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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

+ HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR +

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This Issue in Brief

Earnings in manufacture of electrical appliances, 1942.

Workers in electrical-appliance plants in the United States were earning, on the average, 76.9 cents per hour in the summer of 1942 according to the findings of a study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In August 1939 the average was 64.1 cents. The average working week increased from 37.0 hours in August 1939 to 38.7 in August 1941; by July 1942 there was a further increase of 4½ hours per week, to an average of 43.2 hours. Page 526.

Employment outlook in full-fashioned hosiery industry.

The manufacture of full-fashioned hosiery, a civilian-goods industry, is suffering severe shortages of both labor and raw material. Since the silk-freezing order of August 1941, the industry has operated on a lower level both of output and employment. The number of employees, however, has declined more than production, partly because of the better utilization of labor time as a consequence of elimination of short time and the scrapping of obsolescent machinery resulting in the operation of only the more efficient machines. As the skills of hosiery workers are readily usable in war industries, there has been a steady drain of these workers from the hosiery industry to war jobs. Also, some of the woman workers have quit work altogether because of their husbands' higher earnings. The mills in the South have felt the labor shortage even more than those in the North because of the lack of a skilled-labor reserve (the industry being relatively new there) and lower wage rates. The general conditions in the industry and the employment outlook are described in an article on page 429.

Union wages and hours in the printing trades, 1942.

On June 1, 1942, the average union rate per hour for all printing trades in 75 cities was $1.255. The average for the book and job trades was $1.176 and for the newspaper trades $1.408. These rates represent an increase of 4.3 percent for all trades and also for the newspaper branch and 4.2 percent for the book and job trades as compared with June 1, 1941. Average maximum weekly hours provided by union agreements were 38.8 hours for all trades, 39.4 hours for book and job trades, and 37.4 hours for the newspaper trades. The 40-hour week was most common in the book and job trades and the 37½-hour week in the newspaper trades. Page 558.

Developments in consumers' cooperation in 1942.

The year 1942 was characterized in the consumers' cooperative movement by a remarkable expansion of productive facilities owned by cooperatives, by renewed emphasis upon the training of employees, and by intensified effort to increase operating efficiency and to meet war conditions. Other developments included the holding of the biennial cooperative congress, the establishment of closer relationships between the various branches of the cooperative movement and with organizations in the labor and religious fields, and a drive for a Nation-wide radio program on cooperatives. Page 499.

Wages in manufacture of mechanical rubber goods, 1942.

Workers in plants primarily engaged in the production of mechanical rubber goods received average hourly earnings, exclusive of premium pay for overtime and night-shift work, of 78.8 cents in August 1942. For male workers the average was 84.7 cents and for female employees 59.1 cents an hour. Inclusion of data for mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants, average earnings in which are higher, raised the general average earnings to 84 cents an hour—90.4 cents for men and 63.8 cents for women. Page 542.

State minimum-wage legislation, 1942.

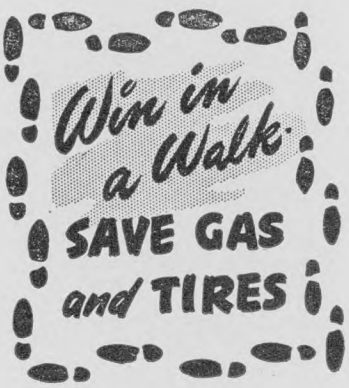
In 1942 ten States issued a total of 19 minimum-wage orders, of which 3 were for industries not previously covered. The other 16 were revisions of previous orders and in all but 1 the former rates were increased. The activity of wage boards in 1942, the increased numbers of women protected by wage orders, and the large amounts of unpaid wage claims collected afford evidence that minimum-wage laws are essential in times of prosperity as well as in depression. Data on the developments under minimum-wage legislation in 1942 are given on page 442.

Earnings in the manufacture of domestic laundry equipment, 1942.

Average hourly earnings in plants manufacturing domestic laundry equipment increased 25.3 cents between August 1939 and the summer of 1942, or from 68.8 to 94.1 cents. About a third of this increase was due to increased pay for overtime. Over a tenth of the workers were in the 10 occupational groups which had average hourly earnings of $1 or more per hour, and 4 percent were in groups with average hourly earnings of less than 60 cents. Page 534.

Trend of child labor, 1939 to 1942.

The dislocation of the labor force in the United States as a result of the war has had an important effect upon the employment of children and young persons under 18 years of age. Their services have been increasingly in demand in industry and trade. Between 1940 and 1941 the number of minors who obtained employment certificates for full-time or part-time jobs, as reported to the U. S. Children's Bureau, more than doubled. In the first 6 months of 1942 the number was 62 percent greater than in the corresponding period of 1941. Page 450.



MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR MARCH 1943

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK IN THE FULL-FASHIONED HOSIERY INDUSTRY [1]

Situation in Industry as a Whole

THE wartime experience of establishments engaged in the production of full-fashioned hosiery provides a significant case study of the status of civilian-goods industries in the United States. The cutting off of imports and then the freezing of silk processing for civilian purposes on August 2, 1941, created the first problem of economic adjustment to raw-material shortages, which, with the outbreak of war, became commonplace in most civilian-goods industries. At the present time, in the full-fashioned hosiery industry, as in other civilian-goods industries, some kind of concentration of production is being discussed.

Despite an increasing latent demand for hosiery today, owing to higher consumer incomes, production and employment in the full-fashioned hosiery industry are below the levels maintained in the first half of 1941 and will continue to decrease. Shortages of labor within the industry at the present time are as severe as scarcities of raw material.

The war has had a varying effect on the major trends within this particular industry. For example, single-unit conversion, a labor-saving technical improvement which was in its early stages before the war, has been continued because of wartime pressure to keep only the most productive machinery in operation. Thus, the decreasing employment in the industry at the present time is the result not only of raw-material and manpower shortages, but also of reduced labor requirements. Another major trend of the past has been the movement of the industry to the South. Since the beginning of material shortages the South has suffered a greater relative decline in employment than the North. Although northern mills are experiencing shortages of workers, the position of the southern mills is more critical since they are having more difficulty in finding satisfactory replacements. The effect of the war on the two producing areas will probably influence developments within the industry during the post-war period.

The complex, specialized, full-fashioned hosiery knitting machines cannot be converted to other uses. However, the restricted operations enforced by the shortage of yarn has given new impetus to the junking of obsolete machines, leaving much idle floor space. In some

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division by Florence L. Schoenberg.

plants this idle space has been utilized for the production of other commodities, such as parachutes, gas masks, mosquito netting and various garments for service men. In some cases former hosiery workers are working on these products. In other plants the machine shops have been converted to make small parts for airplanes.

PRODUCTION IN 1941 AND 1942

After the freezing of silk in August 1941, the yarn shortage in the full-fashioned hosiery industry remained acute throughout the month of September. During October, with the effectiveness of an improved rayon diversion order and the release to the industry of approximately 6,000 part-bales of silk opened before the freezing order, the industry began to adjust its operations at a new reduced rate. As shown in table 1, production during the latter half of 1941 was about 16 percent less than in the first half of the year.

With the turn of the year, the shrinking silk supplies and the elimination of nylon resulted in further declines in total production despite an increasing output of rayon hose. However, the elimination of shipments of nylon to hosiery mills in February 1942 caused no cut in total production comparable to what had occurred when silk was cut off, for by that time the rayon substitution machinery was operating efficiently. It is evident from table 1 that by the latter half of 1942 the industry had achieved a new equilibrium in output.

TABLE 1.—*Production and Percentage Distribution of Production of Women's Full-Fashioned Hosiery, by Type and Fiber, 1941 and 1942* [1]

Period	Grand total	All silk [2]	Silk leg and cotton or rayon welt [2]	All nylon	Nylon leg and cotton or rayon welt [2]	All other yarns and mixtures		
						Total [3]	Rayon	Cotton
	Production (thousand dozen pairs)							
1941	41,818.7	18,900.8	11,544.3	6,999.4	2,105.8	2,267.5	(4)	(4)
First half	22,709.6	14,507.4	4,256.1	3,749.1	(5)	197.0	(4)	(4)
Second half	19,109.1	4,393.4	7,288.1	3,250.3	2,105.9	2,070.5	1,311.1	347.9
1942	35,082.3	379.2	2,939.6	797.9	2,785.3	28,180.4	25,166.9	2,473.6
First half	17,130.3	363.0	2,745.8	759.5	2,611.8	10,650.1	9,329.9	1,070.6
Second half	17,952.0	16.2	193.8	38.4	173.5	17,530.3	15,837.0	1,403.0
	Percentage distribution							
1941	100	45.2	27.6	16.7	5.0	5.5	(4)	(4)
First half	100	63.9	18.7	16.5	(5)	.9	(4)	(4)
Second half	100	23.0	38.1	17.0	11.0	10.9	6.9	1.8
1942	100	1.1	8.4	2.3	7.9	80.3	71.7	7.1
First half	100	2.1	16.0	4.4	15.3	62.2	54.5	6.3
Second half	100	.1	1.1	.2	1.0	97.6	88.2	7.8

[1] National Association of Hosiery Manufacturers. Condensed Hosiery Statistics. Monthly.
[2] Including constructions with foot reinforcements other than main body yarn.
[3] Includes yarns and mixtures not specified in addition to the rayon and cotton shown and knee-length hose.
[4] Break-down not available.
[5] Part-nylon hose not on the market until August 1941.

GENERAL LABOR SITUATION

Employment, on the other hand, over the past year and a half has maintained a distinct downward trend (table 2). Since July 1941 employment in the industry has decreased more than production.

Whereas 87,600 workers produced 3.7 million dozen pairs of hose in July 1941, in September 1942 the industry employed 62,600 workers to produce approximately 3.2 million dozen pairs of hose. This has been achieved by the almost complete elimination of short-time work, a considerable amount of overtime, and the use of only the best machinery in each plant.[2]

In November 1942, employment in the full-fashioned hosiery industry stood at approximately 63,000 workers, its lowest level since prior to 1929.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number Employed in Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry, by Months, 1940–42*

[In thousands]

Month	1940	1941	1942	Month	1940	1941	1942
Annual average	88.9	86.0	67.7	June	84.0	88.5	67.2
				July	83.2	87.6	66.4
January	91.7	90.5	75.2	August	86.3	85.0	66.7
February	91.2	90.5	74.4	September	89.2	79.6	62.6
March	88.7	91.6	72.7	October	91.8	79.1	62.9
April	88.2	91.6	70.6	November	92.7	78.3	62.8
May	86.4	90.5	68.5	December	92.9	78.4	62.5

LABOR TURN-OVER RATES

Labor turn-over data provide several clues to the employment situation and its development. They indicate clearly the change in the nature of the employment decrease. As shown in table 3, the decreases in employment in the early months of the yarn shortage resulted largely from lay-offs, while since early in 1942 quits and military separations have been the major reasons for the decline. The lay-off rate jumped from 0.41 percent in July 1941 to 5.43 percent in August 1941, and remained above 1.00 percent until February 1942. During the crucial months of August and September 1941, quits also increased slightly, contributing in small part to the decline in employment.

Early in 1942 excessive quits became the major factor in the employment decrease. Throughout 1942 the quit rate moved upward, while military separations more than doubled their 1941 average. In October the quit rate stood at 4.61 percent. The lay-off rate, on the other hand, dwindled during 1942 until by October it amounted to only 0.12 percent.

These turn-over rates bear out the statement that "the draft and voluntary enlistments, the shifting of workers from the hosiery industry to war plants and the withdrawal of countless women from the industry have created a labor shortage in both union and nonunion sections of the industry."[2]

The peculiar skills of hosiery making are valuable in other crafts. For example, the special coordination between finger and eye of the looper makes a superior drill-press operator. There are numerous other causes for the loss of workers. Many woman workers are retiring from the labor force because for the first time in years their husbands are earning enough to support the family. This is particularly

[2] Daily News Record, December 11, 1942 (p. 23): Year-End Review of the Research Department (American Federation of Hosiery Workers).

true in the South. Other workers are leaving the industry for higher paying war jobs, or for the satisfaction of being directly concerned with the war effort. Skilled female hosiery workers have been known to accept lower wages as beginners in war plants.[3]

TABLE 3.—*Turn-over Rates (per 100 Workers) in Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry, 1941 and 1942* [1]

Year	Quits	Discharges	Lay-offs	Miscellaneous separations [2]	Total separations	Rehirings	Other hirings	Total accessions
1941								
January	1.16	0.05	0.53	0.16	1.90	0.60	1.13	1.73
February	1.15	.09	.75	.09	2.09	.38	1.39	1.78
March	1.43	.12	.56	.10	2.22	.40	1.58	1.98
April	2.01	.17	.96	.10	3.24	.55	1.82	2.36
May	2.02	.12	.87	.16	3.16	.79	1.72	2.51
June	2.10	.14	.70	.18	3.14	.71	2.11	2.81
July	1.82	.13	.41	.16	2.52	.49	2.79	3.28
August	2.22	.21	5.43	.19	8.05	.46	1.09	1.55
September	2.78	.13	3.97	.12	7.01	.98	1.42	2.41
October	2.09	.12	1.87	.22	4.30	1.98	1.27	3.25
November	1.42	.12	1.44	.08	3.06	.81	1.57	2.38
December	1.79	.05	1.75	.27	3.87	.84	1.13	1.97
1942								
January	2.63	.17	2.19	.34	5.34	.81	1.99	2.79
February	3.04	.20	.89	.30	4.43	.91	2.08	2.99
March	3.40	.16	.67	.40	4.68	.57	2.62	3.19
April	3.91	.12	1.22	.31	5.56	.59	3.32	3.92
May	4.91	.14	.76	.29	6.09	.63	2.70	3.33
June	3.73	.14	.39	.40	4.65	.54	2.95	3.49
July	3.73	.13	.28	.43	4.58	.25	5.69	5.94
August	4.36	.25	.50	.42	5.53	.41	4.55	4.97
September	5.83	.18	.30	.46	6.76	.41	5.02	5.43
October	4.61	.21	.12	.88	5.83	.53	6.65	7.18
November	4.45	.16	.18	.53	5.32	.58	4.95	5.53
December	3.87	.13	.19	.62	4.81	.20	3.36	3.56

[1] Based on approximately 61 plants employing 30,000 wage earners.
[2] Including military separations.

Situation in Northern and Southern Producing Areas

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

One of the most important past trends in the full-fashioned hosiery industry has been its relocation in the South. From 1929 to 1939 the percent of total wage earners located in the South increased from 9.7 percent to 35.4 percent.[4] The main impetus to this movement in the past has been the lower wage rates and lack of unionization in the southern area. The comparative effect on the northern and southern producing regions of wartime restrictions warrants close examination at this time, for it will probably influence post-war developments within the industry.

Employment in the full-fashioned hosiery industry decreased by 21.5 percent from August 1941 to August 1942 (table 2). The decrease in employment varied with the different geographic areas. A special study [5] by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of 158 identical firms, for selected months in 1941 and 1942, indicates that from August 1941 to August 1942 employment in the South decreased by 22.6 percent,

[3] Interview with Alfred Hoffman, director of research, American Federation of Hosiery Workers, October 1942.
[4] Census of Manufactures, 1929 and 1939.
[5] For more detailed data see Recent Trends in the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry. Mimeographed report.

while in the North the decrease was 20.8 percent. From September 1941 to September 1942 the relative decline in both areas was similar. Pennsylvania, the northern concentration of the industry, showed slightly greater relative decreases over the period than did North Carolina, the southern center.

LABOR TURN-OVER

Despite the fact that the net decline in employment in the South has been relatively greater than in the North, labor turn-over in the North in 1942 was greater than in the South (table 4). The rate of total separations in the North has been consistently higher than in the South, except during June and July, while at the same time the total accession rate in the North has also been consistently higher.

It is significant that during 1942 quits were higher in the North (accounting for higher total separations), but discharges, lay-offs, and military separations were generally higher in the South. The higher discharge rate in the South would seem to indicate that northern mills are experiencing numerical shortages of workers, while the southern branch of the industry has been having more difficulty in finding properly qualified replacements. Since the industry is relatively new in the South, there would not be in that area a reserve of retired skilled workers who can be reabsorbed into the labor force. Furthermore, as shown in table 7, wage rates in the southern branch of the industry are lower than in the North and the plants are thus not able to compete as well with war industries in recruiting qualified new workers. It would appear, therefore, that the current labor shortages in the South are more critical than in the North.

TABLE 4.—*Turn-over Rates (per 100 Workers) in Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry in North and South, 1941 and 1942* [1]

Year	Quits		Discharges		Lay-offs		Miscellaneous separations [2]		Total separations	
	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South
1941										
January	1.39	0.81	0.05	0.06	0.31	0.86	0.24	0.05	1.99	1.78
February	1.37	.82	.07	.14	.91	.51	.10	.09	2.44	1.55
March	1.78	.87	.15	.07	.82	.14	.12	.08	2.87	1.16
April	2.46	1.34	.17	.17	1.33	.42	.07	.16	4.02	2.09
May	2.70	1.21	.08	.17	1.34	.31	.19	.12	4.32	1.80
June	2.76	1.40	.10	.20	1.09	.30	.21	.16	4.16	2.06
July	2.27	1.34	.09	.17	.42	.39	.15	.17	2.94	2.08
August	2.92	1.49	.08	.36	5.02	5.87	.25	.12	8.26	7.84
September	3.00	2.53	.09	.17	4.44	3.45	.16	.10	7.68	6.25
October	2.55	1.59	.12	.12	2.76	.89	.30	.13	5.73	2.72
November	1.81	.98	.14	.10	1.55	1.31	.08	.09	3.59	2.49
December	2.03	1.54	.08	.02	2.95	.45	.35	.19	5.42	2.20
1942										
January	3.06	2.11	.09	.27	2.40	1.94	.22	.50	5.76	4.83
February	3.36	2.66	.14	.27	.75	1.05	.18	.44	4.43	4.43
March	3.76	2.98	.17	.15	.63	.71	.39	.42	4.96	4.26
April	4.46	3.42	.17	.08	.96	1.44	.29	.33	5.89	5.27
May	5.22	4.51	.13	.15	.97	.49	.23	.35	6.54	5.51
June	3.60	3.87	.11	.17	.28	.51	.47	.31	4.47	4.86
July	3.81	3.64	.12	.13	.18	.43	.27	.64	4.37	4.84
August	4.83	3.73	.27	.22	.38	.66	.32	.57	5.79	5.18
September	7.11	4.15	.20	.14	.18	.45	.37	.56	7.86	5.31
October	5.86	3.00	.19	.23	.13	.11	.36	1.55	6.55	4.89
November	5.17	3.47	.12	.21	.15	.23	.38	.75	5.82	4.66
December	4.28	3.32	.14	.12	.19	.19	.49	.81	5.10	4.44

[1] North figures based on approximately 28 plants with 17,000 wage earners and South figures based on approximately 33 plants with 13,000 wage earners.
[2] Including military separations.

