country as a whole, the range being from 39.9 cents for work distributors to 35.8 cents for janitors and cleaners.

With the exception of work distributors and learners and apprentices, the unskilled individual female occupations also showed relatively little variation in averages, which were 44.7 cents for folders, wrappers, and boxers; 42.3 for stampers and labelers; and 40.2 cents for clippers. These occupations, in which most of the workers are paid piece rates, earned more on the average than several of the semiskilled female occupations. The work distributors averaged 35.9 cents and the learners and apprentices, 25.4 cents.

The variations in occupational averages in the northern region conformed closely to the differences shown in the data for the country as a whole. The highest occupational average was \$1.18 an hour for male footers. The miscellaneous male learners and apprentices, of whom there were only 38 in the sample, averaged but 27.4 cents.

With a few exceptions, the occupational averages in the North were higher than the corresponding ones in the southern territory. This was true for each of the 6 principal occupations, the differences being 18.3 cents for male footer knitters, 9.1 cents for male legger knitters, 7.3 cents for female loopers, 7.5 cents for female seamers, 12.6 cents for female toppers, and 5.2 cents for female inspectors and examiners. On the other hand, the averages for machine fixers, female factory clerks, and female miscellaneous knitters were higher in the South than in the northern region, the only appreciable difference (6.4 cents) being for female miscellaneous knitters. In the southern area, the occupational averages ranged from \$1.089 for machine fixers to 22.7 cents for miscellaneous male learners and apprentices.

Earnings in Trade-Union and Non-Trade-Union Plants

Because of the fact that the sample included only 1 trade-union establishment in the southern territory, comparison of average hourly earnings between trade-union and non-trade-union plants must be confined to the North, where data were obtained for 51 trade-union and 27 non-trade-union mills.

An examination of plant averages discloses that, although there is considerable overlapping, on the whole the averages of the trade-union exceed those of the non-trade-union establishments. For example,

not a single trade-union mill had an average of less than 50 cents an hour, but this classification included as many as 9 non-trade-union plants. Furthermore, only 8 trade-union establishments averaged less than 57.5 cents, as compared with 15 of the 27 non-trade-union mills. At the other extreme, 29 of the 51 trade-union plants had averages of 70 cents and over, but only 5 non-trade-union establishments were found above that limit. This accounts in part for the large spread in the distribution of plant averages in the northern territory.

Based on data covering individual workers in the northern territory, the hourly earnings averaged 74.3 cents in trade-union and 60.5 cents in non-trade-union plants, a difference of 13.8 cents (see table 8). The difference was 9.2 cents for skilled, 8.3 cents for semiskilled, and 4.1 cents for unskilled employees. It was 21.3 cents for all males and 9.3 cents for all females. For skilled workers, the difference was greater for males than for females, while the opposite was true of both semiskilled and unskilled employees.

TABLE 8.—Average Hourly Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers in the North, by Unionization and Skill, 1938

Sex and unionization	All workers	Skilled workers	Semiskilled workers	Unskilled workers
Both sexes.....	\$0.693	\$0.809	\$0.537	\$0.424
Trade-union plants.....	.743	.836	.573	.446
Non-trade-union plants.....	.605	.744	.490	.405
Males.....	.867	1.028	.555	.437
Trade-union plants.....	.949	1.065	.584	.446
Non-trade-union plants.....	.736	.941	.527	.433
Females.....	.541	.580	.524	.417
Trade-union plants.....	.573	.601	.567	.446
Non-trade-union plants.....	.480	.532	.460	.381

The proportion of workers earning less than 40 cents was smaller in trade-union than in non-trade-union plants. For all workers, the proportion was 9.1 percent in trade-union as against 24.1 percent in non-trade-union establishments. In trade-union mills, the proportion was 4.2 percent for males and 12.7 percent for females, which may be compared respectively with 14.1 and 33.2 percent in non-trade-union plants. Likewise, in trade-union establishments, the percentage was 2.9 for skilled, 15.4 for semiskilled, and 40.7 for unskilled. The figures in non-trade-union plants were 9.5, 34.1, and 49.8 percent.

On the other hand, the proportion of higher-paid workers was larger in the trade-union than in the non-trade-union establishments. Using 72.5 cents as the lower limit, the number amounted to 41.8 percent in trade-union plants, which may be compared with 24.5 percent in non-trade-union mills. For employees earning \$1 and over, the respective figures were 21.5 and 11.0 percent.

Owing to the fact that the average hourly earnings are higher in trade-union than in non-trade-union establishments in the northern area, a significant comparison may be made between the average hourly earnings in non-trade-union plants in the North and all southern mills.⁸ Whereas northern establishments as a whole averaged 11.2 cents more than southern plants covered in the sample, the northern non-trade-union mills averaged only 2.4 cents more (table 9). The relatively small difference in the over-all averages for these two groups, however, is due to the fact that skilled male workers averaged the same in both northern non-trade-union and all southern establishments. On the other hand, for the remaining sex-skill groups, the differences are still fairly large, especially in the case of unskilled workers.

TABLE 9.—Differences in Hourly Earnings Between Northern and Southern Full-Fashioned Plants, as Affected by Unionization, 1938

Sex and skill	Amount of excess in average hourly earnings in—	
	All northern plants as compared with all southern plants	Northern non-trade-union plants as compared with all southern plants
All workers.....	\$0.112	\$0.024
Male.....	.107	-.024
Female.....	.101	.040
Skilled workers.....	.115	.050
Male.....	.089	.002
Female.....	.100	.052
Semiskilled workers.....	.107	.060
Male.....	.115	.087
Female.....	.100	.036
Unskilled workers.....	.132	.113
Male.....	.152	.148
Female.....	.119	.083

EARNINGS IN RELATION TO FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

Under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, a minimum of 25 cents per hour became effective on October 24, 1938. In view of the fact that the survey covered a period prior to that date, it is important to see to what extent wages in the industry had to be adjusted to meet this minimum. In accordance with the act, the minimum will advance to 30 cents on October 24, 1939. In the meantime, it may be raised to any point not to exceed 40 cents, upon the recommendation of an industry committee and the approval of the Administrator of the act. It is also important, therefore, to note what further adjustments will have to be made to meet the higher minima.⁹

⁸ Includes one medium-sized trade-union plant.

⁹ It should be remembered that any adjustment to the 25-cent minimum, as well as to higher minima in the future, may affect not only the workers earning less than those minima but also those in the higher wage classes. This is due to the fact that plants frequently find it necessary or desirable to maintain existing occupational and other differentials in hourly earnings.

As was indicated in table 4, only 3.1 percent of all the full-fashioned hosiery workers averaged below 25 cents an hour in September 1938. Those receiving less than 30 cents formed 5.6 percent of the total, and one-fifth (19.4 percent) were paid less than 40 cents. The proportions below these levels were greater for females than for males, although the disparity was less pronounced for the lower degrees of skill. For example, very few skilled males were found even below 40 cents. The proportion earning under 25 cents was relatively small (about 1 to 2 percent) for skilled females and semiskilled males and females, but it was considerable (about 17 to 18 percent) for both male and female unskilled employees. If 30 cents is taken as the upper limit the proportions were still relatively small (the highest was about 5 percent) for skilled females and both male and female semiskilled workers, but it was fairly high for both male and female unskilled employees, of whom about one-fourth averaged less than that figure. Lastly, the percent receiving below 40 cents was 14.4 for skilled females, 25.7 for semiskilled males, 31.3 for semiskilled females, 57.4 for unskilled males, and 60.0 for unskilled females.

Notwithstanding the relatively higher level of earnings in the northern as compared with the southern region, the former showed a substantial number of employees in the lower wage classes. Of all workers, only 1.5 percent received less than 25 cents, and 3.0 percent less than 30 cents an hour, but as many as 14.4 percent were paid below 40 cents. Hardly any of the skilled employees were in the lower wage classes. The group receiving under 25 cents formed 5.3 percent of the unskilled males and 10.0 percent of the unskilled females, whereas less than 2 percent of each of the other sex-skill groups were found below this level. On the basis of 30 cents as the upper limit, the number amounted to 9.7 percent for unskilled males and 16.2 percent for unskilled females, none of the other sex-skill groups showing as much as 5 percent under that limit. On the other hand, each of the sex-skill groups except skilled males contained a substantial proportion of workers under 40 cents, the percentage being 9.3 for skilled females, 19.7 for semiskilled males, 25.7 for semiskilled females, 37.0 for unskilled males, and 49.6 for unskilled females.

Of all workers in the South 6.8 percent earned under 25 cents an hour, 11.7 percent less than 30 cents, and 31.4 percent below 40 cents. Relatively few of the skilled males were in the lower wage classes, only about 2 percent receiving under 40 cents. A small proportion of the skilled females and of both male and female semiskilled employees were paid below 25 cents, which may be compared with 36.5 percent of the males and 33.8 percent of the females among the unskilled workers. If 30 cents is taken as the upper limit, there were 7.4 percent of the skilled females, about 10 percent of the semiskilled groups, and somewhat less than one-half of the unskilled males and females in this group. The

number receiving under 40 cents constituted about one-fourth of the skilled females, slightly less than one-half of both semiskilled groups, and over 80 percent of both unskilled males and females.

In this connection, however, it should be pointed out that the semi-skilled and unskilled workers, of whom the highest proportion was found in the lower wage classes, constitute the smaller part of the total labor force.

EARNINGS OF LEARNERS AND APPRENTICES

Of the total number of employees scheduled, only 4.4 percent were learners and apprentices. However, the latter constituted over one-third (34.1 percent) of all unskilled workers. Workers classified as learners and apprentices were more numerous in the southern than in the northern territory. In the terms of total employees, they formed 8.1 percent in the South, as compared with only 2.8 percent in the North. Based on the number of unskilled workers, they constituted 55.4 percent in the southern and 23.0 percent in the northern region.

The most important group numerically were the female learners and apprentices. The proportion of these employees among all females was 4.1 percent for the country as a whole, 2.3 percent for the North, and 8.0 percent for the South. However, among unskilled females learners and apprentices formed 28.2, 16.2, and 54.1 percent.

The female learners and apprentices were the lowest paid of the female workers, averaging 25.4 cents for the country as a whole, 28.1 cents for the North, and 23.7 cents for the South. The proportion of these workers paid under 25 cents was 51.7 percent in the country as a whole, which may be compared with 45.0 percent in the northern and 56.1 percent in the southern region. The number earning less than 30 cents formed 69.0 percent for the country as a whole, 61.2 percent for the North, and 74.0 percent for the South. The respective percentages of those receiving below 40 cents were 94.4, 87.5, and 98.9.

The next important group numerically among the workers classified as learners were the male learners and apprentices to the full-fashioned knitters, who averaged 38.3 cents for the country as a whole, 48.5 cents for the North, and 27.5 cents for the South. The proportion of these employees earning under 25 cents was 22.7 percent in the country as a whole, but only 2.9 percent in the northern as against 44.4 percent in the southern region. Those receiving less than 30 cents formed 26.6 percent for the country as a whole, but only 7.5 percent for the North, as compared with 47.6 percent for the South. The respective percentages of these workers receiving less than 40 cents were 53.0, 23.4, and 85.8.

The proportion of male learners and apprentices, including those to full-fashioned knitters as well as the miscellaneous learners and apprentices, among all male employees amounted to 4.7 percent for the country as a whole, 3.3 percent for the North, and 8.3 percent for the

South. In proportion to the unskilled males, however, the percentages of both groups of learners and apprentices were respectively 44.2, 35.9, and 57.2.

TABLE 10.—Percentage Distribution of Learners and Apprentices, by Average Hourly Earnings and Region, 1938

Average hourly earnings	Male learners and apprentices, full-fashioned knitters'			Male learners and apprentices, other ¹	Female learners and apprentices		
	United States	North	South		United States	North	South
Under 17.5 cents.....	9.6	0.4	19.7	8.0	1.3	12.5	
17.5 and under 22.5 cents.....	8.5	2.5	15.1	54.3	40.1	40.1	
22.5 and under 25.0 cents.....	4.6	-----	9.6	10.7	3.6	3.5	
25.0 and under 27.5 cents.....	2.6	3.3	1.8	11.7	14.8	16.3	
27.5 and under 30.0 cents.....	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.9	2.5	1.6	
30.0 and under 32.5 cents.....	5.0	-----	10.6	7.8	10.2	12.2	
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	3.5	2.5	4.6	1.9	5.9	4.3	
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	12.0	4.6	20.2	2.9	4.4	6.0	
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	5.9	8.8	2.8	2.9	4.9	2.4	
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	4.2	4.6	3.7	-----	2.3	.8	
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	7.0	8.4	5.5	4.9	1.6	.3	
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	14.5	26.0	1.8	-----	1.3	-----	
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	11.4	21.0	.9	-----	.2	-----	
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	4.4	7.9	.5	-----	.2	-----	
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	3.1	5.0	.9	-----	-----	-----	
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	1.8	2.5	.9	-----	-----	-----	
72.5 cents and over.....	.6	1.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Total workers.....	457	239	218	103	609	369	

¹ In view of the small coverage, it is not possible to show distributions on a regional basis.

In view of the fact that numerous learners and apprentices were found earning less than the various minima provided by the Fair Labor Standards Act, it is important to consider the proportion of workers, exclusive of learners and apprentices, under these minima. According to table 11, the number of these employees paid below 25 cents amounted to 1.3 percent for the country as a whole, less than 1.0 percent for the North, and 2.7 percent for the South. If 30 cents is taken as the minimum, the proportion was 3.4 percent for the country as a whole. It was only 2.0 percent for the North, which may be compared with 6.8 percent for the southern territory. Lastly, the number receiving under 40 cents was 16.7 percent for the country as a whole, as against 13.0 percent for the northern and as many as 25.8 percent for the southern region.

TABLE 11.—Cumulative Percentage Distribution of Workers, Exclusive of Learners and Apprentices, up to 40 Cents per Hour, by Region and Sex, 1938

Average hourly earnings	United States			North			South		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Under 17.5 cents....	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	(¹)	0.1	0.5	0.6	0.4
Under 22.5 cents....	.8	.7	.8	.4	0.3	.5	1.7	1.7	1.7
Under 25.0 cents....	1.3	.9	1.6	.8	.5	1.0	2.7	2.1	3.1
Under 27.5 cents....	2.5	1.7	3.2	1.5	1.0	1.9	5.2	3.4	6.5
Under 30.0 cents....	3.4	2.1	4.4	2.0	1.3	2.6	6.8	4.2	8.8
Under 32.5 cents....	5.2	3.3	6.8	2.9	1.8	3.9	11.0	7.1	13.8
Under 35.0 cents....	8.5	5.4	11.0	5.6	3.5	7.3	15.7	10.4	19.6
Under 37.5 cents....	11.6	6.9	15.4	7.9	4.3	10.8	21.0	13.5	26.6
Under 40.0 cents....	16.7	9.4	22.5	13.0	7.0	17.9	25.8	15.5	33.5

¹ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

EARNINGS IN INDEPENDENT FINISHING PLANTS

Of the 16 independent finishing establishments included in the survey, all but 2 were located in the North. Although 14 northern mills constitute a small proportion of the industry in that region, their wage structure nevertheless deserves special analysis, in view of the growing importance of such operations.

An examination of the plant averages indicates that all of the independent finishing establishments are found in the lower part of the distribution for the total branch in the northern region.¹⁰ There was not a single finishing mill averaging over 67.5 cents, although 38 of the 64 remaining plants were above that limit. This also accounts partly for the large spread in the total distribution of plant averages in the North.

According to the data covering individuals in the northern territory, the average hourly earnings for all employees in independent finishing plants amounted to 52.9 cents. The figures were 57.9 cents for males and 50.2 cents for females. On the basis of skill, the averages were 60.0 cents for skilled (83.5 cents for males and 50.1 cents for females), 57.2 cents for semiskilled (59.5 cents for males and 55.5 cents for females), and 40.4 cents for unskilled workers (35.0 cents for males and 41.7 cents for females).

TABLE 12.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in Northern Finishing Plants, by Average Hourly Earnings, Skill, and Sex, 1938

Average hourly earnings	All workers			Skilled workers ¹	Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 17.5 cents	0.4		0.7	2.0	0.1		0.2	0.6		0.8
17.5 and under 22.5 cents	3.6	3.7	3.5		.7	1.3	.2	11.6		9.9
22.5 and under 25.0 cents	1.5	1.1	1.7	1.0	.7	1.0	.5	3.5		3.8
25.0 and under 27.5 cents	1.6	2.4	1.2		1.1	1.3	.9	3.2		1.9
27.5 and under 30.0 cents	1.1	.8	1.2	1.0	1.0	.3	1.4	1.3		.8
30.0 and under 32.5 cents	2.4	2.1	2.5	1.0	2.3	1.0	3.3	2.9		1.5
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	3.5	1.6	4.5	2.0	1.4	1.0	1.6	9.0		9.5
35.0 and under 37.5 cents	3.8	2.9	4.2	1.0	3.3	2.4	4.0	5.8		5.7
37.5 and under 40.0 cents	5.2	4.5	5.5	3.9	3.9	3.4	4.2	8.7		7.6
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	6.8	2.4	8.9	8.8	5.4	2.7	7.3	9.3		10.8
42.5 and under 47.5 cents	12.0	11.8	12.2	9.8	11.0	11.4	10.6	15.4		15.6
47.5 and under 52.5 cents	11.0	7.8	12.6	10.8	10.2	9.8	10.6	13.2		15.6
52.5 and under 57.5 cents	9.6	6.4	11.3	20.5	8.4	7.1	9.4	9.0		9.9
57.5 and under 62.5 cents	7.2	6.7	7.5	4.9	9.5	7.7	10.8	2.6		2.7
62.5 and under 67.5 cents	7.7	8.6	7.2	7.8	9.9	10.4	9.6	2.3		2.7
67.5 and under 72.5 cents	5.6	7.8	4.6	2.0	8.1	9.1	7.5	1.0		.8
72.5 and under 77.5 cents	7.1	14.0	3.8	4.9	10.5	16.2	6.3	.3		
77.5 and under 82.5 cents	4.2	4.5	4.1	2.9	6.2	5.1	7.0			
82.5 and under 87.5 cents	2.5	3.7	1.8		3.7	4.7	3.0	.3		.4
87.5 and under 92.5 cents	1.1	1.3	.9	2.9	1.2	1.0	1.4			
92.5 and under 100.0 cents	.7	2.1		2.9	.7	1.7				
100.0 and under 110.0 cents	.8	2.1	.1	5.9	.4	.7	.2			
110.0 and under 120.0 cents	.4	1.1		2.0	.3	.7				
120.0 and under 130.0 cents										
130.0 and under 140.0 cents										
140.0 and under 150.0 cents										
150.0 cents and over	.1	.3		1.0						
	.1	.3		1.0						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0
Total workers	1,137	374	763	102	724	297	427	311	49	262

¹ In view of the small coverage, it is not possible to show any distributions by sex.

² Not a sufficient number of workers to present a distribution.

¹⁰ The same is true separately for the trade-union and non-trade-union establishments.

As seen from table 12, the employees receiving under 25 cents an hour in independent finishing plants in the North formed 5.5 percent of all workers, as compared with 4.8 percent of the males and 5.9 percent of the females. Among the skilled and semiskilled workers this group formed 3.0 and 1.5 percent, respectively, but as much as 15.7 percent among the unskilled. Those earning less than 30 cents constituted 8.2 percent for all workers, as against 8.0 percent for males and 8.3 percent for females. On the basis of skill, the percentages were 4.0 for skilled and 3.6 for semiskilled, but 20.2 for unskilled employees. Lastly, the proportion paid below 40 cents was 23.1 percent for all workers, 19.1 percent for males, and 25.0 percent for females. It amounted to 11.9 percent for skilled, 14.5 percent for semiskilled, and 46.6 percent for unskilled employees.

In view of the fact that the independent finishing establishments compete directly with the dyeing and finishing departments of the integrated hosiery mills, it is significant to compare the average hourly earnings for similar occupations in the two groups of plants. As one may see from table 13, in six out of nine occupations for which comparisons are possible, the averages were higher in the northern integrated mills than in finishing plants. The differences ranged from a fraction of a cent for female automatic boarders to as much as 6.4 cents for male packers. The only occupations that averaged higher in finishing as against integrated establishments were the male automatic boarders, male miscellaneous boarders, and male dye-machine operators, the respective differences amounting to 1.7, 3.5, and 4.6 cents.

TABLE 13.—Average Hourly Earnings in Integrated and Independent Finishing Plants in the North, by Occupation, 1938

Occupation and sex	Integrated plants		Independent finishing plants	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Boarders, automatic, male.....	176	\$0.767	28	\$0.784
Boarders, automatic, female.....	121	.759	32	.757
Boarders, other, male.....	158	.609	137	.644
Boarders, other, female.....	323	.668	138	.636
Dye-machine operators, male.....	86	.625	38	.671
Folders, wrappers, and boxers, female.....	569	.464	160	.438
Packers, male.....	110	.464	54	.400
Pairers, female.....	615	.544	212	.512
Stampers and labelers, female.....	204	.445	72	.425

Weekly Hours

FULL-TIME OPERATION

Shift operation was quite common in the full-fashioned branch of the hosiery industry in September 1938. In the northern territory, of 60 integrated establishments that reported on this point, only

7 operated 1 shift, while 50 worked during 2 shifts and 3 during 3 shifts. Of the 14 independent finishing plants, however, only 3 operated for 2 shifts and 1 for 3 shifts. In the southern region, of the 23 mills reporting this information, 20 operated for 2 shifts and 4 for 3 shifts. In nearly every case, the second and third shifts were confined to the knitting department.¹¹

The 8-hour shift and 40-hour week generally prevailed in this branch of the industry at the time of the survey.

In the North, of the 64 integrated mills, as many as 59 operated on a 40-hour week. In 29 of the latter establishments, the 40-hour week applied to all employees. On the other hand, 30 plants had a 40-hour week for the great majority of the workers, but such employees as toppers and footers usually worked less than the normal full-time hours. The normal hours in the remaining 5 integrated mills were 44 or 45 for most of the employees. Of the 14 independent finishing establishments, 9 operated for 40 hours, 3 for 43¼, 1 for 48, and 1 for 49 hours.

The 40-hour week prevailed in 19 of the 27 establishments in the southern territory. In most of these plants, it applied to all workers, although in several a few occupations worked longer hours. In the remaining mills, the predominating full-time hours were 44 in 2, 43½ in 1, 45 in 3, and 50 in 2 establishments.

ACTUAL HOURS WORKED

For the country as a whole weekly hours actually worked averaged 38.2. Hours were slightly longer in the South than in the North—39.3 as compared with 37.8—a situation which obtained for all of the various sex-skill groups (table 14).

TABLE 14.—Average Actual Weekly Hours of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, by Skill, Sex, and Region, 1938

Region	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
United States.....	38.2	39.5	37.2	37.8	38.9	36.8	38.6	40.0	37.7	39.6	42.1	38.1
North.....	37.8	39.0	36.8	37.3	38.5	36.2	38.2	39.6	37.4	39.1	41.8	37.7
South.....	39.3	40.5	38.3	38.9	40.0	38.0	39.6	41.2	38.8	40.6	42.5	39.2

According to table 15, which presents the distribution of workers by actual weekly hours, about one-fifth (21.5 percent) of all employees in full-fashioned plants worked less than 36 hours during the week scheduled. Most of these employees, however, worked part time during the week, due to such causes as labor turn-over and absenteeism.

¹¹ In 14 establishments, located in both the northern and southern territories, there was a wage differential in favor of employees working on the second and third shifts.

Another fifth (20.5 percent) worked 36 and under 40 hours. The largest concentration occurred in the class of 40 and less than 44 hours, which included about 45 percent of the total labor force, but it should be remembered that by far the great majority of these employees worked exactly 40 hours; 13.4 percent worked 44 hours and over. The proportion of employees working under 36 hours, in the country as a whole as well as in each region, was higher for females than for males, which is probably due to the greater amount of labor turn-over and absenteeism among the former as compared with the latter. On the other hand, the proportion of employees working 44 hours and over was greater for males than for females, because of the fact that males predominate in the supervisory, service, and maintenance occupations that require longer hours of work than are applicable to the remaining employees.

The average actual hours worked by the various occupational groups are shown in table 7. For all males in the country as a whole, the figures ranged from 36.5 hours for toppers and miscellaneous learners and apprentices to 50.2 hours for watchmen. Taking the leading male occupations, the averages were 39.0 hours for legger knitters and 37.4 hours for footer knitters. For all females, the figures varied from 36.5 hours for loopers to 41.6 hours for factory clerks. For the leading female occupations, the average hours were 36.5 for loopers, 36.6 for toppers, 37.1 for seamers, and 38.2 for inspectors and examiners.

The actual hours of work in the northern region averaged higher in non-trade-union than in trade-union establishments, the respective figures for all workers being 39.6 and 36.8. The averages in trade-union plants were 37.9 for males and 35.9 for females, as compared respectively with 41.0 and 38.4 in non-trade-union mills.

TABLE 15.—Percentage Distribution of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, by Actual Weekly Hours, 1938

Weekly hours	United States			North			South		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 8 hours.....	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.2
8 and under 16 hours.....	.9	.6	1.1	1.0	.5	1.3	.7	.8	.6
16 and under 20 hours.....	.9	.9	.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	.4	.5	.4
20 and under 24 hours.....	1.2	.5	1.7	1.4	.6	2.1	.7	.4	.9
24 and under 28 hours.....	2.7	1.9	3.4	2.9	1.9	3.6	2.5	2.0	2.9
28 and under 32 hours.....	4.9	3.4	6.2	5.9	4.2	7.2	2.7	1.3	3.8
32 and under 36 hours.....	10.6	7.6	13.1	9.7	6.7	12.3	12.7	9.8	14.9
36 and under 40 hours.....	20.5	14.8	24.9	21.8	17.1	25.7	17.3	9.3	23.2
40 and under 44 hours.....	44.6	52.7	38.1	44.7	53.1	38.0	44.0	51.0	38.5
44 and under 48 hours.....	9.2	10.0	8.5	8.7	9.5	8.0	10.3	11.2	9.7
48 and under 52 hours.....	2.8	4.4	1.6	1.8	3.5	3.4	5.3	6.7	4.3
52 and under 56 hours.....	.7	1.5	.1	.3	.7	(1)	1.7	3.6	.4
56 hours and over.....	.7	1.5	.1	.4	.9	(1)	1.4	3.0	.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of employees.....	26,807	11,888	14,919	18,794	8,463	10,331	8,013	3,425	4,588

¹ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

Weekly Earnings

The average weekly earnings of all employees in the full-fashioned branch of the hosiery industry amounted to \$25.16 in September 1938. One-twelfth (8.8 percent) of the total earned under \$12 a week, but it should be remembered that many of those for various reasons worked part-time during the week scheduled. About one-third (32.6 percent) received between \$12 and \$20, and one-fourth (26.5 percent) were paid between \$20 and \$28. Hence, two-thirds (67.9 percent) of the labor force earned less than \$28 during the week. More than one-fourth (26.2 percent) received between \$28 and \$48, and 5.9 percent were paid as much as \$48 and over.

The average earnings per week for all workers were \$26.17 in the northern and \$22.81 in the southern territory—a difference of \$3.36. Because average weekly hours were somewhat higher in the South than in the North, the difference between the two regions is relatively less in average earnings per week than in average hourly earnings. Whereas the number of workers receiving below \$20 a week amounted to 36.3 percent in the North, as many as 53.3 percent were paid under that limit in the southern territory.

The average weekly earnings of all males in the country as a whole amounted to \$32.97, as against \$18.94 for all females. The averages were \$29.22 for all skilled, \$19.64 for semiskilled, and \$14.96 for unskilled employees. On a sex-skill basis, the averages ranged from \$39.55 for skilled males in the North to \$11.67 for unskilled females in the South. Owing to the fact that the males worked on the average longer hours than females, the difference between males and females was relatively greater for average weekly earnings than for average earnings per hour. On the other hand, the tendency for average hours per week to decrease with the degree of skill had the effect of lessening the skill differentials in average weekly earnings as compared with average earnings per hour.

TABLE 16.—Average Weekly Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, by Skill, Sex, and Region, 1938

	All workers			Skilled			Semiskilled			Unskilled		
	Total	Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male
United States..	\$25.16	\$32.97	\$18.94	\$29.22	\$38.97	\$20.13	\$19.64	\$21.09	\$18.76	\$14.96	\$15.88	\$14.42
North.....	26.17	33.85	19.87	30.21	39.55	21.03	20.52	21.98	19.59	16.57	18.27	15.69
South.....	22.81	30.79	16.86	26.98	37.55	18.24	17.02	18.13	16.42	11.87	12.14	11.67

As was shown in table 7, the average weekly earnings among skilled males in the country as a whole ranged from \$47.45 for machine fixers to \$22.46 for toppers. For semiskilled males, they varied from \$29.45

for working subforemen to \$16.19 for knitters' helpers. The spread for unskilled males was from \$19.28 for watchmen to \$8.96 for miscellaneous learners and apprentices. Among skilled females the average varied from \$26.58 for working foreladies to \$17.88 for menders. The range for semiskilled females was from \$28.10 for automatic boarders to \$12.95 for general workers and helpers. The averages for unskilled females varied from \$16.82 for folders, wrappers, and boxers to \$9.77 for learners and apprentices.