TABLE 4.—*Turn-over Rates (per 100 Workers) in Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry in North and South, 1941 and 1942*—Continued

Year	Rehirings		Other hirings		Total accessions		Net change (total separations minus total accessions)	
	North	South	North	South	North	South	North	South
1941								
January	0.41	0.88	1.30	0.89	1.70	1.77	−0.28	−0.01
February	.35	.42	1.73	.88	2.08	1.31	−.35	−.25
March	.22	.70	1.91	1.03	2.13	1.73	−.74	+.57
April	.67	.36	1.93	1.65	2.60	2.01	−1.42	−.07
May	.88	.68	1.82	1.60	2.70	2.28	−1.61	+.48
June	.85	.56	2.60	1.59	3.45	2.14	−.71	+.09
July	.53	.45	3.44	2.11	3.97	2.56	+1.03	+.48
August	.57	.34	1.18	.99	1.76	1.33	−6.50	−6.50
September	1.25	.69	1.42	1.42	2.66	2.12	−5.02	−4.13
October	2.68	1.21	1.52	1.00	4.20	2.21	−1.53	−.52
November	.99	.61	2.31	.77	3.30	1.38	−.29	−1.11
December	1.00	.67	1.53	.69	2.53	1.36	−2.89	−.84
1942								
January	1.07	.49	2.63	1.21	3.70	1.70	−1.98	−3.22
February	1.19	.58	2.67	1.37	3.86	1.95	−.58	−2.49
March	.71	.41	3.70	1.37	4.41	1.78	−.55	−2.48
April	.64	.55	5.59	1.32	6.23	1.86	+.35	−3.41
May	.66	.58	3.30	1.93	3.96	2.50	−2.58	−3.00
June	.60	.46	3.42	2.40	4.02	2.86	−.44	−2.00
July	.18	.35	7.37	3.51	7.56	3.86	+3.19	−.98
August	.30	.56	5.33	3.53	5.63	4.09	−.16	−1.09
September	.35	.48	6.00	3.72	6.36	4.20	−1.50	−1.11
October	.46	.61	7.23	5.90	7.69	6.50	+1.14	+1.62
November	.71	.39	5.02	4.85	5.73	5.24	−.09	+.58
December	.19	.21	3.81	2.76	4.01	2.97	−1.09	−1.47

Occupational Distribution, Earnings, and Hours

Since the labor force in this industry has been and will continue to be the source of workers for war industry, a description of its occupational distribution, rates of pay, and hours of work just prior to and during the first year of the war is useful.

OCCUPATIONAL PATTERN

As previously noted, employment decreases in the industry at the present time are the result of more than simple material and manpower shortages; a third factor to be considered is the condition of reduced labor requirements resulting from technological change.

After 1940 many mills began installing so-called "single-unit" machines, which make possible the knitting of the entire stocking on one machine, eliminating the functions of footers and toppers and effecting considerable savings in labor costs.[5] Even more common than the installation of these new machines has been the conversion of conventional legging machines into single-unit machines through the installation of "back-rack" attachments which also make possible the knitting of the entire stocking on one machine, thus serving the same purpose as the standard single-unit machine.

For the duration of the war the production of new full-fashioned hosiery equipment has been halted, but back-rack conversion has been somewhat encouraged by the large amount of machinery standing

[5] See Recent Trends in the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry. Mimeographed report.

idle. Labor requirements in the industry have therefore continued to decrease as a result of this technological change.

Along with total labor requirements, the occupational structure of the labor force has been altered by the introduction of these innovations. Table 5 gives the occupational distribution of the labor force in 1938. The full-fashioned hosiery industry differs from most textile industries, and especially from the seamless-hosiery industry, in the degree of skill required of its labor force. The complex full-fashioned knitting machinery is not automatic and thus demands close attention, manual dexterity, and mechanical skill on the part of the operators. In 1938, as shown in table 5, 64 percent of the workers in the industry were skilled.

TABLE 5.—*Occupational Distribution of Workers in Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry in 1938* [1]

Occupation and skill	Percentage distribution of workers			Occupation and skill	Percentage distribution of workers		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female
All occupations	100.0	44.3	55.7	Semiskilled occupations—Con.			
				Dye-machine operators	0.6	0.6	------
Skilled occupations	63.9	30.8	33.1	Knitters, helpers	2.5	2.5	------
Knitters, footer	6.7	6.7	------	Inspectors and examiners	5.6	------	5.6
Knitters, legger	20.2	20.2	------	Pairers	3.7	------	3.7
Machine fixers	1.0	1.0	------	Other semiskilled workers	4.7	2.7	2.0
Toppers	15.9	1.2	14.7				
Loopers	6.1	------	6.1	Unskilled workers	12.8	4.7	8.1
Menders	3.3	------	3.3	Learners and apprentices, knitters	1.7	1.7	------
Seamers	8.4	------	8.4	Folders, wrappers, and boxers	3.3	------	3.3
Other skilled workers	2.3	1.7	.6	Learners and apprentices	2.3	------	2.3
Semiskilled occupations	23.3	8.8	14.5	Stampers and laborers	1.3	------	1.3
Boarders, automatic	1.4	.8	.6	Other unskilled workers	4.2	3.0	1.2
Boarders, other	3.8	1.6	2.2				
Clerks, factory	1.0	.6	.4				

[1] Source: Monthly Labor Review, May 1939: Earnings and Hours in the Manufacture of Full-Fashioned Hosiery, 1938. That study covered 105 full-fashioned hosiery plants with 26,807 workers on the pay rolls in September 1938. The sample was selected to reflect accurately geographical location, size of establishment, and unionization.

Since 1938, footers and toppers have decreased in relation to the total force, owing to technological displacement. Looping has also decreased, although to a less extent. The proportion of leggers has been maintained but has been divided between regular knitting and single-unit knitting.[5]

The full reduction in labor requirements resulting from increased productivity of new machinery will not become effective until after the war. Nevertheless, these equipment changes of the recent past indicate developments to be expected in the post-war period.

EARNINGS

Relative to other textile industries, earnings in the full-fashioned hosiery industry are high, as indicated by the following statement showing average hourly earnings in November 1942.

	United States	*North*	*South*
Full-fashioned hosiery	$0.760	$0.846	$0.654
Seamless hosiery	.508	.554	.496
Cotton goods	.577	.678	.552

[5] See Recent Trends in the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry. Mimeographed report.

Since skilled workers form the largest part of the labor force in the full-fashioned hosiery mills, their earnings do much to determine the industry level. Here, as in other industries, average hourly earnings in the North are generally higher than in the South.

The average hourly earnings in 1938 of the various occupational groups are given in table 6. The key workers in the industry are the large group of skilled males, constituting 31 percent of the total labor force in 1938. Their earnings, which averaged $1.03 per hour in the North and 94 cents per hour in the South in 1938, were far above any of the other skilled groups. Next in order was the group of skilled females (one-third of the total), who averaged 58 cents an hour in the North and 48 cents in the South. In both areas their earnings averaged 45 cents an hour less than the skilled males. The highest-paid individual occupations were the knitters and the machine fixers.

TABLE 6.—*Hourly Earnings in the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry, by Occupation, in 1938* [1]

Occupation and skill	United States			North			South		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
All occupations	$0.658	$0.835	$0.509	$0.693	$0.867	$0.541	$0.581	$0.760	$0.440
Skilled occupations	.773	1.002	.547	.809	1.028	.580	.694	.939	.480
Knitters, footer	1.125	1.125	-------	1.180	1.180	-------	.997	.997	-------
Knitters, legger	.992	.992	-------	1.020	1.020	-------	.929	.929	-------
Machine fixers	1.084	1.084	-------	1.082	1.082	-------	1.089	1.089	-------
Toppers	.584	.615	.581	.621	.616	.622	.499	.610	.496
Loopers	.548	-------	.548	.573	-------	.573	.500	-------	.500
Menders	.487	-------	487	.523	-------	.523	.388	-------	.388
Seamers	.508	-------	.508	.535	-------	.535	.460	-------	.460
Semiskilled occupations	.509	.528	.497	.537	.555	.524	.430	.440	.424
Boarders, automatic	.759	.759	.759	.765	.769	.759	(2)	(2)	-------
Boarders, other	.621	.607	.632	.646	.625	.659	.551	.569	.529
Clerks, factory	.481	.535	.396	.500	.561	.394	.431	.457	.401
Dye-machine operators	.607	.607	-------	.640	.640	-------	(2)	(2)	-------
Knitters' helpers	.422	.422	-------	.448	.448	-------	.362	.362	-------
Inspectors and examiners	.445	-------	.445	.464	-------	.464	.512	-------	.512
Pairers	.519	-------	.519	.536	-------	.536	.444	-------	.444
Unskilled workers	.378	.377	.378	.424	.437	.417	.292	.285	.298
Learners and apprentices, knitters	.383	.383	-------	.485	.485	-------	.275	.275	-------
Folders, wrappers, boxers	.447	-------	.447	.458	-------	.458	.396	-------	.396
Learners and apprentices	.254	-------	.254	.281	-------	.281	.237	-------	.237
Stampers and labelers	.423	-------	.423	.440	-------	.440	.354	-------	.354

[1] Source: Monthly Labor Review, May 1939: Earnings and Hours in the Manufacture of Full-Fashioned Hosiery, 1938.

[2] Number of workers not sufficient to justify computation of average.

Because changing internal and external conditions have affected the wage level of the industry since 1938, it is of interest to examine a more recent study covering earnings in 37 mills under contract with the American Federation of Hosiery Workers.[6] Earnings in these 37 mills being representative of the North, the occupational wage data for January 27 to March 1, 1941, may be compared with the 1938 average hourly earnings in the North.[7] Such a comparison indicated relatively little change during the period in the northern producing area.

	1938	*1941*
Leggers	$1.02	$1.01
Footers	1.18	1.10
Toppers (male and female)	.62	.57
Loopers	.57	.59
Seamers	.54	.54
Menders	.52	.58
Boarders (male and female)	.68	.73
Pairers	.54	.58

On September 2, 1941, a new contract effective for 2 years, between the American Federation of Hosiery Workers and the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Manufacturers of America, went into effect. It provided increases of 8 percent to 22 percent in wage rates, and covered approximately 26,078 workers in the industry. Effective March 23, 1942, wage-rate increases for rayon-hosiery production were adopted as part of the above national contract. The contract expires in August 1943.

Table 7 reflects these increases in earnings. One reason for the more recent increases in average hourly earnings is that overtime has begun in many full-fashioned hosiery plants. Another reason is that wartime shortages of material and workers have resulted in not only the scrapping of obsolete machines but also the maintenance of only the most efficient ones in operation. Thus, a greater proportion of workers now employed are operating the most efficient machines or back-rack converted machines. On the more efficient machines production is greater and therefore earnings are higher, since piece rates are paid in about 80 percent of the occupations. On the converted machines, special rates are paid to knitters to make up for their decreased production.

Average full-time weekly earnings for leggers in the latter part of 1942 equaled $50.92 and for footers was $55.80.[8] As compared with these weekly earnings in the most skilled occupations in the industry, average weekly earnings for all occupations in the northern branch of the industry were $27.84 in September 1942.

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[6] Earnings of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Workers in Union Mills, 1941, published by Office of the Impartial Chairman, Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry, in cooperation with the American Federation of Hosiery Workers and the Full-Fashioned Hosiery Manufacturers of America, Inc. (p. 2).

[7] The general average in the study of the Impartial Chairman is not exactly comparable with the Bureau of Labor Statistics 1938 study because it is apparently not so representative of dyeing and finishing departments. The Bureau attempted to cover a proportionate number of independent dyeing and finishing establishments in its survey.

[8] Data are from study of 26 union mills for 1942, made by Office of the Impartial Chairman of Full-Fashioned Hosiery Industry.

TABLE 7.—*Average Hourly and Weekly Earnings in Full-Fashioned and Seamless Hosiery Industries, North and South, April 1941–December 1942* [1]

Year and month	Average hourly earnings						Average weekly earnings					
	United States		North [2]		South [3]		United States		North [2]		South [3]	
	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless
1941												
April	$0.616	$0.422	$0.653	$0.449	$0.565	$0.414	$21.79	$14.94	$22.69	$16.84	$20.52	$14.40
May	.621	.429	.658	.453	.575	.421	22.02	15.63	22.73	17.40	21.11	15.11
June	.619	.432	.656	.453	.574	.426	21.99	16.15	22.88	17.19	20.85	15.84
July	.627	.430	.658	.453	.580	.424	23.00	15.33	24.13	16.37	21.33	15.04
August	.612	.432	.644	.461	.567	.424	21.27	16.18	22.45	17.95	19.65	15.71
September	.628	.442	.673	.473	.573	.431	21.81	16.31	23.03	18.34	20.23	15.77
October	.657	.464	.718	.481	.589	.459	23.51	17.48	25.24	18.87	21.50	17.11
November	.656	.463	.718	.485	.596	.457	23.35	17.49	24.84	18.86	21.73	17.12
December	.658	.467	.717	.484	.595	.462	24.22	17.42	26.05	18.82	22.22	17.06
1942												
January	.658	.472	.714	.493	.595	.467	23.40	16.96	25.26	18.14	21.31	16.68
February	.659	.472	.709	.492	.601	.467	24.20	17.70	26.03	19.17	22.07	17.35
March	.661	.476	.714	.499	.602	.471	23.75	17.75	25.81	19.58	21.47	17.32
April	.680	.478	.735	.502	.613	.472	24.19	17.15	26.21	19.64	21.77	16.55
May	.686	.476	.742	.507	.616	.468	24.93	17.25	27.15	19.55	22.21	16.69
June	.710	.476	.790	.508	.617	.468	25.72	17.07	28.89	19.45	22.09	16.49
July	.715	.484	.798	.510	.620	.478	25.50	17.21	28.27	19.38	22.26	16.68
August	.733	.494	.812	.521	.640	.487	27.50	18.33	30.51	20.76	24.00	17.74
September	.737	.497	.826	.537	.642	.487	25.90	17.55	27.84	19.94	23.62	17.00
October	.745	.507	.829	.540	.650	.499	28.79	19.09	32.40	21.52	24.82	18.56
November	.760	.508	.846	.554	.654	.496	29.41	19.03	33.04	22.23	25.07	18.31
December	.755	.511	.833	.560	.656	.497	30.00	19.52	33.57	22.99	25.58	18.66

[1] Based upon man-hour data reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[2] North includes: California, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and (starting August 1941) Missouri and Vermont.

[3] South includes: Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, Louisiana, Texas, and (starting September 1941) Florida, and (starting February 1942) Arkansas.

HOURS OF WORK

In order to maintain production with the decreasing number of workers at present attached to the industry, short-time work has been eliminated and many plants are working overtime.

Prior to August 1941 there had been very little part-time employment in the industry. During the months of acute yarn shortage in 1941, however, part-time employment was utilized to keep workers attached to the industry until the flow of rayon became stabilized. This is indicated in table 8 in the decrease in average hours during August and September of 1941.

It will be noted that plants in the South usually worked longer hours per week during 1941 than did those in the North. The opposite was true during 1942. This indicates the more intensive utilization of the labor force in northern plants during the past year, necessitated by their excessive loss of workers.

Prior to the yarn shortage, knitting machinery was operated a full week on two, and in some cases three, shifts. With the restricted supply of raw materials and later the loss of manpower, however, most plants have eliminated their third shift, and second-shift operations have also been restricted.

TABLE 8.—*Average Hours per Week in Full-Fashioned and Seamless Hosiery Industries in North and South, April 1941–December 1942* [1]

Month	United States		North [2]		South [2]	
	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless	Full-fashioned	Seamless
1941:						
April	35.4	35.4	34.8	37.5	36.3	34.8
May	35.5	36.5	34.5	38.4	36.7	35.9
June	35.5	37.4	34.9	38.0	36.3	37.2
July	36.7	35.6	36.7	36.1	36.7	35.5
August	34.8	37.4	34.9	38.9	34.6	37.0
September	34.7	36.9	34.2	38.8	35.3	36.4
October	35.8	37.7	35.2	39.2	36.5	37.2
November	35.6	37.8	34.6	38.9	36.5	37.5
December	36.8	37.3	36.3	38.9	37.4	36.9
1942:						
January	35.6	35.9	35.3	36.8	35.8	35.7
February	36.7	37.5	36.7	39.0	36.7	37.2
March	35.9	37.3	36.1	39.2	35.7	36.8
April	35.6	35.9	35.6	39.2	35.5	35.1
May	36.3	36.2	36.6	38.6	36.1	35.7
June	36.2	35.8	36.6	38.3	35.8	35.3
July	35.6	35.5	35.4	38.0	35.9	34.9
August	37.5	37.1	37.6	39.8	37.5	36.4
September [3]	35.1	35.3	33.7	37.1	36.8	34.9
October	38.7	37.7	39.1	39.8	38.2	37.2
November	38.7	37.5	39.0	40.1	38.3	36.9
December	39.7	38.2	40.3	41.1	39.0	37.5

[1] Based upon man-hour data reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.
[2] See footnotes 2 and 3, table 7, for definition of North and South.
[3] Reduction in average hours per week as a result of Labor Day holiday which is more universally observed in the North than in the South.

OUTLOOK FOR THE INDUSTRY, FOR DURATION OF WAR

In England the hosiery industry was among the first to be concentrated. The United States will likewise have to determine some line of action when material and manpower shortages reach the acute stage. The logical first step in this process is for the Government to determine basic civilian hosiery requirements.

In 1943 the supply of rayon for manufacture of full-fashioned hosiery will be less than in 1942. Rayon is allocated to hosiery by a fixed percent of what is left after first subtracting military needs and exports. Since military needs will probably continue to increase during 1943, the amount remaining for hosiery will probably decrease.

During 1943 general manpower shortages as well as specific area shortages are expected to become more acute. The outlook for the full-fashioned hosiery industry during the war depends directly upon the extent of these shortages. Some of the major centers of the full-fashioned hosiery industry are in areas which are already suffering from shortages of labor. When pressure for concentration of production becomes strong, it is likely that acute manpower shortages in specific areas will be the cause.

Pennsylvania is the most important single State in the manufacture of full-fashioned hosiery. As shown in table 9, it contained 36.3 percent of all the workers employed in the industry in 1939. Philadelphia and Reading, the two largest full-fashioned hosiery producing areas in this State, were designated by the War Manpower Commission as areas of inadequate labor supply as of January 4, 1943. It is estimated by the Commission that between November 1942 and November 1943, 170,000 additional workers will be needed to meet the demands of war industry and to replace military withdrawals from the labor force in the Philadelphia area.[9] This amounts to approximately one-sixth of all nonwar industry employment in the area. The situation is equally serious in the Reading-Pottstown area.

TABLE 9.—*Concentration Points Within Major Full-Fashioned Hosiery Producing States in 1939* [1]

County	Labor-supply situation, January 1943 [2]	Plants	Wage earners		
			Number	Percent	Percent of United States total
Total industry		499	97,200		100.0
Pennsylvania		208	35,253	100.0	36.3
Philadelphia area	Inadequate labor supply	137	15,259	43.3	
Philadelphia city	do	63	9,340	26.5	
Bucks, Montgomery, Chester and Delaware Counties	do	74	5,919	16.8	
Berks County (Reading)	do	31	13,656	38.7	
Northampton County	(3)	7	2,654	7.5	
Lehigh County	Inadequate labor supply				
Lancaster and York Counties	do	14	1,322	3.8	
Other Pennsylvania	(3)	19	2,362	6.7	
North Carolina		75	20,347	100.0	20.9
Almance County	Inadequate labor supply or acute shortage.	26	8,850	43.5	
Guilford County	Labor surplus				
Randolph County	(3)				
Mecklenburg and Gaston Counties	Adequate supply now	10	3,489	17.2	
Burke and Catawba Counties	(3)	11	2,775	13.6	
Other North Carolina	(3)	28	5,233	25.7	

[1] Source: Census of Manufactures, 1939.