As table 17 indicates, the average earnings per week for all workers in the northern region amounted to \$27.32 for trade-union plants, as compared with \$23.99 for non-trade-union establishments—a difference of \$3.33. The difference was as high as \$5.73 for all males, but was only \$2.17 for all females. The differences amounted to \$1.51 for all skilled, \$1.40 for semiskilled, and only 68 cents for unskilled employees. In view of the fact that non-trade-union plants worked on the average longer hours than trade-union establishments, the effect was for the differences between the two groups to be relatively narrower in average weekly earnings than in average hourly earnings.

TABLE 17.—Average Weekly Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers, as Affected by Unionization, 1938

Sex and unionization	All workers	Skilled workers	Semiskilled workers	Unskilled workers
Both sexes.....	\$26.17	\$30.21	\$20.52	\$16.57
Trade-union plants.....	27.32	30.64	21.10	16.93
Non-trade-union plants.....	23.99	29.13	19.70	16.25
Males.....	33.85	39.55	21.98	18.27
Trade-union plants.....	35.94	40.09	22.22	18.33
Non-trade-union plants.....	30.21	38.21	21.71	18.24
Females.....	19.87	21.03	19.59	15.69
Trade-union plants.....	20.59	21.42	20.51	16.50
Non-trade-union plants.....	18.42	20.06	18.11	14.66



OCCUPATIONS AND SALARIES OF COLLEGE ALUMNI, 1936

OF 41,856 college alumni whose employment status in 1936 was reported to the United States Office of Education,¹ 81.1 percent were employed, 14.9 percent were not on the labor market, and 4 percent were unemployed. A more detailed distribution of these alumni by employment status is given in table 1.

Of all graduates, both men and women, only 1.53 percent had been on relief at some time since they had graduated.

¹ U. S. Office of Education. Economic Status of College Alumni. Washington, 1939. (Bulletin, 1937, No. 10.)

TABLE 1.—Employment Status of 41,856 College Alumni, by Sex, 1936

Status of alumnus	Number		Percent	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Total.....	24,720	17,136	100.0	100.0
Employed.....	22,027	11,905	89.1	69.5
Permanently.....	18,458	9,920	74.7	57.9
Temporarily.....	3,569	1,985	14.4	11.6
Not on labor market.....	1,842	4,385	7.5	25.6
Student.....	1,842	485	7.5	2.8
Housewife.....		3,900	.0	22.8
Unemployed.....	851	846	3.4	4.9
Prospects good.....	321	256	1.3	1.5
No prospects.....	530	590	2.1	3.4

Occupations.—Approximately two-thirds of the college alumni reported themselves in the professional group in 1936. The highest percentages of men in this group were in teaching work (17 percent) and in engineering (13.2 percent). Almost 48 percent of the women in professional work were engaged in teaching activities, as recorded in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Percentages of Reporting Men and Women College Graduates, 1928-35, in Various Occupations in 1936

Occupation	Men		Women	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
Professional.....	63.4	66.8		
Architecture.....	1.3	0.1		
Athletics.....	.5	.2		
Dentistry.....	1.6	.1		
Engineering.....	13.2	0		
Journalism.....	1.3	1.0		
Law.....	8.7	.5		
Medicine.....	5.5	.6		
Ministry.....	1.2	.1		
Nursing.....	0	2.0		
Pharmacy.....	1.0	.2		
Research.....	4.4	1.4		
Teaching.....	17.0	47.6		
Other.....	7.7	13.0		
Trades.....	16.9	4.0		
Business.....	8.3	2.1		
Banking.....	1.7	.3		
Insurance.....	1.9	.3		
Merchandising.....	4.2	1.1		
Real estate.....	.8	.2		
Transportation.....	0.9	0.1		
Railroad or bus.....	.6	.1		
Airline.....	.2	0		
Marine.....	.1	0		
Communication.....	1.4	.3		
Radio.....	.5	1		
Telephone.....	.9	.2		
General occupations.....	17.4	28.8		
Agriculture.....	2.1	.2		
Clerical.....	6.2	7.7		
Domestic.....	.1	15.6		
Forestry.....	.8	0		
Manufacturing.....	2.7	.2		
Mechanical trade.....	.7	0		
Mining.....	.2	0		
Public office.....	1.0	.4		
Other.....	3.6	4.7		

Salaries.—Salaries and occupations of college alumni who had graduated during the years 1928 to 1935 were studied by 30 institutions cooperating with the United States Office of Education, but because of the work necessary to consolidate this information the data for only 2 graduate classes, those of 1928 and 1935, were summarized. Median salaries, by occupations, for graduates, both men and women, of these 2 classes, are given in table 3. These figures, however, must be used with caution, as the number covered is small.

TABLE 3.—Median Salaries of Men and Women 1 Year and 8 Years Out of College, 1936

Occupation	Men		Women	
	1 year out of college (1935 class)	8 years out of college (1928 class)	1 year out of college (1935 class)	8 years out of college (1928 class)
All occupations.....	\$1,321	\$2,416	\$1,109	\$1,608
Professional:				
Architecture.....	1,536	2,600	1,250	1,450
Athletics.....	1,366	11,900	1,950	1,400
Dentistry.....	2,250	3,300	1,250	---
Engineering.....	1,537	2,460	---	1,850
Journalism.....	1,358	1,875	938	1,275
Law.....	1,256	3,013	1,100	1,050
Medicine.....	1,050	3,032	1,900	1,201
Ministry.....	1,217	1,950	---	1,250
Nursing.....	1,600	---	1,692	2,000
Pharmacy.....	1,100	2,067	---	1,250
Research.....	1,311	2,555	1,080	2,425
Teaching.....	1,259	2,043	1,236	1,793
Other.....	1,355	2,480	1,112	1,530
Business:				
General business.....	1,328	2,522	964	1,575
Banking.....	1,100	2,217	1,000	1,050
Insurance.....	1,275	2,600	917	1,250
Merchandising.....	1,263	2,480	922	1,450
Real estate.....	1,283	2,017	1,650	---
Transportation:				
Railroad or bus.....	1,242	1,235	---	---
Airline.....	1,267	3,150	---	---
Marine.....	1,650	---	---	---
Communication:				
Radio.....	1,313	1,280	1,900	---
Telephone.....	2,000	2,508	1,925	1,500
Miscellaneous:				
Agriculture.....	1,828	2,070	1,450	---
Clerical.....	1,121	1,816	942	1,188
Domestic.....	1,725	---	500	---
Forestry.....	2,061	2,550	1,450	---
Manufacturing.....	1,230	2,480	1,675	1,2150
Mechanical.....	1,000	1,950	---	---
Mining.....	1,817	1,750	---	---
Public office.....	1,650	2,650	1,050	1,150
Other.....	1,200	2,267	1,025	1,450

¹ Based on fewer than 10 cases.

These students received their bachelor's degrees in the years indicated, but many continued their education in professional fields of work and at a later date received degrees in medicine, law, dentistry, and other specialties, so that actual experience in such professional fields is somewhat more limited than in the fields that do not require work beyond the bachelor's degree. For instance, of those 1 year out of college, 30 medical doctors report a median salary of \$1,050, while 10 of these report less than \$500, probably representing the pay of internes in the hospital. Those 8 years out number 140, with a median salary of \$3,032, which interpreted means that after receiving the bachelor's degree in 1928 they continued in medicine for 4 or 5 years, with about 3 years of actual experience. The dentists, who are not required to become internes and whose period of training is somewhat shorter than the physicians, show for the class of 1935 a median salary of \$2,250 as compared with \$1,050 for physicians, and for the class of 1928, \$3,300 compared with \$3,032 for physicians.

Among the highest-paid positions for men immediately upon graduation from college were dentistry, forestry, and telephone work in which the typical compensation is \$2,000 or over. Nursing and teaching were among the highest-paid occupations for women during their first year out of college.

Howard University Graduates

Only 1 Negro institution—Howard University—cooperated in the investigation of the economic status of college alumni. The findings of this institution on its graduates are not included in the data for the other 30 institutions but are printed separately. The data presented for these Negro alumni are from 659 graduates—283 men and 376 women. Only 46 percent of the questionnaires sent out were returned.

Employment status.—Of the total number of Howard University graduates, men and women, reporting on their employment status, 315, or 51 percent, were permanently employed. Further details on this subject are given in the following table:

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Howard University Graduates, 1928–35, by Employment Status in 1936

Employment status	Men	Women	Total
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Permanently employed.....	52	47	51
Temporarily employed.....	25	20	22
Unemployed but prospects bright.....	4	5	4
Unemployed and no immediate prospects.....	8	13	11
Student.....	11	5	7
Housewife.....		10	5

Of the 659 Howard graduates 9.1 percent are reported as having been on public relief.

Occupations.—The percentages of 541 men and women graduates of Howard University 1928–35, who reported on specified fields of work in 1936, are given, by occupations, in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Percentages of Howard University Graduates, 1928–35, in Specified Occupations in 1936¹

Occupation	Number of men and women	Percent of—			Occupation	Number of men and women	Percent of—		
		Men	Women	Total			Men	Women	Total
All occupations.....	541	100	100	100	Mechanical trade.....	7	2	1	1
Teaching.....	263	32	62	49	Law.....	6	2	1	1
Miscellaneous professional.....	80	12	17	15	Public office.....	6	1	1	1
Trades.....	34	9	4	6	Engineering.....	4	1	1	1
Medicine.....	29	11	1	5	Banking.....	4	1	1	1
Clerical.....	28	5	5	5	Architecture.....	2	1	1	1
Ministry.....	19	8	---	4	Nursing.....	2	1	1	1
Research.....	14	2	3	3	Insurance.....	2	1	1	1
Pharmacy.....	9	3	1	2	Agriculture.....	2	---	---	---
Business.....	9	2	1	2	Journalism.....	1	---	---	---
Domestic.....	9	2	2	2	Merchandising.....	1	---	---	---
Athletics.....	7	2	1	1	Real estate.....	1	---	---	---
					Transportation.....	1	---	---	---
					Telephone.....	1	---	---	---

¹ The usual professions are included in this table only when a Howard alumnus with a bachelor's degree continues professional study. Other graduates of the schools of medicine, dentistry, and law are not reported.

Salaries.—The range in salaries in 1936 for Howard graduates, of 1928–35, both men and women, is from slightly under \$400 to \$4,099 per annum. The median or typical salaries were \$1,298 for men and \$1,199 for women. The salaries for 1936, not including those of 85 men and 112 women who did not report on this subject were as follows:

	Percent of—			Percent of—	
	Men	Women		Men	Women
Less than \$400.....	3.5	4.9	\$1,100 to \$1,199.....	4.0	3.8
\$400 to \$499.....	1.5	5.3	\$1,200 to \$1,299.....	10.1	6.8
\$500 to \$599.....	2.5	8.0	\$1,300 to \$1,399.....	4.0	3.4
\$600 to \$699.....	4.5	8.7	\$1,400 to \$1,499.....	5.6	4.2
\$700 to \$799.....	5.6	3.8	\$1,500 to \$1,599.....	9.1	2.7
\$800 to \$899.....	3.0	4.2	\$1,600 to \$2,399.....	25.3	22.7
\$900 to \$999.....	8.1	4.9	\$2,400 and over.....	3.5	10.2
\$1,000 to \$1,099.....	10.0	6.4			

¹ Median salary, \$1,199.

² Median salary, \$1,298.

As approximately half of the graduates reporting on occupations were in teaching work, the following table is given to supply more detailed data on the salaries of this group:

TABLE 6.—Salaries of Howard University Graduates, 1928–35, in Teaching in 1936

Salary	Men—Class of—								Women—Class of—							
	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Total.....	11	5	14	13	9	9	3	3	19	19	23	23	30	22	12	21
Less than \$600.....				1				1	1	1	4	7	7	2	3	6
\$600 to \$699.....				4		1			3	4	1	1	1	4	3	
\$700.....	2		1						2	2			1			
\$800.....					1		1		2			1	2			
\$900.....			1			1			2	1	1					3
\$1,000.....		1	1		1			1	1	1	2	1		2	1	
\$1,100.....	1		3	1	1				1	1	3	1	1			1
\$1,200.....	2	1			1	2		1		1	1	1	2			1
\$1,300.....				1										1		1
\$1,400.....			1				1			1	1	1	1	1		
\$1,500.....		1	2	2	1					1		1				
\$1,600.....			1							1			1			
\$1,700.....					1											1
\$1,800.....	1	1	1	2					2	1	1	1	4	1	1	
\$1,900.....	1		1	2		1						1				
\$2,000.....	1								1	1			1	2		
\$2,100.....										2				1		
\$2,200.....	1								1	1	1	1	3	3	1	4
\$2,300.....	1				1	2	1		1	4						
\$2,400.....									1	1			2	2	1	
\$2,500.....									1		1					
\$2,600.....					1								3	1		
\$2,700.....									1			1				
\$2,800.....										1	1			1		
\$2,900.....											2					
\$3,000 and over.....			1		1				1		1	1	1			

¹ Typical 1936 salary of each graduating class.

WAGES IN METAL MINES IN IDAHO, 1938

EMPLOYMENT in metal mining in Idaho in 1938 was fairly steady, the labor supply was ample, and the turn-over slight, according to the report of the Inspector of Mines of Idaho.¹

It is almost impossible, the report points out, to obtain complete and accurate statistics on the number of men engaged in the mines, as numerous workers are employed by prospectors and small companies which do not operate continuously and make no report to the State. Furthermore, the different reports submitted by the mining companies vary greatly as to the number of days worked. The total number of men employed in mining in 1938, including those getting out timber for use in mines, may be conservatively estimated as almost 6,500, of whom more than 4,000 were employed in the Coeur d'Alene district, where the deep lead-silver, zinc mines are located.

Wages are not uniform throughout the State. Placer and hydraulic miners are considered surface workers and receive a lower rate of pay than underground miners. The several gold and other mining operations in various parts of the State adapt their wage scales to their own individual problems.

Under an agreement of November 16, 1925, the wages in the Coeur d'Alene district were to be fixed each month according to "a bonus rate based on the selling price of lead in New York. This scale was based on a wage of \$3.75 per day for miners when lead is selling under 5½ cents per pound, the bonus to graduate upward for each additional half cent added to the purchase price."

If that agreement had been carried out in recent years, wages would have been reduced entirely out of proportion to those paid in other sections of Idaho and would have been too low when compared with the high cost of living. The following scale prevailed during 1938 and was in effect at the close of that year.

Daily Wages in Metal Mines in the Coeur d'Alene District, 1938

Occupation	Wages per day	Occupation	Wages per day
Miners.....	\$5. 75	Pump and compressor men.....	\$6. 00
Shovelers.....	5. 25	Surface laborers.....	5. 00
Timbermen.....	6. 25	Ore sorters.....	5. 00
Timber helpers.....	5. 50	Cagers.....	6. 00
Machinists.....	6. 50	Pipe and track men.....	6. 00
Machinist helpers.....	6. 00	Shift bosses.....	7. 25
Carmen, trammers.....	5. 25	Blacksmiths.....	6. 50
Motormen.....	6. 00	Blacksmith helpers.....	5. 50
Motorman helpers.....	5. 50	Electricians.....	6. 50
Main hoistman.....	7. 00	Flotation operators.....	6. 00
Small hoistman.....	6. 50	Mill repairmen.....	6. 00
Nippers.....	5. 50	Mill repairman helpers.....	5. 50
Shaftmen.....	6. 75	Carpenters and painters.....	6. 50

¹ Idaho Inspector of Mines. Fortieth Annual Report of the Mining Industry of Idaho for the year 1938. Boise, 1939.

Other employees, including superintendents, foremen, master mechanics, engineers, and office help, usually receive monthly salaries. In 1938 the company reported to be the largest producer of silver in this country, paid above the scale of the Coeur d'Alene district, and at Christmas also accorded its 550 to 575 employees a 4 percent bonus on the wages they had received from that company during the year.

The average cost of board and room at company boarding houses, hotels, and private homes is from \$1.25 to \$1.50 a day. Various companies have built and maintain houses which are rented by married employees, and some of the most important companies aid their employees in financing the construction of homes.

Some small operators and promoters have continued to take advantage of laxity in the laws governing the protection of labor and material men in Idaho, and failed to make provision for proper reimbursement for services rendered. This condition must be remedied and probably the appointment of a labor commissioner as provided by the Constitution of the State of Idaho would be the answer to this very moot situation.



WAGES IN COAL MINING IN THE SOVIET UNION, 1939

A DÉCRÉE issued on January 27, 1939, by the Commissar of the Fuel Industry in the Soviet Union, provided for increased wages and supplementary payments to workers in the coal-mining industry.¹ Wages are to be increased by 15 to 20 percent, depending upon the number of car loadings and the progress of actual mining.

The supplementary efficiency payments to all workers engaged in underground transportation and operating hoists and other mechanisms are to be increased from 5 to 50 percent. In determining the actual rate of increase, various factors are to be taken into consideration, such as quantity and quality of output above the quota, economy in fuel and tools, avoidance of accidents, and good labor discipline. Monthly wages are to be increased as follows:

¹ Industria, Moscow, February 4, 1939.

Wage Schedule for Soviet Coal Mines, Effective March 1, 1939

[Value of paper ruble as fixed by Soviet law=20 cents]

Occupation or process	New scale (in rubles)	Former scale (in rubles)
Hoisting machinists, ¹ loading specified amounts of coal per month, in—		
Vertical mines:	<i>Per month</i>	<i>Per month</i>
Up to 100 tons.....	2 225. 00	163. 00-193. 00
100 to 200 tons.....	2 250. 00	190. 00-225. 00
200 to 300 tons.....	2 280. 00	190. 00-225. 00
300 to 500 tons.....	2 330. 00	259. 00-263. 00
Over 500 tons.....	2 400. 00	263. 00-300. 00
Sloping mines:		
Up to 100 tons.....	2 200. 00	15. 00
100 to 200 tons.....	2 225. 00	150. 00-225. 00
200 to 300 tons.....	2 250. 00	163. 00-225. 00
300 to 500 tons.....	2 330. 00	
Over 500 tons.....	2 400. 00	
Checkmen.....	2 250. 00-350. 00	100. 00-120. 00
Firemen, using machinery.....	2 125. 00-140. 00	95. 00-115. 00
Firemen, using hand tools.....	2 175. 00-200. 00	135. 00-175. 00
Pillarmen mining, per shift—	<i>Per shift</i>	<i>Per shift</i>
Up to 100 tons.....	7. 00	5. 70-6. 50
100 to 200 tons.....	7. 50	5. 70-7. 00
200 to 400 tons.....	9. 00	6. 50-8. 60
Over 400 tons.....	10. 00	7. 40-9. 00
Pillarmen's helpers.....	6. 00	5. 30-5. 70
Pickmen mining, per shift—		
Up to 100 tons.....	6. 00	5. 20-5. 50
100 to 200 tons.....	6. 50	5. 20-6. 00
200 to 400 tons.....	7. 30	6. 00-6. 50
Over 400 tons.....	8. 50	6. 30-7. 00
Platemen mining, per shift—		
Up to 75 tons.....	5. 70	5. 30-5. 60
75 to 150 tons.....	6. 50	5. 50-5. 70
Over 150 tons.....	7. 00	5. 50-5. 70
Underground explorers of veins.....	2 5. 50	4. 40-4. 60
Coal sorters, washers, and bricket workers (in Donbass)—		
Grade 1.....	4. 40	(*)
Grade 2.....	4. 60	(*)
Grade 3.....	5. 00	(*)
Grade 4.....	5. 40	(*)
Grade 5.....	6. 00	(*)
Grade 6.....	7. 30	(*)
Grade 7.....	8. 70	(*)
Grade 8.....	10. 00	(*)

¹ Rates for machinists tending auxiliary hoists may be from 50 to 100 rubles less per month than those for machinists tending main hoists.

² These rates include the supplementary payments made for night work.

³ Rate per shift; a supplementary payment of 10 to 30 percent of wages to be made for a visible lowering of the vein.

⁴ No data.

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, FEBRUARY 1939

THE LOWEST total separation rate since June 1933 was recorded for February, as shown by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' monthly survey of labor turn-over in manufacturing establishments. The February rate was 2.61 per 100 employees, as compared with 3.19 in January. Quits and lay-offs were both lower than in the preceding month, while there was no change in the number of discharges. Accessions also decreased, from 4.09 in January to 3.06. It should be noted that the Bureau's figures are for the calendar month, and are not adjusted for the number of working days in the month. As compared with February 1938, total separations have decreased by more than one-third. The accession rate was slightly lower.

Of the 28 industries for which separate rates are published, 20 had lower separation rates than in January 1939 and all but 1 had lower total separation rates than in February 1938. The February 1939 accession rate was above that for the preceding month in 10 industries. Compared with February 1938, there were 13 industries showing higher accession rates.

All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers more than 5,500 representative manufacturing establishments, which in February employed more than 2,450,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 28 industries for which separate rates are shown (see table 2) reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry.

Table 1 shows the total separation rate classified into quit, discharge, and lay-off rates and the accession rate for each month of 1937 and 1938 and January and February 1939 for manufacturing as a whole. The averages of the monthly rates for 1937 and 1938 are also presented.

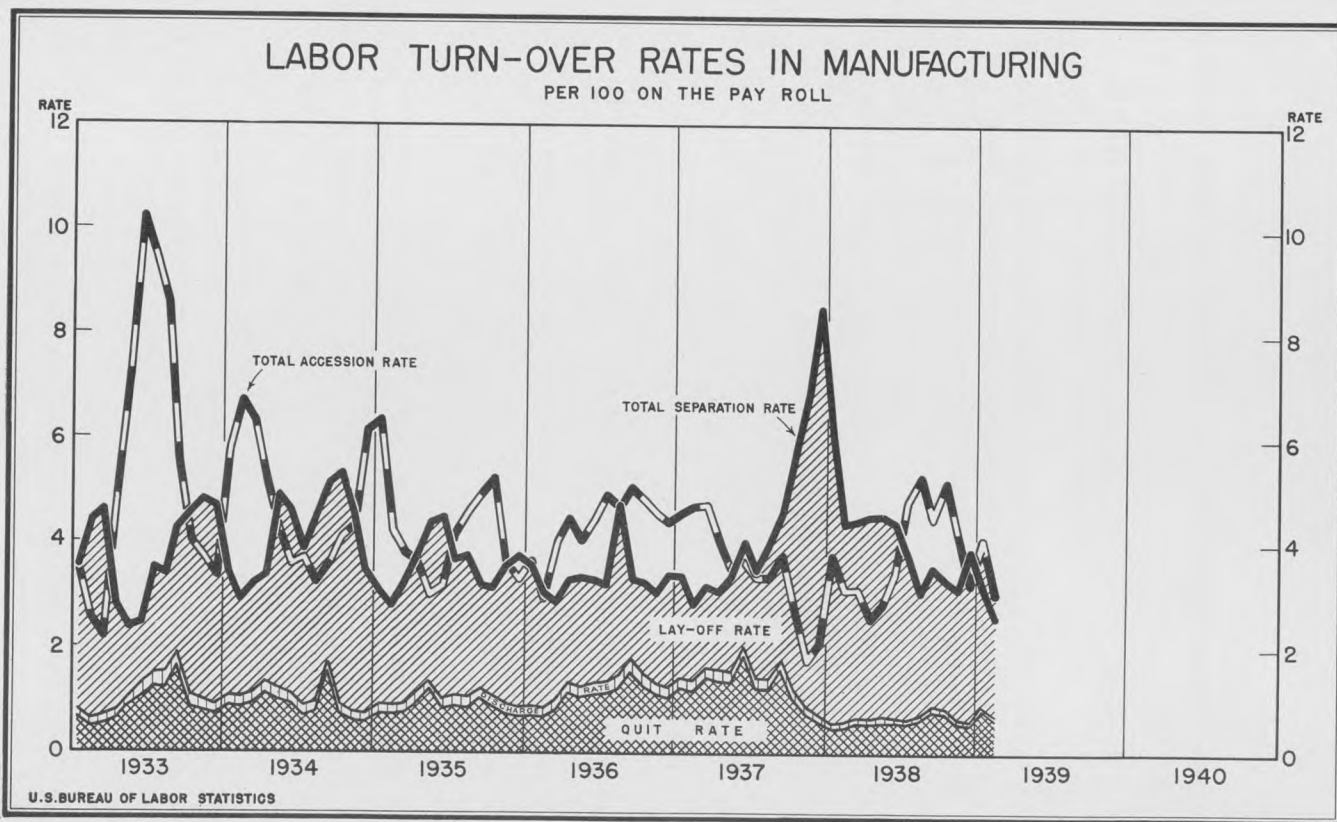


TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 144 Industries ¹

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations													
Quits:													
1939.....	0.85	0.64											
1938.....	.52	.49	0.61	0.59	0.62	0.61	0.59	0.65	0.82	0.78	0.60	0.58	0.62
1937.....	1.27	1.19	1.43	1.38	1.37	1.89	1.25	1.23	1.59	1.05	.72	.60	1.25
Discharges:													
1939.....	.10	.10											
1938.....	.11	.11	.11	.10	.13	.11	.09	.10	.12	.12	.10	.09	.11
1937.....	.21	.22	.24	.23	.21	.19	.21	.19	.19	.19	.16	.14	.20
Lay-offs:²													
1939.....	2.24	1.87											
1938.....	5.45	3.79	3.74	3.85	3.82	3.69	3.13	2.33	2.62	2.40	2.44	3.21	3.37
1937.....	1.90	1.44	1.53	1.48	1.79	1.94	2.06	2.57	2.84	4.45	5.99	7.77	2.98
Total:													
1939.....	3.19	2.61											
1938.....	6.08	4.39	4.46	4.54	4.57	4.41	3.81	3.08	3.56	3.30	3.14	3.88	4.10
1937.....	3.38	2.85	3.20	3.09	3.37	4.02	3.52	3.99	4.62	5.69	6.87	8.51	4.43
Accessions:													
1939.....	4.09	3.06											
1938.....	3.78	3.13	3.13	2.58	2.84	3.44	4.81	5.29	4.51	5.19	4.24	3.22	3.85
1937.....	4.60	4.71	4.74	4.04	3.56	3.60	3.36	3.36	3.78	2.84	1.79	2.12	3.55

¹ The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

² Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Detailed turn-over rates for 28 selected manufacturing industries are listed in table 2 which gives the number of quits, discharges, and lay-offs, total separations, and total accessions per 100 employees in reporting firms in February and January 1939 and February 1938.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Specified Manufacturing Industries