[2] As designated by War Manpower Commission (Release No. 2037). Area designations are as follows: I. Areas of acute labor shortage. II. Areas of current balance of labor supply and demand (inadequate labor supply to meet expected increase in demand). III. Areas of anticipated balance of supply and demand in 6 months (adequate supply now). IV. Areas of labor surplus.

[3] No designation.

These labor requirements must be met through the release of workers now employed in civilian production for which facilities exist elsewhere; through the drawing into the labor force of individuals not commonly in the labor force; or, as a last resort, through an in-migration of workers.

North Carolina is the second most important State in the production of full-fashioned hosiery. Burlington, N. C. (in Almance County), although too small a community to be included in the War Manpower Commission list of January 4th, is an area of acute labor shortage. Between November 1942 and November 1943 an influx of 2,000 workers into this area will be necessary unless contracts for civilian goods are withdrawn so that workers in the area will shift to war work. Such

[9] War Manpower Commission. Bureau of Program Planning and Review. Labor Market Division.

a withdrawal of contracts has been recommended by the War Manpower Commission to the War Production Board. According to unemployment-compensation figures of the U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, in June 1942 there were 14,200 textile workers in the Burlington area, 5,500 of whom were full-fashioned hosiery workers. The remaining textile workers in the area were divided among cotton mills (4,250), the rayon-weaving mills (3,300), and the seamless-hosiery plants (1,150). Of the textile employment in the area, 26 percent of cotton-goods employment, 17 percent of rayon, 5 percent of seamless, and no full-fashioned hosiery wage earners were engaged on war contracts.

Bearing in mind the relatively small number of workers in this industry, and the havoc wrought on small firms by concentration of production, it seems more desirable that the Government control the further decrease in production facing the industry during the coming year to insure that all of it occurs in areas of acute labor shortage or in areas of inadequate labor supply.

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PROGRESS OF STATE MINIMUM-WAGE LEGISLATION IN 1942

By LOUISE STITT *and* LORETTA SULLIVAN, *U. S. Women's Bureau*

Minimum Wage in Wartime

AT THE conclusion of the first year of the United States' participation in the Second World War the question arises as to whether State minimum-wage legislation makes progress during a war period when wages generally are rising. Is a minimum-wage law essentially a depression expedient or at most a peacetime measure, affording workers protection only when labor is plentiful or wages are falling? Comparison of the record for the period of the First World War and for the year 1942 furnishes ample evidence that State minimum-wage legislation is as essential in periods of prosperity as in other times. To be sure, no new minimum-wage laws were enacted in 1942, but the legislatures of only 8 States were in regular session in that year, and all but 3 of these States already had minimum-wage laws.

In 1917, when the United States entered the First World War, 11 States [1] had minimum-wage laws for women. Before the Armistice was signed, Arizona and the District of Columbia were added to the list. Prices advanced sensationally during the First World War. The cost-of-living index, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, increased from 103.0 in December 1914 to 142.4 in December 1917 and 174.4 in December 1918 (1 month after the Armistice was signed). From 1913, when the first State minimum-wage law became effective, to the outbreak of the war, a period of 4 years, 48 wage orders had been issued. In the 19 months during which the United States was at war, 36 orders were issued by 7 States. This rapid increase in the number of wage orders, plus the fact that 17 of the new orders raised existing rates set by earlier orders, shows that minimum-wage legislation did make progress during the First World War, and that these laws were used in a period of economic prosperity to protect the low-paid workers against the evils of rapidly advancing prices.

When the United States entered the present war 26 States,[2] Alaska, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico had minimum-wage laws, and 134 wage orders were in effect. Though coverage was considerably greater than in 1917–18, there still were thousands of women without minimum-wage protection even in those States with minimum-wage laws, as wage orders covering all occupations had not yet been issued. When the United States entered the present war, in December 1941, the cost of living had already increased by 12.1 percent since August 15, 1939, as a result of the outbreak of hostilities in Europe. It was apparent that many low-paid woman workers would suffer a dangerous decrease in living standards if a bottom were not set to wages and a curb placed on rising prices. Early in 1942 the Federal Women's Bureau urged State minimum-wage administrators to cover new industries with wage orders as rapidly as possible,

[1] States that had enacted minimum-wage laws before April 6, 1917, were Arkansas, California, Colorado, Kansas, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska (repealed 1919), Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin.
[2] Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Illinois, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin.

and to reexamine existing orders with a view to revising them in keeping with rising living costs. This policy seemed advisable not only because of the immediate protection that would be afforded woman workers, but because of the stabilizing effect that such orders would have if wages tended to fall after the war.

It was thought that neither the establishment of new minimum-wage rates nor the increase of existing rates would have a material effect on inflation, as minimum wages usually are so low as to provide only the bare necessaries of proper living. This opinion was shared by the National War Labor Board, which on October 31, 1942, issued General Order No. 7 giving blanket approval to all wage increases made in compliance with State minimum-wage statutes and orders. The President on October 3, 1942, had issued Executive Order No. 9250 in which he specified that no wage increases could be made without the approval of the War Labor Board. According to that order the Board could approve increases only when such increases were "necessary to correct maladjustments or inequalities, to eliminate substandards of living, to correct gross inequities, or to aid in the effective prosecution of the war." The Board held that the purpose of State minimum-wage laws is "to eliminate substandards of living" and that all wage increases authorized under such laws are in conformity with the President's order. This ruling has prevented a great deal of confusion and delay that might have resulted if the Board's approval had been required before the issuance of each wage order.

During 1942 as many as 19 wage orders were issued by 10 States. Three of these—the mercantile trade in Connecticut, beauty culture in New Jersey, and restaurants in Rhode Island—were for industries not previously covered. Sixteen orders were revisions of or substitutions for earlier orders that had covered the same occupations. All but 1 of the 16 revised orders increased the minimum-wage rates established by the earlier orders. For example, the 3 California orders issued in 1942 raised the minimum wage from $16 for a standard work-week, which might be as long as 48 hours, to $18 for a 40-hour week. The State of Oregon increased the hourly rate for canning fresh fruits and vegetables from 42½ cents to 52½ cents, and the rate for fruit and vegetable packing from 32½ cents to 40 cents an hour. Quite as significant as the increases in rates was the disapproval by the Secretary of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania of wage rates recommended by a wage board for restaurant occupations. The Secretary held that the rates recommended were too low to protect the workers against the economic conditions that exist at this time, though similar rates had been adopted by neighboring States for the same occupations at earlier periods.

Collection of Wage Claims

The most convincing evidence of the protection State minimum-wage laws afford workers in a period of rising wages and prices is the amount of unpaid wages collected from employers who fail to pay voluntarily the minimum wages required by law. Complete information on this question is not available, but the experience of one or two States is sufficient to prove that without State minimum-wage legislation thousands of women even in a period as prosperous as the year 1942 would be paid less than enough to maintain the most humble

standard of living. In New York State alone, $174,327 was collected in 1942 by the Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage for women and minors who were paid less than the minimum wage to which they were entitled under the law. The amount collected in 1942 was $51,115 more than was collected under the same six wage orders in 1940, two years before the United States entered the war. None of these orders, which cover laundries, restaurants, hotels, beauty shops, cleaning and dyeing establishments, and the confectionery industry, provides for a basic hourly rate in excess of 36.7 cents, though several require the payment of higher rates for short weeks and for overtime.

In California the Division of Industrial Welfare collected $407,605 in 1942 for women who were underpaid by their employers under the State minimum-wage law. The records of other States, if available, doubtless would reveal similar situations. It is apparent from the figures just cited that minimum-wage laws are quite as necessary in periods of prosperity as in other times.

Court Decisions on Minimum Wage

The courts in 1942 also helped the progress of State minimum-wage legislation. The most far-reaching court decision affecting such legislation since the decision of the United States Supreme Court in 1937, holding the Washington State minimum-wage law for women constitutional, was rendered on December 3, 1942. On that date the Court of Appeals, the highest court of the State of New York, upheld the New York minimum-wage order for the confectionery industry. The so-called "guaranteed weekly wage"[3] provision was the question at issue. The New York order for the confectionery industry, in addition to providing for a minimum wage of $14 for a full 40-hour week, requires employers to pay $10 to employees working 3 days or less in any week during the busy season and $7 to employees working 2 days or less in any week during the slack season. In other words, the order provides for a guaranteed weekly wage for part-time workers. For years State minimum-wage administrators have tried to cope with the problem of low wages that result from under-employment.

[3] See Monthly Labor Review, September 1941 (p. 572): Guaranteed Living-Wage Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders for Women.

Hourly minimum-wage rates, no matter how high, fail to provide living wages for woman workers who lack the opportunity to secure a full week's work. It was this problem the New York wage order for the confectionery industry was designed to correct, and which the Court of Appeals recognized when in its decision it stated:

> * * * It is fairly to be assumed that the legislature, bent on seeing to it that women and minors should, so far as possible, receive subsistence wages for their work, appreciated that no hourly rate of wages could achieve that result unless it were multiplied by some appropriate number of hours. * * * The legislature, driving toward its plainly marked goal, would have stopped far short of that goal if it had provided for minimum hourly wages only. The accomplishment of its high social purpose required a grant of authority to the Labor Department to make such orders as would in fact be directed toward providing a living wage, not merely an hourly rate which, in most industries, would not produce a living income, unless ordered paid for a sufficient minimum number of hours.[4]

The approval by so high a court as the New York Court of Appeals of the guaranteed-weekly-wage principle is of national significance, as it sets a precedent that may be followed by courts of other States. Twelve States and the District of Columbia have issued wage orders containing some type of provision for a minimum weekly wage. Realizing how serious an adverse decision in this important case would be to the wage orders of their own States, the attorneys general of Illinois, Minnesota, New Hampshire, North Dakota, and Utah joined the Attorney General of New York as amici curiae in this case.

A decision of the Supreme Court of Minnesota handed down in December 1942 is also of interest, though of less significance than the New York decision. The defendant in the Minnesota case contended that the State minimum-wage law did not apply to a married woman partly supported by her husband and intermittently employed. A municipal court sustained the employer's contention. The employee involved in the case appealed to the State Supreme Court, which reversed the lower court's decision and held that the minimum-wage law applies equally to married or single women fully or intermittently employed.

Provisions of 1942 Wage Orders

A summary of the provisions of State minimum-wage orders adopted or revised in 1942 is presented in the table following.

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[4] For further discussion of this case, see page 494 of this issue.

Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders Adopted in 1942 [1]

State, industry covered, type of order, and effective date	Class to which order applies	Hours	Minimum-wage rates for—	
			Experienced workers	Learners
California				
Manufacturing (mandatory, June 29, 1942).	Women and minors	40 per week	$18 per week [2]	
		Over 40 to 48 per week [3]	45 cents per hour	
		Less than 40 per week [4]	50 cents per hour, need not exceed $18 per week.	
		48 per week [3]		Skilled or semiskilled: 30 cents per hour for first 320 hours, 37½ cents for next 160 hours.
		do.[3]		Unskilled: 37½ cents per hour for 80 hours.
Personal service (mandatory, Nov. 23, 1942).	do	40 per week	$18 per week [5]	
		Over 40 to 48 per week [3]	45 cents per hour	
		Less than 40 per week [4]	60 cents per hour, need not exceed $18 per week.	
	Junior operator or junior electrologist:			
	With license	8 per day, 48 per week (maximum).		40 cents per hour.
	Without license	do		40 cents per hour for 640 hours.
	Students on completion of 1,250 hours' attendance at registered cosmetology school.	do		50 percent of amount received for their services.
Canning and preserving (mandatory, Feb. 8, 1943).	Women and minors	First 8 hours in any workday [6]	45 cents per hour [7]	35 cents per hour for first 48 hours in plant.[7]
	Women 18 and over	Over 8 up to and including 12 per day.[6]	67½ cents per hour	52½ cents per hour for first 48 hours in plant.
		Over 12 per day [6]	90 cents per hour	70 cents per hour for first 48 hours in plant.
	do.[6]	On 7th consecutive day	do.[7]	70 cents per hour for first 48 hours in plant.[7]
Connecticut				
Mercantile (mandatory, June 1, 1942).	Women; men; minors 18 and under 21.	Standard week [8]	$16 per week	
		Over standard week [8]	Regular hourly rate [9]	
		Less than standard week [8]	37½ cents per hour	
	Minors under 18	Standard week [8]		$14 per week for first 3 months; $15 for second 3 months.
		Less than standard week [8]		30 cents per hour.
	Students at school			Do.

Kentucky				
Hotel and restaurant (directory, Oct. 1, 1942).	Women and minors:			
	Service—			
	Zone 1 [10]	48 per week	25 cents per hour	
		Over 48 per week [11]	37½ cents per hour	
	Zone 2 [10]	48 per week	23 cents per hour	
		Over 48 per week [11]	34½ cents per hour	
	Zone 3 [10]	50 per week	21 cents per hour	
		Over 50 per week [11]	31½ cents per hour	
	Zone 4 [10]	52 per week	20 cents per hour	
		Over 52 per week [11]	30 cents per hour	
	Nonservice—			
	Zone 1 [10]	48 per week	do	
		Over 48 per week [11]	45 cents per hour	
	Zone 2 [10]	48 per week	28 cents per hour	
		Over 48 per week [11]	42 cents per hour	
	Zone 3 [10]	50 per week	25 cents per hour	
		Over 50 per week [11]	37½ cents per hour	
	Zone 4 [10]	52 per week	22 cents per hour	
		Over 52 per week [11]	33 cents per hour	
Massachusetts				
Candy (directory, Sept. 15, 1942).	Women and minors	48 per week [12]	40 cents per hour	35 cents per hour. (Dippers, stringers, and miniature packers for 12 months; all others for 6 months.)
Beauty culture (directory, Nov. 1, 1942).	do	Over 32 to 48 per week [12]	$18 per week	$12 per week for first 4 months; $15 for second 4 months.
		32 or less per week [4]	56 cents per hour	36 cents per hour for first 4 months; 46 cents for second 4 months.
New Hampshire				
Beautician occupation (revised, mandatory, Feb. 2, 1942).	Women and minors:			
	Licensed hairdressers	10¼ per day, 54 per week [13]	31¼ cents per hour	25 cents per hour for first year.
	Manicurists not licensed hairdressers.	do.[13]	25 cents per hour	
	Holders of temporary permits issued prior to examination.	do.[13]		25 cents per hour.
	Graduate students (2 months following date of temporary permit or hairdresser's license, whichever comes first).	24 to 48 per week		$9 per week.
		Less than 24 per week [14]		25 cents per hour.
	Students working on customers	10¼ per day, 54 per week		50 percent of service charge.
	Apprentices (1 to each establishment).	do		$3 per week for 3 to 6 months; $6, for 6 to 9 months; $9, for 9 to 12 months.
			(No deductions except when approved by Commissioner of Labor.)	

See footnotes at end of table.

Provisions of State Minimum-Wage Orders Adopted in 1942—Continued

State, industry covered, type of order, and effective date	Class to which order applies	Hours	Minimum-wage rates for—	
			Experienced workers	Learners
New Jersey				
Wearing apparel (modified, mandatory, Dec. 1, 1942).	Women and minors	40 per week [4]	40 cents per hour in 114 scheduled branches of the industry, 36 cents and 37½ cents in 2, and 35 cents in all others.	([15])
		Over 40 per week [16]	Time and a half	([15])
Beauty culture (mandatory, Jan. 10, 1943).	Women and minors:			
	Maids	48 per week	$15 per week	
	Other than maids	do	$18 per week	
	All	Over 48 per week	Time and a half	
		Less than 48 per week	40 cents per hour; not less than $1.40 on any day called to work.	
Oregon				
Canning fresh fruits and vegetables; barreling or preserving fruits (mandatory, Apr. 1, 1942).	Women and girls	10 per day [17]	52½ cents per hour	
		Over 10 to 12 per day	Time and a half	
		Over 12 per day	Double time	
		7th consecutive day—		
		First 8 hours	Time and a quarter	
		Over 8 to 12 hours	Time and a half	
		Over 12 hours	Double time	
Fruit and vegetable packing (mandatory, May 1, 1942).	Women (except office employees)	12 per day	40 cents per hour	
		Over 12 per day	Time and a half	
		On 7th consecutive day	do	
Rhode Island				
Restaurant and hotel restaurant (directory, June 15, 1942).	Women and minors:			
	Service	Over 24 to 45 per week	20 cents per hour, not less than $5.52 per week.[18]	
		Over 45 to 48 per week [19]	1½ times basic minimum	
		24 or less per week [14]	23 cents per hour [18]	
	Nonservice	Over 24 to 45 per week	30 cents per hour, not less than $7.92 per week.[18]	
		Over 45 to 48 per week [19]	1½ times basic minimum	
		24 or less per week [14]	33 cents per hour [18]	
	All (if meals not furnished)		6 cents to be added for each hour worked. (Deduction allowed for lodging.)	
Washington				
Canning (mandatory, July 3, 1942).	Women and minors	Through 12 per day	52½ cents per hour [20]	
		Over 12 per day	Time and a half	
		On 7th consecutive day	do	

Packing fruits and vegetables (mandatory, Sept. 7, 1942).	do	Through 12 per day Over 12 per day On 7th consecutive day	40 cents per hour [21] Time and a half do	
Manufacturing (mandatory, Sept. 7, 1942).	do	8 per day, 6 days per week (maximum).	35 cents per hour [22]	25 cents per hour for first 320 hours; 32½ cents for next 160 hours.
Mercantile (mandatory, Sept. 7, 1942).	do	do	32½ cents per hour	
Occupations not covered by other orders (mandatory, Oct. 1, 1942).	Minors	do	25 cents per hour	
Wisconsin				
Canning or first processing of perishable fresh fruits and vegetables (special order, mandatory, season 1942).	Women 18 and over, boys 16 to 18	Over 9 to 11 per day, not over 60 per week, on 12 emergency days during season.[23]	Time and a half [24]	

[1] In addition to the orders shown in this table the Kentucky laundry, dry cleaning, and dyeing order, and the Massachusetts restaurant and hotel restaurant order, both of which were adopted in 1941 and shown in the Monthly Labor Review for March 1942, were made mandatory Apr. 1, 1942, and Apr. 15, 1942, respectively. The Washington order for office workers issued Oct. 30, 1941, and shown in the March 1942 Review became effective Jan. 1, 1942.

[2] In manufacturing other than war industries women employed between 12 midnight and 6 a. m. must be paid at least 60 cents an hour. (In all cases a permit is necessary to employ women during these hours.)

[3] Maximum hours 8 a day, 48 a week.

[4] Employee must be paid at least 4 hours' wages on any day called to work.

[5] Order for the personal-service industry provides that women employed between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. must be paid at least 60 cents an hour. (In all cases a permit is necessary to employ women during these hours.)

[6] No person under 18 may be employed for more than 8 hours a day, 48 hours, 6 days a week, except by permit of Industrial Welfare Commission. To prevent spoilage of product, women over 18 may be employed more than 8 hours a day, 6 days a week; in no case may employment exceed 72 hours a week, which employment must be followed by 24 hours off duty.

[7] Employee must be paid at least 1 hour's wage on any day called to work.

[8] Standard week means regularly established number of hours in the place of employment. For women and girls, maximum hours are 48 a week, 8 a day (10 on 1 day a week, to make one shorter workday). Employee must be paid at least 4 hours' wages on any day called to work.

[9] Not mandatory in cases of executives receiving at least $35 a week.