Class of rates	February 1939	January 1939	February 1938	February 1939	January 1939	February 1938	February 1939	January 1939	February 1938
Automobiles and bodies									
Quit.....	1.23	2.58	0.47	0.50	0.58	0.32	0.71	0.73	0.60
Discharge.....	.04	.04	.04	.10	.10	.09	.14	.13	.10
Lay-off.....	2.31	2.52	6.04	5.03	6.03	11.73	.84	.87	1.12
Total separation.....	3.58	5.14	6.55	5.63	6.71	12.74	1.69	1.73	1.82
Accession.....	1.81	2.15	2.38	4.48	4.18	5.84	3.57	7.82	4.27
Automobile parts									
Quit.....	0.50	0.58	0.32	0.27	0.35	0.42	1.02	1.74	0.89
Discharge.....	.10	.10	.09	.11	.01	.18	.12	.12	.13
Lay-off.....	5.03	6.03	11.73	7.92	13.02	7.34	2.99	2.43	.51
Total separation.....	5.63	6.71	12.74	1.14	13.38	7.94	4.13	4.29	1.53
Accession.....	4.48	4.18	5.84	7.92	9.27	3.89	2.91	5.19	6.22
Boots and shoes									
Quit.....	0.47	0.41	0.50	0.27	0.35	0.42	1.02	1.74	0.89
Discharge.....	.10	.13	.16	.11	.01	.18	.12	.12	.13
Lay-off.....	3.70	6.18	8.85	.76	13.02	7.34	2.99	2.43	.51
Total separation.....	4.27	6.72	9.51	1.14	13.38	7.94	4.13	4.29	1.53
Accession.....	3.36	3.90	6.10	7.92	9.27	3.89	2.91	5.19	6.22
Brick, tile, and terra cotta									
Quit.....	0.47	0.41	0.50	0.27	0.35	0.42	1.02	1.74	0.89
Discharge.....	.10	.13	.16	.11	.01	.18	.12	.12	.13
Lay-off.....	3.70	6.18	8.85	.76	13.02	7.34	2.99	2.43	.51
Total separation.....	4.27	6.72	9.51	1.14	13.38	7.94	4.13	4.29	1.53
Accession.....	3.36	3.90	6.10	7.92	9.27	3.89	2.91	5.19	6.22
Cement									
Quit.....	0.47	0.41	0.50	0.27	0.35	0.42	1.02	1.74	0.89
Discharge.....	.10	.13	.16	.11	.01	.18	.12	.12	.13
Lay-off.....	3.70	6.18	8.85	.76	13.02	7.34	2.99	2.43	.51
Total separation.....	4.27	6.72	9.51	1.14	13.38	7.94	4.13	4.29	1.53
Accession.....	3.36	3.90	6.10	7.92	9.27	3.89	2.91	5.19	6.22
Cigars and cigarettes									
Quit.....	0.47	0.41	0.50	0.27	0.35	0.42	1.02	1.74	0.89
Discharge.....	.10	.13	.16	.11	.01	.18	.12	.12	.13
Lay-off.....	3.70	6.18	8.85	.76	13.02	7.34	2.99	2.43	.51
Total separation.....	4.27	6.72	9.51	1.14	13.38	7.94	4.13	4.29	1.53
Accession.....	3.36	3.90	6.10	7.92	9.27	3.89	2.91	5.19	6.22
Cotton manufacturing									
Quit.....	1.04	1.10	0.84	0.49	0.50	0.54	0.41	0.35	0.43
Discharge.....	.25	.21	.11	.04	.04	.09	.08	.06	.13
Lay-off.....	1.23	1.57	4.14	1.47	1.97	5.48	2.03	1.47	4.36
Total separation.....	2.52	2.88	5.09	2.00	2.51	6.11	2.52	1.88	4.92
Accession.....	3.18	4.09	3.93	3.42	3.21	1.04	3.15	3.31	1.49
Electrical machinery									
Quit.....	1.04	1.10	0.84	0.49	0.50	0.54	0.41	0.35	0.43
Discharge.....	.25	.21	.11	.04	.04	.09	.08	.06	.13
Lay-off.....	1.23	1.57	4.14	1.47	1.97	5.48	2.03	1.47	4.36
Total separation.....	2.52	2.88	5.09	2.00	2.51	6.11	2.52	1.88	4.92
Accession.....	3.18	4.09	3.93	3.42	3.21	1.04	3.15	3.31	1.49
Foundries and machine shops									
Quit.....	1.04	1.10	0.84	0.49	0.50	0.54	0.41	0.35	0.43
Discharge.....	.25	.21	.11	.04	.04	.09	.08	.06	.13
Lay-off.....	1.23	1.57	4.14	1.47	1.97	5.48	2.03	1.47	4.36
Total separation.....	2.52	2.88	5.09	2.00	2.51	6.11	2.52	1.88	4.92
Accession.....	3.18	4.09	3.93	3.42	3.21	1.04	3.15	3.31	1.49

TABLE 2.—Monthly Turn-Over Rates (Per 100 Employees) in Specified Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Class of rates	February 1939	January 1939	February 1938	February 1939	January 1939	February 1938	February 1939	January 1939	February 1938
	Furniture			Glass			Hardware		
Quit.....	0.67	0.57	0.59	0.23	0.23	0.63	0.40	0.40	0.36
Discharge.....	.21	.16	.12	.08	.07	.07	.10	.07	.09
Lay-off.....	2.27	3.92	4.35	2.21	3.26	1.96	1.27	.73	2.19
Total separation.....	3.15	4.65	5.06	2.52	3.56	2.66	1.77	1.20	2.64
Accession.....	3.51	5.57	6.05	1.73	1.43	2.84	2.53	2.17	.97
	Iron and steel			Knit goods			Machine tools		
Quit.....	0.28	0.35	0.44	0.90	0.82	0.50	0.52	0.44	0.46
Discharge.....	.04	.04	.15	.13	.10	.10	.04	.03	.23
Lay-off.....	1.05	1.42	3.23	.82	1.50	2.49	.96	.55	3.86
Total separation.....	1.37	1.81	3.82	1.85	2.42	3.09	1.52	1.02	4.55
Accession.....	1.19	1.28	1.46	3.30	3.10	4.19	3.37	2.41	.35
	Men's clothing			Paper and pulp			Petroleum refining		
Quit.....	0.62	0.71	0.48	0.58	0.42	0.30	0.27	0.20	0.27
Discharge.....	.04	.13	.05	.08	.09	.12	.08	.04	.07
Lay-off.....	1.26	1.77	3.31	.51	1.09	1.00	1.28	.86	2.22
Total separation.....	1.92	2.61	3.84	1.17	1.60	1.42	1.63	1.10	2.56
Accession.....	4.01	6.15	3.90	1.28	1.73	1.17	2.36	1.77	.88
	Printing and publishing						Radios and phonographs		
	Book and job			Newspapers					
Quit.....	0.34	0.40	0.37	0.34	0.49	0.35	1.11	1.42	0.86
Discharge.....	.17	.13	.16	.02	.03	.11	.31	.41	.15
Lay-off.....	3.01	3.99	3.02	.54	1.78	1.40	7.05	5.95	7.47
Total separation.....	3.52	4.52	3.55	.90	2.30	1.86	8.47	7.78	8.48
Accession.....	3.69	5.35	3.49	1.82	1.51	2.21	2.55	6.66	3.07
	Rayon			Rubber boots and shoes			Rubber tires		
Quit.....	0.34	0.52	0.32	0.64	0.77	0.48	0.43	0.50	0.58
Discharge.....	.08	.30	.33	.07	.05	.02	.05	.06	.02
Lay-off.....	.47	.30	1.68	.45	3.25	6.42	.79	1.20	5.60
Total separation.....	.89	1.12	2.33	1.16	4.07	6.92	1.27	1.76	6.20
Accession.....	2.10	1.98	6.07	2.59	1.71	1.20	1.53	1.87	1.31
	Sawmills			Slaughtering and meat packing			Steam and hot-water heating apparatus		
Quit.....	0.85	0.87	0.78	0.53	0.50	0.55	0.35	0.51	0.49
Discharge.....	.13	.11	.24	.15	.15	.15	.07	.03	.08
Lay-off.....	3.72	3.54	3.71	10.34	5.85	12.73	.40	.80	1.57
Total separation.....	4.70	4.52	4.73	11.02	6.50	13.43	.82	1.34	2.14
Accession.....	4.32	5.75	6.88	5.56	6.76	5.18	1.64	2.25	.80
	Woolen and worsted goods								
Quit.....	1.10	0.90	0.35						
Discharge.....	.15	.12	.04						
Lay-off.....	5.17	2.60	9.05						
Total separation.....	6.42	3.62	9.44						
Accession.....	3.68	4.93	5.30						

Employment Offices

OPERATIONS OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, MARCH 1939

FURTHER significant improvement in placement results was reported by the United States Employment Service for the month of March. With over a quarter of a million placements, the Employment Service offices showed the widest seasonal gain for March in the history of the present organization. For the fifth consecutive month the daily rate of placements exceeded by a wide margin the results for the corresponding period a year earlier.

Widespread decline in the number of persons seeking jobs through the public employment offices was also reported. Current applications dropped slightly from the level of February and the active file fell to the lowest point in 14 months.

The total of 253,645 complete placements reported for March represented a gain of 43.2 percent above the level of March 1938 and reflected one of the most widespread improvements in placement results ever reported. Gains in placements occurred in every geographic region in the country and in all but 4 of the 51 State or Territorial employment services. The great bulk of placements were made with private employers, jobs filled in this field numbering 184,829, a rise of 22.8 percent in the daily rate from February and over 43 percent above the results for March last year. More than half of these jobs were of regular duration. Greatest gains were reported for men, who were placed in 93,133 private jobs, while women received 91,696 private placements. Jobs in public employment filled through the offices numbered 68,816, practically all of which were filled by men.

Greatest seasonal gains in both total and private placements were reported in the Mountain and Central States. In the Mountain and West North Central regions placements were one-third higher than in February, while in the West South Central and East North Central regions the rate of placements was over 20 percent above the level of the preceding month. Greatest gains from the results for the same period last year, however, were reported for the New England and South Atlantic geographic groups. The smallest seasonal gain in placements was reported in the East South Central region which also showed the smallest increase from last March.

Declining pressure for jobs was reflected in a stabilization of the volume of current applications and a sharp drop in the number of registrants in the Employment Service active file. Applications were received from 1,238,239 job seekers in March, a slight decline from the rate of February. Three-fifths of these applications were received from previously registered persons, the volume of new applications declining 13 percent from the level of February and 38 percent from the level of March 1938. The number of current applications received from men was almost three times as great as the number received from women.

Reflecting the decline in applications for work and the increased placement opportunities, the active file dropped 4.7 percent from February to 6,745,899. This is the lowest total since January 1938. Men represented 5,316,587 active registrants and women 1,429,312.

Unlike the betterment in placement opportunities, the decline in applications received from job seekers was not general. Only four geographic areas showed decreases, while five registered gains in the number of applications currently received. The greatest drop occurred in the Middle Atlantic States, where the volume of current applications declined 16.3 percent from February. The greatest gains in current applications occurred in the New England and the Pacific groups, each of which increased more than 17 percent. When compared with last year the Middle Atlantic States also showed the greatest drop, the volume being 30 percent lower, while the Pacific States showed the greatest increase—a gain of over 31 percent.

Declines from February in the number of active registrants seeking work at the end of the month, however, were more general, only one geographic group—the Pacific States, where a gain of 0.8 percent occurred—not being included. Greatest declines both from last month and last year were reported in New England. In six of the nine geographic areas, however, the active file was higher this year than last and in seven of the areas it was higher this year than 2 years ago.

In addition to complete placements, the 1,659 offices and 2,713 itinerant points of the Employment Service reported 37,430 supplemental placements and received 11, 535,933 visits from applicants and

employers. A total of 180,955 solicitations to prospective employers were made during March, 16.2 percent above the daily rate of February and 65.8 percent more than in March 1938.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Operations of United States Employment Service, March 1939*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		February 1939 ¹	March 1938	March 1937
Total applications.....	1, 238, 239	-0.7	-7.7	+80.2
New applications.....	600, 280	-13.0	-37.9	+77.0
Renewals.....	737, 959	+9.9	+37.7	+82.5
Total placements.....	253, 645	+17.5	+43.2	-13.8
Private.....	184, 829	+22.8	+43.4	-4.6
Public.....	68, 816	+5.3	+42.6	-31.6
Active file (end of month).....	6, 745, 899	-4.7	-6	+22.8

¹ Adjusted for number of working days in month.

Placements of veterans showed sharper seasonal gains but smaller increases from the level of last year both in private jobs and in public employment than were true for applicants as a whole. The 11,720 veteran placements showed an increase of nearly 20 percent from February but were only 17.3 percent above the level of March 1938. Current applications for jobs received from veterans increased during March to 76,490, only 14,211 of which represented new applicants, however. At the end of the month 360,650 war veterans were actively registered at employment offices.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Veterans' Activities, March 1939*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		February 1939 ¹	March 1938	March 1937
Total applications.....	76, 490	+47.5	-39.2	+76.3
New applications.....	14, 211	-7.4	-71.1	+23.6
Renewals.....	62, 279	+70.6	-18.7	+95.2
Total placements.....	11, 720	+19.2	+17.3	-37.9
Private.....	6, 768	+35.9	+17.9	-29.0
Public.....	4, 952	+2.1	+16.4	-46.9
Active file (end of month).....	360, 650	+3.5	-13.5	+15.6

¹ Adjusted for number of working days in month.

TABLE 3.—Operations of United States Employment Service, March 1939

Division and State	TOTAL										Supple- men- tal place- ments	
	Placements					Applications						
	Total	Private			Pub- lic	Field visits	Total	New	Active file, Mar. 31, 1939	Per- son- al visits		
		Number	Per- cent of change from Febru- ary 1	Reg- ular (over 1 month)								
United States.....	253,645	184,829	+23	92,907	68,816	180,955	1,238,239	500,280	6,745,899	11,535,933	37,430	
New England.....	11,313	9,176	+12	5,833	2,137	8,152	78,263	31,453	451,230	725,693	773	
Maine.....	1,369	1,109	+17	793	260	1,020	11,971	2,481	38,377	78,066	221	
N. H.....	1,477	1,316	-16	817	161	1,305	6,832	1,710	28,589	38,818	134	
Vermont.....	887	614	+10	394	273	376	3,644	904	17,883	19,413	9	
Massachusetts.....	3,015	2,363	+24	1,606	652	1,972	29,940	16,279	247,503	362,183	200	
Rhode Island.....	972	684	+2	402	288	958	10,509	5,008	33,539	105,190	12	
Connecticut.....	3,593	3,090	+21	1,821	503	2,521	15,867	4,981	85,339	122,023	197	
Middle Atlantic.....	32,600	26,203	+15	15,134	6,397	32,712	262,594	111,204	1,651,402	3,289,998	2,223	
New York.....	16,157	12,216	-4	6,403	3,941	6,435	91,894	49,430	525,533	1,828,773	1,088	
New Jersey.....	7,013	6,168	+68	3,754	845	12,571	56,285	26,589	254,064	430,683	69	
Pennsylvania.....	9,430	7,819	+21	4,977	1,611	13,706	114,415	35,185	871,805	1,030,544	1,056	
E. N. Central.....	43,517	37,278	+25	19,408	6,239	34,738	229,096	85,984	1,427,677	1,681,538	3,331	
Ohio.....	10,530	8,631	+53	4,244	1,899	10,280	72,612	29,575	412,201	689,506	1,127	
Indiana.....	7,341	6,986	+27	4,031	355	4,603	37,528	12,792	195,201	257,172	1,024	
Illinois.....	11,194	10,844	+5	4,760	350	6,298	33,596	15,163	297,629	139,186	194	
Michigan.....	8,435	6,333	+32	3,708	2,102	9,672	59,609	20,172	359,092	427,881	529	
Wisconsin.....	6,017	4,484	+23	2,665	1,533	3,885	25,751	8,282	163,554	167,793	457	
W. N. Central.....	24,808	18,223	+31	9,297	6,585	21,971	105,005	42,628	651,009	1,011,972	1,007	
Minnesota.....	4,022	3,307	+15	1,935	715	7,245	18,339	7,278	201,106	327,878	331	
Iowa.....	6,959	5,366	+26	2,372	1,593	4,299	20,779	7,344	103,349	210,684	125	
Missouri.....	5,743	4,410	+55	2,561	1,333	4,637	30,052	15,423	169,845	220,480	34	
North Dakota.....	1,453	1,291	+32	726	162	1,041	4,818	1,640	31,634	36,566	45	
South Dakota.....	1,240	1,005	+21	444	235	721	3,758	1,358	35,276	25,390	35	
Nebraska.....	2,986	1,323	+29	621	1,663	2,171	10,523	3,471	50,986	81,922	128	
Kansas.....	2,405	1,521	+34	638	884	1,857	16,736	6,114	68,813	109,052	311	
South Atlantic.....	38,954	21,009	+25	11,908	17,945	18,687	162,756	64,314	730,186	1,242,754	2,262	
Delaware.....	1,087	715	+30	402	374	342	2,723	1,070	13,601	29,546	27	
Maryland.....	3,588	2,221	+20	1,329	1,367	2,142	21,079	5,920	72,068	146,619	95	
Dist. of Col.....	3,002	2,693	+1	1,286	309	501	9,679	3,993	43,677	89,018	54	
Virginia.....	6,391	2,731	+32	1,812	3,660	2,379	23,839	10,013	51,050	167,306	435	
West Virginia.....	3,316	2,412	+7	1,424	904	2,359	24,824	6,215	103,821	186,108	678	
North Carolina.....	9,576	4,960	+24	2,503	4,616	2,850	25,989	11,286	120,738	256,701	395	
South Carolina.....	3,161	1,140	+20	668	2,021	1,154	12,905	5,003	114,191	124,468	63	
Georgia.....	7,637	3,690	+56	2,230	3,947	6,187	28,397	13,172	176,471	153,184	230	
Florida.....	+203	449	+203	254	747	775	13,321	7,642	34,569	89,804	285	
E. S. Central.....	15,157	7,788	+2	5,073	7,369	8,152	72,919	33,852	455,438	569,741	3,115	
Kentucky.....	2,223	1,240	+26	610	983	1,025	19,631	12,650	118,251	118,157	612	
Tennessee.....	5,067	3,311	+18	2,106	1,756	3,358	20,302	7,342	129,990	183,106	775	
Alabama.....	4,226	2,477	+25	1,871	1,749	2,342	17,104	6,911	140,831	165,814	880	
Mississippi.....	3,641	760	+40	486	2,881	1,427	15,882	6,949	66,366	102,664	848	
W. S. Central.....	49,578	37,392	+29	12,296	12,186	30,034	101,177	49,607	534,238	1,109,181	17,850	
Arkansas.....	5,098	3,652	+94	967	1,446	2,160	9,866	5,169	77,783	117,780	3,381	
Louisiana.....	7,715	5,671	+25	3,322	2,044	4,358	18,416	8,672	132,813	162,139	612	
Oklahoma.....	4,004	2,715	+76	734	1,289	2,596	21,602	9,979	70,965	202,100	316	
Texas.....	32,761	25,354	+20	7,273	7,407	20,920	51,293	25,787	252,677	627,162	13,541	
Mountain.....	10,793	7,279	+38	3,616	3,514	9,211	54,753	18,155	228,633	424,458	3,048	
Montana.....	1,818	804	+84	497	1,014	1,516	4,789	1,363	32,211	37,191	150	
Idaho.....	1,555	1,148	+52	597	407	1,182	5,539	1,907	22,064	80,626	30	
Wyoming.....	617	343	+28	173	274	464	3,122	1,132	13,968	29,453	39	
Colorado.....	2,558	2,127	+64	883	431	1,948	16,679	5,353	75,109	140,912	59	
New Mexico.....	1,121	702	+44	492	419	1,316	4,458	1,633	31,799	28,868	24	
Arizona.....	1,411	1,003	+6	458	408	823	6,791	3,285	25,525	41,684	2,324	
Utah.....	754	417	+23	182	337	1,022	11,017	2,566	23,036	46,502	351	
Nevada.....	959	735	+39	334	224	940	2,558	856	4,921	19,222	71	
Pacific.....	26,240	20,232	+22	10,238	6,008	17,053	169,065	61,095	605,227	1,465,699	3,406	
Washington.....	2,938	2,482	+109	1,419	456	3,078	13,147	7,300	113,732	189,416	522	
Oregon.....	4,173	2,897	+54	2,256	1,276	2,149	12,405	4,585	72,067	154,047	681	
California.....	19,129	14,853	+10	6,563	4,276	11,826	143,513	49,210	419,428	1,122,236	2,203	
Alaska.....	232	57	+16	21	175	93	916	453	2,977	10,582	10	
Hawaii.....	453	192	+6	83	261	152	1,695	1,535	7,882	10,117	405	

¹ Adjusted for number of working days in month.

² Estimated.

TABLE 3.—Operations of United States Employment Service, March 1939—Continued

Division and State	Placements				Applications			Active file, Mar. 31, 1939	
	Total	Private		Public	Total	New			
		Number	Per cent of change from February ¹			Regular (over 1 month)	Number		Per cent of change from February ¹
United States.....	161,022	93,133	+27	42,904	67,889	910,393	334,395	-14	5,316,587
New England.....	6,331	4,294	+6	2,751	2,037	52,495	18,282	+13	324,379
Maine.....	774	515	+12	354	259	9,263	1,697	+19	31,010
New Hampshire.....	1,024	873	-23	510	151	4,969	1,104	+18	22,103
Vermont.....	582	310	-6	200	272	2,721	697	+12	14,319
Massachusetts.....	1,624	983	+16	640	641	19,152	9,326	+17	177,002
Rhode Island.....	441	223	-6	138	218	6,039	2,507	+8	19,182
Connecticut.....	1,886	1,390	+30	909	496	10,351	2,951	+1	60,763
Middle Atlantic.....	15,604	9,332	+9	5,934	6,272	185,099	69,402	-28	1,251,767
New York.....	8,212	4,368	-14	2,555	3,844	60,271	31,108	-33	366,893
New Jersey.....	2,780	1,939	+89	1,443	841	38,732	16,208	-37	183,893
Pennsylvania.....	4,612	3,025	+21	1,936	1,587	86,096	22,086	-11	700,981
East North Central.....	22,005	15,989	+31	8,153	6,016	169,147	57,617	-15	1,184,482
Ohio.....	5,300	3,424	+69	1,700	1,876	55,187	20,620	-26	346,232
Indiana.....	2,893	2,635	-31	1,418	258	25,652	7,964	-9	158,588
Illinois.....	5,523	5,199	-12	2,161	324	23,090	9,835	+8	245,899
Michigan.....	4,960	2,876	+36	1,778	2,084	46,841	13,624	-17	298,961
Wisconsin.....	3,329	1,855	+32	1,096	1,474	18,377	5,574	-5	134,802
West North Central.....	15,234	8,754	+32	4,046	6,480	77,859	28,400	-10	527,387
Minnesota.....	2,093	1,403	-10	775	690	12,528	4,549	-9	162,139
Iowa.....	4,238	2,680	+25	1,177	1,558	15,280	4,781	+6	82,110
Missouri.....	3,358	2,030	+68	1,021	1,328	21,200	9,952	-25	136,719
North Dakota.....	795	642	-15	388	153	3,683	1,054	+38	25,842
South Dakota.....	735	504	-16	224	231	2,920	905	+24	28,389
Nebraska.....	2,375	734	+34	249	1,641	8,367	2,332	+1	42,106
Kansas.....	1,640	761	+56	212	879	13,881	4,827	-5	50,082
South Atlantic.....	29,121	11,304	+40	6,056	17,817	121,693	43,542	-5	552,547
Delaware.....	643	274	+97	192	369	1,795	580	-33	9,791
Maryland.....	2,664	1,297	+24	811	1,367	15,919	3,710	-14	56,548
District of Columbia.....	1,332	1,031	+24	444	301	5,844	2,336	-9	30,097
Virginia.....	5,127	1,477	+26	1,007	3,650	18,109	7,132	-2	38,370
West Virginia.....	1,996	1,099	+15	653	897	21,402	4,768	+21	90,568
North Carolina.....	7,205	2,620	+40	1,093	4,585	18,149	7,450	-9	79,705
South Carolina.....	2,653	652	+18	328	2,001	9,755	3,193	-10	89,924
Georgia.....	6,512	2,609	+83	1,407	3,903	19,844	8,315	-13	129,931
Florida.....	989	245	+188	121	744	10,876	6,058	+8	27,613
East South Central.....	11,358	4,023	-3	2,517	7,335	58,385	24,945	-13	369,160
Kentucky.....	1,446	479	+22	240	967	15,543	9,646	-15	96,608
Tennessee.....	3,202	1,446	+14	774	1,756	15,758	4,947	-13	102,172
Alabama.....	3,360	1,621	-27	1,214	1,739	13,463	4,879	-9	113,093
Mississippi.....	3,350	677	+77	289	2,873	13,621	5,473	-13	57,287
West South Central.....	35,876	23,746	+31	5,619	12,130	79,051	37,008	-11	440,931
Arkansas.....	3,928	2,489	+111	307	1,439	8,130	4,173	-2	67,610
Louisiana.....	5,830	3,501	+41	1,987	2,029	14,265	6,223	-12	110,028
Oklahoma.....	2,656	1,371	+197	220	1,285	17,733	7,893	-23	60,776
Texas.....	23,462	16,085	+17	3,105	7,377	38,923	18,719	-8	202,517
Mountain.....	7,446	4,002	+57	1,918	3,444	44,796	13,587	+0	194,825
Montana.....	1,501	516	+102	317	985	4,199	1,049	+16	27,806
Idaho.....	1,033	631	+94	268	402	4,381	1,397	-5	19,834
Wyoming.....	455	184	+14	104	271	2,525	812	-8	11,939
Colorado.....	1,589	1,175	+76	410	414	13,055	3,860	-22	62,355
New Mexico.....	803	386	+104	288	417	3,650	1,246	-4	26,975
Arizona.....	843	439	+6	211	404	5,658	2,674	+21	21,893
Utah.....	493	163	-16	75	330	9,197	1,898	+60	19,670
Nevada.....	729	508	+53	245	221	2,131	651	-4	4,323
Pacific.....	17,447	11,524	+34	5,852	5,923	119,512	39,846	-9	461,700
Washington.....	2,208	1,771	+158	1,005	437	9,636	4,982	-9	99,389
Oregon.....	3,656	2,387	+68	1,904	1,269	9,879	3,422	-17	59,262
California.....	11,583	7,366	+14	2,943	4,217	99,997	31,442	-8	303,049
Alaska.....	220	45	+41	15	175	849	407	+19	2,693
Hawaii.....	380	120	+2	43	260	1,507	1,359	+25	6,716

¹ Adjusted for number of working days in month.

TABLE 3.—Operations of United States Employment Service, March 1939—Continued

Division and State	Placements				Applications			Active file, Mar. 31, 1939
	Total	Private			Total	New		
		Number	Per cent of change from February ¹	Regular (over 1 month)		Number	Per cent of change from February ¹	
United States.....	92,623	91,696	+19	50,003	327,846	165,885	-11	1,429,312
New England.....	4,982	4,882	+18	3,082	25,768	13,171	+15	126,851
Maine.....	595	594	+22	439	2,708	784	+2	7,367
New Hampshire.....	453	443	+3	307	1,853	606	+4	6,486
Vermont.....	305	304	+34	194	923	297	-3	3,564
Massachusetts.....	1,391	1,380	+31	966	10,788	6,953	+23	70,501
Rhode Island.....	531	461	+6	264	4,470	2,501	+20	14,357
Connecticut.....	1,707	1,700	+14	912	5,016	2,030	+0	24,576
Middle Atlantic.....	16,996	16,871	+18	9,200	77,495	41,802	-27	399,635
New York.....	7,945	7,848	+2	3,848	31,623	18,322	-32	158,640
New Jersey.....	4,233	4,229	+60	2,311	17,553	10,381	-35	70,171
Pennsylvania.....	4,818	4,794	+21	3,041	28,319	13,099	-10	170,824
East North Central.....	21,512	21,289	+21	11,255	59,949	28,367	-7	243,195
Ohio.....	5,230	5,207	+44	2,544	17,425	8,955	-14	65,969
Indiana.....	4,448	4,351	+25	2,613	11,876	4,828	+4	36,613
Illinois.....	5,671	5,645	-0	2,599	10,506	5,328	+5	51,730
Michigan.....	3,475	3,457	+29	1,930	12,768	6,548	-13	60,131
Wisconsin.....	2,688	2,629	+18	1,569	7,374	2,708	-4	28,752
West North Central.....	9,574	9,469	+30	5,251	27,146	14,228	-2	123,622
Minnesota.....	1,929	1,904	+18	1,160	5,811	2,729	-10	38,967
Iowa.....	2,721	2,686	+27	1,195	5,499	2,563	-4	21,239
Missouri.....	2,385	2,380	+46	1,540	8,852	5,471	-1	33,126
North Dakota.....	658	649	+56	338	1,135	586	+26	5,792
South Dakota.....	505	501	+27	272	838	453	+13	6,887
Nebraska.....	611	589	+22	372	2,156	1,139	+5	8,880
Kansas.....	765	760	+17	426	2,855	1,287	-3	8,731
South Atlantic.....	9,833	9,705	+11	5,852	41,063	20,772	-16	177,639
Delaware.....	444	439	+7	210	928	490	-21	3,810
Maryland.....	924	924	+14	518	5,160	2,210	-17	15,520
District of Columbia.....	1,670	1,662	-9	842	3,835	1,657	-10	13,580
Virginia.....	1,264	1,254	+40	805	5,730	2,881	-9	12,660
West Virginia.....	1,320	1,313	+2	771	3,422	1,447	+1	13,253
North Carolina.....	2,371	2,340	+9	1,410	7,840	3,836	-23	41,033
South Carolina.....	658	458	+22	340	3,150	1,810	+18	24,267
Georgia.....	1,125	1,081	+15	823	8,553	4,857	-34	46,540
Florida.....	207	204	+224	133	2,445	1,584	+45	6,956
East South Central.....	3,799	3,765	+8	2,556	14,534	8,907	-8	86,278
Kentucky.....	777	761	+29	370	4,088	3,004	+6	21,643
Tennessee.....	1,865	1,865	+21	1,332	4,544	2,395	-15	27,818
Alabama.....	866	856	-20	657	3,641	2,032	-9	27,738
Mississippi.....	291	283	+3	197	2,261	1,476	-19	9,079
West South Central.....	13,702	13,646	+25	6,677	22,126	12,599	-7	93,307
Arkansas.....	1,170	1,163	+66	660	1,736	996	-7	10,173
Louisiana.....	1,885	1,870	+2	1,335	4,151	2,449	-10	22,785
Oklahoma.....	1,348	1,344	+24	514	3,869	2,086	-10	10,189
Texas.....	9,299	9,269	+27	4,168	12,370	7,068	-5	50,160
Mountain.....	3,347	3,277	+20	1,698	9,957	4,568	-9	33,808
Montana.....	317	288	+59	180	590	314	+18	4,405
Idaho.....	122	617	+20	329	958	570	+14	2,230
Wyoming.....	162	159	+51	69	597	320	-3	2,029
Colorado.....	969	952	+51	473	3,624	1,493	-19	12,724
New Mexico.....	318	316	+6	204	808	387	-16	4,824
Arizona.....	568	564	+6	247	1,133	611	-11	3,632
Utah.....	261	254	-27	107	1,820	668	-9	3,366
Nevada.....	230	227	+17	89	427	205	+13	598
Pacific.....	8,793	8,708	+8	4,386	49,553	21,249	+5	143,527
Washington.....	730	711	+43	414	3,511	2,318	+32	14,343
Oregon.....	517	510	+10	352	2,526	1,163	-12	12,805
California.....	7,546	7,487	+6	3,620	43,516	17,768	+4	116,379
Alaska.....	12	12	-29	6	67	46	-21	284
Hawaii.....	73	72	+14	40	188	176	+19	1,166

¹ Adjusted for number of working days in month.