[10] *Zone 1.*—Louisville, Shively (St. Helens), St. Matthews, Covington, Newport, Dayton, Bellevue, Park Hill, Ludlow, Bromley, Ft. Thomas, Southgate, Ft. Mitchell, and Woodlawn, and 5 miles beyond the city limits thereof. *Zone 2.*—Paducah, Owensboro, Ashland, Catlettsburg, Lexington, and 1 mile beyond city limits thereof. *Zone 3.*—Bowling Green, Central City, Corbin, Cumberland, Cynthiana, Danville, Frankfort, Georgetown, Glasgow, Harlan, Herrodsburg, Hazard, Henderson, Hopkinsville, Jenkins, Madisonville, Mayfield, Maysville, Middlesboro, Mt. Sterling, Paris, Pikeville, Princeton, Providence, Richmond, Shelbyville, Somerset, Winchester, and 1 mile beyond the city limits thereof. *Zone 4.*—Territory not included in Zones 1, 2, 3.

[11] Maximum hours 10 a day, 60 a week.

[12] Maximum hours 9 a day, 48 a week, for women and minors 16 and under 18. Overtime allowed only in extraordinary emergencies in businesses requiring shifts. If Department of Labor determines work to be seasonal, 52 hours a week may be allowed provided yearly average not over 48. Supervisors exempt from law.

[13] Maximum hours for women and minors under 18. Employee must be paid at least 3 hours' wages on any day called to work.

[14] Employee must be paid at least 3 hours' wages on any day called to work.

[15] No separate rate for learners permitted, but employer not in violation of this order if paying less than the State minimum in accordance with learner certificate from Wage and Hour Division, U. S. Department of Labor.

[16] Maximum hours 10 a day, 54 a week, for women and girls 16 and over.

[17] For minors under 18 maximum hours are 8 a day, 44 a week.

[18] If spread of hours exceeds 10, or there is more than one interval off duty (other than meal period of 1 hour or less), employee must be paid 50 cents in addition to day's wage.

[19] Maximum hours 9 a day, 48 a week, for women and for minors 16 and under 18. If 5-day week, 9⅗ hours a day.

[20] One-half of the woman and minor piece workers must receive an average pay based on this rate. All piece workers must receive a guaranty of 45 cents an hour.

[21] One-half of all piece workers must receive this rate.

[22] Experienced piece workers must be paid a rate that will enable at least three-fourths of them to earn this rate. All piece workers must receive at least 30 cents an hour.

[23] During the canning season, maximum hours are 9 a day, 54 a week, except on 12 emergency days when women 18 and over and boys 16 to 18 may be employed 11 hours a day, 60 hours a week. Because of the war emergency and scarcity of labor the emergency days have been increased from 8 to 12, the hours on those days from 10 to 11; and under specified conditions the Industrial Commission may waive hour limits and overtime pay for boys between 17 and 18. Before and after the canning season maximum hours are 9 a day, 50 a week, for women, 8 a day, 40 a week, for all minors 16 to 18.

[24] Prior to 1942 the required overtime rate was 1½ times the basic hourly rates established by the general minimum-wage order.

TREND OF CHILD LABOR, 1939 TO 1942

By Ella Arvilla Merritt, *Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau*

Summary

SINCE the beginning of World War II in 1939, labor in the United States has made a remarkable adjustment to a war economy. Increase in employment was at first somewhat slow, while production of war materials for national defense was gradually taking up the slack of unemployment. In June 1940, there were still 8.6 million unemployed persons in the labor market. Between June 1940 and June 1942, however, the number of persons in civilian employment and in the armed forces increased from 48.1 millions to 57.1 millions. At the end of 1942, this number had further increased by about a million, and unemployment in the week of December 6, 1942, stood at less than 2 millions.

Such a dislocation of the labor force has inevitably had an important effect upon employment of children and young persons under 18. They have been increasingly in demand, to some extent for jobs in war plants, but to a larger extent to meet the mushrooming labor needs of new population centers for workers in stores and service trades, to cultivate and harvest crops, and to take the places of thousands of older workers in varied types of employment who have been drawn into war industries and the armed forces.

In view of this fact, it is significant that 1942, the first year of the participation of the United States in the present war, found this country with a much higher standard of protection for working minors than was the case in the first World War. On April 5, 1917, when the United States declared war against Germany, the effective date of the first Federal child-labor law with its minimum age of 14 years was nearly 5 months in the future, and before the war was over that law was destined to be declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court.[1]

During the quarter century that followed, public opinion developed toward the idea that children should have the years up to 16, rather than only to 14, free for education and normal growth. In 1919 and again in 1930, the recommendations of the White House Conferences held in those years spoke for a basic minimum age of 16 for employment. Scarcity of employment opportunities during the depression thirties, and an increasing realization of the need for a better-trained citizenry to meet the more and more complex social and economic problems hastened the tendency to outlaw through State legislation the full-time employment of children under 16.

The increasing number of children attending school beyond the elementary grades is further evidence of this social trend. In 1920 only 32 percent of the population between 14 and 18 years of age were enrolled in secondary schools, compared with 69 percent in 1938. Enrollment in secondary schools increased from 2,494,676 children in 1920 to 4,799,867 in 1930, or 92 percent. In 1938, the latest year for

[1] This standard, however, was adopted by the War Labor Policies Board for insertion in all war contracts.

which figures are available, the enrollment was 6,736,939, an increase of 40 percent over 1930.[2]

By December 7, 1941, when Pearl Harbor was attacked by Japan, 14 States had adopted a basic 16-year-minimum age,[3] and the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, declared constitutional by the United States Supreme Court February 3, 1941, set the same standard. Though the Federal provisions apply only to the work of children and young persons under 18 years of age in establishments producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce, they affect most work in manufacturing plants, because a large majority of such plants carry on an interstate business. The basic minimum-age standard of the act—16 years—therefore, has been of great value in preventing a large influx of the 14- and 15-year-old workers into factory employment.

These Federal child-labor standards, administered by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, have also been closely related to employment-certificate provisions under State child-labor laws. A growing cooperative program with the State and local agencies administering State child-labor laws has been carried on by the Bureau since 1938. State employment and age certificates are accepted as proof of age under the act in 44 of the 48 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico; in the other 4 States—Idaho, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Texas—Federal certificate systems are operated with the cooperation and assistance of State and local officials. The unprecedented increase in the number of young workers has made very heavy demands upon already overburdened certificate-issuing officials. The Children's Bureau representatives have given such assistance as has been possible in working out methods of meeting emergencies and in so doing have helped to uphold the administration of State child-labor laws.

Extent of Employment of Young Persons Under 18 Years of Age

FEDERAL CENSUS

The latest Federal census may serve as a starting point for measuring the present extent of employment of youth under 18. That census showed 872,314 minors between 14 and 18 years of age employed in the last week of March 1940—209,347 aged 14 or 15, and 662,967 aged 16 or 17. These figures, however, did not give a complete picture of the extent of employment of boys and girls under 18 years of age, as they did not include working children under 14 years of age. Moreover, the fact that the census was taken in early spring inevitably resulted in the omission of many children of the ages covered who are regularly employed in agriculture. Although some commercial crops are under cultivation as early as April 1, the majority of children who engage in industrialized agriculture are not working at that date.

In addition to these totals of employed minors, 132,214 minors between 14 and 18 years of age were classed as "experienced unemployed persons seeking work." These two groups combined are roughly comparable with the 1930 census totals of gainfully employed

[2] U. S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1940, No. 2, ch. 1: Statistical Summary of Education, 1937–38 (being ch. 1 of vol. 1 of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1937–38), table 13, p. 11. Washington, 1940. Estimated population figures are used for 1938.

[3] Connecticut, Florida, Massachusetts, Montana, North Carolina, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In 1942 Louisiana also adopted this standard.

young persons.[4] As shown in the following table, these figures indicate a drop, in round numbers, from 2 million working minors between 14 and 18 years of age in 1930 to 1 million in 1940.

TABLE 1.—*Working Minors Between 14 and 18 years of Age, 1930*[1] *and 1940*[2]

Year	Total	14 and 15 years	16 and 17 years
1930	1,910,631	431,790	1,478,841
1940[3]	1,004,528	225,116	779,412

[1] U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Publication No. 197: Child Labor Facts and Figures, 1933 ed., p. 7. Figures compiled from Children in Gainful Occupations, U. S. Census 1930.
[2] U. S. Census 1941, Release Series P–16, No. 6.
[3] Employed workers and experienced workers seeking work.

Rough estimates based on the 1940 census total for employed minors and sample trends since 1940 indicate that by October 1942, the number of minors between 14 and 18 years of age who were employed had climbed back to the 1930 total of 2 millions. Roughly a fourth, as nearly as can be estimated, were in the 14- and 15-year-old group. This total does not take into account the large influx of school children into all types of vacation work, including agriculture, in the summer of 1942. It is estimated, on the same basis of sample surveys, that in July, when many school children were employed, considerably more than 3 millions were at work.

EMPLOYMENT AND AGE CERTIFICATES

Reports of employment and age certificates issued to boys and girls between 14 and 18 years of age going to work, obtained by the Children's Bureau from an increasing number of States and cities,[5] furnish an indication of trends from year to year in the number employed. They do not give the total number of children and youth of these ages employed during the periods indicated; rather they cover only the stream of minors legally entering employment in occupations for which certificates are required or requested during the period, and not the number actually at work at any given time in those occupations. Even for the flow of children and young persons between 14 and 18 years of age going to work, they do not give a complete picture. They do not reflect illegal employment, which is on the increase. Also, many children go to work without obtaining certificates, either because the law does not require a certificate for the occupation they enter or because the employer does not demand the certificate required by law. Certificates are not usually required for work in domestic service and agriculture, even for children of 14 and 15 years; in some States most nonfactory work outside school hours and during vacation is outside the scope of the certificate law; and a few States have no State certificate system even for 14- and 15-year-old children.

[4] Gainful workers in 1930 were persons reported as having a gainful occupation, regardless of whether or not they were working at the time the census was taken.
[5] For previous reports on these statistics, obtained through the generous cooperation of State and city officials, see reprints from the Monthly Labor Review for December 1937 and January 1940 (Serial Nos. R. 677 and R. 1058).

For minors of 16 and 17, about half the States do not require certificates, although administratively they are issued on request and are accepted as proof of age under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Nevertheless, though they do not tell the whole story, the figures are large enough to be most significant as a minimum in any estimate of the total employed. Table 2 gives the actual number of certificates reported as issued in 1940 and in 1941. While the reports may include some duplications,[6] these are far outweighed by the large number of young persons going to work without certificates. At the very least, they indicate that in the year 1940 more than 250,000 minors between 14 and 18 years of age, and in 1941 more than 550,000, entered their first full-time or part-time jobs. In 1941 alone, of the young workers for whom exact ages were reported, there were 83,463 14- and 15-year-old children and 447,005 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls who obtained certificates for work. In the first 6 months of 1942 these young workers were joined by more than 50,000 children 14 and 15 years old and more than 275,000 young persons 16 and 17 years old. Incomplete reports for July to December 1942 already show a total of more than 325,000 minors between 14 and 18 years of age entering full-time or part-time employment during this 6-month period; about 60,000 were 14 or 15 years of age.

TABLE 2.—*Regular and Vacation and Outside-School-Hours*[1] *Certificates Issued for Minors Between 14 and 18 Years, 1940 and 1941*

[Areas reporting in 1940 and in 1941 not comparable]

Age	1940				1941			
	All	Regular	Vacation and outside school hours	Type not reported	All	Regular	Vacation and outside school hours	Type not reported
Total	251,932	143,534	91,001	17,397	564,695	325,900	204,568	34,227
14 and 15 years	47,711	7,595	40,116	----	83,463	9,861	73,602	----
16 and 17 years	186,824	135,939	50,885	----	447,005	316,039	130,966	----
Exact age not reported	17,397	----	----	17,397	34,227	----	----	34,227

[1] See footnote 11, p. 455.

Trends in Employment

PERIOD 1929 TO 1942

According to the reports of employment and age certificates above referred to, the employment of children 14 and 15 years of age and 16 and 17 years of age has usually risen and fallen somewhat from year to year with the trend of general employment. This has been the case in all years for minors of 16 and 17; for the younger group the trend has been influenced at two periods by Nation-wide legislative restrictions on their employment. Table 3 compares, from 1929 through 1941, the index numbers for first regular employment certifi-

[6] Some duplications may occur if a child gets a reissued vacation certificate as, in case of this type of certificate, the reports received combine both first and reissued certificates; and also if at the end of the school vacation the child exchanges a vacation for a regular certificate permitting work during school hours.

cates for children 14 and 15 [7] issued in areas in which the legal minimum age under State law was not raised to 16, with the index of employment in nonagricultural industries.[8] The usual trend for these young workers—of following roughly the trend of general employment—was interrupted in 1933 and 1934 when a 16-year minimum under the NRA codes was in effect practically on a Nation-wide basis [9] for both intrastate and interstate industries. Removal of the code restrictions in 1935 was followed by an upward swing for employment of this younger group, which continued until 1938, when it was checked by the slight economic recession beginning in 1937 and continuing into the first part of 1938. In 1939, in spite of rising employment, the number of 14- and 15-year-old children entering employment continued to drop owing to the minimum-age standard of the Fair Labor Standards Act—16 years—which went into effect October 24, 1938.[10] This trend was reversed, however, by the steadily increasing demand for young workers beginning in 1940—a demand checked by the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act only in industries that produce goods for interstate commerce.

TABLE 3.—*Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years Receiving First Regular Employment Certificates 1929 to 1941, in Comparison With Nonagricultural Employment*

Year	Children 14 and 15 years of age to whom employment certificates were issued [1]		Estimated nonagricultural employment in United States (all ages) [2]	
	Number [3]	Index (1930 = 100)	Number	Index (1930 = 100)
1929	7,585	157.4	31,876,000	107.2
1930	4,818	100.0	29,727,000	100.0
1931	2,912	60.4	26,747,000	90.0
1932	1,893	39.3	23,713,000	79.8
1933	965	20.0	23,854,000	80.2
1934	234	4.9	26,150,000	88.0
1935	621	12.9	27,258,000	91.7
1936	1,577	32.7	29,017,000	97.6
1937	1,667	34.6	30,552,000	102.8
1938	1,097	22.8	28,222,000	94.9
1939	762	15.8	[4] 29,757,000	100.1
1940	924	19.2	[4] 30,992,000	104.3
1941	1,960	40.7	[4] 34,409,000	115.7

[1] Figures based upon reports from 16 cities with 100,000 or more population (1940 census) in which the minimum age for employment was not raised to 16 during the period 1929–41. Cities included are: Atlanta, Baltimore, Denver, Detroit, Fort Wayne, Grand Rapids, Indianapolis, Knoxville, Los Angeles, Louisville, Nashville, Omaha, South Bend, Washington (D. C.), Wichita, and Wilmington.

[2] Source: U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. The estimates cover all persons engaged in gainful work outside of agriculture, except for the CCC, WPA, and NYA work projects, and CWA and FERA work programs in 1933 and 1934. The estimates presented here exclude officials, proprietors, and self-employed.

[3] Figures for Detroit and Grand Rapids are for 15-year-old children; law does not permit issuance of certificates for 14-year-old children.

[4] Revised estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments from January 1939 to December 1941. The revised estimates for this period are not strictly comparable with earlier estimates for 1929–39.

[7] The index number for the number of regular employment certificates issued for children going to work for the first time is regarded as a rough index of employment of children of these ages.

[8] The computed index of total nonagricultural employment in the United States, based on estimates by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, is used as reflecting types of full-time work in which young persons for whom employment certificates are required are likely to be engaged.

[9] National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933, 48 Stat. 195, ch. 90; Public No. 67 (73d Cong.). The industrial codes established under this act were effective throughout the country without regard to State lines. When the act was passed in 1933, a 16-year minimum age for employment was on the statute books of only 4 States—Montana, Ohio, Utah, and Wisconsin. Children for the most part were permitted to leave school for work at 14 years of age, if they had fulfilled certain requirements. In contrast, practically all the codes, beginning with that for the cotton-textile industry, effective July 17, 1933, prohibited the employment of children under 16, though there were a few exceptions. The code-making power under the act was declared unconstitutional in the Schechter case (*Schechter* v. *United States*, 55 Sup. Ct. 837) on May 27, 1935.

[10] Act of June 25, 1938, Public No. 718 (75th Cong., 3d sess.), ch. 676. The act was passed June 25, 1938, but did not go into effect until October 24 of that year.

PERIOD 1939 TO 1941

Regular certificates.—In the area from which reports were received for each year 1939–41, the number of first regular employment certificates [11] issued for 14- and 15-year-old children increased from 2,471 in 1939 to 5,312 in 1941; the corresponding numbers of 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls receiving certificates were 80,564 in 1939 and 208,694 in 1941.

Tables 4 and 5 show for each State and city reporting, the number of children 14 and 15 years of age and the number 16 and 17 years of age receiving regular certificates in the 3-year period, 1939–41. A general trend upward is evident in practically all places.

TABLE 4.—*Number of First Regular Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years, 1939–41*

State or city	1939	1940	1941	State or city	1939	1940	1941
Alabama	38	124	242	Michigan [5]	208	514	1,266
Birmingham	8	57	41	Detroit [5]	75	132	211
Arizona	(1)	------	[1] 8	Grand Rapids [5]	13	19	28
Arkansas	7	3	19	Minnesota	54	85	77
California	369	419	[1] 452	Missouri	------	51	62
Los Angeles	94	128	281	Kansas City	32	4	0
San Diego	7	11	[1] 5	St. Louis	21	32	38
San Francisco	0	1	[1] 1	Montana	0	0	0
Colorado	92	[2] 51	[2] 164	Nebraska	0	27	28
Denver	81	[2] 41	[2] 152	Omaha	0	23	26
Connecticut	[3] 240	[3] 236	278	Nevada	0	------	[1] 1
Delaware	24	36	45	New Hampshire	112	118	[1] 155
Wilmington	24	35	45	Manchester	59	35	[1] 32
District of Columbia	29	28	69	New Jersey [4]	3,452	1,360	3
Florida [4]	[2] 19	[2] 7	[2] 110	Newark [4]	394	147	0
Georgia	8	0	27	New Mexico	6	5	2
Atlanta	8	0	12	New York	28	33	88
Hawaii	------	[1] 128	235	Albany	0	0	2
Illinois	57	32	145	Binghamton	0	0	0
Indiana	29	28	23	Buffalo	0	0	0
Fort Wayne	0	0	1	Mt. Vernon	0	0	0
Indianapolis	10	14	7	New Rochelle	0	1	0
South Bend	1	0	0	New York	14	12	37
Iowa	------	[2] 1,639	[2] 1,555	Niagara Falls	0	0	2
Kansas	1	8	17	Rochester	0	0	0
Wichita	0	0	1	Schenectady	0	0	0
Kentucky	189	[2] 157	[2] 359	Syracuse	0	0	0
Louisville	139	[2] 124	[2] 271	Troy	0	0	0
Louisiana	------	------	[1] 66	Utica	0	0	0
New Orleans	[2] 178	[2] 193	82	Yonkers	0	0	0
Maine [5]	4	1	8	North Carolina	0	1	0
Maryland	289	371	914	Charlotte	0	0	0
Baltimore	262	[6] 339	[6] 873	North Dakota	0	1	1
Massachusetts [4]	887	581	1,162	Ohio	------	------	94
Boston [4]	113	36	151	Cincinnati	0	2	8
Brockton [4]	2	7	7	Cleveland	9	1	3
Cambridge [4]	20	11	22	Dayton	9	5	9
Fall River [4]	26	7	8	Toledo	6	7	7
Holyoke [4]	7	5	18	Youngstown	0	0	5
Lawrence [4]	41	29	73	Oklahoma	------	[1] 16	56
Lowell [4]	24	12	26	Oklahoma City	0	1	5
Lynn [4]	15	8	34	Tulsa	47	36	44
Malden [4]	9	8	12	Oregon	0	4	22
Medford [4]	0	3	1	Portland	0	0	12
New Bedford [4]	112	87	139	Pennsylvania	------	------	------
Newton [4]	1	2	4	Allentown	93	[1] 35	------
Quincy [4]	9	9	12	Altoona	0	6	0
Somerville [4]	11	7	22	Bethlehem	11	5	4
Springfield [4]	23	25	76	Chester	47	27	30
Worcester [4]	15	15	44	Erie	3	2	6

See footnotes at end of table.

[11] A "regular" certificate, as the term is used in this report, is a certificate permitting a minor to leave school and go to work. A "vacation or outside-school-hours certificate" is one permitting a minor to work only during vacation or outside school hours during the school term. In a few States for children 14 and 15, and in a larger number of States for minors 16 and 17, a regular certificate is issued whether the minor leaves school for employment or continues to attend school. For this reason, figures for minors receiving regular certificates include some minors who do not leave school for work.

TABLE 4.—*Number of First Regular Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years, 1939–41*—Continued

State or city	1939	1940	1941	State or city	1939	1940	1941
Pennsylvania—Continued.				Tennessee	41	67	151
Harrisburg	0	0	0	Knoxville	7	37	82
Johnstown	43	25	[1] 22	Nashville	19	4	6
Lancaster	20	16	28	Utah	[1] 14	44	30
McKeesport	13	8	5	Salt Lake City	0	0	[1] 1
Philadelphia	262	322	327	Vermont	2	0	0
Pittsburgh	53	49	92	Virginia	[2] 574	[2] 561	[2] 913
Reading	0	0	0	Richmond	[2] 110	[2] 90	[2] 179
Scranton	33	36	23	Washington	------	4	6
Wilkes-Barre	53	30	49	Seattle	21	3	0
York	68	79	77	West Virginia [4]	31	14	51
Puerto Rico	------	------	[1] 129	Wisconsin	2	1	0
Rhode Island	0	0	0	Milwaukee	0	0	0
Providence	0	0	0	Wyoming	------	0	0
South Dakota	0	0	0				

[1] Data not complete for entire year.
[2] Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours or during vacation.
[3] Includes reissued certificates.
[4] 16-year minimum-wage law went into effect in Massachusetts in August 1939, in West Virginia in June 1939, in New Jersey in September 1940, and in Florida in June 1941.
[5] In Maine and Michigan 15 years is the minimum age for certificates.
[6] In 1940 and 1941 Baltimore City reports included Baltimore and Howard Counties, which were not included in 1939.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Regular Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 16 and 17 Years, 1939–41* [1]

State or city	1939	1940	1941	Percent of change in 1941 as compared with—	
				1939 [2]	1940 [2]
Alabama	1,019	1,625	2,636	+158.7	+62.2
Birmingham	78	178	332	+325.6	+86.5
Mobile	53	316	[3] ------	------	------
Arkansas	47	89	193	------	+116.9
California	5,043	5,853	[4] 8,727	------	------
Berkeley	66	33	[3] ------	------	------
Fresno	214	123	[3] ------	------	------
Glendale	81	80	[3] ------	------	------
Long Beach	49	98	[3] ------	------	------
Los Angeles	1,958	2,241	[4] 3,078	------	------
Oakland	387	319	[3] ------	------	------
Pasadena	298	277	[3] ------	------	------
Sacramento	[5] 264	180	[3] ------	------	------
San Diego	231	312	[4] 518	------	------
San Francisco	583	664	[4] 1,289	------	------
San Jose	[5] 126	75	[3] ------	------	------
Colorado	203	233	579	+185.2	+148.5
Denver	187	214	521	+178.6	+143.5
Connecticut	[4] 3,803	7,202	21,634	------	+200.4
Bridgeport	[4] 562	1,021	[3] ------	------	------
Hartford	[4] 513	964	[3] ------	------	------
New Britain	[4] 116	379	[3] ------	------	------
New Haven	[4] 236	441	[3] ------	------	------
Waterbury	[4] 141	341	[3] ------	------	------
Delaware	302	715	1,360	+350.3	+90.2
Wilmington	176	237	644	+265.9	+171.7
District of Columbia	1,843	2,371	6,317	+242.8	+166.4
Florida [6]	[5] 22	[5] 222	[5] 1,284	------	------
Georgia	1,280	1,989	3,182	+148.6	+60.0
Atlanta	114	125	337	+195.6	+169.6
Hawaii	------	[4] 3,949	5,635	------	------
Idaho	20	22	114	------	------
Illinois	1,601	3,031	9,286	+480.0	+206.4
Chicago	1,372	2,555	[3] ------	------	------
Indiana	3,776	4,615	11,911	+215.4	+158.1
East Chicago	56	74	[3] ------	------	------
Evansville	170	249	[3] ------	------	------
Fort Wayne	145	281	975	+572.4	+247.0
Gary	162	211	[3] ------	------	------
Hammond	101	116	[3] ------	------	------

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Regular Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 16 and 17 Years, 1939–41* [1]—Continued

State or city	1939	1940	1941	Percent of change in 1941 as compared with—	
				1939 [2]	1940 [2]
Indiana—Continued.					
Indianapolis	664	1,050	1,922	+189.5	+83.0
South Bend	119	76	469	+294.1	+517.1
Iowa	----------	[5] 363	[5] 499	----------	+37.5
Des Moines	[5] 86	60	[3]	----------	----------
Sioux City	[5] 95	70	[3]	----------	----------
Kansas	37	33	158	----------	----------
Wichita	18	17	79	----------	----------
Kentucky	262	533	1,240	+373.3	+132.6
Louisville	89	414	954	+971.9	+130.4
Louisiana	----------	----------	[4] [5] 1,502	----------	----------
New Orleans	[5] 413	[5] 439	[5] 861	+108.5	+96.1
Maine	1,481	878	3,458	+133.5	+293.8
Portland	142	117	[3]	----------	----------
Maryland	1,591	4,516	12,585	+691.0	+178.7
Baltimore	1,322	[7] 3,527	[7] 10,767	----------	+205.3
Massachusetts:					
Boston [8]	2,890	3,024	7,069	+144.6	+133.8
Brockton [8]	142	135	402	+183.1	+197.8
Cambridge [8]	532	572	1,325	+149.1	+131.6
Fall River [8]	1,367	1,178	2,416	+76.7	+105.1
Holyoke [8]	220	228	709	+222.3	+211.0
Lawrence [8]	262	313	891	+240.1	+184.7
Lowell [8]	664	517	1,724	+159.6	+233.5
Lynn [8]	185	226	501	+170.8	+121.7
Malden [8]	[5] 217	[5] 329	[5] 948	+336.9	+188.1
Medford [8]	161	139	502	+211.8	+261.2
New Bedford [8]	612	718	1,541	+151.8	+114.6
Newton [8]	116	113	291	+150.9	+157.5
Quincy [8]	[5] 307	[5] 434	[5] 1,063	+246.3	+144.9
Somerville [8]	464	387	894	+92.7	+131.0
Springfield [8]	283	360	1,233	+335.7	+242.5
Worcester [8]	[5] 1,084	[5] 1,491	[5] 3,502	+223.1	+134.9
Michigan	3,502	5,328	19,692	+462.3	+269.6
Dearborn	[9] 72	53	[3]	----------	----------
Detroit	[10] 1,875	2,071	7,505	+300.3	+262.4
Flint	155	159	[3]	----------	----------
Grand Rapids	501	656	1,348	+169.1	+105.5
Highland Park	[5] 71	[5] 145	[3]	----------	----------
Jackson	21	62	[3]	----------	----------
Lansing	63	48	[3]	----------	----------
Pontiac	78	56	[3]	----------	----------
Saginaw	106	90	[3]	----------	----------
Minnesota	[4] 258	344	1,391	----------	+304.4
Mississippi	[4] 569	264	392	----------	+48.5
Missouri	----------	651	3,211	----------	+393.2
Kansas City	1	60	79	----------	+31.7
St. Louis	229	304	1,966	+758.5	+546.7
New Hampshire	[4] 892	1,180	4,048	----------	+243.1
Manchester	301	308	----------	----------	----------
New Jersey [11]	3,541	6,473	20,116	----------	----------
Bayonne	0	55	[3]	----------	----------
Camden	775	652	[3]	----------	----------
Elizabeth	103	128	[3]	----------	----------
Hoboken	97	----------	[3]	----------	----------
Jersey City	115	296	[3]	----------	----------
Newark	623	960	3,597	----------	----------
Paterson	0	143	[3]	----------	----------
Trenton	186	189	[3]	----------	----------
New York	34,951	36,837	68,782	+96.8	+86.7
Albany	291	370	633	+117.5	+71.1
Binghamton	95	119	366	+285.3	+207.6
Buffalo	1,619	1,970	3,772	+133.0	+91.5
Mt. Vernon	119	128	194	+63.0	+51.6
New Rochelle	66	59	111	+68.2	+88.1
New York	23,909	24,884	40,077	+67.6	+61.1
Niagara Falls	74	110	402	+443.2	+265.5
Rochester	693	865	2,407	+247.3	+178.3
Schenectady	174	238	414	+137.9	+73.9
Syracuse	[5] 510	[5] 746	[5] 2,187	+328.8	+193.2
Troy	[5] 175	[5] 212	[5] 623	+256.0	+193.9
Utica	[5] 341	[5] 276	[5] 470	+37.8	+70.3
Yonkers	274	268	531	+93.8	+98.1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Regular Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 16 and 17 Years, 1939–41* [1]—Continued

State or city	1939	1940	1941	Percent of change in 1941 as compared with—	
				1939 [2]	1940 [2]
North Carolina	4,980	6,028	10,776	+116.4	+78.8
Asheville	104	91	[3]		
Charlotte	199	213	376	+88.9	+76.5
Durham	59	102	[3]		
Greensboro	185	255	[3]		
Winston-Salem	69	85	[3]		
Ohio			22,499		
Akron	523	467	[3]		
Canton	369	514	[3]		
Cincinnati	1,319	1,630	3,086	+134.0	+89.3
Cleveland	[12] 4,152	4,222	7,223		+71.1
Columbus	823	945	[3]		
Dayton	387	475	840	+117.1	+76.8
Hamilton	129	109	[3]		
Lakewood	72	111	[3]		
Springfield	232	208	[3]		
Toledo	744	1,042	1,104	+48.4	+6.0
Youngstown	497	463	593	+19.3	+28.1
Oklahoma		[4] 167	419		
Oklahoma City	51	62	126	+147.1	+103.2
Tulsa	197	169	169	−14.2	0
Oregon	263	405	1,105	+320.2	+172.8
Portland	176	241	602	+242.0	+149.8
Pennsylvania [*]					
Allentown	585	[4] 399			
Altoona	23	85	202		+137.6
Bethlehem	339	246	557	+64.3	+126.4
Chester	163	285	422	+158.9	+48.1
Erie	125	104	311	+148.8	+199.0
Harrisburg	141	148	406	+187.9	+174.3
Johnstown	72	79	[4] 121		
Lancaster	161	186	413	+156.5	+122.0
McKeesport	53	76	142	+167.9	+86.8
Philadelphia	5,947	6,170	14,074	+136.7	+128.1
Pittsburgh	860	953	2,188	+154.4	+129.6
Reading	463	414	968	+109.1	+133.8
Scranton	337	296	437	+29.7	+47.6
Wilkes-Barre	220	174	296	+34.5	+70.1
York	103	147	344	+234.0	+134.0
Puerto Rico			[4] 600		
Rhode Island	[4 5] 348	1,524	5,467		+258.7
Pawtucket	[4] 15	130	[3]		
Providence	228	740	2,340	+926.3	+216.2
South Carolina	1,895	1,768	3,574	+88.6	+102.1
Tennessee	309	311	562	+81.9	+80.7
Knoxville	36	29	100		
Memphis	93	73	[3]		
Nashville	62	120	129	+108.1	+7.5
Texas		[4] 399	1,362		
Utah	[4] 254	434	594		+36.9
Salt Lake City	115	63	217	+88.7	+244.4
Vermont	175	281	746	+326.3	+165.5
Virginia	[5] 844	[5] 1,361	[5] 2,859	+238.7	+110.1
Norfolk	[5] 53	[5] 93	[3]		
Richmond	[5] 34	[5] 86	[5] 225		+161.6
Washington		173	534		+208.7
Seattle		52	121		+132.7
West Virginia [13]	122	133	588		+342.1
Wisconsin	2,903	3,358	8,198	+182.4	+144.1
Milwaukee	921	1,057	2,750	198.6	+160.2

[1] This table includes all States reporting and all cities with 50,000 or more population (1940 census) reporting 50 or more certificates in 1939, 1940, or 1941.

[2] Percent not shown where number of children was less than 50 in 1939 or 1940 nor where figures were not available or not comparable.

[3] No report because in 1941 the number of cities from which reports were requested was decreased in order to lessen the burden on State reporting officers.

[4] Data not complete for entire year.

[5] Includes certificates issued for work outside school hours and during vacation.

[6] 16-year-old minimum-age law went into effect in Florida June 1941.

[7] Baltimore city includes Baltimore and Howard County in 1940 and 1941.

[8] 16-year-old minimum-age law went into effect in Massachusetts August 1939.

[9] In 1939 reports were received for only 3 of the 5 Dearborn districts.

[10] Beginning in March 1939 the reports included certificates issued to both 16- and 17-year-old minors.

[11] 16-year-old minimum-age law went into effect in New Jersey September 1940.

[12] Began separating regular and vacation certificates in July 1939.

[13] Minimum-age law went into effect June 1939.

PERIOD 1940 TO 1942

In 1940, changes were made in the system of reporting certificates, in order to connect it more closely with the administration of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. State-wide reports, rather than reports from individual cities, are now received from most States, fitting into the development of plans for the State supervision of certificate issuance—a measure vital to effective methods of such issuance. Previously, also, reports for 16- and 17-year-old minors had been requested only from States in which these certificates were required by law for minors of these ages. Beginning in 1939 they have also been received from States where these certificates are issued on request.

All certificates issued.—A comparison of the rate of increase since 1940 must be based on a smaller number of reports than those previously quoted (see p. 453), because not all States and cities have sent in comparable reports for the entire period. On a comparative basis, the number of minors between 14 and 18 years of age who obtained certificates for full-time or part-time jobs in 1941 was more than double the 1940 total, the increase for the 16- and 17-year-olds separately being 132 percent, for those of 14 and 15 years, 77 percent. The number between 14 and 18 years of age obtaining certificates in the first 6 months of 1942 was 62 percent greater than in the corresponding period of 1941—59 percent for the younger workers (14 and 15 years of age) and 62 percent for the older group (16 and 17 years of age).

TABLE 6.—*Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years and 16 and 17 Years, 1940 and 1941 and First Half of 1941 and 1942* [1]

Age of minor, and type of certificate	Year 1940	Year 1941	Percent of change	Jan.–June 1941	Jan.–June 1942	Percent of change
Minors 16 and 17 years of age	159,910	370,261	+131.5	160,067	259,963	+62.4
Regular certificates	121,129	275,749	+127.6	121,735	191,449	+57.3
Vacation and outside-school-hours certificates	38,781	94,512	+143.7	38,332	68,514	+78.7
Minors 14 and 15 years of age	37,321	65,808	+76.6	31,703	50,260	+58.5
Regular certificates [2]	2,957	5,700	+92.8	3,756	5,279	+40.5
Vacation and outside-school-hours certificates	34,364	60,198	+75.2	27,947	44,981	+61.0

[1] Based on reports from States and cities reporting for 1940 and 1941, and on reports for 6-months periods, from States and cities reporting in each of these periods. For 14- and 15-year-old minors, only States are included in which the minimum age was not raised during the designated period.

[2] See footnote 11, page 455.

Tables 7 and 8 give examples of States and cities in which the increase in the numbers of certificates issued to children of 14 and 15 years and to boys and girls of 16 and 17 years has been particularly great.

TABLE 7.—*Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years in Selected States and Cities, First Half of 1940, 1941, and 1942*

State or city	Regular and vacation- and-outside-school-hours certificates				
	First 6 months of—			Percent of increase	
	1940	1941	1942	1941 over 1940	1942 over 1940
Alabama	274	505	749	84.3	173.4
Illinois	582	1,113	2,038	91.2	250.2
Indiana	549	935	1,794	70.3	226.8
Michigan	2,610	6,926	5,848	165.4	124.1
North Carolina	924	1,300	1,699	40.7	83.9
Tennessee	79	116	336	46.8	325.3
Virginia	260	338	623	30.0	139.6
Baltimore, Md	914	1,431	2,086	56.6	128.2
Boston, Mass	668	1,004	1,516	50.3	126.9
District of Columbia	131	224	1,065	71.0	713.0
Ohio, 5 cities	629	1,010	1,882	60.6	199.2
Philadelphia, Pa	369	563	1,437	52.6	289.4

In the last half of 1942 the numbers of boys and girls between 14 and 18 years of age going to work continued to rise rapidly. Figures for the full 6-month period have not yet been received from many of the States and cities reporting to the Bureau; comparisons with prior years must therefore be made on a preliminary basis, subject to probable change in the final 1942 numbers. On this preliminary basis, however, in the period July–December 1942, over 5,000 14- and 15-year-old children left school for work; this was nearly four times as many as in the same period in 1940—2 years before. Approximately 40,000—more than three times as many as in the corresponding 1940 period—took jobs during vacation or outside school hours.

In the 16- and 17-year-old group, according to these certificate reports, more than 250,000 boys and girls took full-time or part-time jobs in this 6-month period—4 times as many as in the corresponding period of 1940.

TABLE 8.—*Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged 16 and 17 Years in Selected States and Cities, First Half of 1940, 1941, and 1942*

State or city	Regular and vacation and outside-school-hours certificates									Percent of increase, total certificates	
	First 6 months of 1940			First 6 months of 1941			First 6 months of 1942				
	Total	Regular [1]	Vacation and outside school hours	Total	Regular [1]	Vacation and outside school hours	Total	Regular	Vacation and outside school hours	1941 over 1940	1942 over 1940
Alabama	703	703		1,287	1,287		1,982	1,982		83.1	181.9
Connecticut	1,862	1,862		9,642	9,642		12,572	12,572		417.8	575.2
Georgia	994	994		1,465	1,465		3,150	3,150		47.4	216.9
Illinois	1,249	1,055	194	5,382	4,207	1,175	8,844	6,229	2,615	330.9	608.1
Indiana	1,746	1,746		4,801	4,801		9,393	9,393		175.0	438.0
Maine	336	336		1,627	1,627		3,108	3,108		384.2	825.0
Michigan	3,968	1,799	2,169	18,053	9,470	8,583	21,099	15,044	6,055	355.0	431.7
Missouri	273	272	1	1,466	1,398	68	2,822	2,822		437.0	933.7
New Hampshire	385	385		2,189	2,189		2,724	2,724		468.6	607.5
North Carolina	2,793	1,961	832	8,191	6,538	1,653	9,690	7,406	2,284	193.3	246.9
Oregon	932	109	823	1,625	302	1,323	6,425	2,534	3,891	74.4	589.4
Rhode Island	317	309	8	2,605	2,440	165	4,392	3,993	399	721.8	1,285.5
Baltimore, Md	1,151	1,151		4,539	4,539		7,643	7,643		294.4	564.0
Boston, Mass	1,694	914	780	4,930	3,291	1,639	7,508	4,496	3,012	191.0	343.2
District of Columbia	666	666		2,617	2,617		5,557	5,557		292.9	734.4
Ohio, 5 cities	4,126	3,308	818	8,459	6,065	2,394	11,503	6,587	4,916	105.0	178.8
Philadelphia, Pa	2,981	2,659	322	6,838	5,745	1,093	14,109	10,628	3,481	129.4	373.3
Pittsburgh, Pa	520	428	92	1,178	894	284	2,882	1,948	934	126.5	454.2
Worcester, Mass	441	441		1,713	1,713		2,018	2,018		288.4	357.6

[1] See footnote 11, page 455.