TABLE 4.—Operations of United States Employment Service, March 1939

Division and State	Placements					Applications			Active file Mar. 31, 1939
	Total	Private			Public	Total	New		
		Number	Per- cent of change from February ¹	Regular (over 1 month)			Number	Per- cent of change from February ¹	
United States.....	11,720	6,768	+36	2,509	4,952	76,490	14,211	-7	360,650
New England.....	465	256	-2	169	209	4,474	840	+15	25,038
Maine.....	61	32	-1	21	29	1,068	58	-16	2,659
New Hampshire.....	57	46	-26	31	11	495	59	-2	2,064
Vermont.....	44	19	+36	12	25	125	27	-21	782
Massachusetts.....	136	44	+7	35	92	1,965	525	+30	15,166
Rhode Island.....	16	11	-27	5	5	230	45	-8	588
Connecticut.....	151	104	-5	65	47	591	126	+12	3,779
Middle Atlantic.....	827	485	+39	268	342	8,094	2,102	-15	62,845
New York.....	357	197	+3	90	160	1,697	734	-27	14,673
New Jersey.....	207	130	+73	84	77	1,680	377	-29	9,236
Pennsylvania.....	263	158	+95	94	105	4,717	991	+6	38,936
East North Central.....	1,614	1,078	+33	509	536	18,871	2,611	-12	91,851
Ohio.....	400	259	+60	77	141	4,874	902	-24	26,424
Indiana.....	198	175	+30	79	23	1,548	332	-30	11,612
Illinois.....	450	323	+15	151	127	3,794	470	+43	21,329
Michigan.....	324	202	+33	132	122	7,410	611	-10	22,356
Wisconsin.....	242	119	+47	70	123	1,245	296	-3	10,090
West North Central.....	1,506	830	+41	248	676	8,212	1,430	-6	42,539
Minnesota.....	173	102	+20	28	71	1,069	218	-15	13,559
Iowa.....	634	355	+13	84	279	1,568	293	+29	6,685
Missouri.....	261	171	+148	82	90	2,179	485	-23	10,853
North Dakota.....	39	24	+100	15	15	345	35	+17	1,766
South Dakota.....	62	33	+6	11	29	342	41	+46	2,256
Nebraska.....	193	71	+82	12	122	1,492	114	+16	3,507
Kansas.....	144	74	+95	16	70	1,217	244	-2	3,913
South Atlantic.....	1,875	753	+61	324	1,122	10,256	1,718	-4	34,472
Delaware.....	43	22	+69	13	21	197	14	-59	680
Maryland.....	235	94	+92	56	141	2,113	134	-19	5,203
District of Columbia.....	124	90	+43	24	34	524	167	-21	3,779
Virginia.....	350	116	+81	66	234	1,596	161	+4	2,385
West Virginia.....	143	74	+30	35	69	2,195	164	+23	5,757
North Carolina.....	434	155	+42	45	279	1,262	253	-6	3,888
South Carolina.....	163	47	+88	19	116	620	124	+13	4,314
Georgia.....	319	136	+66	55	183	854	256	-16	5,903
Florida.....	64	19	+217	11	45	895	445	+11	2,563
East South Central.....	714	264	+16	142	450	5,798	864	-17	22,701
Kentucky.....	124	31	+121	13	93	1,652	336	-23	6,720
Tennessee.....	250	91	+20	46	159	1,608	211	-14	6,896
Alabama.....	213	104	-19	61	109	1,188	175	-8	6,396
Mississippi.....	127	38	+280	22	89	1,350	142	-14	2,689
West South Central.....	2,036	1,432	+34	280	604	5,044	1,348	-12	25,910
Arkansas.....	257	168	+143	20	89	562	170	-18	4,110
Louisiana.....	197	134	-1	67	63	986	168	-20	6,342
Oklahoma.....	261	146	+106	14	115	1,855	449	-19	5,606
Texas.....	1,321	984	+24	179	337	1,641	561	+2	9,852
Mountain.....	782	427	+66	125	355	4,256	743	+3	15,166
Montana.....	141	46	+15	29	95	486	68	+36	2,208
Idaho.....	192	137	+174	28	55	450	98	-9	1,555
Wyoming.....	31	10	0	4	21	225	51	-7	990
Colorado.....	136	90	+105	22	46	1,144	181	-26	4,571
New Mexico.....	44	16	+33	13	28	360	51	-20	1,844
Arizona.....	83	44	-4	9	39	509	158	+34	1,894
Utah.....	78	30	-14	9	48	897	103	+119	1,814
Nevada.....	77	54	+157	11	23	185	38	-12	350
Pacific.....	1,857	1,231	+32	439	626	11,330	2,449	-3	39,483
Washington.....	186	146	+198	69	40	617	215	+1	7,878
Oregon.....	295	186	+102	139	109	1,047	133	+3	4,961
California.....	1,376	899	+14	231	477	9,666	2,101	-3	26,644
Alaska.....	14	2	0	1	12	67	33	+32	232
Hawaii.....	30	10	-29	4	20	88	73	+115	413

¹ Adjusted for number of working days in month.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, MARCH 1939¹

RESIDENTIAL construction activity, as measured by the value of building permits issued, continued to show marked gains, the increase in March 1939 from March 1938 amounting to 69.6 percent. The increase in residential construction occurred in all sections of the country. Six of the nine geographic divisions, the Middle Atlantic, East North Central, South Atlantic, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific, showed gains of more than 50 percent. Increases were also reported in other types of construction during March 1939 when compared with March a year ago. An increase of 31.4 percent occurred in new nonresidential construction, and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures showed a gain of 10.5 percent. Total building construction increased 44.4 percent.

There was an increase of 18.5 percent in the permit valuation for all types of building construction comparing March with February. Permit valuations for new residential buildings showed an increase of 10.0 percent, while there was a gain of 40.1 percent in indicated expenditures for new nonresidential buildings and of 17.1 percent in permit valuations for additions, alterations, and repairs.

Comparison of March 1939 with February 1939 and March 1938

A summary of building construction in 2,131 identical cities in March 1939, February 1939, and March 1938 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in 2,131 Identical Cities, March 1938, February and March 1939*

Class of construction	Bumber of buildings			Permit valuation		
	March 1939	Percent of change from—		March 1939	Percent of change from—	
		Febru- ary 1939	March 1938		Febru- ary 1939	March 1938
All construction.....	61,613	+65.2	+8.6	\$175,398,282	+18.5	+44.4
New residential.....	18,277	+62.4	+49.7	95,288,407	+10.0	+69.6
New nonresidential.....	10,331	+84.5	+6.9	50,357,102	+40.1	+31.4
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	33,005	+61.4	-5.4	29,752,773	+17.1	+10.5

¹ More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, March 1939," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 2,131 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for March 1939, compared with February 1939 and March 1938.

TABLE 2.—Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,131 Identical Cities, March 1938, February and March 1939

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	March 1939	Percent of change from—		March 1939	Percent of change from—	
		February 1939	March 1938		February 1939	March 1938
All types.....	\$94,437,695	+9.7	+69.9	25,685	+4.6	+72.8
1-family.....	67,088,285	+66.6	+49.0	16,894	+62.6	+49.4
2-family ¹	3,372,831	+62.7	+10.0	1,305	+71.3	+15.8
Multifamily ²	23,976,579	-45.2	+219.7	7,486	-44.1	+208.1

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 3 Months, 1938 and 1939

Cumulative totals for the first 3 months of 1939 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction, First 3 Months of 1938 and of 1939, by Class of Construction

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 3 months of—		
	1939	1938	Percent of change
All construction.....	\$479,812,669	\$401,081,410	+19.6
New residential.....	254,254,433	189,191,905	+34.4
New nonresidential.....	145,898,106	136,596,096	+6.8
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	79,660,130	75,293,409	+5.8

Table 4 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over for the first 3 months of 1938 and 1939.

TABLE 4.—Permit Valuation and Number of Family-Dwelling Units, First 3 Months of 1938 and of 1939, by Type of Dwelling

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for		
	First 3 months of—		Per- cent of change	First 3 months of—		Per- cent of change
	1939	1938		1939	1938	
All types.....	\$251,489,613	\$188,142,252	+33.7	71,295	54,784	+30.1
1-family.....	148,467,010	97,227,902	+52.7	38,097	25,473	+49.6
2-family ¹	7,475,016	7,794,940	-4.1	2,932	3,096	-5.3
Multifamily ²	95,547,587	83,119,410	+15.0	30,266	26,215	+15.5

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Analysis by Size of City, March 1939

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in March 1939 compared with February 1939 and March 1938, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Size of City, March 1938, February and March 1939

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, March 1939	Percent of change from—		Permit valuation, March 1939	Percent of change from—	
			February 1939	March 1938		February 1939	March 1938
All reporting cities.....	2,131	\$175,398,282	+18.5	+44.4	\$95,288,407	+10.0	+69.6
500,000 and over.....	14	57,455,867	-13.8	+51.4	36,021,122	-28.9	+114.1
100,000 and under 500,000.....	79	36,266,329	+22.9	+26.8	21,409,881	+78.2	+77.4
50,000 and under 100,000.....	95	17,221,812	+39.8	+48.2	7,031,003	+25.8	+52.3
25,000 and under 50,000.....	165	15,492,666	+36.2	+46.0	7,233,513	+62.2	+51.7
10,000 and under 25,000.....	447	25,147,547	+59.0	+45.3	11,220,955	+55.8	+31.8
5,000 and under 10,000.....	389	11,979,315	+77.3	+52.2	6,224,329	+64.2	+41.1
2,500 and under 5,000.....	464	8,477,802	+114.4	+67.5	4,032,236	+106.9	+15.4
1,000 and under 2,500.....	478	3,356,944	+112.7	+38.0	2,095,368	+27.7	+42.6

Size of city	New nonresidential buildings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Population (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, March 1939	Percent of change from—		Permit valuation, March 1939	Percent of change from—		
		February 1939	March 1938		February 1939	March 1938	
All reporting cities.....	\$50,357,102	+40.1	+31.4	\$29,752,773	+17.1	+10.5	60,695,580
500,000 and over.....	12,173,293	+77.8	(1)	9,261,452	+1.6	+3.6	21,449,853
100,000 and under 500,000.....	8,225,166	-25.4	-13.0	6,631,282	+3.1	-6.3	15,017,880
50,000 and under 100,000.....	5,967,412	+55.2	+50.5	4,223,397	+46.4	+39.0	6,342,063
25,000 and under 50,000.....	5,526,261	+6.7	+65.7	2,712,892	+57.2	+8.7	5,811,006
10,000 and under 25,000.....	9,701,469	+95.1	+79.6	4,225,123	+15.9	+24.5	6,902,766
5,000 and under 10,000.....	4,102,223	+94.4	+87.4	1,652,763	+92.8	+30.3	2,745,990
2,500 and under 5,000.....	3,752,435	+168.8	+252.0	693,131	+13.7	+38.2	1,662,351
1,000 and under 2,500.....	908,843	+71.8	+21.8	352,733	+173.1	+62.2	763,671

¹ Decrease less than 1/2 of 1 percent.

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,131 identical cities reporting for February and March 1939, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,131 Identical Cities, by Size of City, February and March 1939

Size of city	Permit valuation of house-keeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	March 1939	February 1939	Percent of change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings ¹		Multifamily dwellings ²	
				Mar. 1939	Feb. 1939	Mar. 1939	Feb. 1939	Mar. 1939	Feb. 1939	Mar. 1939	Feb. 1939
All reporting cities..	\$94,437,695	\$86,118,818	+9.7	25,685	24,551	16,894	10,390	1,305	762	7,486	13,399
500,000 and over.....	35,944,772	50,462,638	-28.8	9,709	14,350	4,743	2,814	396	198	4,570	11,338
100,000 and under 500,000.....	21,405,381	11,960,684	+79.0	5,635	3,374	3,379	2,266	284	200	1,972	908
50,000 and under 100,000.....	6,531,003	5,375,091	+21.5	1,776	1,578	1,388	861	190	102	198	615
25,000 and under 50,000.....	7,231,751	4,463,394	+62.0	2,065	1,244	1,685	945	120	63	260	236
10,000 and under 25,000.....	11,073,855	7,200,932	+53.8	3,091	2,045	2,694	1,761	157	109	240	175
5,000 and under 10,000.....	6,181,329	3,788,506	+63.2	1,755	1,083	1,499	960	94	50	162	73
2,500 and under 5,000.....	4,017,236	1,948,252	+106.2	1,098	589	996	531	40	23	62	35
1,000 and under 2,500.....	2,052,368	919,321	+123.2	556	288	510	252	24	17	22	19

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,131 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For March 1939 the value of these buildings amounted to \$12,694,000, for February 1939 to \$18,028,000, and for March 1938 to \$6,809,000.

Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during March 1939, February 1939, and March 1938 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, February and March 1939 and March 1938¹

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started—		
	March 1939	February 1939 ²	March 1938 ³
Total.....	\$57,818,172	\$135,055,691	\$85,106,686
Public Works Administration:			
Federal.....	900,211	5,176,897	762,774
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.....	1,367,966	711,061	2,081,796
E. R. A. A.....	1,156,089	2,273,624	27,060,043
P. W. A. A.....	7,303,542	46,886,986	(³)
Federal projects under The Works Program.....	1,558,053	6,474,403	13,116,053
Regular Federal appropriations.....	40,556,765	72,278,036	42,086,020
U. S. Housing Authority.....	4,975,546	1,254,684	(³)

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.² Revised.³ No data until July 1938.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for March 1939, February 1939, and March 1938 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
March 1939.....	\$1,684,325	\$993,021
February 1939.....	898,875	1,686,685
March 1938.....	2,210,640	4,142,219

Retail Prices

SUMMARY OF FOOD, ELECTRICITY, AND GAS PRICES

RETAIL costs of food for 51 cities combined declined slightly between February and March 1939, due principally to continued reductions in costs of dairy products and eggs, and a drop of 4.8 percent in the average price of potatoes. Decreases in the all-foods index were reported for 36 of the 51 cities. Reductions in residential rates for electricity between December 1938 and March 1939 were reported for two cities and lower costs for another city resulted from the discontinuation of a city sales tax. Changes in costs of gas during the quarter were reported for residential customers in four cities. Rate changes occurred in two cities—one an advance and one a reduction. In one city costs were lowered by the discontinuation of a city sales tax, and in one the heating value of gas was lowered slightly thereby increasing the cost to the consumer.

FOOD PRICES IN MARCH 1939

RETAIL costs of food declined 0.5 percent between February and March with lower costs reported for six of the eight major commodity groups. Meats advanced slightly and fruits and vegetables showed no change.

The all-foods index for March was 76.4 percent of the 1923–25 average. It was 2.7 percent lower than in March 1938 when the index stood at 78.6. The six commodity groups which decreased during the month also showed lower costs for the year, ranging from 0.6 percent for eggs to 8.5 percent for fats and oils. Meats and fruits and vegetables advanced 0.7 percent and 4.3 percent, respectively.

The March index for all foods was 27.9 percent above the level of the corresponding month of 1933 when the index was 59.8. It was 24.6 percent below the level of March 1929 when the index stood at 101.4.

Details by Commodity Groups

The cost of cereals and bakery products declined 0.2 percent between February and March. Price decreases were reported for each of the 13 items in the group, the greatest of which were 1.3 percent for corn meal and 1.0 percent for soda crackers. Flour and white bread prices continued their downward movement with a decline of 0.1 percent each. Decreases for the year amounted to 14.2 percent for flour and 9.4 percent for white bread.

Meat costs, with an increase of 0.2 percent, recorded an advance for the third consecutive month. The March index for the group was 1.0 percent higher than in December 1938. The cost of beef rose 0.3 percent between February and March, due to price advances for four of the six cuts included in this subgroup. Rib roast and chuck declined slightly. Veal cutlets dropped 1.1 percent. Prices for fresh pork advanced 2.7 percent for chops and 3.1 percent for loin roast. All cured pork products, except whole ham, showed decreases ranging from 0.2 percent for strip bacon to 1.1 percent for sliced bacon. The price of whole ham advanced slightly. Lamb costs declined 1.1 percent; roasting chickens showed an increase of 0.5 percent; and canned salmon fell off 0.9 percent.

The cost of dairy products dropped 1.8 percent and reached the lowest March level since 1934. Price decreases reported for all items in the group ranged from 0.3 percent for evaporated milk to 4.6 percent for butter. Lower prices for butter were reported for 45 of the 51 cities. The average price of fresh milk declined 0.7 percent due to reductions of 1 cent per quart in Cleveland, Rochester, and San Francisco.

The decrease of 2.9 percent in the cost of eggs was considerably less than the usual seasonal decline. The price in March 1939 was 0.6 percent below the level of March 1938.

The index for fruits and vegetables for March showed no change for the month. The average cost for fresh items tended slightly upward, canned products showed no change, and dried items decreased slightly. An increase of 0.1 percent in the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables reflected divergent price movements for items within the group. Advances of 4.5 percent were reported for onions and 10.9 percent for cabbage, while lettuce and green beans increased 5.1 and 35.9 percent, respectively. On the other hand, potatoes, the most important item in the group, declined 4.8 percent, and decreases for carrots, celery, and spinach ranged between 4.2 and 5.0 percent. Less change was reported in prices for fresh fruits. Apples advanced 2.5 percent and lemons 1.0 percent, while bananas and oranges were slightly lower. Price changes for canned products were relatively unimportant, and the average cost of this sub-group showed no change in March as compared with February. The decrease of 0.5 percent

for dried fruits and vegetables reflected a decline of 2.1 percent in the price of navy beans.

The cost of beverages and chocolate declined 0.2 percent. Price decreases of 0.2 percent for coffee and 0.4 percent for tea more than offset the small increases reported for cocoa and chocolate.

A continuation of the downward trend in the cost of fats and oils amounted to 0.9 percent between February and March. Price decreases reported for all items in the group ranged from 0.1 percent for mayonnaise to 1.8 percent for shortening in cartons. Lard dropped 1.4 percent and was 18.6 percent below the level of March 1938.

The cost of sugar and sweets declined 0.1 percent between February and March and a like decrease was reported in the price of sugar. Prices of other items in the group also tended slightly downward.

Indexes of retail costs of food for March and February 1939, together with indexes for March 1938, 1933, and 1929, are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows the trend in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 to March 1939, inclusive.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, March and February 1939 and March 1938, 1933, and 1929*

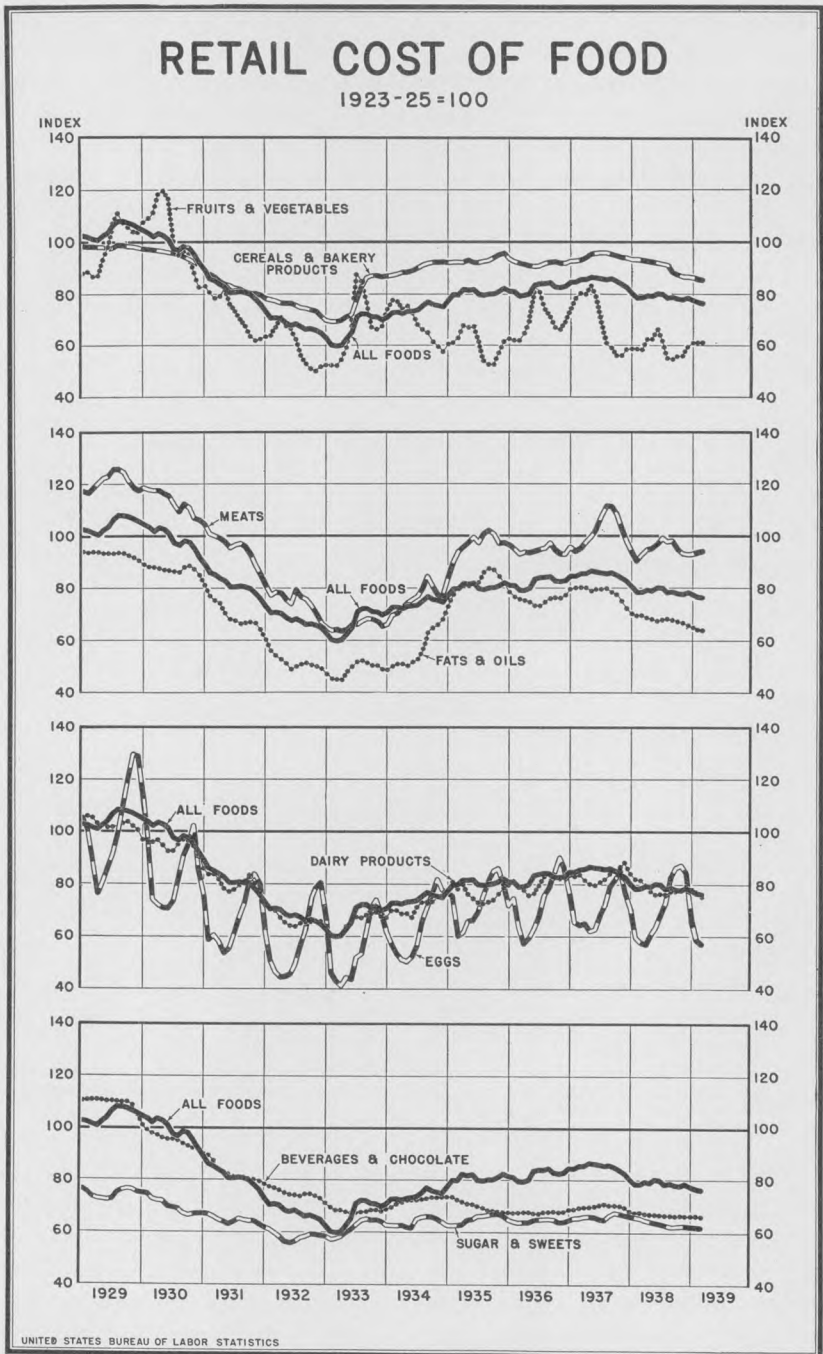
(1923-25=100)

Commodity group	1939		1938	1933	1929
	Mar. 14 ¹	Feb. 14	Mar. 15	Mar. 15	Mar. 15
All foods.....	76.4	76.8	78.6	59.8	101.4
Cereals and bakery products.....	85.4	85.6	92.9	69.3	98.2
Meats.....	93.6	93.4	92.9	64.2	118.6
Dairy products.....	75.7	77.1	81.4	59.8	105.2
Eggs.....	57.0	58.7	57.4	42.7	87.4
Fruits and vegetables.....	61.0	61.0	58.5	52.1	86.9
Fresh.....	60.0	60.0	56.6	51.4	84.7
Canned.....	74.1	74.1	79.1	65.3	97.1
Dried.....	56.6	56.9	59.9	47.3	101.3
Beverages and chocolate.....	66.0	66.2	67.7	68.5	110.9
Fats and oils.....	63.6	64.1	69.5	45.0	93.8
Sugar and sweets.....	61.9	62.0	65.6	57.4	73.5

¹ Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined with the use of population weights.

² Preliminary.

Prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities are combined with the use of both consumption and population weights. Quantity weights for each food include the average family consumption in each city, not only of the food priced, but for groups of foods which are related in kind and which seem to follow the same price trend. These weights are based on the cost of living study of 1917-19. Population weights are averages of the population in 1920 and 1930 for each city, including adjacent metropolitan areas and cities of over 50,000 in the same region.



Prices of 58 of the 84 foods included in the index were lower in March than in February, 25 were higher, and 1 was unchanged. Compared with March 1938, 66 foods cost less, 17 cost more, and 1 was unchanged.

Average prices of each of the 84 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for March and February 1939, and March 1938.

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, March and February 1939 and March 1938

[*Indicates the foods included in indexes prior to Jan. 1, 1935]

Article	1939		1938
	Mar. 14 ¹	Feb. 14	Mar. 15
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
*Flour, wheat.....pound..	3.6	3.6	4.2
*Macaroni.....do.....	14.3	14.4	14.9
*Wheat cereal.....28-oz. package..	24.1	24.4	24.5
*Corn flakes.....8-oz. package..	7.2	7.3	7.5
*Corn meal.....pound..	4.5	4.6	4.8
Hominy grits.....24-oz. package..	8.4	8.5	8.8
*Rice.....pound..	7.5	7.6	7.9
*Rolled oats.....do.....	7.1	7.1	7.2
Bakery products:			
*Bread, white.....do.....	8.0	8.0	8.9
Bread, whole-wheat.....do.....	9.2	9.2	9.8
Bread, rye.....do.....	9.3	9.3	10.1
Cake.....do.....	25.1	25.1	24.7
Soda crackers.....do.....	15.2	15.3	16.4
Meats:			
Beef:			
*Sirloin steak.....do.....	39.2	39.0	34.6
*Round steak.....do.....	35.8	35.7	32.1
*Rib roast.....do.....	30.0	30.1	27.9
*Chuck roast.....do.....	23.7	23.7	21.4
*Plate.....do.....	15.8	15.7	14.7
Liver.....do.....	26.1	25.8	24.6
Veal:			
Cutlets.....do.....	43.2	43.7	43.0
Pork:			
*Chops.....do.....	30.2	29.4	31.9
Loin roast.....do.....	24.2	23.4	26.6
*Bacon, sliced.....do.....	34.1	34.5	37.5
Bacon, strip.....do.....	28.9	29.0	31.6
*Ham, sliced.....do.....	46.6	47.0	45.3
Ham, whole.....do.....	28.2	28.1	28.2
Salt pork.....do.....	19.1	19.2	20.8
Lamb:			
Breast.....do.....	12.2	12.8	12.8
Chuck.....do.....	21.1	21.3	22.2
*Leg.....do.....	27.5	27.9	28.2
Rib chops.....do.....	35.0	34.9	35.5
Poultry:			
*Roasting chickens.....do.....	30.9	30.8	35.3
Fish:			
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can..	12.5	12.5	14.0
*Salmon, red.....do.....	22.8	23.3	26.8
Dairy products:			
*Butter.....pound..	31.5	33.0	37.0
*Cheese.....do.....	24.7	25.0	28.1
Cream..... $\frac{1}{4}$ pint..	14.3	14.4	14.9
Milk, fresh (delivered and store).....quart..	12.1	12.2	12.4
*Milk, fresh (delivered).....do.....	12.4	12.5	12.7
Milk, fresh (store).....do.....	11.4	11.5	11.8
*Milk, evaporated.....14 $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz. can..	6.8	6.9	7.4
*Eggs.....dozen..	29.0	29.9	29.2
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound..	5.4	5.3	4.4
*Bananas.....do.....	6.2	6.3	6.3
Lemons.....dozen..	24.3	24.1	27.7
*Oranges.....do.....	23.4	23.6	24.4
Beans, green.....pound..	16.7	12.3	13.4
*Cabbage.....do.....	3.8	3.4	4.5

Preliminary.

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 84 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, March and February 1939 and March 1938—Continued

Article	1939		1938
	Mar. 14	Feb. 14	Mar. 15
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.			
Fresh—Continued.			
Carrots.....bunch.....	Cents 5.3	Cents 5.6	Cents 5.4
Celery.....stalk.....	7.9	8.3	8.2
Lettuce.....head.....	8.6	8.1	7.8
*Onions.....pound.....	4.1	4.0	4.6
*Potatoes.....do.....	2.3	2.4	2.1
Spinach.....do.....	6.5	6.8	6.3
Sweet potatoes.....do.....	4.2	4.1	3.9
Canned: ¹			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can.....	16.7	16.7	19.5
Pears.....do.....	20.3	20.4	21.7
Pineapple.....do.....	21.3	21.3	23.2
Asparagus.....No. 2 can.....	27.8	27.9	30.5
Beans, green.....do.....	10.4	10.4	11.6
*Beans with pork.....16-oz. can.....	7.3	7.2	7.5
*Corn.....No. 2 can.....	11.4	11.4	11.9
*Peas.....do.....	13.5	13.6	15.5
*Tomatoes.....do.....	8.5	8.6	8.9
Tomato soup.....10½-oz. can.....	7.4	7.4	7.5
Dried:			
Peaches.....pound.....	14.9	14.8	15.8
*Prunes.....do.....	9.1	9.1	9.3
*Raisins.....15-oz. package.....	9.4	9.4	10.0
Black-eyed peas.....pound.....	7.7	7.8	7.8
Lima beans.....do.....	9.0	8.9	9.3
*Navy beans.....do.....	5.8	5.9	6.4
Beverages and chocolate:			
*Coffee.....do.....	22.8	22.8	23.6
*Tea.....¼ pound.....	17.6	17.6	17.7
Cocoa.....8-oz. can.....	8.5	8.5	8.8
Chocolate.....8-oz. package.....	16.1	16.1	16.1
Fats and oils:			
*Lard.....pound.....	11.0	11.2	13.6
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do.....	12.5	12.7	13.2
In other containers.....do.....	20.3	20.5	19.5
Salad oil.....pint.....	24.3	24.4	24.8
Mayonnaise.....½ pint.....	17.2	17.2	17.5
*Oleomargarine.....pound.....	16.4	16.6	17.6
Peanut butter.....do.....	18.0	18.1	18.7
Sugar and sweets:			
*Sugar.....do.....	5.1	5.1	5.5
Corn sirup.....24-oz. can.....	13.8	13.8	14.1
Molasses.....18-oz. can.....	13.5	13.6	14.0
Strawberry preserves.....pound.....	20.8	20.9	22.1

¹ New specifications for canned goods were used in the collection of prices for March. Adjustments on the basis of these specifications for February resulted in the indicated revisions. No adjustments have been made for earlier periods.