A few examples of increases in the entire year 1942 as compared with 1940 are given in table 9.

TABLE 9.—*Employment Certificates Issued for Minors Aged Between 14 and 18 Years in Selected States and Cities in 1940 and 1942*

State or city	Regular and vacation or outside-school-hours certificates		
	Entire year		Percent of increase
	1940	[1] 1942	
Minors 14 and 15 years of age:			
Illinois	1,558	4,770	206.2
Maryland	1,984	5,774	191.0
North Carolina	2,179	6,144	182.0
Virginia	561	1,934	244.7
New Orleans, La	193	1,215	529.5
Boston, Mass	1,306	4,316	230.5
Pittsburgh, Pa	174	1,116	541.4
Minors 16 and 17 years of age:			
Connecticut	7,202	30,220	319.6
Indiana	4,623	26,403	471.1
North Carolina	9,155	25,290	176.2
Oregon	1,967	18,459	838.4
Virginia	1,361	5,753	322.7
Baltimore, Md	3,527	17,059	383.7
Philadelphia, Pa	6,958	33,710	384.5

[1] Preliminary figures.

Federal certificates of age.—In four States—Idaho, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Texas—a Federal system has been created to provide employers with acceptable evidence of age under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. These systems were started with cooperation of State and local officials, at different times between April 24, 1939, and April 15, 1940. The certificates issued in these States are of interest as showing increases in employment of minors in industries subject to the child-labor provisions of the Federal act, that is, industries producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce.

Because the basic minimum age under the act is 16, most of these certificates are issued for minors of 16 and 17 years; certificates are requested also by many employers for minors 18 and 19, sometimes merely as a precautionary measure, but at other times because the minor is to be employed in one of the occupations found and declared particularly hazardous under the act, for which the minimum age is 18.[12]

From 1940 to 1941 the number of minors 16 and 17, and 18 and 19, years of age for whom first certificates were issued, rose from 464 to 969 in Mississippi, from 2,181 to 4,527 in South Carolina, and from 701 to 2,608 in Texas. These large increases are to a considerable extent accounted for by the increase in defense industries in all three States and the increase in Government contracts given to textile factories in South Carolina.

In the first 6 months of 1942 the requests for Federal certificates continued to rise rapidly. In these four States, almost twice as many minors received certificates in this 6-month period as in the whole year 1940, the number rising from 3,991 to 6,295.

[12] The Chief of the Children's Bureau is given power to find and declare occupations particularly hazardous or detrimental to health or well-being of minors 16 and 17 years of age, and after such a finding has been made and issued (in the form of an order) the minimum age for employment in the occupation covered by the order is 18.

REISSUED CERTIFICATES

In some States a child must obtain a certificate each time he gets a new job. The number of reissued certificates, therefore, is some indication of the extent to which these young persons change jobs. In the first 6 months of 1942, among the 16- and 17-year-old workers,[13] there was an increase over the same period in 1941 of 198 percent in the number applying for certificates for jobs subsequent to their first—an increase much larger than that occurring in the number obtaining first regular certificates for work in the same periods (54 percent). In both years, the majority of the reissued certificates were for work in manufacturing and in mercantile establishments, the percentage for work in manufacturing increasing from 46 percent in 1941 to 53 percent in 1942. For mercantile work the corresponding percentages were about the same in both years—22 in the 1941 period and 24 in the 1942 period.

Sex of Workers

Although a great many girls between 14 and 18 years of age are being employed, in these ages working boys predominate. This is the picture as shown both by employment-certificate reports [14] and by 1940 census figures.[15] In 1941, of all the certificates reported (i. e., first regular certificates and first and reissued vacation and outside-school-hours certificates) for 16- and 17-year-old workers, 61 percent, and of those reported for 14- and 15-year-old workers 88 percent, were issued to boys.

Since 1939, the percentage of boys 16 and 17 years of age as compared with girls has tended to increase. Figures for the States reporting in all 3 years show that of the 16- and 17-year-old minors who obtained first regular certificates [16] in 1941, 59 percent were boys as compared with 56 percent in 1940 and 54 percent in 1939. Among the corresponding group of 14- and 15-year-old minors, the proportion of boys is larger and has increased more rapidly; it was 67 percent in 1941, 58 percent in 1940, and 51 percent in 1939. In work during vacation and outside school hours, many more boys than girls are going to work; in 1940 and 1941, only about a third of the minors of 16 and 17 and less than a tenth of those of 14 and 15 were girls. This is a natural consequence of the fact that much of the usual part-time and vacation employment consists of errand work, street trades, and other jobs which traditionally have been performed by boys.

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[13] Comparatively few certificates for jobs subsequent to the first were issued for 14- and 15-year-old children.

[14] In the total population of these ages the numbers of boys and girls are almost equal—4,817,523 girls as compared with 4,902,896 boys. Employment-certificate reports are incomplete for domestic service, where more girls than boys of these ages are employed, and for agriculture, where more boys than girls of these ages are employed.

[15] The U. S. Census of 1940 showed in the employed group between 14 and 18 years of age 226,824 girls and 645,490 boys; that is, 74 percent boys, and 26 percent girls.

[16] These certificates permitted the minor to leave school and take full-time employment, but some of the minors may in fact have continued in school and worked only outside school hours or in vacation.

Schooling

The school grade completed by these young people when they take their first regular jobs marks for most of them the extent of their formal education and school training. It is encouraging, therefore, that these certificate reports indicate a slight rise from 1939 to 1941 in the proportion of boys and girls who have completed the eighth or a higher grade—for boys and girls of 14 and 15 years from 63 percent in 1939 to 66 percent in 1941, and for those of 16 and 17 an increase in the same period of from 84 to 88 percent. Nevertheless, in 1941, nearly a fifth (18.8 percent) of the younger children and 6 percent of the older boys and girls had not gone farther than completion of the sixth grade (table 10). That so large a proportion as 19 percent of 14- and 15-year-old children going to work have ended their schooling with no more than a sixth-grade education (many of them with less), and that even among the 16- and 17-year-olds an eighth have had less than an eighth-grade education, are matters for concern, especially in this war period when more and more children are leaving school for work.

TABLE 10.—*Highest School Grade Completed by Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years and 16 and 17 Years Receiving First Regular Employment Certificates, 1939–41*

Age and highest grade completed	Number			Percent		
	1939	1940	1941	1939	1940	1941
Minors 14 and 15 years of age [1]	[3] 5,981	[4] 4,173	5,438			
Grade completed reported	2,449	3,716	4,839	100.0	100.0	100.0
Grade 6 or lower [5]	510	773	914	20.8	20.8	18.8
Grade 7	396	459	719	16.2	12.4	14.9
Grade 8 or higher	1,543	2,484	3,206	63.0	66.8	66.3
Grade not reported	3,532	457	599			
Minors 16 and 17 years of age [2]	[3] 94,031	[4] 112,313	[5] 255,706			
Grade completed reported	77,119	89,329	206,892	100.0	100.0	100.0
Grade 6 or lower [6]	6,360	6,460	12,083	8.2	7.2	5.8
Grade 7	5,988	6,299	12,605	7.8	7.1	6.1
Grade 8 or higher	64,771	76,570	182,204	84.0	85.7	88.1
Grade not reported	16,912	22,984	48,814			

[1] Includes figures based upon reports from 29 States, the District of Columbia, and 39 cities in 6 other States.
[2] Includes figures based upon reports from 28 States, the District of Columbia, and 42 cities in 9 other States.
[3] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Massachusetts in August 1939, and in West Virginia in June 1939.
[4] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in New Jersey in September 1940.
[5] 16-year minimum-age law went into effect in Florida in July 1941.
[6] Includes ungraded classes.

Industry and Occupation

Owing to incomplete reports, information as to industry and occupation entered by minors receiving certificates is not available for as many States and cities as for the total number of certificates issued. The totals shown in tables 11 and 12, therefore, are not so large as those given in table 2 (p. 453). They are, however, representative of a large proportion of the minors of the country who are working in manufacturing, mechanical, transportation, and service industries, and they show the trend. For domestic service in private homes, for agricultural work, and to a less extent for street trades, the picture is incomplete because in many States certificates are not required for work in these occupations.

Industry and occupation figures for the years prior to 1940 are not directly comparable to those for later years, because of a change in the method of reporting. In a comparison of 1938 and 1939, the specific effect of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act is shown by a reduction in the percentage of minors 14 and 15 obtaining regular certificates for work in manufacturing and mechanical occupations—from 12 percent in the former year to 7 percent in the latter.

ALL CERTIFICATES

Children 14 and 15 years of age.—Nearly a third of the 14- and 15-year-old workers in both 1940 and 1941 went into the various service industries. They worked as bus boys or cashiers in lunchrooms; as "curbhops" for drive-in restaurants; as helpers and attendants in filling stations and garages; as caddies; as pin boys in bowling alleys; as messengers for business offices; in beauty-shops and barber shops; in laundries. A large and increasing proportion worked in retail or wholesale mercantile establishments, doing delivery and errand work, waiting on customers, working as "soda jerkers" in drug stores, and in many miscellaneous jobs. Their numbers increased 137 percent in 1941 as compared with 1940, and 108 percent in the first 6 months of 1942 as compared with the corresponding period of 1941.

TABLE 11.—*Industry Entered by Minors Aged 14 and 15 Years Receiving Regular and Vacation and Outside-School-Hours Certificates in 1940 and 1941*

Industry	1940			1941		
	Total	Regular [1]	Vacation [2]	Total	Regular [1]	Vacation [2]
Total	36,449	2,427	34,022	64,078	4,850	59,228
Industry reported	36,177	2,381	33,796	63,762	4,815	58,947
Manufacturing	11,294	175	11,119	14,096	400	13,696
Publishing (i. e. newsboys)	10,627	98	10,529	12,472	156	12,316
Other	667	77	590	1,624	244	1,380
Trade	9,495	693	8,802	22,531	1,790	20,741
Personal (excluding domestic service), business, and recreational services	11,332	257	11,075	19,184	593	18,591
Transportation, communications, and other public utilities	442	32	410	1,127	123	1,004
Other [3]	3,614	1,224	2,390	6,824	1,909	4,915
	Percentage distribution					
Industry reported	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Manufacturing	31.2	7.3	32.9	22.1	8.3	23.2
Publishing (i. e. newsboys)	29.4	4.1	31.2	19.6	3.2	20.9
Other	1.8	3.2	1.7	2.5	5.1	2.3
Trade	26.3	29.1	26.0	35.3	37.2	35.2
Personal (excluding domestic service), business, and recreational services	31.3	10.8	32.8	30.1	12.3	31.5
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.8	2.6	1.7
Other [3]	10.0	51.4	7.1	10.7	39.6	8.3

[1] Includes 28 States, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia and 35 cities in 4 other States.
[2] Includes 27 States, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia and 35 cities in 4 other States.
[3] "Other" includes domestic service in private homes, agriculture, forestry and fishing, mining, construction, and occupations not otherwise specified.

Newsboys made up nearly all of the 31 percent in 1940 and the 22 percent in 1941 classed as working for manufacturing industries. With the opening up of new jobs to these younger workers, however, the trend in their employment is away from newsboy work. The proportion of newsboys in the whole group of 14- and 15-year-old children has been decreasing; in 1940, 29 percent of all the 14- and 15-year-old children who received certificates were newsboys, in 1941, 20 percent, and in the first 6 months of 1942 only 10 percent.[17] The number increased very little—only 17 percent between 1940 and 1941—while the total number of children of these ages obtaining certificates increased 77 percent. Most of these children obtained vacation and outside-school-hours certificates or permits (sometimes in the form of a badge), but a few—between 3 and 5 percent of the total—had regular certificates permitting employment during school hours.

Comparatively few 14- and 15-year-old children obtain certificates for regular factory work because, as already pointed out in discussing the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, only work in establishments that do not produce goods for shipment in interstate commerce and a small amount of nonproductive work in interstate factories are legal for children under 16 years of age. Moreover, 15 States have established a basic minimum age of 16 for work in factories, at least during school hours. As a result, excluding newsboys, only a small percentage of the children of 14 and 15 who left school for work went into work for manufacturing establishments—3 percent in 1940 and 5 percent in 1941. The corresponding figure for those going to work in vacation or outside school hours is 2 percent in both years. However, the actual number of children of these ages going into manufacturing industries, exclusive of newsboys, in either regular or part-time jobs, is on the increase; the number, though small, was more than twice as large in 1941 as in 1940. In the first 6 months of 1942, as compared with the corresponding period of 1941, a slight increase—from 5 percent to 8 percent—occurred in the percentage of 14- and 15-year-old children taking manufacturing jobs (exclusive of newsboys).

Many 14- and 15-year-old children are engaged in cultivating and harvesting fruits and vegetables in industrialized agriculture, but in most States no certificates are required for this work and their numbers are not reflected in the certificate figures.

An increasingly smaller proportion of the 14- and 15-year-old children are receiving certificates for work in domestic service, as caddies, and as newsboys—types of work which in 1940 constituted 54 percent of all jobs reported as entered by children of these ages. Only 20 percent of the children receiving certificates went into these types of jobs in the first 6 months of 1942, as compared with 43 percent in the same period of 1941.

Minors 16 and 17 years of age.—The large percentage of minors of 16 and 17 going to work who are entering manufacturing (exclusive of newsboys, 30 percent in 1940 and 34 percent in 1941) is in direct contrast to the situation for 14- and 15-year-old minors. Of minors 16 and 17 years of age receiving regular certificates, 37 percent in 1940 and 41 percent in 1941 went into manufacturing industries.

[17] The figure of 10 percent may be an understatement, however, because it does not take account of vacation and outside-school-hours certificates issued in the vacation months after June.

These proportions are somewhat overweighted by the inclusion of States where certificates are not required for minors of 16 and 17 years under State law. In these States the greatest demand for certificates is for work in factories covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act. However, even in States where certificates are required up to 18 years of age for practically all occupations (except agriculture and domestic service), a large proportion (more than a third) of the regular certificates issued in 1941 to these minors was for work in factories.

Some of these young persons 16 and 17 years of age entering manufacturing industries are in plants producing war materials; for example, in aircraft factories they are doing assembly and sheet-metal work, in shipyards they are doing subassembly work or are working in the sheet-metal shops, mold lofts, or machine shops, and they are undertaking a variety of jobs in other war plants. In large numbers, however, they are working in factories producing textiles, wearing apparel, shoes and other leather products, electrical equipment, and all sorts of metal products as well as various kinds of machinery.

TABLE 12.—*Industry Entered by Minors Aged 16 and 17 Years Receiving Regular and Vacation and Outside-School-Hours Certificates in 1940 and 1941*

[Includes only States and cities issuing 10 or more certificates in either year]

Industry	1940			1941		
	Total	Regular[1]	Vacation and outside school hours[2]	Total	Regular[1]	Vacation and outside school hours[2]
Total	148,282	[3] 112,498	35,784	342,157	[3] 256,246	85,911
Industry reported	146,703	111,278	35,425	336,269	250,864	85,405
Manufacturing	47,386	41,267	6,119	117,996	104,201	13,795
Publishing (i. e. newsboys)	2,972	842	2,130	2,872	897	1,975
Other	44,414	40,425	3,989	115,124	103,304	11,820
Trade	47,852	30,272	17,580	111,829	67,917	43,912
Personal (excluding domestic service), business, and recreational services	17,948	11,322	6,626	37,267	22,736	14,531
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	11,031	8,185	2,846	25,843	19,983	5,860
Other[4]	22,486	20,232	2,254	43,334	36,027	7,307
	Percentage distribution					
Industry reported	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Manufacturing	32.3	37.1	17.3	35.1	41.5	16.2
Publishing (i. e. newsboys)	2.0	.8	6.0	.9	.3	2.3
Other	30.3	36.3	11.3	34.2	41.2	13.9
Trade	32.6	27.2	49.6	33.2	27.1	51.4
Personal (excluding domestic service), business, and recreational services	12.3	10.2	18.7	11.1	9.1	17.0
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	7.5	7.4	8.0	7.7	8.0	6.9
Other[4]	15.3	18.2	6.4	12.9	14.4	8.6

[1] 30 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and 36 cities in 5 other States.
[2] 7 States, and 40 cities in 4 other States where regular certificates issued do not include vacation certificates.
[3] In some States where children are not required to attend school after reaching the age of 16, regular certificates may be issued to all children applying who have the legal requirement without regard to whether or not they are attending school. For this reason these figures include children working outside school hours and during vacation.
[4] "Other" includes domestic service (private homes), agriculture, forestry and fishery, mining, construction, and occupations not otherwise specified.

Another large group (33 percent) in both years entered mercantile establishments—retail or wholesale, as sales clerks, errand boys, stock boys and girls, and shipping clerks. As would be expected from the nature of the industry, this work in stores was more frequently undertaken by the boys and girls who received vacation and outside-school-hours certificates, and work in manufacturing more frequently by those who obtained regular certificates; in 1941, 51 percent of the vacation and outside-school-hours certificates and only 27 percent of the regular certificates for minors of these ages were issued for work in trade. The remainder of the 16- and 17-year-old workers were widely scattered—in the personal and recreational services, as clerical workers in banks and business offices, in domestic service in private homes, and in the transportation and communication services.

About 6 percent in both regular and part-time work were telegraph messengers and a few were telephone operators; those in personal and recreational services included caddies, pin boys in bowling alleys, ushers in moving-picture theaters, and busboys, waiters, and cashiers in restaurants. As in the case of the younger children, large numbers of boys and girls of 16 and 17 are employed on farms, but few obtain certificates, because as a rule this is not required by law.

Sex of minors as related to occupation.—Of the girls 14 and 15 years of age who obtained regular certificates in 1940, 80 percent were for domestic service, slightly more than half for work in their own homes. The increase in other types of employment open to girls is indicated by a reduction to 59 percent in 1941 in the proportion going into domestic service, and an increase from 10 percent in 1940 to 25 percent in 1941 in the proportion going into stores. In the 16- and 17-year-old group few States require certificates in domestic service, but even here the percent of girls receiving regular certificates for domestic work dropped from 26 in 1940 to 13 in 1941 and the percent for work in stores increased.

Among the boys 16 and 17 years of age the increases occurred in manufacturing exclusive of newsboys—from 36 percent in 1940 to 43 percent in 1941—with a slight decrease in the percentage in work for stores and in service industries. The proportion of boys 14 and 15, however, increased slightly for work in stores.

FEDERAL CERTIFICATES OF AGE

As would be expected, the large majority of the minors receiving Federal certificates of age issued by the Children's Bureau representatives in the four States in which Federal systems have been started took jobs in manufacturing establishments. These included fruit-, vegetable-, and fish- canning factories, as well as shipyards and various types of factories manufacturing textiles and army goods such as tents, bags, and cots. A small proportion went to work as telegraph messengers or for telephone companies, and in Texas a considerable number entered plants engaged in packing fruits and vegetables. In Idaho most of the Federal certificates were issued for work in metal mining.

NONDEFERABLE OCCUPATIONS FOR MEN

THE Bureau of Selective Service of the War Manpower Commission has announced that effective April 1, 1943, certain activities and occupations will be "nondeferable" regardless of dependents. This action is intended to have the effect of speeding up transfers of men from nonessential to essential employment and also of helping to meet the needs of the armed services. It was taken after consultation with the War Manpower Commission and the Management-Labor Policy Committee. The order does not affect women; it applies only to men who are subject to the Selective Training and Service Act.

In a memorandum addressed to local draft boards, the Bureau of Selective Service listed about 35 occupations as "nondeferable regardless of the activity in which they are found," and in about the same number of activities, included all occupations. It was emphasized that both of these lists were preliminary and that both would be added to from time to time.

The local boards were instructed that, beginning April 1, they are to reconsider the status of all registrants known to be engaged in activities or occupations designated as nondeferable by the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. This effective date was used in order to allow registrants in nondeferable activities and occupations time to transfer to an occupation or activity not on the nondeferable list. After April 1, a 30-day period for transfer will be granted to registrants who register with the United States Employment Service for that purpose and present evidence of such registration to their local boards.

The boards were directed to stay within the scope of the list of nondeferable activities in making their decisions, and to consider all cases with "common sense." The following grounds may be accepted as reasonable excuses for temporary idleness or for being engaged in a nondeferable activity or occupation: (a) Sickness of registrant or in immediate family of registrant; (b) physical disqualifications; (c) reasonable vacation; (d) compelling circumstance that would not permit the change of employment without undue hardship to the registrant or his dependents.

The first list of nondeferable activities and occupations, which will be supplemented by others, was issued by the War Manpower Commission, February 3, and comprises chiefly occupations falling under the heads of trade, services, and manufactures, in the luxury class. The list follows.

INDUSTRIES IN WHICH ALL JOBS ARE NONDEFERABLE

Manufacturing

Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads
Pleating, stitching, tucking, and embroidering
Trimmings, stamped art goods, and art needlework
Cut, beveled, and etched glass
Cutware
Glass novelties
Mosaic glass
Stained, leaded, ornamented, and decorated glass
Jewelers' fixings and materials
Jewelry
Lapidary work
Ornamental gold and silver leaf and foil (nonindustrial)
Silverware and plated ware (nonindustrial)
Costume jewelry and novelties
Decorative feathers, plumes, and artificial flowers
Frames, mirror and picture
Greeting cards and picture post cards
Jewelry cases
Signs and advertising displays

Wholesale and retail trade

Antiques
Beer, wines, and liquors
Custom tailors and furriers
Candy, confectionery, and nuts
Florists
Jewelry
Novelties
Tobacco

Service

Automobile rental service
Dance, music, theatrical and art studios and schools
Gambling
Interior decorating
Night clubs
Parking lots
Photographic studios
Turkish baths, massage parlors, clothing rental, porter service, and social-escort services

JOBS NONDEFERABLE REGARDLESS OF WHERE FOUND

Bar cashiers
Bar boys
Bartenders
Bath-house attendants
Beauty operators
Bellboys
Bootblacks
Bus boys
Butlers
Charmen and cleaners
Cosmeticians
Custom tailors
Custom furriers
Dancing teachers
Dish washers
Doormen and starters
Elevator operators (passenger and freight, excluding industrial freight elevators related to production)
Elevator starters (passenger and freight)
Errand boys (including messengers and office boys)
Fortune tellers, including astrologers, clairvoyants, mediums, mind readers, palmists, etc.
Gardeners
Greens keepers
Housemen
Hairdressers
Lavatory attendants
Messengers, errand boys, office boys
Newsboys
Night-club managers and employees
Porters (other than in railway train service)
Private chauffeurs
Soda dispensers
Ushers
Valets
Waiters (other than in railway train service)

EMPLOYMENT RULES FOR LABOR-SHORTAGE AREAS

AN ORDER issued by the War Manpower Commission on February 1, 1943, outlined a system of "hiring controls." Under the terms of this program, "all hiring, rehiring, solicitation, and recruitment of workers for specified employments shall be conducted solely through the United States Employment Service or in accordance with such arrangements as the regional manpower director may approve." The order delegates to regional directors the authority to establish hiring controls after consultation by the area director with the appropriate area management-labor committees.

The hiring controls are to be exercised for the purpose of assisting the War Manpower Commission in bringing about, with respect to designated areas of manpower shortage (*a*) the elimination of wasteful labor turn-over in essential activities, (*b*) the reduction of unnecessary migration by encouraging the use of local labor, (*c*) the direction of the flow of scarce labor to employers engaged in essential activities in preference to other employers, and (*d*) the maximum utilization of manpower resources.

Labor-Shortage Areas

The order provides that hiring controls shall be established as soon as practicable in all "critical labor-shortage areas," which are described as areas in which the most intensive recruitment efforts have failed to provide the manpower needed for essential activities. In such areas all hiring is to be done through the U. S. Employment Service, or in accordance with other approved arrangements.

Controls may also be established in an area other than a critical labor-shortage area if found necessary for the effective prosecution of the war in order to avert or relieve threatened shortages of manpower needed for essential activities.

The following were designated as "critical labor-shortage areas":

Akron, Ohio.
Baltimore, Md.
Bath, Maine.
Beaumont, Tex.
Bridgeport, Conn.
Brunswick, Ga.
Buffalo, N. Y.
Charleston, S. C.
Cheyenne, Wyo.
Dayton, Ohio.
Detroit, Mich.
Elkton, Md.
Hampton Roads, Va.
Hartford, Conn.
Las Vegas, Nev.
Macon, Ga.
Manitowoc, Wis.
Mobile, Ala.
New Britain, Conn.
Ogden, Utah.
Panama City, Fla.
Pascagoula, Miss.
Portland, Oreg.
Portsmouth, N. H.
San Diego, Calif.
Seattle, Wash.
Somerville, N. J.
Springfield, Mass.
Sterling, Ill.
Washington, D. C.
Waterbury, Conn.
Wichita, Kans.

Administration of Hiring Control

The several regional manpower directors are authorized and directed to carry out the provisions of the order relating to hiring controls in their respective regions. However, before putting into effect an employment-stabilization program, including hiring controls, the area manpower director must consult with the appropriate area manage-

ment-labor manpower committee. The regional directors are authorized to delegate any or all of their authority to area manpower directors, except the authority finally to approve employment-stabilization programs providing for hiring controls.

Hiring-control programs are to be varied to meet conditions in the localities in which they apply. In general, establishments employing fewer than 8 persons, small nonmanufacturing establishments, casual employments, and domestic service will be excluded. Federal employment will be covered (subject to Civil Service rules), but State and local governments will be excluded unless they voluntarily request coverage. Except in areas where agriculture is represented on an area management-labor manpower committee, agricultural employment will be covered only to the extent necessary to control movement of farm workers to nonagricultural employment.

Hiring Practices

Under the rules announced by the War Manpower Commission, the following practices are to be followed in the hiring of workers:

1. Workers shall be referred to jobs which will utilize their skills most effectively in the war effort.
2. Priority shall be accorded to employers engaged in essential activities in the order of the urgency of their activities, to meet labor needs that cannot be met by efficient utilization of labor already employed.
3. A worker engaged or most recently engaged in an essential activity can be employed only by an employer for work in another essential activity and only then when the worker has obtained a statement of availability from his previous employer or a designated representative of the War Manpower Commission. In the case of the Federal Government, "employer" means the United States Civil Service Commission.
4. The decision to hire or refer a worker shall be based on occupational qualifications essential for performance of the job, and shall be made without discrimination as to race, color, creed, sex, national origin, or except as required by law, citizenship.
5. Insofar as it will not interfere with the effective prosecution of the war, no worker shall be obliged to accept or to continue in employment which is not suitable.
6. Insofar as it will not interfere with the effective prosecution of the war, no employer shall be obliged to retain in his employ a worker who is incompetent to perform the work to which he has been assigned or other suitable work offered him by the employer, or who fails to conform to reasonable shop rules or standards of conduct.

ESTABLISHMENT OF MINIMUM 48-HOUR WEEK

THE President, on February 9, 1943, issued Executive Order No. 9301 which established a 48-hour minimum workweek wherever the War Manpower Commission deems it necessary, as part of "the fullest mobilization" of American manpower. This order is expected to result in substantial increases in the weekly earnings of a large number of workers. This will be the case especially in industries subject to the Federal wage and hour law which requires payment of time and a half for work in excess of 40 hours. The order made no change in this law nor in union agreements requiring overtime pay.

Immediately following the issuance of the President's order, Chairman Paul V. McNutt of the War Manpower Commission issued a statement pointing out that the purpose of the Executive order

was to make more manpower available as needed and to increase production. In his statement, Chairman McNutt directed the order to be applied in 32 "critical labor shortage areas" (see page 470). He indicated that it would be applied to other places later. However, it is expected that in many areas which have plentiful manpower it may never apply.

Provisions of Executive Order

The Executive order provides that for the duration of the war, no plants, factories, or other places of employment shall be deemed to be making the most effective utilization of their manpower if the minimum workweek is less than 48 hours. As a means of enforcement, all departments and agencies of the Federal Government must require their contractors to comply with the minimum work week prescribed in the order and with the policies, directives, and regulations prescribed, and shall promptly take such action as may be necessary for that purpose.

The Chairman of the War Manpower Commission is to decide all questions arising under the order, and issue such policies, directives, and regulations as he determines to be necessary. He is authorized to establish a minimum workweek greater or less than 48 hours or to take other necessary action.

The order is not to be construed as superseding any Federal, State, or local law limiting hours of work or the provisions of an individual or collective agreement with respect to overtime pay. Neither does it suspend or modify any law relating to payment of wages or overtime.

Statement of War Manpower Commission

The statement issued by Chairman McNutt directed establishments in which the minimum workweek is less than 48 hours to stop recruiting at once unless they can go on a 48-hour week without discharging employees. This requirement does not apply if the employer, because of expansion or the production schedule, still needs more workers.

Under the directive, employers are not permitted to release workers prior to March 31 for the purpose of attaining the 48-hour week. If by that time, an employer has not attained a 48-hour week without the need for releasing workers for other employment, he is required to report to a representative of the War Manpower Commission the number necessary to be released to attain a 48-hour week. The employer will at that time present a proposed schedule for release of workers or for further absorption within his own plant in order to attain the 48-hour week. The area director will then authorize a proper schedule of release or absorption in terms of the local labor-market needs.

In cases where employers have not attained a 48-hour week by March 31, 1943, as a result of shortage of materials or other special circumstances beyond their control, their cases will be reviewed at that time by the area representative of the War Manpower Commission, and provision will be made for proper adjustments. This

order is not intended to interfere with work schedules designed to utilize workers who on account of other activities or limitations are available for part-time work only.

Analysis of Executive Order

The War Manpower Commission has analyzed the order of the President as well as explaining in more detail its effect on the people of the country. A summary of this analysis follows.

Coverage.—The order does not apply at this time to everyone, but is restricted to the 32 labor-shortage areas. However, other labor-shortage areas will be added as labor shortages become acute. In these designated areas, the order applies to all full-time employees; it does not cover part-time workers or the self-employed.

In other areas, the Commission recommends that firms go on a 48-hour week if by doing so they can reduce their labor requirements without having to discharge workers on their pay roll. Most war plants in all areas are expanding their workweeks, and the Commission suggested that nonwar plants plan similar action, in view of the drain of their workers into the armed forces and into war industries. It was pointed out, however, that the purpose of the President's order is to release workers for war work and essential jobs; mere increase of hours that will not result in this was not intended by the order.

Overtime pay.—The order requires the payment of overtime at the rate of time and a half only in those industries subject to the wage and hour law. However, it does not change any collective agreement as to the rate of overtime pay. It does, of course, abrogate labor contracts which restrict the workweek to less than 48 hours in the areas in which the mandatory order is applied.

Bureau of Manpower Utilization

At about the time the analysis was issued, Chairman McNutt announced the establishment in the War Manpower Commission of the Bureau of Manpower Utilization. This Bureau is to send consultants into factories and offices, and to farms, to ascertain whether manpower is being utilized effectively. The duties of these consultants were described as follows:

1. Determining the extent to which manpower and womanpower are being utilized, by analyzing such symptoms as absenteeism, labor turn-over, production restrictions and stoppages, low morale, performance on the job, idleness, the use of women and the physically handicapped, etc.
2. Analyzing personnel methods as to what methods the employer is using, the balance of an emphasis upon each method in relation to the others, their management-and-labor support, timing, etc.
3. Setting up an over-all plant program for manpower utilization based on the studies just outlined.
4. Suggesting other WMC services available, such as placement and training, and establishing contacts.

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COLLECTIVE BARGAINING IN CANADIAN GOVERNMENT PLANTS [1]

THE right of workers in Government-owned companies in Canada to join trade-unions and bargain collectively was established by order-in-council of December 1, 1942 (P. C. 10802). This extension of such privileges to employees of Crown companies established since the outbreak of war was made on the recommendation of the Minister of Labor.

Provisions of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act were extended to all companies engaged in war work in November 1939. In June 1940, by order-in-council (P. C. 2685), it was recommended that the right to join trade-unions and bargain collectively should be extended to their employees.

Subsequently, the Government established a number of Crown plants engaged in various phases of war work. The status of their employees was brought before the Minister of Labor by organized labor groups, and he agreed that they should be accorded the same rights as employees in privately owned plants.

Under P. C. 10802, the principles laid down in both P. C. 2685 and the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act are made applicable to employees of Crown companies. Thus, it is possible for employees of Government-owned companies to apply to management for collective-bargaining rights, and, if necessary, they may apply to the Department of Labor for a Board of Conciliation and Investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act.

The Minister of Labor advised the Governor General in Council that improvement in employer-employee relations is vital to acceleration of production of war supplies and munitions, and to obtaining the full support of the war by Canadian workers.

The Crown companies covered are defined as comprising any corporation engaged in manufacturing war materials, the majority of whose share capital is held by or on behalf of the King, and "any corporation having a share capital, in respect of any plant or establishment or part thereof and directly controlled by an officer of the King for a period exceeding 3 months." Employees affected include any person employed by a Crown company to do any skilled or unskilled manual, clerical, or technical work.

Any such employee is free to join or continue membership in a trade-union and to participate in the administration and lawful activities of a trade-union. Coercion or intimidation of any kind to influence any employee to join or abstain from joining a trade-union is prohibited. Attempts to organize a trade-union in working hours are not authorized. No officer, agent, or other employee of a Crown company may, while acting on behalf of the company, participate or in any manner interfere with the formation or operation of a trade-union. Refusal to employ or dismiss an employee by reason of his membership in a trade-union, or the imposition of penalties to compel an employee to abstain from becoming or continuing to be a member of a trade-union, is also prohibited.

[1] Data are from Canadian Labor Gazette (Ottawa), December 1942.

An officer or agent of a Crown company may negotiate a collective agreement with the company's employees, provided the workers entering into the negotiations are the properly chosen representatives of the trade-union to which the majority of the employees of the company belong, or to which the majority of its employees in any trade or craft which is appropriate for collective-bargaining purposes belong. No Crown company may enter into any collective agreement any provision of which the Minister of Labor deems will have the effect of restricting or hampering productive output, except insofar as it is necessary for the protection or the safety and health of employees.

Differences that may arise regarding the appropriate bargaining agency are to be determined by the Minister of Labor, who may refer the matter to an Industrial Disputes Inquiry Commission. Other differences shall be settled under the provisions of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act.

Nothing in the new order shall be deemed to limit or restrict in any way the operation of the Wartime Wages Control Order (P. C. 5963).

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Employment and Labor Conditions

ANNUAL REPORT OF SECRETARY OF LABOR, 1941–42

THE experience of this war compared with that of World War I has demonstrated more convincingly than ever that in order to maintain maximum production, the requirements of the best Federal and State legislation must be observed. The annual report of the Secretary of Labor for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1942, lays stress on the importance of prevention of accidents by machine guarding, by fire exits, etc., proper ventilation, proper lighting facilities, proper sanitation, and other good physical conditions, and the necessity of reasonably short hours of work, with meal periods.

State legislation and union contracts often prohibit work beyond 48 hours except on penalty overtime rates which tend to discourage it. The Fair Labor Standards Act, while permitting unlimited hours of work, tends to discourage long hours by providing for overtime after 40 hours. The effect of this act upon our production program has been most interesting. First, when large demands were made upon industry for war production, employers took on new people rather than going to the longer workweek. This had the effect of bringing millions of people into the factories and giving them training and experience, which made rapid expansion and addition of new departments possible when the Government began to increase its demands on these industries.

As war orders began to be greater, employers moved to using overtime, paying time and one-half for it. This had the effect of attracting from the nonwar industries into the war industries exactly the extra personnel required. It also had the effect of making a satisfactory income which undoubtedly retarded and delayed the movement of wages upward, which was so important a part of our efforts to mitigate inflationary trends. Although extremely long hours are worked in many war industries, there is a growing understanding of the desirability of maintaining a steady flow of production with reasonably short working hours.

Industrial Disputes and Their Settlement

The Secretary noted that the time lost through industrial disputes as compared with time worked in industry decreased steadily, notwithstanding the large numbers of new persons entering industry, and stated that at no time during the fiscal year 1941–42 was the working time lost more than one-tenth of 1 percent of the time worked.

The Conciliation Service of the Department of Labor continues to be the key to the prevention and settlement of controversies between employers and workers. Not all of these controversies, of course, result in strikes, though many of them call for the assistance of an experienced conciliator. During the fiscal year the Conciliation Service settled 6 thousand controversies involving nearly 3¼ million workers. Of all cases brought to the attention of the Service while in the threatened-strike or controversy stage, 94 percent were settled without any stoppage of work. Officials of the Department acting as arbitrators made findings and awards in 453 disputes, with the consent of labor and management. These awards were accepted. Many of these were in vital war production.

The Department of Labor, the Secretary stated, has worked in close cooperation with the War Labor Board.

It was anticipated that many more cases would be settled through the Conciliation Service than before the War Labor Board, and this has proved to be the fact. There is, however, no rivalry, the War Labor Board being regarded by the conciliators and by the Department, and by the general public, as being the agency to which an appeal can be taken when the processes of negotiation between the parties with the assistance of a conciliator or a mediator have not been successful. The Board has been obliged to develop policies as cases arose and to apply these with such regularity as it can. The Conciliation Service merely assists the parties in reaching an agreement, and in seeing that there is fair treatment all around.

Need of Training for Skilled Work

The need to train men for skilled work is shown in the present situation, the report states.

The need for systematic training on the job, guided by skilled workers and employers, is as necessary today as it ever was and will continue to be in the future. In times of labor surplus it was easy to overlook this need. Various theories as to the displacement of skilled men by machinery also encouraged an abandonment of systematic training. Today we are paying for our lack of foresight in employment problems arising out of shortage of workers with an all-round apprentice training. Apprenticeship and practical training in industrial occupations should be permanent in our society. The return of men from the combat fronts unable to continue at the front, and the long period of demobilization in the postwar period will create a need for inducting these men into the apprenticeship and training programs, and it is fortunate that these are being expanded at this time. Injured soldiers must be made welcome and useful in our social effort.