Details by Cities

The cost of all foods for March was lower than in February in 36 of the 51 cities, higher in 13, and showed no change in 2. Decreases of 1.0 percent or more were reported for seven cities. The greatest of these, 1.5 percent, were shown for Portland (Maine) Washington (D. C.), and Memphis. In each of these three cities, the decrease in the cost of eggs was greater than the average for the country as a whole. In Portland and Washington potato prices dropped 13.1 percent and 16.1 percent, respectively. Lower meat costs was the major factor in the decline for Memphis. San Francisco showed a decrease of 1.4 percent for all foods, due principally to reductions in prices of important dairy products. Butter decreased 5.7 percent and milk was down 1 cent per quart. Butte reported the largest in-

crease, 1.1 percent. Columbus ranked second with an advance of 1.0 percent. In both of these cities, increases in meat prices were greater than for the 51 cities combined. In Butte the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables advanced 4.0 percent, and the price of butter rose 1.8 percent, contrary to the general movement.

Indexes of retail food costs by regions and cities are presented in table 3 for March and February 1939 and March 1938.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities,¹ March and February 1939 and March 1938

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1939		1938	Region and city	1939		1938
	Mar. 14 ²	Feb. 14	Mar. 15		Mar. 14 ²	Feb. 14	Mar. 15
United States.....	76.4	76.8	76.6	West North Central—Con.			
New England.....	74.6	74.8	76.3	St. Louis.....	82.0	82.2	83.6
Boston.....	73.1	73.4	74.0	St. Paul.....	79.0	79.2	80.3
Bridgeport.....	78.7	79.0	82.3	South Atlantic.....	75.3	75.9	77.1
Fall River.....	77.8	77.9	79.5	Atlanta.....	70.5	70.9	71.5
Manchester.....	78.1	78.5	79.6	Baltimore.....	81.6	82.5	82.8
New Haven.....	77.8	77.6	80.8	Charleston, S. C.....	75.8	76.2	77.9
Portland, Maine.....	74.8	76.0	77.6	Jacksonville.....	73.7	73.6	76.0
Providence.....	73.3	73.1	76.2	Norfolk.....	73.5	73.7	76.1
Middle Atlantic.....	77.3	77.8	79.3	Richmond.....	69.4	69.9	72.2
Buffalo.....	76.8	77.1	78.0	Savannah.....	74.5	74.9	77.6
Newark.....	79.6	79.7	80.6	Washington, D. C.....	78.0	79.2	79.6
New York.....	78.9	79.8	79.9	East South Central.....	70.5	70.6	73.0
Philadelphia.....	77.9	77.8	80.0	Birmingham.....	65.7	65.4	68.4
Pittsburgh.....	72.7	72.9	78.2	Louisville.....	80.6	81.1	82.6
Rochester.....	76.8	77.4	78.2	Memphis.....	71.7	72.8	74.9
Scranton.....	73.1	73.6	75.5	Mobile.....	73.4	73.0	75.1
East North Central.....	76.6	77.1	79.7	West South Central.....	74.2	74.4	77.2
Chicago.....	76.3	77.2	79.9	Dallas.....	68.5	68.6	73.6
Cincinnati.....	76.0	75.9	79.4	Houston.....	74.7	75.4	77.5
Cleveland.....	78.9	79.2	79.8	Little Rock.....	71.3	72.0	73.9
Columbus, Ohio.....	77.2	76.4	77.3	New Orleans.....	82.2	82.1	82.5
Detroit.....	75.2	75.9	80.2	Mountain.....	78.5	78.5	81.1
Indianapolis.....	76.8	³ 86.6	78.2	Butte.....	74.5	73.7	77.6
Milwaukee.....	80.2	80.2	83.7	Denver.....	81.2	81.4	84.0
Peoria.....	78.0	77.9	79.0	Salt Lake City.....	74.7	74.8	77.0
Springfield, Ill.....	75.8	75.9	75.9	Pacific.....	75.8	76.3	76.7
West North Central.....	79.8	79.8	81.0	Los Angeles.....	71.4	71.5	71.5
Kansas City.....	78.5	78.1	78.6	Portland, Oreg.....	78.4	79.1	80.3
Minneapolis.....	83.2	83.5	84.1	San Francisco.....	79.5	80.6	81.1
Omaha.....	74.4	73.9	76.5	Seattle.....	78.1	78.4	79.1

¹ Aggregate costs of 42 foods in each city prior to Jan. 1, 1935, and of 84 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for regions and for the United States with the use of population weights.

² Preliminary.

³ Revised.



ELECTRICITY AND GAS

Price Changes Between December 1938 and March 1939

RESIDENTIAL rates for electricity and gas are secured quarterly from cities included in the composite indexes for all foods. These rates are used in the computation of series of prices both for electricity and for gas. The blocks of consumption which have been selected as the bases of these prices are representative of average conditions throughout the country.

ELECTRICITY

Prices of electricity are based upon the monthly use of 25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small energy-consuming appliances; 100 kilowatt-hours for greater use of lighting and small appliances, and an electric refrigerator; and 250 kilowatt-hours for a still greater use of lighting, a larger number of small appliances, and both an electric refrigerator and an electric range.

With this issue of "Retail Prices," the Bureau discontinues the use of 40 kilowatt-hours in reporting price changes for electricity. Experience has shown that 25, 100, and 250 kilowatt-hours are representative of the urban consumption of electricity and that these blocks of consumption are adequate for measuring price changes from period to period.

There were reductions in residential rates between December 1938 and March 1939 in Denver and Washington (D. C.). In Denver customers using small amounts of electricity received the greatest benefits. Decreases of 16.7 percent were reported for the monthly use of 25 kilowatt-hours; 8.3 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours and 10.8 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours. In Washington only those customers using more than 46 kilowatt-hours were benefited. Decreases amounted to 4.8 percent for 100 kilowatt-hours, and 1.7 percent for 250 kilowatt-hours. The discontinuation of a 2 percent sales tax in Philadelphia provided lower costs to customers in that city.

GAS

The prices of gas are based upon 10.6 therms for the use of a range; 19.6 therms for range and manual type water heater; 30.6 therms for range and automatic storage or instantaneous type water heater; and 40.6 therms for range, automatic water heater, and gas refrigerator.

Four cities reported changes in prices of gas between December 1938 and March 1939. The most significant change occurred in Cleveland, where a substantial advance in the cost of natural gas was recorded. An increase in the initial charge raised the cost approximately 75 percent for the monthly use of 19.6 therms; 48 percent for 10.6 therms and 30.6 therms; and 35 percent for 40.6 therms. A slight advance was reported for Pittsburgh. A decrease in the heating value of the natural gas served by one company in that city resulted in an advance of about 0.6 percent to their customers using a greater amount of gas than that covered by the minimum bill. In Minneapolis a rate decrease for mixed manufactured and natural gas provided gradually increasing benefits as the consumption increased. The decreases ranged from 0.9 percent for 10.6 therms to 1.7 percent for 40.6 therms. In Philadelphia the decrease of 2.0 percent represented the discontinuation of the city sales tax.

A slight increase in the heating value of natural gas was reported for Detroit. This change was not reflected in net monthly bills, since gas is sold in that city on the basis of heat content instead of by quantity expressed in cubic feet, as is the practice in a majority of the cities. Beginning with December 1936, prices published by this Bureau for Detroit have been based upon the "Promotional" rate. The "Immediate" rate, which has also been in effect since that date, was a continuation of rates in effect prior to that time. It was applicable for all customers whose use of gas was less than that covered by the base bill as set up by the company for each individual customer.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN MARCH 1939¹

WEAKENING prices for farm products and foods largely accounted for a decline of 0.3 percent in the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of wholesale commodity prices during March. The decline brought the combined index of 813 price series to 76.7 percent of the 1926 average, the lowest level reached since November 1934. The all-commodity index was 3.8 percent lower than a year ago.

In addition to the decline of approximately 2 percent for both the farm products and foods groups, hides and leather products dropped 0.1 percent. Textile products and miscellaneous commodities, on the other hand, advanced 0.8 percent, chemicals and drugs increased 0.3 percent, building materials rose 0.2 percent, and fuel and lighting materials gained 0.1 percent. The metals and metal products and housefurnishing goods groups remained unchanged at the February level. Each of the 10 major commodity groups was lower than it was a year ago. The decreases ranged from 0.4 percent for miscellaneous commodities to 6.4 percent for farm products.

Average wholesale prices of raw materials declined 1.1 percent to the lowest point since July 1934. The group index, 70.1, was 4.2 percent below the March 1938 level. The semimanufactured commodities group index, 74.6, advanced 0.3 percent, but was 1.3 percent lower than a year ago. The index for the larger group of finished products remained unchanged at 80.2 percent of the 1926 average. It was 3.8 percent under the March 1938 index.

According to the index for "All commodities other than farm products," nonagricultural commodity prices advanced 0.1 percent during the month. Prices of industrial commodities, as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods," rose 0.2 percent. Compared with a year ago prices of nonagricultural commodities were 3.2 percent lower and industrial commodities 2.7 percent lower.

Decreases of 0.4 percent for grains, 1.3 percent for livestock and poultry, and 3.0 percent for "Other farm products" caused the farm products group index to fall 2.1 percent. Sharp decreases were re-

¹ More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

ported in prices of barley, wheat, rye, calves, hogs, milk, peanuts, eggs, potatoes, and wool. Quotations were higher for cows, apples, oranges, hops, and onions. The farm products index for March was 6.4 percent below the March 1938 level.

Average wholesale prices of foods declined 1.8 percent to the lowest level reached since June 1934. The decline was largely the result of decreases of 9.5 percent for dairy products, 0.8 percent for meats, and 0.6 percent for cereal products. Lower prices were reported for butter, flour, veal, lamb, cured and fresh pork, coffee, lard, and pepper. The fruits and vegetables subgroup advanced 1.8 percent. Prices were higher for canned and dried fruits, oatmeal, macaroni, corn meal, mutton, copra, and edible tallow. The index for the foods group, 70.2, was 4.5 percent lower than it was a year ago.

Weakening prices for side and sole leather caused the hides and leather products group index to decline 0.1 percent. Average wholesale prices of hides, shoes, and luggage were higher.

The textile products group index rose 0.8 percent to the highest point reached since last April. Advancing prices for raw silk, silk yarns, silk hosiery, dress serge, and suiting were responsible for the increases. Quotations on sisal and burlap were lower.

In the fuel and lighting materials group, seasonal declines in prices of coal were more than offset by higher prices for Pennsylvania crude petroleum, kerosene, and Oklahoma and North Texas gasoline, with the result that the group index advanced 0.1 percent. Wholesale prices of coke were steady.

Advances of 0.1 percent in the nonferrous metals and plumbing and heating subgroups did not affect the metals and metal products group index as a whole. It remained at 94.3 percent of the 1926 average. The agricultural implements, iron and steel, and motor vehicles subgroups remained unchanged at the February levels.

Average wholesale prices of building materials rose 0.2 percent as a result of higher prices for brick, white lead, linseed oil, rosin, turpentine, window glass, and sewer pipe. Prices were lower for yellow pine timbers and shellac. Structural steel prices did not change.

The chemicals and drugs group index advanced 0.3 percent primarily because of higher prices of fats, oils, tankage, and mixed fertilizers. Lower prices for chlorine and castor oil caused the drugs and pharmaceuticals subgroup to decline 0.7 percent.

A decline in wholesale prices of cotton blankets did not affect the index for the housefurnishing goods group as a whole. It remained unchanged at 85.2. No changes were reported in prices of furniture.

In the miscellaneous commodities group, cattle feed prices advanced 7.5 percent, automobile tires and tubes increased 1.3 percent, crude rubber rose 1.2 percent, and paper and pulp increased 0.2 percent. Wholesale prices of soap, cylinder oil, and paraffin wax were also higher.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for February and March 1939 and March 1938 are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities
[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	March 1939	February 1939	March 1938	Group and subgroup	March 1939	February 1939	March 1938
All commodities.....	76.7	76.9	79.7	Metals—Continued.			
Farm products.....	65.8	67.2	70.3	Motor vehicles ¹	93.4	93.4	95.6
Grains.....	54.5	54.7	69.0	Nonferrous metals.....	76.6	76.5	71.6
Livestock and poultry.....	78.2	79.2	82.7	Plumbing and heating..	79.3	79.2	78.9
Other farm products.....	61.0	62.9	62.8	Building materials.....	89.8	89.6	91.5
Foods.....	70.2	71.5	73.5	Brick and tile.....	92.5	92.4	91.1
Dairy products.....	64.8	71.6	76.7	Cement.....	91.5	91.2	89.8
Cereal products.....	72.3	72.7	80.9	Lumber.....	92.1	92.6	91.3
Fruits and vegetables.....	63.2	62.1	56.5	Paint and paint materials.....	81.5	80.5	82.2
Meats.....	82.5	83.2	81.6	Plumbing and heating..	79.3	79.2	78.9
Other foods.....	61.9	61.7	65.9	Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	114.9
Hides and leather products..	91.8	91.9	93.6	Other building materials	89.8	89.3	94.8
Shoes.....	101.2	101.1	104.6	Chemicals and drugs.....	76.5	76.3	78.7
Hides and skins.....	73.8	72.8	69.5	Chemicals.....	79.9	79.4	83.2
Leather.....	82.7	84.2	83.3	Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	72.2	72.7	73.8
Other leather products..	95.6	95.3	102.2	Fertilizer materials.....	69.7	69.3	71.8
Textile products.....	66.6	66.1	68.2	Mixed fertilizers.....	73.8	73.7	71.6
Clothing.....	81.5	81.5	84.6	Housefurnishing goods.....	85.2	85.2	87.7
Cotton goods.....	63.7	63.7	67.5	Furnishings.....	89.7	89.8	91.6
Hosiery and underwear..	59.9	58.8	60.2	Furniture.....	80.5	80.5	83.7
Silk and rayon.....	36.1	34.7	28.8	Miscellaneous.....	74.1	73.5	74.4
Woolen and worsted goods.....	75.1	74.7	80.2	Automobile tires and tubes.....	60.5	59.7	57.4
Other textile products..	64.3	64.5	67.0	Cattle feed.....	84.1	78.2	85.1
Fuel and lighting materials..	73.1	73.0	77.7	Paper and pulp.....	81.3	81.1	88.8
Anthracite.....	79.4	79.9	79.3	Rubber, crude.....	34.1	33.7	28.4
Bituminous coal.....	97.9	98.1	99.5	Other miscellaneous....	81.3	81.2	82.1
Coke.....	104.2	104.2	105.5	Raw materials.....	70.1	70.9	73.2
Electricity.....	(1)	(1)	86.8	Semimanufactured articles..	74.6	74.4	75.6
Gas.....	(1)	(1)	83.4	Finished products.....	80.2	80.2	83.4
Petroleum products.....	50.9	50.7	57.9	All commodities other than farm products.....	79.0	78.9	81.6
Metals and metal products...	94.3	94.3	96.0	All commodities other than farm products and foods...	80.4	80.2	82.6
Agricultural implements..	93.2	93.2	96.2				
Farm machinery.....	94.5	94.5	97.7				
Iron and steel.....	96.1	96.1	99.4				

¹ Data not available.

² Preliminary revision.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to March 1939

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1938, inclusive, and by months from March 1938 to March 1939, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, finished products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Finished products" was given in the December 1938 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and drugs	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.2	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.5	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.6	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	80.4	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	83.9	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.6	86.8	73.3	78.6
By months:											
1938:											
March.....	70.3	73.5	93.6	68.2	77.7	96.0	91.5	78.7	87.7	74.4	79.7
April.....	68.4	72.3	92.1	67.2	76.8	96.3	91.2	77.5	87.3	73.4	78.7
May.....	67.5	72.1	91.3	66.1	76.2	96.7	90.4	76.8	87.2	73.1	78.1
June.....	68.7	73.1	90.1	65.5	76.4	96.1	89.7	76.3	87.1	72.9	78.3
July.....	69.4	74.3	91.5	66.1	76.8	95.2	89.2	77.7	86.4	72.7	78.8
August.....	67.3	73.0	91.9	65.9	76.8	95.4	89.4	77.7	86.4	72.4	78.1
September.....	68.1	74.5	92.0	65.8	76.6	95.5	89.5	77.3	86.2	72.4	78.3
October.....	66.8	73.5	93.4	66.2	75.4	95.3	89.8	77.1	85.7	72.6	77.6
November.....	67.8	74.1	94.6	66.2	73.7	94.9	89.2	76.6	85.8	73.0	77.5
December.....	67.6	73.1	93.1	65.8	73.2	94.6	89.4	76.7	86.0	73.1	77.0
1939:											
January.....	67.2	71.5	93.1	65.9	72.8	94.4	89.5	76.7	85.4	73.2	76.9
February.....	67.2	71.5	91.9	66.1	73.0	94.3	89.6	76.3	85.2	73.5	76.9
March.....	65.8	70.2	91.8	66.6	73.1	94.3	89.8	76.5	85.2	74.1	76.7

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months:					
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1938:					
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	July.....	72.3	74.3	82.5	80.8	81.4
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	August.....	71.4	74.4	81.8	80.3	81.4
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	September.....	72.0	74.7	81.8	80.4	81.3
1936.....	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	October.....	70.9	75.9	81.1	79.9	81.1
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	November.....	71.5	76.2	80.5	79.5	80.6
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	December.....	70.9	75.2	80.2	79.0	80.3
1939:						1939:					
March.....	73.2	75.6	83.4	81.6	82.6	January.....	70.9	74.9	80.0	78.9	80.2
April.....	71.3	75.3	82.7	80.8	82.0	February.....	70.9	74.4	80.2	78.9	80.2
May.....	70.7	75.4	82.1	80.3	81.6	March.....	70.1	74.6	80.2	79.0	80.4
June.....	71.4	74.1	82.2	80.3	81.3						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during February and March are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, February and March 1939

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Mar. 25, 1939	Mar. 18, 1939	Mar. 11, 1939	Mar. 4, 1939	Feb. 25, 1939	Feb. 18, 1939	Feb. 11, 1939	Feb. 4, 1939
All commodities.....	76.6	76.7	77.0	76.7	76.8	76.6	76.6	76.6
Farm products.....	66.7	67.1	68.0	67.2	67.7	66.9	66.7	67.1
Foods.....	70.8	70.7	71.4	71.5	71.4	71.3	71.1	71.0
Hides and leather products.....	92.3	92.6	92.5	92.3	92.4	92.5	92.7	92.9
Textile products.....	66.1	66.1	66.0	65.9	65.6	65.5	65.6	65.5
Fuel and lighting materials.....	73.6	73.7	73.6	73.3	73.4	73.6	73.7	73.5
Metals and metal products.....	94.4	94.4	94.5	94.5	94.5	94.5	94.5	94.5
Building materials.....	89.9	90.2	90.2	89.6	90.0	89.4	89.1	89.3
Chemicals and drugs.....	76.0	76.2	76.3	76.2	76.0	76.0	76.1	76.2
Housefurnishing goods.....	86.5	86.6	86.6	86.6	86.6	86.6	86.7	87.2
Miscellaneous.....	73.9	73.9	73.4	73.2	73.0	72.9	72.8	72.9
Raw materials.....	70.3	70.6	71.2	70.7	70.9	70.4	70.3	70.4
Semimanufactured articles.....	74.7	74.5	74.5	74.5	74.4	74.4	74.6	74.7
Finished products.....	80.3	80.3	80.5	80.4	80.4	80.3	80.2	80.2
All commodities other than farm products.....	78.8	78.8	79.0	78.9	78.8	78.8	78.7	78.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	80.6	80.7	80.6	80.4	80.4	80.4	80.4	80.4

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR MARCH

Total Nonagricultural Employment

THERE was a further rise in nonagricultural employment in March, seasonal expansion in manufacturing and retail trade having accounted largely for the increase of approximately 200,000 workers since February. This gain was slightly smaller than the usual seasonal increase for this month. Compared with March of last year, there was a gain of 360,000 workers. These figures do not include emergency employment which decreased approximately 68,000 in March, as follows: 39,000 on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, 22,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps, and 7,000 on work projects of the National Youth Administration.

Industrial and Business Employment

Gains in employment were shown by 64 of the 87 manufacturing and 10 of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Pay-roll increases were shown by 61 manufacturing and 11 nonmanufacturing industries.

The increase of 0.8 percent, or 51,000 wage earners, in manufacturing industries was accompanied by a rise of 1.6 percent, or nearly \$2,800,000 in weekly pay rolls. These gains were somewhat smaller than the usual average increases of 1.0 percent in employment and 1.8 percent in pay rolls for March. The March gains raised the Bureau's indexes of factory employment and pay rolls to the highest levels recorded since the latter months of 1937. The March 1939 employment index (91.4 percent of the 1923-1925 average) was 4.2 percent above the level of March of last year and the factory pay-roll index (86.9 percent of the 1923-1925 average) was 12.7 percent higher. Employment in the durable-goods group of industries increased 1.1 percent and pay rolls rose 2.0 percent, while in the nondurable-goods group of industries employment increased 0.5 percent and pay rolls 1.4 percent. The durable-goods employment index in March 1939 (83.5 percent of the 1923-1925 average) stood at the highest level since December 1937, while the nondurable-goods employment index (98.9) was somewhat lower than in the late summer and autumn of last year.

Among the manufacturing industries in which substantial gains in number of workers were shown were women's clothing (7,100), fertilizers (6,300), canning and preserving (5,500), knit goods (4,400), electrical machinery (3,600), men's clothing (3,300), shoes (2,800), foundries and machine shops (2,800), marble-slate-granite (2,800), and steel (2,400). Industries in which the increases ranged from 1,500 to 2,000 workers were cement, stamped and enameled ware, millinery, stoves, brick, and agricultural implements. In the aircraft industry, employment in March stood at an all-time high (nearly 85 percent more workers being employed than in 1929). Other industries in which the March employment indexes reached the highest levels since the latter months of 1937 were shipbuilding, engines-turbines-water wheels, stamped and enameled ware, textile machinery, pottery, knit goods, boots and shoes, and shirts and collars. Employment in the steel industry was at the highest level since December 1937, and electrical-machinery plants and foundries reported the largest number of workers since March of last year. In the machine tool industry, employment rose for the seventh consecutive month. The principal factory employment declines over the month interval were in the following industries: Woolen and worsted goods (10,900), cigars and cigarettes (3,800), meat packing (2,700), automobiles (2,400), book and job-printing (1,300), and radios and phonographs (1,000).

The usual spring pick-up in retail trade resulted in an employment increase between February and March of 2.6 percent or 82,000 workers. This gain, slightly greater than the average March increase for the last 10 years, raised the March 1939 employment index to 83.6 percent of the 1929 average and 0.7 percent above the level of a year ago. Employment gains were reported in all retail lines with the exception of jewelry and wood-coal-ice. The general merchandising group showed a gain of 4 percent and apparel stores increased their employment by 10.4 percent. Among the other important lines of retail trade in which employment gains were shown over the month interval, were food, automobiles, lumber and building material, furniture, hardware, drugs, and farmers' supplies.

Employment in wholesale trade establishments declined seasonally by 0.6 percent between February and March, the loss resulting largely from seasonal recessions among dealers in farm products (30.9 percent), agents and brokers (6.3 percent), and assemblers and country buyers (4.4 percent). Among the more important wholesale groups showing employment gains were food products, groceries, dry goods and apparel, and machinery, equipment and supplies.

The decline of 0.9 percent or 700 wage earners in anthracite mining between mid-February and mid-March was insignificant when compared with the average March decline of 7.8 percent for the last 10

years. The accompanying pay-roll loss of 24.2 percent reflected decreased production in March. Bituminous-coal mines curtailed employment 1.3 percent, or 5,000 workers, and pay rolls 3.8 percent. Employment in metal mines increased 0.1 percent and oil wells showed an employment decline of 0.4 percent. In quarries there was a seasonal gain of 5.9 percent or 2,100 workers. Employment in public utilities and laundries showed a negligible gain during the month. Dyeing and cleaning plants took on 2,000 workers in response to the usual spring expansion in this industry, and hotels increased their forces slightly. Brokerage firms reduced their personnel by 1.2 percent, while insurance companies showed a gain of 0.2 percent.

Employment in private building construction expanded 6.4 percent between February and March, according to reports received from 14,425 contractors employing 107,643 workers in March. Corresponding pay rolls rose 13.4 percent. The employment increase was the largest March gain reported since 1932, except in 1934 and 1936. The Middle Atlantic and Mountain States showed the most pronounced employment gains, 12.0 and 18.2 percent, respectively. Substantial increases were also shown in the East and West North Central, South Atlantic, East and West South Central, and Pacific States. The only decline in employment was reported in New England. The reports on which these figures are based do not cover construction projects financed by the Works Progress Administration, the Public Works Administration, and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation or by regular appropriations of the Federal, State, or local Governments.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission showed a gain since February of 0.6 percent, or 6,179 persons, in the number employed by class I railroads. The total number reported for March was 947,862. Corresponding pay-roll figures were not available when this report was prepared. For February they were \$140,178,409, as against \$148,350,333 for January, a loss of 5.5 percent.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by wage earners in manufacturing industries were 37.1 in March, an increase of 0.7 percent since February. The average hourly earnings of these workers were 65.1 cents, an increase of 0.2 percent as compared with the preceding month. Average weekly earnings rose 0.8 percent to \$24.23.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hour data are available, 10 showed increases in average hours worked per week and 8 showed gains in average hourly earnings. Eleven of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed reported higher average weekly earnings.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings in March 1939 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads, with percentage changes over the month and year intervals, are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, March 1939 (Preliminary figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay roll			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, March 1939	Percentage change from—		Index, March 1939	Percentage change from—		Average in March 1939	Percentage change from—	
		February 1939	March 1938		February 1939	March 1938		February 1939	March 1938
All manufacturing industries combined ¹	(1928-25 = 100) 91.4	+0.8	+4.2	(1928-25 = 100) 86.9	+1.6	+12.7	\$24.23	+0.8	+8.2
Class I steam railroads ²	53.1	+8	+2.3	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
Coal mining:	(1929 = 100)			(1929 = 100)					
Anthracite ⁴	51.7	-9	-12.7	34.2	-24.2	-27.6	21.55	-23.5	-17.1
Bituminous ⁴	87.5	-1.3	-6.2	78.1	-3.8	+14.2	23.56	-2.6	+21.7
Metalliferous mining.....	61.0	+1	-2.2	53.6	+5	-4.8	27.66	+4	-2.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	40.1	+5.9	+3.2	33.1	+11.7	+9.7	20.80	+5.4	+6.3
Crude-petroleum producing.....	66.1	-4	-10.1	61.5	-1.8	-9.4	33.47	-1.4	+8
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph.....	73.5	+2	-1.9	92.2	+5	-4	\$30.88	+3	+1.5
Electric light and power and manufactured gas.....	89.6	(⁵)	-2.6	96.8	+4	-1.9	\$33.82	+4	+8
Electric-railroad and motor-bus operation and maintenance.....	69.5	+3	-1.8	70.5	+9	+9	\$33.12	+6	+2.7
Trade:									
Wholesale.....	87.3	-6	-2.0	74.8	+3	+2	\$29.48	+1.0	+2.3
Retail.....	83.6	+2.6	+7	69.7	+1.9	+1.6	\$21.68	-7	+7
General merchandising.....	92.4	+4.0	+2.1	83.6	+3.3	+1.7	\$18.25	-8	-4
Other than general merchandising.....	81.3	+2.1	+4	66.8	+1.5	+1.6	\$24.19	-6	+1.2
Hotels (year-round) ^{4,7}	92.7	+1	-7	81.1	-2.1	+2	\$15.09	-2.2	+9
Laundries ⁴	92.9	+2	-2.0	79.3	+9	+1.0	17.54	+7	+3.0
Dyeing and cleaning ⁴	95.4	+3.5	-3.1	67.7	+7.1	-8	19.48	+3.4	+2.4
Brokerage.....	(³)	-1.2	-4.9	(³)	-1.1	-5.7	\$36.05	+1	-8
Insurance.....	(³)	+2	+9	(³)	+1.0	+1.2	\$36.32	+9	+4
Building construction.....	(³)	+6.4	-4.2	(³)	+13.4	-2	28.98	+6.6	+3.7

¹ Revised indexes; adjusted to 1935 Census of Manufactures. Indexes for earlier months and years given in table 3 of the November issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

² Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

³ Not available.

⁴ Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, *Employment and Pay Rolls*.

⁵ Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

⁶ Less than 1/2 of 1 percent.

⁷ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

Employment on projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration showed a gain of 15,500, bringing the total number of workers on this program for the month ending March 15 to 222,100. This was 121,500 more than were working a year ago. Pay rolls for March 1939 amounted to \$16,377,000.

During the month ending March 15, more than 4,200 men were working on projects of the United States Housing Authority, and pay rolls amounted to \$468,000. These figures cover new construction and demolition and pertain only to those projects started under the United States Housing Authority; those formerly under the Public Works Administration are shown with P. W. A. building construction projects in this report.

There was a small decline of approximately 1,000 on construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations during the month ending March 15, reducing the number of men at work to 171,000. Decreased employment was reported on the following types of projects: Forestry, reclamation, dredging, dikes, and revetments, streets and roads, and water and sewerage. Marked increases in the number of man-hours worked on public-road projects and on ship construction resulted in a pay roll of \$18,283,000, an increase of over \$1,424,000 from February.

During the month ending March 15, over 2,000 men were working on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Pay-roll disbursements for the period amounted to \$245,000.

In March there were 2,916,000 employees at work on projects operated by the Works Progress Administration, a decrease of 39,000 compared with February. As compared with March 1938 the employment level in March 1939 was higher by 521,000 workers. Pay-roll disbursements of \$156,871,000 were \$4,610,000 more than in February and \$37,227,000 more than in March a year ago. Declines in the number of persons working were reported on Federal projects under The Works Program and on work projects of the National Youth Administration. On Student Aid no change in employment was reported.

As is usual at the end of an enlistment period, there was a decrease in the number of persons in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps. For March this decrease amounted to 22,000 and reduced the number of workers to 315,000. Of the total number in camps during this month 278,000 were enrollees, 5,000 reserve officers, 300 nurses, 1,600 educational advisers, and 30,000 supervisory and technical employees. For all groups of workers pay-roll disbursements in March were \$14,205,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government increases in employment were reported in the executive, legislative, judicial, and military services. Of the employees in the executive service in March 121,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 758,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees who are on the Federal pay roll and are engaged on construction projects) were 9 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. Increases in employment were reported in the Departments of the

Interior, Agriculture, and Commerce; there was a decrease in the administrative offices of the Works Progress Administration.

The seasonal decline in employment on State-financed road projects continued with a drop of 18,000 in the number working during the month ending March 15. Of the 127,000 at work 16,000 were engaged on new road construction and 111,000 on maintenance. Combined pay rolls for both types of road work were \$9,185,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll data for March 1939 is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, March 1939¹ (Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment		Per-centage change	Pay rolls		Per-centage change
	March 1939	February 1939		March 1939	February 1939	
Federal services:						
Executive ²	878,679	³ 875,541	+0.4	\$134,626,223	³ \$130,231,207	+3.4
Judicial.....	2,317	2,210	+4.8	566,058	537,664	+5.3
Legislative.....	5,292	5,284	+2	1,216,315	1,212,994	+3
Military.....	344,848	340,852	+1.2	26,899,254	26,609,474	+1.1
Construction projects:						
Financed by P. W. A. ⁴	222,061	216,570	+2.5	16,377,207	16,496,563	-.7
U. S. H. A. low-cost Housing.....	4,293	3,317	+29.4	467,860	353,132	+32.5
Financed by R. F. C. ⁵	2,133	2,593	-17.7	244,675	298,699	-18.1
Financed by Regular Federal Appropriations.....	171,130	172,264	-.7	18,282,989	16,858,526	+8.4
Federal projects under The Works Program.....	116,721	117,615	-.8	5,171,042	5,684,498	-9.0
Projects operated by W. P. A.....	2,915,589	2,955,040	-1.3	156,871,041	152,261,190	+3.0
National Youth Administration:						
Work projects.....	234,918	241,623	-2.8	4,437,479	4,456,772	-.4
Student Aid.....	(6)	376,209	-----	(6)	2,424,409	-----
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	314,990	337,191	-6.6	14,205,352	14,789,353	-3.9

¹ Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.

² Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 109,566 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$14,119,436 for March 1939, and 113,545 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$13,555,890 for February 1939.

³ Revised.

⁴ Data covering P. W. A. projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under The Works Program. Includes 25,672 wage earners and \$2,208,700 pay roll for March 1939; 30,709 wage earners and \$2,823,988 pay roll for February 1939, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 188,923 wage earners and \$13,283,402 pay roll for March 1939; 178,346 wage earners and \$12,719,680 pay roll for February 1939, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

⁵ Includes 186 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$11,116 for March 1939; 235 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$16,173 for February 1939 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

⁶ March data not available.



DETAILED REPORTS FOR FEBRUARY 1939

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of February, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 87 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first two of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, HOURS, AND EARNINGS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for December 1938, January 1939, and February 1939, where available, are presented in table 1. The December and January figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published, because of revisions necessitated by the inclusion of late reports and other causes.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As all reporting establishments do not supply man-hour data, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data supplied by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample varies slightly from month to month. Therefore the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown are not strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from February 1938 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100, and are adjusted to 1935 Census of Manufactures. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1938. Comparable series of indexes available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings ¹			Average hours worked per week ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938
All manufacturing	90.7	89.5	91.2	85.4	83.2	86.5	\$24.06	\$23.82	\$24.31	36.9	36.3	37.1	<i>Cents</i> 64.9	<i>Cents</i> 65.1	<i>Cents</i> 64.8
Durable goods.....	82.6	81.6	83.1	78.4	76.4	80.4	28.86	28.60	27.34	36.4	35.8	36.8	72.6	72.9	72.6
Nondurable goods.....	98.4	97.1	98.8	93.2	90.9	93.4	21.47	21.27	21.53	37.3	36.8	37.4	58.6	58.5	58.4
<i>Durable goods</i>															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	87.2	85.9	87.4	79.7	77.7	80.8	26.68	26.37	26.91	35.3	34.8	35.6	75.4	75.5	75.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	91.5	90.9	91.1	83.3	82.1	83.2	28.50	28.18	28.49	34.0	33.7	33.8	83.8	83.5	84.2
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	91.8	90.8	91.7	94.7	89.4	94.6	26.33	25.11	26.36	37.9	36.1	38.0	69.6	69.7	69.6
Cast-iron pipe.....	65.7	65.8	66.1	55.4	52.9	55.7	20.06	19.15	20.01	34.3	32.5	34.0	57.8	58.3	58.4
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools.....	82.9	81.4	83.0	74.4	73.9	79.1	22.65	22.95	24.06	38.3	38.1	39.8	59.9	60.9	61.0
Forgings, iron and steel.....	48.6	48.3	49.6	47.0	45.6	49.4	28.48	27.74	29.25	37.4	36.3	38.4	76.0	76.3	76.2
Hardware.....	83.2	84.7	86.3	78.9	81.8	90.1	23.04	23.42	25.31	35.4	35.5	38.0	65.1	66.0	66.7
Plumbers' supplies.....	73.6	72.0	72.6	65.0	60.8	61.1	24.93	24.00	23.83	37.2	36.0	35.7	67.1	66.7	66.8
Stamped and enameled ware.....	131.3	129.4	134.3	129.0	126.9	136.0	23.55	23.69	24.33	37.6	37.0	38.5	62.5	63.9	62.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	68.2	65.8	67.9	57.1	53.8	56.4	25.24	24.71	25.05	36.3	35.4	35.9	69.5	69.7	69.9
Stoves.....	75.0	65.4	74.7	62.3	50.0	61.4	24.72	22.87	24.30	37.4	35.0	36.9	66.9	65.9	67.2
Structural and ornamental metalwork.....	64.0	61.7	61.9	54.6	51.8	53.2	26.93	26.59	27.18	37.0	36.5	37.4	72.9	73.1	72.7
Tin cans and other tinware.....	83.7	82.8	84.1	85.8	86.6	87.9	22.33	22.78	22.76	36.8	37.4	37.7	61.0	61.3	60.8
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files and saws).....	84.7	83.4	83.9	83.9	80.2	82.0	24.45	23.75	24.19	39.9	39.3	39.6	61.5	60.4	61.2
Wirework.....	160.6	162.8	171.6	157.5	157.8	185.9	23.70	23.40	26.16	35.6	35.0	38.6	66.6	67.0	67.8
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	98.4	91.4	91.8	91.8	87.4	89.4	27.31	28.55	27.00	37.6	36.6	37.4	72.5	72.4	72.1
Agricultural implements (including tractors).....	121.5	111.4	105.5	131.9	112.7	114.4	29.96	27.92	29.85	37.5	35.3	37.4	80.4	79.4	80.3
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines.....	133.6	133.3	134.6	119.6	117.4	118.8	28.93	28.47	28.51	35.7	35.0	35.1	81.9	82.2	82.1

Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	83.6	82.1	83.9	83.9	80.6	82.7	27.77	27.17	27.26	37.5	36.6	37.1	74.3	74.4	73.6
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and wind-															
mills	90.6	87.1	85.3	106.9	98.4	98.0	30.50	29.21	29.73	39.0	37.2	37.7	78.7	78.8	79.3
Foundry and machine-shop products	83.4	81.8	81.7	78.0	74.8	75.9	26.69	26.11	26.48	37.5	36.6	37.2	71.1	71.3	71.2
Machine tools	125.1	121.1	119.9	131.2	120.0	120.0	29.75	28.17	28.44	39.9	38.1	38.4	74.6	74.0	74.0
Radios and phonographs	102.5	108.4	118.0	87.7	96.8	107.6	21.15	22.15	22.62	36.7	37.7	38.9	57.7	59.1	58.2
Textile machinery and parts	69.9	67.5	66.9	68.1	64.6	66.9	25.32	24.89	25.98	38.0	38.1	41.0	66.9	65.4	63.5
Typewriters and parts	125.4	125.9	127.9	122.5	118.6	130.3	22.45	22.60	24.46	36.6	35.4	38.1	64.1	63.7	64.1
Transportation equipment	96.0	95.8	96.1	91.4	91.9	87.9	30.69	31.17	32.72	34.3	34.8	38.4	89.7	89.9	89.8
Aircraft	940.9	876.4	845.1	961.3	907.8	879.6	31.18	31.61	31.72	41.8	41.7	42.0	75.8	76.8	76.5
Automobiles	104.5	106.2	106.8	96.7	100.6	107.4	30.80	31.37	33.22	33.3	34.0	36.0	92.4	92.3	92.4
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	34.3	29.4	29.8	32.6	27.1	28.2	26.00	25.21	25.96	35.5	34.5	35.5	73.2	73.0	73.0
Locomotives	17.5	18.6	17.4	13.2	15.3	13.7	24.22	26.38	25.34	31.5	33.9	32.9	76.9	77.7	77.0
Shipbuilding	106.6	101.0	100.5	112.9	106.7	107.3	31.65	31.60	31.87	37.6	37.5	37.5	83.3	83.7	84.7
Nonferrous metals and their products	98.6	92.2	95.0	88.3	84.6	90.3	25.45	24.84	25.81	39.3	37.0	38.6	66.5	66.8	66.7
Aluminum manufactures	145.3	138.7	140.4	152.1	142.8	144.0	26.77	26.35	26.33	39.3	38.3	38.5	68.1	68.7	68.3
Brass, bronze, and copper products	98.8	98.3	100.2	96.4	93.0	98.9	23.42	25.79	26.92	37.6	36.9	38.2	70.4	70.1	70.7
Clocks and watches and time-recording de-															
vices	83.6	82.9	82.9	88.0	83.2	83.2	22.25	20.41	21.23	38.0	35.0	36.9	58.5	58.2	57.6
Jewelry	92.3	87.4	96.9	76.1	71.9	84.9	22.82	22.77	24.11	39.2	38.7	40.8	57.4	58.1	59.2
Lighting equipment	88.8	89.8	94.2	82.7	78.2	84.7	25.81	24.47	25.26	37.6	35.2	36.6	68.5	69.3	69.1
Silverware and plated ware	65.3	63.3	66.9	60.7	56.6	68.3	25.56	24.58	28.07	40.1	38.8	43.3	64.1	63.7	65.0
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	71.9	72.0	72.5	67.0	67.9	68.2	26.27	26.72	26.58	37.9	38.6	38.4	69.0	69.3	69.2
Lumber and allied products	62.6	61.9	64.1	53.0	52.0	56.1	19.80	19.81	20.14	37.9	37.1	38.0	52.5	54.1	53.2
Furniture	78.8	76.3	79.8	66.0	60.3	67.8	20.26	19.13	20.60	39.1	36.9	39.5	52.0	52.1	52.6
Lumber:															
Millwork	53.3	53.0	54.0	43.5	42.7	44.6	21.64	21.33	21.71	40.0	39.0	40.2	54.2	54.8	54.1
Sawmills	49.1	49.1	50.9	41.1	42.4	44.9	18.83	19.86	19.27	36.7	36.7	36.7	52.3	55.0	53.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	66.6	66.4	70.5	58.0	56.8	63.5	23.41	22.98	24.03	35.7	35.1	36.5	64.8	65.1	65.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	48.0	48.9	51.3	35.6	36.7	39.4	19.39	19.65	20.06	36.1	36.5	37.2	53.9	54.0	53.7
Cement	54.8	53.4	62.6	48.9	47.0	57.2	24.97	24.54	25.50	36.4	35.7	37.1	68.6	69.0	68.8
Glass	89.5	89.6	93.0	93.3	92.0	99.4	25.04	24.72	25.76	34.8	34.0	35.7	72.0	72.8	72.3
Marble, granite, slate and other products	37.7	36.6	42.3	26.5	25.6	31.4	23.68	23.62	25.08	34.6	34.1	35.9	68.8	69.8	69.8
Pottery	80.0	78.6	79.9	72.3	66.3	75.5	23.46	21.83	23.56	37.2	35.5	38.0	62.9	62.8	61.9
<i>Nondurable goods</i>															
Textiles and their products	101.2	97.5	98.6	87.7	80.8	83.3	17.32	16.72	17.00	36.1	34.9	35.7	48.9	48.4	48.2
Fabrics	92.1	90.8	91.8	81.1	78.7	81.1	16.77	16.52	16.82	37.0	36.4	37.1	46.1	46.2	46.1
Carpets and rugs	82.9	80.8	81.5	71.7	68.1	71.1	22.81	22.38	23.03	36.5	35.7	36.8	62.5	62.7	62.6
Cotton goods	87.9	86.9	87.1	75.6	74.2	75.7	14.01	13.85	14.13	36.4	36.2	36.8	38.4	38.3	38.4
Cotton small wares	85.7	83.9	84.6	83.0	79.5	81.6	18.48	18.07	18.39	39.9	38.8	39.0	47.0	47.5	47.5
Dyeing and finishing textiles	116.6	113.3	112.1	102.0	96.9	97.2	21.38	20.85	20.87	39.6	38.3	39.0	53.8	54.1	53.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles	85.7	83.9	82.5	82.2	79.7	75.3	24.75	24.58	23.74	35.5	34.5	34.0	71.4	71.4	69.8
Hats, fur-felt	114.1	110.4	115.1	118.7	111.7	119.5	18.28	17.83	18.24	37.1	35.6	37.0	50.2	50.9	50.4
Knit goods	146.4	143.9	145.7	164.4	157.4	164.1	19.63	19.14	19.62	37.0	35.7	37.1	53.2	53.8	53.3
Hosiery	72.9	65.3	79.0	68.2	58.6	73.3	17.72	16.89	17.87	37.2	35.4	38.0	47.2	47.5	46.7
Knitted underwear	71.6	68.5	71.2	63.8	58.3	62.4	15.00	14.39	14.75	37.1	34.5	35.2	40.7	41.8	41.9
Knitted underwear	151.7	146.8	160.2	121.0	118.9	126.8	17.83	18.03	17.93	38.2	38.3	38.1	46.6	46.8	46.9
Knitted cloth	64.3	63.0	63.2	53.2	50.7	51.8	15.97	15.45	15.79	37.6	36.4	37.2	42.2	42.0	42.3
Silk and rayon goods	82.9	84.4	85.3	69.8	70.9	72.8	19.50	19.48	19.80	36.8	37.0	37.8	53.0	52.6	52.4
Woolen and worsted goods															

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938	February 1939	January 1939	December 1938
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>															
													<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Textiles and their products—Continued.															
Wearing apparel.....	120.2	111.0	112.2	97.7	82.4	84.6	\$19.07	\$17.38	\$17.61	34.5	32.3	33.1	53.9	52.5	52.1
Clothing, men's.....	104.9	96.7	97.1	80.2	68.6	68.3	20.17	18.52	18.39	33.7	31.2	31.6	59.5	58.6	58.5
Clothing, women's.....	172.9	159.6	160.6	134.8	111.7	114.8	20.81	19.70	18.88	34.4	32.7	33.5	55.1	52.2	51.8
Corsets and allied garments.....	102.3	99.8	99.5	106.3	99.0	103.1	17.45	16.54	17.35	38.6	36.2	37.3	45.5	45.7	46.2
Men's furnishings.....	137.6	123.0	148.8	123.8	101.0	142.5	14.22	13.03	15.08	36.6	33.6	35.8	35.9	36.3	37.6
Millinery.....	77.7	67.1	57.8	71.1	55.3	43.2	23.35	21.16	19.12	35.3	31.7	28.7	65.3	64.5	63.9
Shirts and collars.....	119.6	114.3	116.4	103.3	93.1	105.3	13.49	12.61	14.00	34.8	32.6	35.5	39.6	39.4	39.5
Leather and its manufactures.	96.6	92.9	88.6	83.3	77.5	70.0	20.34	19.71	18.62	39.1	38.1	38.2	52.0	52.5	52.6
Boots and shoes.....	97.1	92.7	87.6	79.5	72.6	63.3	19.31	18.54	17.11	39.1	37.9	35.6	49.5	49.8	49.9
Leather.....	86.8	86.0	85.3	90.0	88.3	87.6	24.67	24.76	24.77	39.3	39.0	39.2	63.0	63.9	63.1
Food and kindred products.	110.9	113.7	120.1	111.9	115.2	120.9	24.80	24.93	24.75	39.2	40.0	40.4	63.2	62.8	61.9
Baking.....	141.5	140.3	143.5	136.6	136.1	138.2	25.40	25.47	25.26	41.6	41.6	41.4	61.5	61.7	61.5
Beverages.....	223.7	223.2	223.3	253.0	252.1	257.2	31.47	31.38	32.02	37.0	36.9	37.5	85.8	85.8	86.1
Butter.....	90.5	93.1	95.1	79.1	80.5	80.4	22.52	22.37	22.10	45.7	45.5	45.8	49.2	49.8	48.4
Canning and preserving.....	72.2	78.6	85.3	70.2	70.5	77.4	17.75	16.47	16.55	35.6	34.7	35.4	51.5	48.6	48.1
Confectionery.....	77.3	78.0	91.3	75.7	75.7	91.5	18.15	18.02	18.65	37.3	37.4	40.4	48.4	48.2	46.5
Flour.....	75.7	77.2	78.1	71.3	74.7	73.0	24.57	25.18	24.42	40.6	41.6	40.8	60.0	60.1	59.7
Ice cream.....	67.8	67.9	68.7	59.3	59.6	60.0	29.52	29.46	29.21	45.4	45.3	45.2	64.4	63.9	63.8
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	94.3	99.8	102.4	100.5	111.1	112.5	27.00	28.05	27.69	39.5	41.3	41.0	68.6	68.3	67.9
Sugar, beet.....	39.8	85.4	230.7	46.7	73.2	221.9	30.07	22.08	24.75	40.9	33.5	47.0	77.1	65.6	63.0
Sugar refining, cane.....	85.3	84.7	84.4	71.8	74.7	72.9	22.67	23.77	23.29	35.0	36.3	38.2	64.8	65.4	61.0
Tobacco manufactures.	62.4	59.2	65.2	50.9	49.7	59.6	15.20	15.59	18.92	32.0	32.2	35.9	47.4	48.1	46.9
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	61.4	60.5	62.1	63.8	66.5	73.0	16.37	17.29	18.40	32.4	34.3	36.3	50.7	50.6	50.9
Cigars and cigarettes.....	62.5	59.0	65.6	49.3	47.5	87.9	14.91	15.14	16.56	32.0	31.9	35.9	47.0	47.7	46.4
Paper and printing.	105.9	105.7	108.0	102.3	102.2	107.3	27.89	27.80	28.61	37.9	37.9	38.6	76.8	76.5	77.1
Boxes, paper.....	99.7	98.1	103.9	103.5	99.5	109.4	21.24	20.68	21.49	39.2	38.4	40.4	54.7	54.4	53.7
Paper and pulp.....	106.3	105.5	106.3	105.1	102.6	103.4	24.16	23.82	23.85	39.6	38.7	39.0	61.1	61.6	61.3
Printing and publishing:															
Book and job.....	101.3	102.5	103.7	90.0	93.6	96.9	29.58	30.37	31.10	37.5	38.6	39.3	80.2	79.9	79.8
Newspapers and periodicals.....	105.3	104.7	108.0	106.2	104.9	113.2	37.30	36.85	38.56	36.0	36.0	36.8	99.6	98.2	100.7
Chemicals and allied products, and petroleum refining.	112.1	111.9	112.7	119.8	119.7	120.1	28.47	28.65	28.52	38.2	38.3	38.2	74.2	74.4	74.3
Petroleum refining.....	116.4	117.1	118.1	132.1	134.5	134.1	35.18	35.75	35.30	36.6	36.6	36.4	96.7	98.0	97.4
Other than petroleum refining.....	111.1	110.6	111.4	116.0	115.2	115.8	25.77	25.67	25.66	38.8	38.9	38.9	66.1	65.8	65.8
Chemicals.....	116.1	115.5	116.9	129.6	127.9	129.8	31.04	30.63	30.72	39.6	39.3	39.4	78.4	78.0	78.1

Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....	85.3	94.7	113.9	69.4	78.9	95.5	12.57	12.61	12.76	41.7	43.1	43.4	29.7	28.8	29.0
Druggists' preparations.....	107.6	107.6	109.2	117.9	118.5	120.2	24.73	24.93	24.80	39.2	39.1	39.6	59.6	60.3	59.3
Explosives.....	80.2	81.4	82.7	91.9	89.9	95.1	31.52	30.63	31.64	39.1	37.7	39.5	80.6	81.3	80.1
Fertilizers.....	98.2	94.4	82.3	77.2	77.2	70.0	14.63	15.05	15.75	34.6	35.9	35.5	42.3	41.9	44.4
Paints and varnishes.....	112.5	111.8	112.4	115.7	113.1	115.4	27.84	27.34	27.80	40.0	39.2	39.9	69.7	69.9	69.9
Rayon and allied products.....	319.1	313.2	311.3	314.4	309.5	302.4	24.15	24.22	23.80	37.7	38.0	37.1	64.0	63.7	64.1
Soap.....	89.7	88.8	88.6	91.2	91.2	89.7	28.87	29.33	28.80	39.1	39.1	38.8	74.0	75.2	74.5
Rubber products.....	81.3	81.1	83.6	82.8	83.9	89.0	37.28	37.72	38.40	36.0	35.9	37.4	76.0	78.8	78.4
Rubber boots and shoes.....	60.7	58.4	65.1	59.8	56.8	65.9	22.05	21.78	23.17	37.7	36.5	38.8	58.4	59.7	59.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	65.9	67.1	67.2	72.6	76.2	79.0	31.77	32.59	33.76	33.3	34.2	35.2	95.5	95.7	96.1
Rubber goods, other.....	131.9	129.8	134.7	127.9	125.1	133.7	22.88	22.75	23.44	38.5	37.9	39.4	59.9	60.5	60.1

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

													Cents	Cents	Cents
Coal mining:													92.0	92.8	91.7
Anthracite ²	52.2	50.0	51.3	45.2	38.0	42.5	\$28.20	\$24.74	\$26.99	30.9	27.0	29.3	89.2	88.4	88.1
Bituminous ²	88.5	88.7	89.3	81.3	78.2	80.9	24.35	23.29	24.00	27.4	26.5	27.4	89.2	88.4	88.1
Metalliferous mining.....	60.9	62.6	62.3	53.4	55.3	54.1	27.38	27.69	27.16	39.9	40.4	39.8	69.0	68.9	68.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	37.4	38.3	41.4	29.1	30.2	33.7	19.69	19.76	20.42	35.4	36.1	37.2	55.5	54.9	55.1
Crude-petroleum producing.....	66.6	67.0	67.8	62.5	60.9	62.5	35.01	33.60	33.89	38.7	37.6	38.7	88.1	87.5	85.9
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph ³	73.3	74.1	74.3	91.7	92.0	92.5	31.09	30.90	30.85	38.9	39.0	39.1	82.6	82.3	81.7
Electric light and power and manufactured gas ³	89.6	90.0	91.4	96.4	95.9	98.2	33.87	33.37	33.56	39.4	38.6	40.0	86.2	86.6	84.1
Electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance ³	69.3	69.2	69.4	69.9	71.1	69.7	32.87	33.53	32.86	45.4	46.3	45.8	71.5	71.5	70.9
Trade:															
Wholesale ³	87.9	88.3	90.0	74.6	75.5	75.7	29.54	29.72	29.38	41.5	41.6	41.6	71.1	71.1	70.7
Retail ³	81.5	82.2	98.1	68.4	69.7	79.2	21.55	21.71	20.10	42.7	42.9	42.7	54.9	55.1	52.7
General merchandising ³	88.8	90.7	144.1	81.0	84.0	122.9	18.19	18.38	16.95	39.2	40.0	40.9	48.3	48.4	44.4
Other than general merchandising ³	79.6	80.0	86.0	65.8	66.7	70.1	24.34	24.46	23.96	43.8	43.8	43.5	56.8	57.1	56.3
Hotels (year-round) ^{2,3,4}	92.6	91.8	92.0	82.8	80.2	81.1	15.29	14.95	15.15	46.9	46.4	46.2	32.1	31.7	32.5
Laundries ²	92.8	93.3	93.4	78.6	79.6	80.0	17.32	17.41	17.43	42.2	42.1	42.2	41.3	41.4	41.4
Dyeing and cleaning ²	92.1	94.2	97.9	63.2	65.8	68.3	18.95	19.12	19.23	39.7	40.4	40.7	48.6	48.7	48.7
Brokerage ^{3,5}	+1.7	+4	+2	-7	-5	+9	34.93	35.93	36.59	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Insurance ^{3,5}	(+7)	+4	(-7)	-1.1	-3	+1.9	36.11	36.49	36.70	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Building construction ⁵	-2.5	-11.5	-6.8	-6.1	-14.0	-6.6	27.38	28.18	28.97	29.1	30.3	31.7	94.3	93.2	91.4

¹ Average weekly earnings are computed from figures furnished by all reporting establishments. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments, as all reporting firms do not furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample. Hours and earnings for all manufacturing industries now relate to 87 industries instead of 89 which were covered in the July and prior issues of the pamphlet. The 2 industries excluded are electric- and steam-railroad repair shops. The averages for the durable goods group have also been affected by this exclusion.

² Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, *Employment and Pay Rolls*.

³ Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not strictly comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

⁴ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

⁵ Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available, percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

⁶ Not available.

⁷ Less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 percent.

INDEXES OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS

Indexes of employment and pay rolls are given in table 2 for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 non-manufacturing industries, including 2 subgroups under retail trade, by months from February 1938 to February 1939, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to February 1939.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923-25 as 100. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 87 manufacturing industries. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 87 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum producing they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from 25 percent for wholesale trade to 90 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

1923-25=100



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing¹ and Non-manufacturing² Industries, February 1938 to February 1939, Inclusive

Industry	Employment													
	Av. 1938	1938											1939	
		Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.
<i>Manufacturing</i>														
All industries.....	86.8	88.2	87.7	85.7	83.4	81.6	81.9	85.7	88.8	89.5	90.5	91.2	89.5	90.7
Durable goods ³	77.3	80.1	79.3	77.0	75.0	72.4	70.3	71.7	57.3	79.0	82.1	83.1	81.6	82.6
Nondurable goods ⁴	96.0	95.9	95.8	94.0	91.5	90.3	92.9	99.0	101.7	99.4	98.4	98.8	97.1	98.4
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>														
Anthracite mining.....	52.3	60.0	59.3	57.0	52.8	56.0	44.6	37.6	46.4	52.4	51.0	51.3	50.0	52.2
Bituminous-coal mining.....	86.7	95.5	93.2	85.8	82.2	80.2	78.5	80.1	83.4	87.2	88.6	89.3	88.7	88.5
Metalliferous mining.....	59.0	63.6	62.3	61.6	58.8	56.0	49.7	51.4	55.2	57.9	61.9	62.3	62.6	60.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	42.3	37.8	38.9	41.7	43.7	43.6	44.1	44.6	44.6	44.4	44.4	41.4	38.3	37.4
Crude-petroleum produc- ing.....	72.1	74.2	73.6	73.8	73.2	72.8	72.3	72.4	71.5	69.5	68.3	67.8	67.0	66.6
Telephone and telegraph.....	75.1	75.7	74.9	74.8	75.0	74.8	74.9	74.8	74.9	74.7	74.4	74.3	74.1	73.3
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas.....	92.3	92.6	92.0	91.8	91.7	92.2	92.3	92.7	92.5	92.5	91.9	91.4	90.0	89.6
Electric-railroad and mo- torbus operation and maintenance.....	70.3	71.2	70.8	71.1	70.6	70.4	70.1	69.5	69.3	69.9	69.5	69.4	69.2	69.3
Wholesale trade.....	88.8	90.4	89.1	88.5	87.3	87.2	86.8	87.6	88.5	89.1	89.8	90.0	88.3	87.9
Retail trade.....	85.2	82.4	83.0	88.2	83.8	83.6	81.1	80.0	84.7	85.9	86.9	98.1	82.2	81.5
General merchandis- ing.....	98.0	88.8	90.5	101.0	92.4	91.9	87.9	86.4	97.0	99.4	104.5	144.1	90.7	88.8
Other than general merchandising.....	81.8	80.7	81.0	84.9	81.5	81.4	79.3	78.3	81.5	82.3	82.3	86.0	80.0	79.6
Year-round hotels.....	92.7	94.5	93.4	93.5	92.7	92.2	90.7	90.4	91.8	92.9	92.5	92.0	91.8	92.6
Laundries.....	95.7	95.7	94.8	95.4	96.2	96.6	97.8	97.5	96.5	94.4	93.7	93.4	93.3	92.8
Dyeing and cleaning.....	104.3	95.6	98.5	111.8	109.9	110.8	108.6	105.0	107.7	106.8	102.5	97.9	94.2	92.1
<i>Pay rolls</i>														
<i>Manufacturing</i>														
All industries.....	77.5	76.9	77.1	74.6	72.9	70.8	70.6	73.9	81.0	83.8	84.1	86.5	83.2	85.4
Durable goods ³	68.2	67.2	67.4	65.6	64.2	61.7	58.6	63.7	68.7	75.2	78.3	80.4	76.4	78.4
Nondurable goods ⁴	88.0	87.8	87.9	84.7	82.6	80.9	84.1	91.7	94.9	93.4	90.6	93.4	90.9	93.2
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>														
Anthracite mining.....	33.2	46.1	47.3	39.0	38.3	49.7	20.2	20.0	29.4	43.4	36.2	42.5	38.0	45.2
Bituminous-coal mining.....	67.9	74.0	68.4	56.3	55.3	57.0	56.8	64.2	71.9	78.3	81.4	80.9	78.2	81.3
Metalliferous mining.....	50.4	55.8	56.3	53.3	51.2	46.1	38.0	43.7	46.1	49.2	52.3	54.1	55.3	53.4
Quarrying and nonmetal- lic mining.....	35.1	28.6	30.2	33.9	33.3	37.3	37.0	39.2	38.4	39.2	37.2	33.7	30.2	29.1
Crude-petroleum produc- ing.....	66.5	69.6	68.0	68.0	66.7	67.6	66.7	66.8	66.5	63.7	63.3	62.5	60.9	62.5
Telephone and telegraph.....	92.1	89.9	92.6	91.6	91.3	90.9	90.9	91.3	92.6	95.3	93.0	92.5	92.0	91.7
Electric light and power, and manufactured gas.....	98.5	98.5	98.6	97.6	97.4	98.6	98.3	98.9	98.4	99.9	98.6	98.2	95.9	96.4
Electric-railroad and mo- torbus operation and maintenance.....	69.7	70.2	69.9	70.0	71.2	69.7	69.0	69.5	68.4	68.9	68.8	69.7	71.1	69.9
Wholesale trade.....	74.7	75.3	74.7	74.6	75.1	73.8	73.6	73.7	74.3	75.1	75.4	75.7	75.5	74.6
Retail trade.....	70.4	68.4	68.6	72.2	70.0	69.5	68.1	66.8	69.4	70.8	71.5	79.2	69.7	68.4
General merchandis- ing.....	87.8	81.5	82.2	89.4	84.4	84.3	80.4	78.8	85.3	88.3	91.8	122.9	84.0	81.0
Other than general merchandising.....	66.8	65.7	65.8	68.6	67.0	66.4	65.6	64.3	66.1	67.2	67.3	70.1	66.7	65.8
Year-round hotels.....	80.3	83.6	80.9	80.5	80.5	79.6	77.4	77.4	78.9	80.8	81.3	81.1	80.2	82.8
Laundries.....	80.6	79.1	78.6	80.6	80.9	81.8	83.0	83.1	81.4	79.5	79.3	80.0	79.6	78.6
Dyeing and cleaning.....	75.3	65.2	68.2	87.2	80.7	83.3	77.5	74.3	81.7	78.0	73.9	68.8	65.8	63.2

¹ 13-year average, 1923-25=100—adjusted to 1935 Census of Manufactures. Comparable indexes for earlier months are in August 1938 issue of pamphlet and November 1938 issue of Monthly Labor Review.

² 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review, except for anthracite and bituminous-coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning. Indexes for these industries from January 1929 forward have been adjusted to the 1935 census and are presented in the January 1938 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls.

³ Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, railroad repair shops, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.

⁴ Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in January and February 1939 is shown in table 3 for all groups combined and for all manufacturing industries combined based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the grand total have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 87 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the non-manufacturing industries presented in table 1 (except building construction), and seasonal hotels.

Similar comparisons showing only percentage changes are available in mimeographed form for "all groups combined," for "all manufacturing," for anthracite mining, bituminous-coal mining, metalliferous mining, quarrying and nonmetallic mining, crude-petroleum producing, public utilities, wholesale trade, retail trade, hotels, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and brokerage and insurance.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in January and February 1939, by Geographic Divisions and by States

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939
				<i>Dollars</i>					<i>Dollars</i>	
New England	13, 008	848, 103	+0.8	19, 801, 955	+1.9	3, 536	589, 035	+1.9	12, 982, 775	+3.7
Maine.....	740	53, 189	+2.1	1, 075, 578	+3.6	272	44, 876	+2.6	874, 442	+4.5
New Hampshire.....	613	37, 621	+3	767, 418	+3.5	193	31, 136	+1.6	608, 241	+5.1
Vermont.....	467	16, 481	+2.2	351, 487	+3.5	152	10, 441	+3.3	214, 711	+5.8
Massachusetts.....	¹ 7, 790	<i>455, 514</i>	+3	<i>10, 783, 634</i>	+1.6	<i>1, 780</i>	<i>268, 466</i>	+2.1	<i>6, 024, 626</i>	+3.8
Rhode Island.....	1, 145	93, 335	+5	1, 968, 881	+1.5	428	76, 929	+7	1, 552, 548	+2.2
Connecticut.....	2, 313	191, 963	+6	4, 654, 957	+2.3	711	157, 187	+1.9	3, 708, 207	+3.6
Middle Atlantic	31, 785	2, 015, 414	+1.3	53, 104, 834	+2.4	5, 915	1, 132, 695	+1.9	29, 007, 159	+3.3
New York.....	20, 241	895, 064	+9	24, 596, 611	+8	<i>2, 034</i>	<i>385, 028</i>	+2.1	<i>10, 343, 265</i>	+2.2
New Jersey.....	3, 898	345, 240	+1.0	9, 001, 718	+2.3	1, 612	274, 941	+1.5	7, 039, 474	+3.2
Pennsylvania.....	7, 646	775, 110	+2.0	19, 506, 505	+4.5	<i>2, 269</i>	<i>472, 726</i>	+2.1	<i>11, 619, 420</i>	+4.1
East North Central	24, 137	2, 043, 814	+7	55, 012, 097	+1.1	8, 415	1, 537, 546	+1.1	42, 041, 032	+1.7
Ohio.....	6, 729	511, 176	+9	13, 652, 893	+2.7	2, 389	392, 463	+1.2	10, 705, 486	+3.6
Indiana.....	<i>2, 795</i>	<i>245, 967</i>	+2.5	<i>6, 243, 281</i>	+2.9	<i>1, 074</i>	<i>196, 877</i>	+2.9	<i>5, 144, 084</i>	+3.5
Illinois.....	⁴ 6, 910	680, 893	+8	15, 309, 719	+1.8	<i>2, 457</i>	<i>582, 316</i>	+2.1	<i>9, 989, 359</i>	+3.0
Michigan.....	3, 473	482, 123	-1.0	14, 064, 297	-3.6	1, 041	410, 526	-1.3	12, 186, 027	-3.5
Wisconsin.....	⁵ 4, 290	<i>224, 255</i>	+2.2	<i>5, 741, 907</i>	+5.9	<i>1, 454</i>	<i>155, 364</i>	+2.6	<i>4, 036, 076</i>	+7.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in January and February 1939, by Geographic Divisions and by States—Continued

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1939	Percentage change from January 1939
				<i>Dollars</i>					<i>Dollars</i>	
West North Central.....	11,440	408,238	-(7)	10,053,477	-(7)	2,441	200,776	+0.8	4,896,624	+0.5
Minnesota.....	\$ 2,680	180,749	+1.3	3,245,470	+2.9	638	48,612	+3.2	1,266,320	+5.0
Iowa.....	1,792	54,276	-7	1,327,414	+8	361	31,089	-5	788,322	+2.1
Missouri.....	2,554	149,274	+4	3,550,906	-6	769	88,836	+1.1	2,044,465	-5
North Dakota.....	545	4,444	-3.0	111,821	+1	25	381	+1.1	10,037	-3.0
South Dakota.....	434	5,452	-1.6	125,614	-6.8	30	2,189	+1.5	53,387	-10.7
Nebraska.....	949	23,296	-2.1	532,691	-4.4	132	7,996	-5.3	192,278	-11.0
Kansas.....	\$ 2,486	50,737 ¹⁰	-3.2	1,159,561	3 -1.7	486	21,673	-1.6	541,816	-2.3
South Atlantic.....	10,430	835,509	+5	15,944,459	+1.7	2,900	585,195	+6	10,247,023	+2.2
Delaware.....	225	14,600	+2.1	335,185	+1.3	83	10,775	+1.5	251,817	+6
Maryland.....	1,579	130,174	+2.5	3,123,018	+3.3	643	91,289 ²	+3.7	2,176,647	3 +4.7
District of Columbia.....	1,011	32,702	-4	898,841	-1.3	40	3,371	+9	112,654	+1.0
Virginia.....	1,882	105,026	+5	1,935,661	+1.7	444	76,186	+5	1,362,306	+1.7
West Virginia.....	1,076	126,564	+6	3,123,814	+2.9	202	48,649	+1.5	1,197,392	+4.4
North Carolina.....	1,565	180,204	+9	2,723,457	+2.1	677	166,899	+1.1	2,488,124	+2.4
South Carolina.....	764	82,807	+1.0	1,169,208	+1.2	242	75,875	+1.2	1,043,392	+1.3
Georgia.....	1,377	115,842	-4	1,803,071	-1	387	91,172	-1.6	1,294,167	-2
Florida.....	951	47,590	-4.3	832,204	-2.1	182	20,979	-13.4	320,524	-11.6
East South Central.....	4,339	273,367	+4	5,014,567	+2.0	1,042	175,753	+1.0	3,006,101	+1.5
Kentucky.....	1,286	79,176	-1.0	1,656,113	+1.3	280	33,592	-1	701,117	-1.9
Tennessee.....	1,173	93,803	+1.3	1,655,188	+2.9	355	71,016	+1.8	1,218,222	+3.8
Alabama.....	1,412	83,819	+5	1,458,825	+1.6	325	59,650	+6	929,041	+3.8
Mississippi.....	468	16,569	+1.7	244,441	+2.4	82	11,495	+2.2	157,721	+1.0
West South Central.....	5,579	211,518	+5	4,667,538	+2	1,285	107,024	+1.3	2,267,124	+4
Arkansas.....	¹¹ 1,160	53,338	-7	574,665	-2	326	21,526	-2	349,865	+2
Louisiana.....	919	49,715	+1.9	963,140	+7	225	28,626	+1.9	520,450	+1.2
Oklahoma.....	1,206	35,002	+6	868,116	+4	133	9,956	+3.4	222,517	+9
Texas.....	2,294	93,463	+2	2,261,617	-(7)	601	46,916	+1.3	1,174,292	-1
Mountain.....	3,677	106,861	-3.0	2,753,068	-2.9	541	29,835	-7.2	754,280	-2.0
Montana.....	575	15,826	-1.6	435,257	-9.3	69	4,430	-2.4	109,575	-8.2
Idaho.....	469	8,970	-10.6	221,670	-6.1	60	2,128	-32.1	49,142	-21.8
Wyoming.....	313	7,836	-3.1	224,636	-1.2	38	1,101	-15.9	38,692	-4.4
Colorado.....	999	35,270	-7	906,550	+2.5	191	12,857	-6	339,572	+8.3
New Mexico.....	276	5,794	-2.0	132,430	+2.0	33	811	-15.6	14,314	-17.1
Arizona.....	385	12,888	-3.7	336,823	-3.9	39	2,723	-3.3	63,840	-3.2
Utah.....	504	17,902	-4.6	424,505	-6.2	96	5,510	-11.3	131,208	-8.7
Nevada.....	156	2,375	-1.7	71,197	-4.4	15	275	+10.0	7,937	+17.8
Pacific.....	9,915	422,890	-2	12,162,697	-2	2,630	217,260	+1.2	6,034,294	+1.6
Washington.....	2,496	82,343	-2	2,220,451	-8	543	45,241	+2	1,195,501	-1.0
Oregon.....	1,255	39,872	-5	1,064,908	+8	286	24,053	-3	611,622	+1.3
California.....	¹² 6,164	300,665	-1	8,877,338	-1	1,801	147,966	+1.8	4,227,171	+2.3

¹ Includes banks and trust companies; construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment; amusement and recreation; professional services; and trucking and handling.

² Includes laundering and cleaning; and water, light, and power.

³ Weighted percentage change.

⁴ Includes automobile and miscellaneous services; restaurants; and building and contracting.

⁵ Includes construction, but not public works.

⁶ Does not include logging.

⁷ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

⁸ Includes banks; real estate; pipe line transportation; trucking and transfer; railroads (other than repair shops); motor transportation (other than operation and maintenance); water transportation; hospitals and clinics; personal, business, mechanical repair, and miscellaneous services; and building construction.

⁹ Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.

¹⁰ Weighted percentage change including hired farm labor.

¹¹ Includes automobile dealers and garages; and sand, gravel, and building stone.

¹² Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

**INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL
METROPOLITAN AREAS**

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in January and February 1939 is made in table 4 for 13 metropolitan areas which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas, but having a population of 100,000 or over, are not included. Footnotes to the table indicate which cities are excluded. Data concerning them are presented in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more, according to the 1930 Census of Population.

**TABLE 4.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in
January and February 1939 by Principal Metropolitan Areas**

Metropolitan area	Number of establish- ments, February	Number on pay roll, February	Percentage change from January	Amount of pay roll (1 week), February	Percentage change from January
New York, N. Y.....	14,490	602,688	+ 6	\$16,418,754	+1.5
Chicago, Ill.....	4,544	415,820	+ 2	11,376,458	- 3
Philadelphia, Pa.....	2,063	192,193	+1.2	5,120,180	+1.0
Detroit, Mich.....	1,414	319,799	-1.5	9,793,849	-6.2
Los Angeles, Calif.....	2,938	148,335	+ 7	4,339,066	- 1
Cleveland, Ohio.....	1,546	109,969	+ 8	3,109,065	+3.5
St. Louis, Mo.....	1,366	116,131	+1.0	2,836,747	+ 5
Baltimore, Md.....	1,157	98,317	+1.6	2,372,806	+2.9
Boston, Mass.....	1,510	106,152	+1.1	2,884,851	+ 8
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	1,058	161,742	+2.6	4,380,265	+5.0
San Francisco, Calif.....	1,669	80,690	+ 8	2,425,268	+ 6
Buffalo, N. Y.....	838	64,903	-(1)	1,686,040	- 2
Milwaukee, Wis.....	993	95,145	+2.4	2,652,319	+6.2

¹ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.



**UNEMPLOYMENT IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, WINTER
OF 1938-39**

THE UNEMPLOYMENT situation was unsatisfactory in many countries during the winter months of 1938-39. Throughout 1938, official statistics of trade-union unemployment, unemployed registered, and returns for some compulsorily insured workers reflected an increasing volume of unemployment. Statistical series of various kinds showed that the peak of unemployment reached in December 1938 or January 1939 was higher than a year earlier.

In Great Britain the number of persons registered with employment exchanges in January was in excess of 2 million for the first time since February 1936. Using the available figures in evaluating the unemployment situation in foreign countries, Belgium, Canada, France, and Ireland were in a less favorable position in the winter just past than a year earlier. Conditions were better in Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, and Sweden as compared with unemployment in the winter of 1937-38.

The table following gives statistics of unemployment in foreign countries as officially reported, by years from 1933 to 1938, and by months beginning with February 1938 and including the latest month for which figures are available. Beyond comparisons of the figures in a single series for different periods, it is not possible to use the official unemployment statistics to measure volume of unemployment in a single country or to compare conditions in one country with those in another, owing to the fact that the coverage is not always complete. For example, only insured persons may be reported in some instances, or certain classes, such as agricultural labor, may be excluded.

Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries

Year and date (end of month)	Australia		Austria	Belgium			
	Trade-unionists unemployed		Compulsory insurance, number of unemployed in receipt of benefit	Unemployment-insurance societies			
				Wholly unemployed		Partially unemployed	
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1933.....	104,035	25.1	328,844	168,033	17.0	170,023	17.2
1934.....	86,865	20.5	287,528	182,855	19.0	166,229	17.2
1935.....	71,823	15.6	261,768	165,469	17.9	118,754	12.8
1936.....	53,992	12.2	259,185	122,256	13.4	91,451	10.0
1937.....	41,823	9.3	231,313	104,785	11.5	89,281	9.8
1938.....	40,526	8.7	174,048	132,708	13.9	163,651	16.4
<i>1938</i>							
February.....			300,294	141,499	15.3	164,444	17.8
March.....	37,111	8.0	263,000	131,007	14.2	136,510	14.8
April.....			¹ 280,137	121,734	13.1	136,141	14.7
May.....			¹ 245,660	121,763	13.1	171,217	18.4
June.....	39,824	8.6	¹ 190,310	115,382	12.3	158,064	16.8
July.....			¹ 123,619	114,555	12.1	152,286	16.1
August.....			¹ 91,511	118,750	12.5	149,096	15.7
September.....	43,092	9.2	¹ 73,488	124,010	13.0	144,076	15.1
October.....			¹ 69,617	135,847	14.1	154,827	16.1
November.....			¹ 72,051	150,892	15.5	156,470	16.1
December.....	42,077	8.9	¹ 76,621	167,145	16.9	232,788	23.6
<i>1939</i>							
January.....				173,299	17.4	218,334	21.9
February.....							

¹ Revised series—increased coverage.

Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries—Continued

Year and date (end of month)	Canada	Danzig, Free City of	Denmark		Estonia	Finland
	Percent of trade-unionists unemployed	Number of unemployed registered	Trade-union unemployment funds—unemployed		Number unemployed remaining on live register	Number of unemployed registered
			Number	Percent		
1933.....	22.3	31,408	97,417	28.8	8,210	17,139
1934.....	18.2	20,326	81,756	22.2	2,970	10,011
1935.....	15.4	17,983	76,195	19.8	1,779	7,163
1936.....	13.3	13,553	73,669	19.3	1,276	4,796
1937.....	10.7	8,009	95,103	21.9	1,158	3,763
1938.....	13.1	3,499	97,076	21.4	1,243	3,602
<i>1938</i>						
February.....	13.7	8,580	124,228	27.7	1,798	4,544
March.....	12.8	4,722	99,076	22.1	1,805	3,635
April.....	13.1	3,157	90,983	20.3	1,302	3,462
May.....	13.2	2,022	78,541	17.5	872	2,963
June.....	13.5	1,544	75,227	16.7	684	2,414
July.....	14.0	1,139	76,743	16.9	519	2,186
August.....	11.6	1,048	76,659	16.9	522	2,747
September.....	10.4	1,200	76,739	16.8	607	3,192
October.....	12.3	1,757	86,188	18.8	999	4,041
November.....	13.7	1,985	103,701	22.7	1,719	5,172
December.....	16.2	4,612	146,533	31.6	1,831	4,294
<i>1939</i>						
January.....	15.9	2,602	139,225	29.9	2,252	5,006
February.....		1,812	126,592	27.1	1,996	4,412
March.....			112,701	24.1	1,769	4,331

Year and date (end of month)	France	Germany	Great Britain	Great Britain and Northern Ireland			
				Compulsory insurance			
				Wholly unemployed		Temporary stop-pages	
				Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	Number of unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number of unemployed registered	Number of persons registered with employment exchanges ¹				
1933.....	276,033	4,733,014	2,520,616	2,110,090	16.4	456,678	3.5
1934.....	345,033	2,718,309	2,159,231	1,801,913	13.9	368,906	2.9
1935.....	426,931	2,151,039	2,036,422	1,714,844	13.2	312,958	2.3
1936.....	432,120	1,592,630	1,754,975	1,497,587	11.3	251,379	1.9
1937.....	350,458	912,312		1,277,928	9.4	204,020	1.5
1938.....	375,742	429,461	1,790,681	1,423,662	10.3	378,918	2.8
<i>1938</i>							
February.....	412,386	946,431	1,810,421	1,466,887	10.7	340,630	2.5
March.....	398,254	507,649	1,748,981	1,425,596	10.4	338,483	2.5
April.....	393,054	422,530	1,747,764	1,394,315	10.2	365,599	2.7
May.....	380,826	338,355	1,778,805	1,375,768	10.0	404,303	3.0
June.....	362,899	292,240	1,802,912	1,351,865	9.9	477,617	3.5
July.....	344,517	218,328	1,773,116	1,338,509	9.8	480,569	3.5
August.....	338,383	178,762	1,759,242	1,333,082	9.7	447,161	3.3
September.....	338,409	155,996	1,798,618	1,387,087	10.1	419,695	3.1
October.....	361,724	163,941	1,781,227	1,516,467	10.2	314,161	2.1
November.....	367,106	152,430	1,828,103	1,568,883	10.6	311,562	2.1
December.....	404,730	455,656	1,831,372	1,591,128	10.7	299,831	2.0
<i>1939</i>							
January.....	415,987	301,897	2,039,026	1,711,087	11.5	385,995	2.6
February.....	414,756	196,770	1,896,718	1,660,654	11.2	297,601	2.0
March.....	400,075		1,726,929	1,550,785	10.5	238,046	1.6

¹ Provisional figure.² New series from September 1937.⁴ Includes the Saar.⁵ Includes agricultural and domestic labor.

Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries—Continued

Year and date (end of month)	Hungary			Ireland	Japan		Latvia	
	Employment exchanges, applications for work	Trade-unionists unemployed			Compulsory insurance—number unemployed	Official estimates, unemployed		
		Christian (Buda- *pest)	Social Democratic			Number		Percent
1933.....	60,595	1,085	26,716	72,255	408,710	5.6	8,156	
1934.....	52,157	996	22,291	103,671	372,941	5.0	4,972	
1935.....	52,048	967	18,315	⁶ 119,498	356,103	4.6	4,825	
1936.....	52,114	800	15,637	99,834	338,365	4.3	3,851	
1937.....	48,359	945	14,279	82,425	295,443	3.7	3,014	
1938.....	47,426	88,714	2,164	
<i>1938</i>								
February.....	50,442	1,211	18,142	104,829	265,845	3.3	4,071	
March.....	50,850	1,150	17,486	103,515	254,906	3.1	3,622	
April.....	47,423	1,061	18,476	100,076	243,093	3.0	2,611	
May.....	46,445	1,022	18,767	97,571	227,992	2.9	1,313	
June.....	45,415	1,214	19,191	71,959	230,262	2.9	1,148	
July.....	45,454	1,205	19,134	68,320	887	
August.....	47,659	1,115	15,534	70,552	604	
September.....	47,413	946	12,889	70,411	663	
October.....	45,328	91,280	1,060	
November.....	43,631	93,223	2,132	
December.....	49,216	88,380	3,737	
<i>1939</i>								
January.....	54,262	105,012	4,330	
February.....	105,457	4,208	
March.....	106,859	
Year and date (end of month)	Netherlands		New Zealand	Norway		Poland		
	Unemployment insurance societies—unemployed			Number unemployed registered by employment exchanges ⁷	Trade-unionists (10 unions) unemployed		Number unemployed remaining on live register	
	Number	Percent			Number			Percent
1933.....	163,000	31.0	46,971	16,588	33.4	35,591	249,660	
1934.....	160,400	32.1	39,235	15,963	30.7	35,121	342,166	
1935.....	173,673	36.3	38,234	14,783	25.3	36,103	381,935	
1936.....	168,668	36.2	36,890	13,267	18.8	32,643	367,327	
1937.....	137,700	29.2	16,532	20.0	28,520	375,088	
1938.....	134,181	27.3	19,230	22.0	28,923	347,509	
<i>1938</i>								
February.....	156,575	31.2	7,241	24,321	28.2	35,311	547,983	
March.....	142,578	29.2	6,695	22,916	26.5	34,104	493,000	
April.....	133,106	27.0	7,215	21,256	24.5	29,850	393,291	
May.....	128,016	26.0	8,314	17,853	20.5	25,693	304,336	
June.....	122,873	24.9	8,721	16,197	18.5	22,938	296,322	
July.....	122,013	24.6	3,929	14,843	16.9	20,144	276,759	
August.....	118,894	23.9	2,154	14,504	16.4	21,068	211,076	
September.....	118,383	23.8	1,575	15,683	17.7	26,105	213,781	
October.....	119,397	26.6	1,245	16,940	18.5	30,085	234,534	
November.....	126,613	25.3	1,026	18,519	20.7	33,861	316,474	
December.....	155,434	30.8	917	23,426	26.2	34,873	455,470	
<i>1939</i>								
January.....	158,085	31.3	1,036	24,584	27.6	34,122	542,120	
February.....	² 132,308	26.5	34,713	539,512	
March.....	² 118,879	23.6	33,194	496,324	

² Provisional figure.⁶ Incomplete figures.⁷ New series from 1933 through September 1937; revised in October 1937.

Statement of Unemployment in Foreign Countries—Continued

Year and date (end of month)	Rumania	Sweden		Switzerland				Yugo-slavia
	Number unem- ployed remaining on live register	Trade-unionists unemployed		Unemployment funds				Number of unem- ployed regis- tered
		Number	Percent	Wholly unem- ployed		Partially unem- ployed		
				Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
1933	29,060	97,316	23.7	-----	10.8	-----	8.5	15,997
1934	16,871	80,216	18.9	-----	9.8	-----	6.1	15,647
1935	13,852	81,385	16.1	-----	11.8	-----	5.9	16,752
1936	13,549	71,552	13.6	-----	13.2	-----	5.3	19,436
1937	10,851	67,351	11.6	-----	10.0	-----	2.5	21,650
1938	-----	74,255	11.8	-----	8.6	-----	4.5	22,517
<i>1938</i>								
February	11,927	89,614	14.5	75,900	13.6	23,400	4.4	42,145
March	10,907	84,474	13.7	52,067	9.6	25,074	4.7	36,413
April	7,957	71,812	11.6	42,100	7.5	24,200	4.6	29,184
May	5,618	56,281	9.1	37,900	6.8	24,900	4.7	18,023
June	5,348	57,285	9.3	34,005	6.3	25,580	4.7	14,828
July	3,836	49,093	8.0	32,700	5.8	24,800	4.6	13,049
August	4,807	50,461	8.1	33,600	6.0	23,800	4.4	10,973
September	5,493	51,557	8.2	34,264	6.3	23,502	4.3	10,926
October	5,290	62,137	9.8	38,400	6.8	22,000	4.1	12,103
November	5,382	75,289	11.9	46,500	8.2	22,700	4.2	14,739
December	-----	122,357	19.1	74,689	13.7	26,178	4.8	23,590
<i>1939</i>								
January	-----	101,179	15.0	-----	13.3	-----	4.3	32,831
February	-----	91,456	13.3	-----	11.4	-----	4.3	36,699

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

APRIL 1939

Agriculture

Farm labor conditions in Gloucester, Hunterdon, and Monmouth Counties, New Jersey, April-May 1936. By Josiah C. Folsom. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1939. 51 pp.; mimeographed.

The study covered labor conditions, and both wage workers and unpaid family laborers, on 2,064 farms in three counties representing differing and important types of agriculture and agricultural labor situations.

Prices paid by farmers [in Vermont] for goods and services and received by them for farm products, 1790-1871; wages of farm labor, 1780-1937. A preliminary report, by T. M. Adams. Burlington, Vt., Vermont Agricultural Experiment Station, February 1939. 54 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Part-time farming in the United States—a selected list of references. Compiled by Helen E. Hennefrund. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, February 1939. 272 pp.; mimeographed. (Agricultural Economics Bibliography No. 77.)

References to material on part-time farming and subsistence homesteads in the United States from approximately 1900 through October 1938. This bibliography brings together references in several previous bibliographies in this field issued by the Department of Agriculture.

Agricultural labor organization in France. By Michel Cépède. (In *Rural Sociology*, Baton Rouge, La., March 1939, pp. 26-35.)

The article contains data on number of farm workers in France classified as to age and sex, whether full-time or part-time, and whether family, wage-paid French, or wage-paid foreign workers; wages and working hours; legislation regarding paid holidays for agricultural workers; and proposed legislation concerning agricultural labor.

El asalariado rural de 19 países. By Moisés T. de la Peña. (In *Revista de Economía, Sindicato Nacional de Economistas, México, D. F.*, September-December 1938, pp. 729-757.)

Reviews agricultural conditions and summarizes legislation for the benefit of agricultural wage-earners in 19 countries, including some in North and South America, Europe, and Asia.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperation in the United States, 1936. By Florence E. Parker. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 207 pp. (Bulletin No. 659.)

The Cooperative League yearbook, 1939. New York, Northern States Cooperative League, 1939. 213 pp.

In 6 parts dealing, respectively, with general topics; educational organizations; distributive organizations, national and regional; housing associations, retail societies, and district federations; finance—credit and insurance; and statistics of individual associations.

Directory of cooperative associations handling consumers' goods or performing consumer services. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, January 1, 1939. 76 pp.; mimeographed.

Cooperation at home and abroad—a description and analysis: Vol. II, 1908–1938. By C. R. Fay. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1939. 540 pp.

This volume, which is really a supplementary report to the author's earlier study (reissued as Volume I), introduces information on a number of countries not treated in the earlier book, and brings up to date (1938) the material on the countries before covered.

Cost and Standards of Living

Changes in cost of living, December 15, 1938, and year 1938. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 885.)

Family income in Chicago, 1935–36. By A. D. H. Kaplan and Faith M. Williams. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. x, 210 pp., charts. (Bulletin No. 642, Vol. I.)

Preliminary investigation into measures of a national or international character for raising the standard of living. By N. F. Hall. Geneva, League of Nations, 1938. 91 pp.

This memorandum discusses the value of approaching economic problems by way of standards of living; the questions of economic policies and deficiencies in consumption; relationship between the new technique of consumption and production and the standard of life; the practical possibilities of raising living standards; and the economic development of primitive communities.

Your community, its provision for health, education, safety, and welfare. By Joanna C. Colcord. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. 249 pp.; bibliography.

A textbook showing what to look for in studying a community and how to proceed. It is intended for groups such as social workers who are interested in improving living conditions and is not of a highly technical character.

Economic and Social Problems

America reborn: A plan for decentralization of industry. By Ralph L. Woods. New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1939. 376 pp.

The author explains the causes of what he views as our excessive urban centralization, describes its effects, and discusses the forces and agencies making for what he considers a more satisfactory distribution of industry, wealth, and population.

Economic problems in a changing world. Edited by Willard L. Thorp. New York, Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1939. 802 pp.

A symposium by 10 contributors. The section dealing directly with labor, by the late Edward Berman, comprises about one-sixth of the volume. It deals with collective bargaining, wages, unemployment, labor legislation, and the history and characteristics of unionism. A section on consumer problems includes discussions of the standard of living, consumers' cooperation, and other topics affecting particularly the status of wage earners. Other sections deal with prices, management, capital and the control of capital formation, Government and economic life, and problems of economic conflict. Each chapter is followed by a brief reading list.

The functions of the executive. By Chester I. Barnard. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1938. xvi, 334 pp.

Revision of lectures at the Lowell Institute. The author discusses, both theoretically and from the point of view of his experience as an executive, the place of leaders and organizations in the process of cooperation and social integration. He emphasizes the view that only as men choose to work together, from the local to the world environment, can they achieve full personal development.

Das soziale leben im neuen Deutschland unter besonderer berücksichtigung der deutschen Arbeitsfront. By Willy Müller. Berlin, Verlag E. S. Mittler & Sohn, 1938. 197 pp.

Deals with economic and social conditions under the present regime in Germany and during the republic.

State interference in South Africa. By F. J. Van Biljon. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1939. 322 pp.

Analysis of State interference in the chief spheres of economic policy. One chapter is devoted to wages and labor conditions, and the cooperative movement is discussed in a chapter on agricultural development and marketing.

Structural changes and business cycles in South Africa, 1806-1936. By C. G. W. Schumann. London, P. S. King & Son, Ltd., 1938. 397 pp.; bibliography.

Employment and Unemployment

Seasonal variations in employment in the United States. By W. S. Woytinsky. Washington, Social Science Research Council, Committee on Social Security, 1939. 154 pp., charts.

Report prepared for the Committee on Social Security of the Social Science Research Council, as part of a general study of industrial, occupational, and employment statistics in relation to the social-security program. There is a discussion of the methods used. The volume deals with a wide range of employments in addition to manufacturing industries. The problem of seasonality is discussed in national terms only and the report is described as intended primarily as a means of stimulating similar studies of limited areas and of particular industries.

Seasonality in the tobacco industry. By Raymond Cella. Frankfort, Ky., Unemployment Compensation Commission, 1938. 49 pp., charts. (Research Report No. 7.)

Based on schedules of a limited number of firms in the various branches of the tobacco industry, 1929 to 1938. Seasonality of employment is emphasized, but a table and a chart are devoted to variations of monthly earnings. The highly seasonal nature of employment is illustrated by the figures for redryers of burley and dark tobacco. In the 1937-38 season, weekly employment, expressed as percentages of the year's normal, ranged from 16.8 to 360.6.

The effect of wage increases upon employment. By Paul H. Douglas. (In Papers and proceedings of fifty-first annual meeting of American Economic Association, American Economic Review, Menasha, Wis., March 1939, Part 2, Supplement, pp. 138-157.)

The author gives a mathematical analysis of the subject and summarizes his conclusions to the effect that "The Great Depression" cannot be charged to wage costs because these were relatively low in comparison with prices; that unit labor costs remained comparatively low throughout the depression; and that the disparity was only gradually reduced between 1933 and 1937. Some of the other papers at the annual meeting dealt with related subjects.

Concepts used in unemployment surveys. By John N. Webb. (In Journal of American Statistical Association, Washington, March 1939, pp. 49-61; also reprinted.)

A summary of this article was given in a paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Statistical Association in Detroit, December 27, 1938. The author describes concepts previously used and administrative experience in using them. The discussion at the meeting, by members of the staff of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, included suggestions for changes and emphasized the necessity for more satisfactory definitions of employment and unemployment, for use in the Census of 1940, than those used in the Census of 1930.

Factory Inspection

The organization of labor inspection in industrial and commercial undertakings. Report to Preparatory Technical Conference, Geneva, May 1939. Geneva, International Labor Office, 1939. 358 pp.

A historical survey of factory inspection in Great Britain. By D. H. Bletloch. (In International Labor Review, Geneva, November 1938, pp. 614-659.)

Yrkesinspektionens verksamhet år 1937. Stockholm, Riksförsäkringsanstalten, 1939. 128 pp., diagrams, illus.

Report on labor inspection in Sweden in 1937, including information on measures for prevention of industrial accidents and diseases, and statistics of accidents. There is a French translation of the table of contents.

Factory inspection standards and qualifications for factory inspectors. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1939. 10 pp.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Proceedings (abstracted) of First Annual Congress on Industrial Health, Chicago, January 9-10, 1939. Chicago, American Medical Association, 1939. 25 pp.

A brief account of this meeting was published in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1939 (p. 595).

Ten years' experience with industrial hygiene in connection with manufacture of viscose rayon. By H. L. Barthelemy. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, Md., April 1939, pp. 141-151.)

The writer discusses the potential health hazards in viscose-rayon manufacture and measures taken to safeguard the workers in a plant in Georgia.

Silicosis and asbestosis. By various authors; edited by A. J. Lanza, M. D. New York, Oxford University Press, 1938. xxvi, 439 pp., illus.

This volume has for its purpose the presentation of the medical and public health aspects of silicosis and asbestosis. The history of the two diseases is given and there are sections on the etiology, symptoms, and diagnosis of silicosis and asbestosis; X-ray diagnosis; pathology of the diseases; experimental pathology; occupational, preventive, and legislative aspects in Great Britain; and public health and economic aspects in the United States. Each chapter has a bibliography.

Silicosis and its prevention. By Adelaide Ross Smith, M. D. Albany, New York State Department of Labor, 1938. 61 pp. (Special Bulletin No. 198.)

Designed as a reference manual on the causes, characteristics, and prevention of silicosis. A chapter on workmen's compensation for silicosis and a bibliography are also included.

Routine sampling for control of atmospheric impurities. Pittsburgh, Air Hygiene Foundation of America, Inc., 1939. 19 pp. (Preventive Engineering Series, Bulletin No. 2, Part 8.)

The bulletin lists proved methods of collection, determination, and apparatus for checking 45 dangerous fumes, dusts, or gases commonly found in industrial atmospheres. Procedures are recommended for sampling for atmospheric impurities for both high and low air-velocity operations, and dust analysis and gas sampling methods are described.

Vocational hygiene. By Daniel Caplin and S. G. Ocean. New York, Globe Book Co., 1938. 225 pp.

Manual of instruction in occupational diseases and accidents and first aid for vocational high-school students.

Health and Invalidity Insurance

Health insurance plans: C, Company noncontributory disability benefit plans. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1939. 27 pp. (Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 11.)

Covers plans of 48 companies employing 641,608 persons.

British health-insurance system. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 870, reprint from January 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Beretning fra Invalideforsikringsretten for aaret 1937. Copenhagen, 1938. 98 pp., folders.

Report on operation of the Invalidity Insurance Office in Denmark in 1937. Appended to the report is a summary in French of the legislation concerning the Invalidity Insurance Court and its activities, including a brief account of the organization and administration of the invalidity-insurance system. French translations are also given for some of the table heads in the report.

Seguros de enfermedad y asistencia médica en el ambiente rural. By Edgardo Rebagliati. (In Informaciones Sociales, Caja Nacional de Seguro Social del Peru, Lima, January 1939, pp. 5-31.)

An account, with figures for recent years, of sickness insurance in a number of countries, and a discussion of the application of such insurance to rural workers.

Housing

Low-rent housing: Report of New York State Board of Housing. Albany, 1939. 91 pp., illus. (Legislative Document, 1939, No. 60.)

Covers the need for housing, the housing amendment to the New York State Constitution, activities of the various housing authorities, and statistics relating to projects. Summary data on 14 projects in New York City and its environs are given in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Housing in Pittsburgh, 1934-1937. Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh Housing Association, [1938]. 32 pp., charts, illus.

A review of recent trends in housing generally and the situation in the Pittsburgh area particularly.

Greenbelt faces 1939. By Hugh A. Boone. (In *American City*, New York, February 1939, pp. 59-61, illus.)

Describes the management and social developments in Greenbelt, Md., and lists the problems facing the community. Greenbelt was a project of the Resettlement Administration and is the oldest of the Federal Government's three planned cities, the other two being Greendale, Wis., and Greenhills, Ohio.

Housing requirements of farm families in the United States. By Maud Wilson. Washington, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1939. 39 pp., chart. (Miscellaneous Publication No. 322.)

Suggested housing standards for the various farming regions of the country, taking into account the differing needs.

Construcción de ocho mil viviendas colectivas para obreros y empleados del estado y obreros en general. By Alberto F. Taiana. (In *La Habitación Popular*, Ministerio del Interior, Comisión Nacional de Casas Baratas, Buenos Aires, October-December 1938, pp. 335-367; illus.)

Discusses the housing situation in Buenos Aires and reviews the housing experience of Great Britain, Italy, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Brazil, and the United States. A plan is outlined for the erection by the Argentine Government of apartment houses to care for more than 8,000 families of salaried and wage-earning employees of the Government and wage-earning employees in general.

Industrial Accidents and Safety

Causes and prevention of accidents in fertilizer industry, 1936 and 1937. By Roy F. Fleming and Jacob Lotven. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 880, reprint from April 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

The organization of safety services in industrial undertakings in the U. S. A.: An analytical review of American industrial safety movement. (In *Industrial Safety Survey*, International Labor Office, Geneva, September-October 1938, pp. 133-142; also reprinted.)

American standard safety code for protection of heads, eyes, and respiratory organs. Washington, U. S. National Bureau of Standards, November 1, 1938. 95 pp. (National Bureau of Standards Handbook H24, superseding H2.)

Annual safety equipment issue, 1939, National Safety News. Chicago, National Safety Council, Inc., March 1939. 212 pp.

This annual safety equipment issue is planned to help members of the National Safety Council in the purchasing, maintenance, and use of safety equipment. The information presented gives a broad general basis of industrial safety knowledge and outlines in specific detail many methods of standard safety procedure.

Industrial Relations

Industrial relations in 1938. By Florence Peterson. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 16 pp. (Serial No. R. 905, reprint from March 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Second annual report of Pennsylvania Labor Relations Board, for calendar year ended December 31, 1938. Harrisburg, 1939. 28 pp.; mimeographed.

Report of Wisconsin Labor Relations Board covering period April 28, 1937, to November 30, 1938. Madison, 1938. 28 pp.; mimeographed.

Papers presented at first annual Stanford Industrial Relations Conference, March 21-25, 1938. Stanford University, Calif., Stanford University, Division of Industrial Relations, [1938?]. 150 pp.

Among the papers reproduced in the volume are the following: Recent trends in industrial relations, by C. J. Hicks; The future of industrial relations, by Arthur H. Young; Development of the independent union, by Albert S. Regula; Problems of negotiation with a union, by W. G. Storie; British and American trade-union practice, by Sumner H. Slichter; The adjustment of private pension programs to the Social Security Act, by J. Douglas Brown; Economic trends in wages and hours, by Sumner H. Slichter; and The place and function of the industrial-relations executive in collective bargaining, by J. Douglas Brown.

Employer associations in collective bargaining. By Almon E. Roth, Ivan L. Willis, A. B. Gates. New York, American Management Association, 1939. 27 pp. (Personnel Series, Number 37.)

Speeches by three employer representatives, before the American Management Association's recent personnel conference in Chicago, on the pros and cons of dealing with trade-unions through employers' associations, based largely on the San Francisco, British, and Swedish experiences.

L'Évolution des conventions collectives de travail. By Jean-Marie Arnion. Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, [1938?]. 274 pp.

In this study of the development of collective agreements in France from 1884 to the present time, the author discusses the conditions leading up to the enactment of the laws of 1919 and 1936 and the effects of the laws.

Les rapports entre patrons et ouvriers. By Pierre Laroque. Paris, Fernand Aubier, 1938. 430 pp.

The writer explains the changes in the relationship between employers and workers in France since 1936, based on the history of these relationships since the eighteenth century and particularly on developments since the World War.

A survey of methods for promotion of industrial peace. By George T. Starnes, John R. McCutcheon, James M. Stepp. Charlottesville, Va., Bureau of Public Administration, 1939. 146 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (Report, Series B, No. 4.)

A study of the problem of industrial strife and the methods of dealing with it in Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, Sweden, and in different areas and industries in the United States.

Labor and Social Legislation

State labor relations acts. By Arthur Harris. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, February 10, 1939. 30 pp., mimeographed. (1939 Legislative Problems, No. 2.)

The pamphlet contains a comparative analysis in tabular form of the principal provisions of the National and State labor relations acts, with discussion of the acts and of the jurisdiction of labor relations boards. One section is devoted to a consideration of labor relations boards in California. A brief reading list is appended.

Derecho social colombiano. By Ernesto Herrstadt. Bogotá, Ediciones "Antena," 1939. 257 pp.

A treatise on social legislation in Colombia, covering the labor contract, right of association, collective labor conflicts, governmental intervention in labor matters, work of women and minors, industrial hygiene, workmen's compensation, weekly rest, maximum working hours, special provisions for private and for public employees as classes, improvement of housing, cooperative societies, and other matters.

Codigo del trabajo, Ecuador, 1938. Quito, Ministerio de Previsión Social y Trabajo, 1939. 130 pp.

Text of the Labor Code of Ecuador adopted in 1938. Major topics treated include individual and collective labor agreements, occupational hazards, workers' associations, labor conflicts, penalties for infraction of the code, and statute of limitations.

Labor legislation affecting the deaf. By Alfred E. Stephens. (In American Annals of the Deaf, Washington, March 1939, pp. 132-136.)

Labor Organization and Activities

Here comes labor. By Chester M. Wright. New York, Macmillan Co., 1939. 122 pp.

A readable account of the aims and techniques of organized labor, and a portrayal of the leading personalities in the labor movement.

Industrial valley. By Ruth McKenney. New York. Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939. 379 pp.

Portrays the dramatic rise of the United Rubber Workers in Akron and the transformation of this one-time open-shop city, as the result of the depression and mass unemployment, into a stronghold of industrial unionism.

Histoire du mouvement ouvrier, 1872-1936. By Édouard Dolléans. Paris, Librairie Armand Colin, 1939. 402 pp.

History of the labor movement in France from 1872 to 1936.

Arthur Henderson—a biography. By Mary Agnes Hamilton. London, William Heinemann, Ltd., 1938. 461 pp.

In tracing the life of Arthur Henderson, important events in labor history in Great Britain are also presented chronologically.

Minimum Wage

The administration of minimum-wage laws in the United States. By Ethel M. Johnson. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, February 1939, pp. 149-183; also reprinted.)

State minimum-wage laws and orders—an analysis. By Florence P. Smith. Washington, U. S. Women's Bureau, 1939. 34 pp., pasters. (Bulletin No. 167.)

Minimum-salary legislation for teachers, 1937 and 1938. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, 1939. 25 pp., bibliography.

Occupations and Vocational Guidance

Aeronautical occupations for boys. By Burr Leyson. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1938. 207 pp., illus.

The principal occupations are described and information given as to training, average pay or salary, promotion opportunities, and other matters.

Getting a job in aviation. By Carl Norcross. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. xviii, 374 pp., illus.

The book is divided into 5 parts: Jobs in the air lines; Private and nonscheduled commercial flying; Federal Government jobs; Engineering and manufacturing; and Training. An introductory chapter discusses aviation as a career. A list of books and magazines on aviation is appended.

Employment in land transportation. By Felix B. Streyckmans. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1939. 48 pp., illus. (Occupational Monograph 2.)

Presents data on types of jobs, wages, present occupational outlook, and future trends.

How you can get a job. By Glenn L. Gardiner. New York, Harper & Bros., 1938. 226 pp. (Revised edition.)

The author gives counsel on how to determine what work one is best qualified to do, how to plan a job-getting campaign, how to discover job opportunities, who can help one to get a job, preparation for the employment interview, how an applicant should carry on his side of the interview, how job prospects should be followed up, and other problems confronting persons seeking employment.

Government agencies and vocational guidance. By Mary H. S. Hayes. (In *Occupations*, *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, New York, March 1939, pp. 507-511.)

Occupations and vocational guidance—a source list of pamphlet material. Compiled by Wilma Bennett. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1938. 160 pp. 3d edition, revised.

Canton occupational survey, 1938. By Herbert W. Benedict. Canton, Ohio, 1938. 316 pp.; mimeographed.

Results of a survey sponsored by the Canton Board of Education in cooperation with the State Board for Vocational Education. The report draws a series of occupational pictures from various angles in the hope that they will be useful in developing proper understanding of employment opportunities for young people in the city studied.

México en acción. México, Departamento Autónomo de Prensa y Publicidad, 1938. 137 pp., charts, illus.

Contains an illustrated section on vocational education in agriculture and industry.

Old-Age Assistance and Retirement

Analysis of statutory provisions for State teachers retirement systems. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, 1939. 30 pp.

Based upon Statewide contributory plans in 26 States and Hawaii. A later report, it is stated, will deal with local systems.

Old age assistance in Tennessee. By D. W. Eagan. Knoxville, Tennessee State Planning Commission, 1938. 50 pp., charts; mimeographed.

General results of a careful examination of operation of old-age assistance in the State. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1938, individual grants ranged from \$5 to \$25 per month, but only 2.55 percent of all beneficiaries received the maximum of \$25. In other words, according to the report, the allowance provided for only "the barest existence." The report recommends increased appropriation for old-age assistance, in order to care for more persons, and an increase in the maximum from \$25 to \$30.

Le statut juridique des institutions patronales de retraites. By Marc Gorecki. Paris, Librairie Technique et Économique, 1938. 110 pp.

A study of employer old-age retirement systems in France and of their regulation under the social-insurance system.

Prices

Retail prices in certain countries in October 1938. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, March 1939, pp. 411-416; also reprinted.)

Prices of certain articles of ordinary consumption in principal cities or towns in 32 countries, obtained by the International Labor Office in its annual inquiry.

Prices in Canada and other countries, 1938. Ottawa, Department of Labor, 1939. 24 pp., chart.

Data on actual prices and cost of living in Canada, and index numbers of prices and cost of living in Canada and various other countries, in 1938 and earlier years.

Inaugurating a series of Canadian index numbers of industrial material prices. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1939. 34 pp., charts.

Tabulations and discussion of a new series of index numbers of prices of industrial materials, resulting from experiments by the Canadian Bureau of Statistics to find a better basis of appraising changes in the general wholesale price level.

Wholesale prices [in the United States], December and year 1938. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 51 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 882.)

The pamphlet includes a tabulation of the average purchasing power of the wholesale-price dollar, by groups and subgroups of commodities, in 1938 and in each month of the year.

Productivity of Labor and Technological Changes

The social effects of recent trends in mechanization of agriculture. By C. Horace Hamilton. College Station, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1938. 14 pp.; mimeographed. (Progress Report No. 579.)

A substantial portion of this report was presented by the author in a paper read at the joint session of the American Farm Economics Association and the Rural Sociological Society, Detroit, December 29, 1938. The paper and the discussion which followed it were printed in *Rural Sociology* (Baton Rouge, La.) for March 1939.

Labor productivity in boot and shoe industry. By Boris Stern. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 22 pp., charts. (Serial No. R. 891, reprint from February 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Mechanization and productivity of labor in cigar manufacturing industry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 66 pp. (Bulletin No. 660.)

Le progrès technique et le chômage. By Gabriel Ferras. Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, 1938. 245 pp.

Study of the relationship between technological progress and unemployment. Statistics of the increase in population, and of unemployment, are compared with the changes in production since the war in the United States, England, Germany, and France. The effect of mechanization upon agricultural employment is discussed for the United States, in which it has been greatly developed as compared with France where mechanization has not made much progress.

Social Security (General)

Appraising the social security program. Edited by Isabel Gordon Carter. (In *The Annals*, Volume 202, American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, March 1939, pp. 1-199.)

The articles in this symposium were brought together to show the work accomplished under the Social Security Act and to furnish a background for evaluation of proposed changes. A bibliography on social security is included.

The road upward: Three hundred years of public welfare in New York State. By David M. Schneider and Albert Deutsch. Albany, New York State Department of Social Welfare, 1939. 59 pp. (Social Welfare Today in New York Series, No. 1.)

The purpose of this pamphlet is to provide the historical background of the development of social welfare in the State, necessary for a "well-balanced approach to the problems of public welfare."

Statement prepared by National Insurance Commission, Australia, for submission, as evidence by the chairman, to Royal Commission appointed to inquire into and submit recommendations upon annual amounts to be provided for payment of insurance medical practitioners and on cognate matters. Canberra, National Insurance Commission, 1938. 34 pp.

The Commission recommended that the annual capitation fee paid to insurance practitioners under the National Health and Pensions Act should be 11s. per insured person and that the maximum number of persons on a physician's panel should be 2,000.

Les assurances sociales et les régimes spéciaux d'assurances (application de l'article 23 du décret-loi du 28-10-35). By Louis Légré. Paris, Librairie Technique et Économique, 1938. 133 pp.

A study of measures for coordination of the various social-insurance schemes in France, established by departments, communes, employers, or other agencies, with the general social-insurance system. These systems are regulated by Article 23 of the decree-law of October 28, 1935.

Unemployment and health insurance in Great Britain, 1911-1937. By Marianne Sakmann. Washington, U. S. Social Security Board, Bureau of Research and Statistics, 1938. 44 pp. (Bureau Report No. 3.)

Review of the legislative history of unemployment insurance and health insurance, limited to an analysis and comparison of the provisions for weekly cash benefits under the two systems.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Wages and normal hours of work of adult males in certain occupations in various countries in October 1938. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, March 1939, pp. 384-410; also reprinted.)

This latest general survey by the International Labor Office of wages and working hours covers 30 occupations in 79 towns in 27 countries, an increase of 10 towns and 4 countries over the number covered in the 1937 inquiry; the number of occupations remains the same.

Hours of work in Germany. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, March 1939, pp. 360-372.)

The article analyzes the regulations governing hours of work in Germany and their application, discusses methods of compiling statistics of hours worked, and gives figures on average hours worked per day in 1929, 1932, 1937, and 1938.

Wages in Japan, 1937 and 1938. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1939. 11 pp. (Serial No. R. 862, reprint from December 1938 *Monthly Labor Review*.)

Salaries and working conditions of policemen in various Virginia cities. Richmond, League of Virginia Municipalities, 1938. 6 pp.; mimeographed. (Report No. 232.)

Wage theory and wage policy. By Paul H. Douglas. (In *International Labor Review*, Geneva, March 1939, pp. 319-359.)

The author discusses the marginal productivity theory of wages, according to which the wage is supposed to be "approximately what the last worker or group of workers adds to the social product." The author indicates adherence to the theory under the assumption of "perfect" and "pure" competition. He states, however, that under prevailing conditions of imperfect competition, there are various circumstances that tend to reduce wages below the level of marginal productivity and that these circumstances, even in a system of private enterprise, provide a basis for action by associations or governments for raising wage levels without causing unemployment. The article thus reverses the usual emphasis of the theory's adherents in attributing unemployment to a supposed pushing up of wages above the level of the marginal product.

Problems of payments in kind. By Rae L. Needleman. (In *American Federationist*, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C., March 1939, pp. 269-276.)

Deals with the problems connected with the furnishing of commodities and services in lieu of or in addition to cash wages, with particular reference to the status of such payments under the N. R. A. and under the Social Security Act. The article includes a tabulation, by State, of money equivalents of payment in kind as specified in State unemployment-compensation regulations as of March 15, 1938.

Shorter hours—how? when? By Henry Gavens. Washington, Ransdall Incorporated, 1938. 128 pp., bibliography.

A discussion of the historical background of the reduction of hours and of the bearing of reductions on the interests of workers, employers, and consumers. The author concludes: "The thirty hour week is, of course, inevitable, but it is doubtful whether the time is yet ripe for so drastic an experiment."

Youth Problems

The American Youth Commission—activities. Washington, American Council on Education, 1939. 16 pp.

States the objectives of the commission and discusses the youth problems which it has identified and the investigations undertaken. Among the latter were studies of the work being done by youth-serving organizations in several European countries.

Counseling young workers. By Jane F. Culbert and Helen R. Smith. New York, Vocational Service for Juniors, 1939. 212 pp.

This volume is based on the work of the Junior Consultation Service set up by the New York City Vocational Service for Juniors as a joint enterprise with the junior division of the State Employment Service. The four major divisions of the report cover, respectively, the counselor's work with the client; working relations with other agencies; administrative procedures and office mechanics; and the psychological department.

Youth and the world's work: Vocational adjustment of youth in the modern world. By James H. Bedford. Los Angeles, Society for Occupational Research, Ltd., University of Southern California Station, 1938. viii, 140 pp., charts, bibliography.

Among the topics discussed are youth in relation to the present crisis, to the labor market, and to the professions; future opportunities; reasons for vocational choice and influence of school thereon; and reading interests.

Młodzież sięga po pracę. Warsaw, Poland, Instytut Spraw Społecznych, 1938. xvi, 267 pp., charts.

This analytical study of young people on the labor market in Poland contains data on age of entrance to employment; the available juvenile labor supply, by age groups, by social classes, and by urban and agricultural groups; job opportunities for young persons; structure and absorption capacity of production and the changes in this connection; respective importance of different branches of economic activity; vocational preparation of youth and the inadequacy of this preparation as a cause of unemployment.

The statistics are for different periods, going back as far as 1897 and including one table giving estimates of the number of young people by social classes for 1941.

Printed in Polish with a résumé in French and French translations of the heads of the main tables.