Recommendations

The recommendations of the Secretary of Labor are as follows:

I recommend for the future the gradual growth and development of the activities of the Government in the field of labor and social legislation and administration along the lines sketched above.

I recommend a considerable extension and development of our social-security program. It can be made to cover all workers. It can be developed to include many self-employed and professional people not otherwise able to provide for the disasters of their lives. It can be made to provide for covering a much greater variety of social hazards and disasters for all of those covered. Labor in the United States will always be deeply concerned with the development of that system and to its full stature in the United States, and will always cooperate with the Social Security Board and the Congress to that end.

I recommend after the war, but not until after the war, a consolidation in the Department of Labor of various ministerial functions having to do with labor matters which are now scattered through a variety of agencies of the Government. Many of these are in the emergency agencies of Government which will not be retained after the war. Such functions of the Manpower Commission as Employment Service, Apprenticeship, and Occupational Training should be transferred to the Department of Labor on the break-up of that organization. Such functions of the War Production Board as Labor Planning for Production should be transferred to the Department of Labor. The fixing of wages and prices should be abandoned as soon as possible and the various activities of the Government looking toward the prevention of industrial disputes or their equitable settlement should find their permanent home in the Department of Labor. This includes the functions of the War Labor Board, the National Labor Relations Board, and the Labor Division of the War Production Board.

I recommend such increase as possible of the ministerial duties and functions of the Department of Labor in order that all the people of the country may have the full services of that Department.

I recommend lodging in the Department of Labor the functions that have to do with adult education insofar as they affect working people and the people of the industrial communities.

I recommend the maintenance of a strong civil service in the Department, carefully following all the policies which develop a career service of men and women devoted to improvement of life in America through the improvement of the living and working conditions of all the people.

I recommend the development of a strong Working Conditions Service within the Department of Labor on a permanent basis. This Service should have the duty and function of establishing safe, healthy, practical, and effective physical and social conditions for employment and work, and having some slight but carefully guarded authority to carry out or to secure compliance with at least a minimum of such standards. When I say carefully guarded, I mean sufficient membership on advisory committees of employers, labor, and industrial experts to prevent merely arbitrary action, and sufficient number of the public to be certain to prevent the establishment of ways of doing things contrary to the best interests of the community.

EMPLOYMENT IN FEDERAL EXECUTIVE SERVICE, DECEMBER 1940–DECEMBER 1942 [1]

Summary

AT THE close of 1942, the executive branch of the Federal Government had in its employment 2,914,000 civilians. This was an increase of 143 percent since December 1940—404 percent in war agencies and 9 percent in other agencies. The greater relative increase in employment in war agencies caused the proportion of war-agency employment to rise from 3 out of every 10 workers in December 1940 to 5 in November 1941 and 7 in December 1942. Total employment increased at the rate of 36,000 a month before our entry into the war and 102,000 a month thereafter.

The 128,000 additional workers drawn into Federal service in the Washington, D. C., metropolitan area during 1941 and 1942 represented an increase of 82 percent. In other parts of the country the number added was 1,587,000, or 152 percent. The relatively greater increase in employment outside the Washington, D. C., area resulted mainly from expansion of arsenals, navy yards, air stations, and other military and naval field establishments. Also, other war agencies such as the Office of Price Administration, as well as some of the older agencies, were opening regional offices throughout the country.

As a result of expanding normal activities to wartime volume and taking on specific war assignments, agencies such as the Justice, Treasury, and Post Office Departments, and the Civil Service Commission, made sizable additions to their staffs. The Federal Works Agency, Department of Agriculture, and Department of the Interior showed the largest employment declines in 1941 and 1942.

Trend of Employment in War and Other Agencies

Of the 2,914,000 civilians in Federal employment in December 1942, approximately 1,280,000 were in the War Department and 560,000 in the Navy Department (table 1). Other war agencies [2]

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment by F. Lucile Christman.

[2] Includes the War Manpower Commission, and the Offices of Price Administration, Emergency Management, Strategic Services, and Censorship, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, and the Panama Canal.

employed an additional 210,000 persons, bringing employment in these agencies and the War and Navy Departments to 2,049,000 or 70 percent of the total. The rest of the agencies employed 864,500 persons in December. If the seasonal postal employees who are included in this figure are disregarded, however, employment in these agencies would be reduced to 782,600, or 28 percent of the total.

During 1941 and 1942 the number of Federal employees rose by 1,715,000. Employment increased consistently after January 1941, rising at the rate of 42,000 employees a month in the prewar period, and at the rate of 102,000 a month from December 1941 through December 1942.

TABLE 1.—*Total Civilian Employment in Executive Branch of Federal Government* [1] *in War and Other Agencies, December 1940–December 1942* [2]

Year and month	Total	War agencies				All other agencies [5]
		Total	War Department [3]	Navy Department [3]	Other war agencies [4]	
1940:						
December	[6] 1,199,282	406,996	193,845	167,724	45,427	[6] 792,286
1941:						
January	1,171,013	428,968	205,983	176,231	46,754	742,045
February	1,191,740	448,924	218,227	182,949	47,748	742,816
March	1,222,326	473,540	232,057	193,311	48,172	748,786
April	1,276,908	519,409	262,754	201,107	55,548	757,499
May	1,333,995	565,363	298,444	211,445	55,474	768,632
June	1,404,399	611,663	328,678	222,862	60,123	792,736
July	1,426,662	634,560	337,687	235,467	61,406	792,102
August	1,482,321	682,178	369,363	253,421	59,394	800,143
September	1,523,473	725,341	406,527	255,264	63,550	798,132
October	1,553,978	754,729	426,577	264,594	63,558	799,249
November	1,591,799	795,654	449,870	281,774	64,010	796,145
December	[6] 1,671,689	821,912	454,593	302,435	64,884	[6] 849,777
1942:						
January	1,742,980	922,843	522,404	327,916	72,523	[7] 820,137
February	1,805,489	989,599	560,596	350,456	78,547	815,890
March	1,921,635	1,097,136	635,665	376,470	85,001	824,499
April	2,053,503	1,225,941	721,860	401,024	103,057	827,562
May	2,135,975	1,298,811	770,455	416,014	112,342	837,164
June	2,275,440	1,423,398	847,421	449,824	126,153	852,042
July	2,413,180	1,573,653	958,892	475,696	139,065	839,527
August	2,510,364	1,676,931	1,030,194	500,568	146,169	833,433
September	2,591,522	1,764,736	1,096,911	518,664	149,161	826,786
October	2,699,303	1,879,660	1,189,833	531,141	158,686	819,643
November	[6] 2,771,335	1,948,642	1,234,502	547,786	166,354	[6] 822,693
December	[6] 2,913,874	2,049,403	1,280,017	559,590	209,796	[6] 864,471

[1] Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission except for force-account employment.

[2] Data have been revised to include certain supervisory employees of the National Youth Administration and the Panama Canal Division of the War Department omitted from previously published series.

[3] Excludes employees at secret bases.

[4] Covers Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Board of Economic Warfare, War Manpower Commission, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, and the Panama Canal.

[5] Includes certain employees of the Office of Censorship, Alien Property Custodian, and Office of Government Reports before their shift to "War agencies—other," in March, April, and July 1942 respectively. Employees of the National Youth Administration, the United States Employment Service, and certain other employees of the Federal Security Agency who were placed under the War Manpower Commission (War agencies—other) by Executive order dated September 17, 1942, are included under nonwar agencies through November 1942 when their transfer became effective. Coast Guard transferred from Treasury to Navy Department November 1, 1941.

[6] Includes temporary substitutes of the Post Office Department who were added only for the Christmas season. In December 1940 these employees numbered 58,083, in December 1941, 53,678, in November 1942, 12,589, and in December 1942, 81,902.

[7] Public employment offices transferred from State to Federal operation.

Of the 1,642,000 increase in war-agency employment during 1941 and 1942, the War Department accounted for 1,086,000, the Navy Department for 392,000, and the other war agencies for 164,000. Thus at the end of 1942 the War Department was employing more than

6½ times as many workers as at the beginning of 1941, and the Navy Department more than 3 times as many. Although employment in other war agencies increased to more than 4½ times the January 1941 level, a large part of the increase was the result of reorganizations which shifted certain employees to war agencies. For example, in December 1942 the employees of the United States Employment Service, the National Youth Administration, and certain employees in apprentice training and training-within-industry work were shifted from the Federal Security Agency to the War Manpower Commission.

Except in the war agencies, there was little tendency toward expansion during the 2-year period, the total increase amounting to 9 percent. The employment by the Post Office Department of large numbers of temporary workers at Christmas time to handle the heavy holiday mails, and by the Agriculture and Interior Departments of soil and crop specialists, produce inspectors, and foresters during the summer months, established a rather marked seasonal pattern, with sharp rises in December and June. The addition of temporary postal employees in November 1942 to handle the heavier-than-usual Christmas mail with foreign destinations caused the seasonal rise to occur a month earlier than usual.

Employment Inside and Outside the District of Columbia

The Federal Government added 128,000 workers in the Washington, D. C., metropolitan area during 1941 and 1942. This was at the rate of 3,900 a month in the pre-war period, December 1940–November 1941, and 6,500 a month thereafter. Of every 10 workers added during the 2 years, 4 were employed by the War Department, 2 by the Navy Department, and 3 by other war agencies. Only 1 of the 10 was employed outside the war agencies (table 2).

Federal employment increased much more rapidly outside the Washington, D. C., area than inside, particularly after our entry into the war. Outside the District the gain was 152 percent over the 2 years, as contrasted with 82 percent inside. More than three-fourths of the total increase of 1,587,000 outside Washington occurred after war was declared. Ninety-six of every 100 workers added outside the District of Columbia were for war agencies—65 for the War Department, 23 for the Navy Department, and 8 for other war agencies.

In the case of the War Department, the relatively greater expansion outside the District of Columbia was occasioned by the building and staffing of numerous camps, air and other stations, and the addition of large numbers of production workers in arsenals and quartermaster depots, all situated outside Washington. In the Navy Department, the expansion of employment took place for the most part in navy yards, torpedo stations, air stations, ammunition depots, and ordnance plants.

Other war agencies, mainly the Office of Price Administration and the Selective Service System, as well as the United States Employment Service which came under Federal operation in January 1942 and became a war agency under the War Manpower Commission in December 1942, were opening or expanding field offices in all sections of the country.

The decentralization of whole divisions of certain agencies, such as the Patent Office of the Commerce Department, was reflected in the increase in departmental employees working outside the Washington area from 5,100 in February 1942, just before the decentralization began, to 24,800 by the end of the year. A part of this increase was attributable to establishments, such as the National Housing Agency, remaining in Washington but expanding their regional activities.

TABLE 2.—*Civilian Employment in War and Other Agencies of Federal Government Inside and Outside District of Columbia, December 1940–December 1942* [1]

Year and month	Total	War agencies				All other agencies
		Total	War Department	Navy Department	Other war agencies	
	In Washington, D. C., metropolitan area					
1940: December	156,012	34,487	13,190	18,753	2,544	121,525
1941:						
January	158,722	37,620	15,095	19,803	2,722	121,102
February	161,982	40,480	16,721	20,600	3,159	121,502
March	167,055	43,794	18,127	21,887	3,780	123,261
April	172,950	47,654	20,019	23,121	4,514	125,296
May	177,498	50,734	21,620	24,296	4,818	126,764
June	184,465	54,128	23,176	25,559	5,393	130,337
July	185,337	56,681	23,747	26,802	6,132	128,656
August	187,106	57,153	24,713	25,804	6,636	129,953
September	192,164	61,372	25,233	27,424	8,715	130,792
October	194,421	64,016	26,151	27,461	10,404	130,405
November	199,113	68,431	26,539	29,538	12,354	130,682
December	207,740	72,078	28,856	31,064	12,158	135,662
1942:						
January	225,651	87,923	34,144	36,289	17,490	137,728
February	233,107	93,975	37,833	38,143	17,999	139,132
March	239,001	104,246	40,754	40,764	22,728	134,755
April	249,771	114,220	45,590	42,668	25,962	135,551
May	256,819	119,974	49,125	43,613	27,236	136,845
June	269,186	129,936	54,450	45,796	29,690	139,250
July	274,097	135,436	56,985	45,501	32,950	138,661
August	275,536	138,549	57,921	46,073	34,555	136,987
September	281,452	145,998	63,862	46,815	35,321	135,454
October	284,173	147,529	64,026	47,837	35,666	136,644
November	283,969	146,046	60,887	48,225	36,934	137,923
December	284,068	147,155	59,843	47,813	39,499	136,913
	Outside Washington, D. C., metropolitan area					
1940: December	1,043,270	372,509	180,655	148,971	42,883	670,761
1941:						
January	1,012,291	391,348	190,888	156,428	44,032	620,943
February	1,029,758	408,444	201,506	162,349	44,589	621,314
March	1,055,271	429,746	213,930	171,424	44,392	625,525
April	1,103,958	471,755	242,735	177,986	51,034	632,203
May	1,156,497	514,629	276,824	187,149	50,656	641,868
June	1,219,934	557,535	305,502	197,303	54,730	662,399
July	1,241,325	577,879	313,940	208,665	55,274	663,446
August	1,295,215	625,025	344,650	227,617	52,758	670,190
September	1,331,309	663,969	381,294	227,840	54,835	667,340
October	1,359,557	690,713	400,426	237,133	53,154	668,844
November	1,392,686	727,223	423,331	252,226	51,656	665,463
December	1,463,949	749,834	425,737	271,371	52,726	714,115
1942:						
January	1,517,329	834,920	488,260	291,627	55,033	682,409
February	1,572,382	895,624	522,763	312,313	60,548	676,758
March	1,682,634	992,890	594,911	335,706	62,273	689,744
April	1,803,732	1,111,721	676,270	358,356	77,095	692,011
May	1,879,156	1,178,837	721,330	372,401	85,106	700,319
June	2,006,254	1,293,462	792,971	404,028	96,463	712,792
July	2,139,083	1,438,217	901,907	430,195	106,115	700,866
August	2,234,828	1,538,382	972,273	454,495	111,614	696,446
September	2,310,070	1,618,738	1,033,049	471,849	113,840	691,332
October	2,415,130	1,732,131	1,125,807	483,304	123,020	682,999
November	2,487,366	1,802,596	1,173,615	499,561	129,420	684,770
December	2,629,806	1,902,248	1,220,174	511,777	170,297	727,558

[1] See footnotes to table 1.

War Agencies Other Than War and Navy Departments

In December 1942 employment in war agencies other than the War and Navy Departments totaled 210,000. From December 1940 through November 1942, employment in these agencies increased 121,000, or approximately 266 percent. With the transfer to the War Manpower Commission in December 1942 of the National Youth Administration, the United States Employment Service, and certain other employees of the Federal Security Agency, the increase over December 1940 was 164,000 or 362 percent (table 3).

The War Manpower Commission led the other establishments with 62,600 employees; the Office of Price Administration ranked second with 44,500; and the Office for Emergency Management and the Panama Canal, respectively third and fourth, with 44,200 and 31,700 persons.

Over 80 percent of the total employment of these war agencies was outside the Washington metropolitan area. This was because most of the larger agencies require a network of offices throughout the country in order to perform their work. Examples are the Selective Service System, the United States Employment Service, the Office of Price Administration, and the Office of Censorship. The larger share of the employees of the War Production Board were inside the District of Columbia. This was also true for the Board of Economic Warfare and the Office of Strategic Services.

TABLE 3.—*Civilian Employment in Selected War Agencies of Federal Executive Service, December 1942* [1]

Agency	Total	Inside District of Columbia	Outside District of Columbia
Total	209,796	39,499	170,297
War Manpower Commission	62,593	2,652	59,941
Selective Service System	27,095	703	26,392
Other [2]	35,498	1,949	33,549
Office for Emergency Management	44,180	24,459	19,721
War Production Board	21,628	14,400	7,228
War Shipping Administration	1,707	647	1,060
Alien Property Custodian	1,118	493	625
Other [3]	19,727	8,919	10,808
Office of Price Administration	44,517	5,020	39,497
Board of Economic Warfare	2,961	2,684	277
Office of Strategic Services	1,160	929	231
Office of Censorship	12,600	788	11,812
Maritime Commission	6,858	2,623	4,235
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics	3,254	129	3,125
Panama Canal	31,673	215	31,458

[1] Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission.
[2] Includes employees of the United States Employment Service, the National Youth Administration, and certain other employees who were transferred from the Federal Security Agency to the War Manpower Commission in December 1942.
[3] Includes the following: the Offices of Defense Transportation, Civilian Defense, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Lend-Lease Administration, Scientific Research and Development, War Information, the War Relocation Authority, Central Administrative Services, and the War Labor Board.

Employment in Selected Other Agencies

Labeling some departments as war agencies tends to minimize the extent of war work, since practically all departments have engaged in additional activities as a result of the war or have shifted the emphasis of their normal activities so as to service the war agencies more

effectively. The largest increase of employment because of such expanded activities was in the Department of Justice where 12,100 workers were added in 1941 and 1942 (table 4). The major part of this increase was in the Federal Bureau of Investigation where the espionage investigations were expanded and investigations under the Selective Training and Service Act were added. The additional duties of the Justice Department connected with alien-enemy control are handled by a newly created War Division.

The Treasury Department, in order to meet the fiscal problems arising from the war and to discharge its additional war duties of control of foreign funds and of certain phases of export control, in 1941 and 1942 added 11,800 employees; while the Civil Service Commission, in its program of recruiting wartime personnel, added 3,400 employees. The number of pieces of mail handled by the Post Office Department increased many times because of the war, and as a result, regular postal employment increased approximately 19,300 persons since December 1940. Other agencies showed the following increases: Labor Department 1,425, Federal Communications Commission 1,030, General Accounting Office 2,650, Government Printing Office 920, and Veterans' Administration 3,160. Although the Tennessee Valley Authority closed the year 1942 with 16,600 more workers than in December 1940, it employed 7,300 fewer than the peak of 42,200 in July 1942. TVA employment will continue to decrease because material shortages have necessitated postponing construction of all projects which cannot be completed in 1943.

Several other agencies also had reduced employment by the end of 1942 as a result of the curtailment of certain activities which are nonessential in wartime. During the 2 years, employment declined 10,700 in the Federal Works Agency, 5,700 in the Department of Agriculture, and 1,670 in the Department of the Interior. The employment decline in the Federal Works Agency was the result of contraction of the Public Works Administration and Work Projects Administration programs.

TABLE 4.—*Civilian Employment in Selected Agencies in Executive Branch of Federal Government, December 1940 and December 1942* [1]

Department or agency	December 1940			December 1942		
	Total	Inside District of Columbia	Outside District of Columbia	Total	Inside District of Columbia	Outside District of Columbia
Treasury	60,211	18,894	41,317	72,021	24,746	47,275
Justice	17,769	5,252	12,517	29,879	8,156	21,723
Post Office [2]	361,457	5,977	355,480	404,529	6,594	397,935
Interior	43,410	4,211	39,199	41,739	5,007	36,732
Agriculture	82,549	12,491	70,058	76,875	10,531	66,344
Commerce	25,304	15,609	9,695	26,271	12,558	13,713
Civil Service Commission	3,980	2,863	1,117	7,349	3,817	3,532
Federal Security Agency [3]	44,084	9,039	35,045	30,092	7,274	22,818
Federal Works Agency	37,395	11,177	26,218	26,647	15,378	11,269

[1] Source: U. S. Civil Service Commission except for force-account employment.

[2] Data include the following number of temporary employees to handle the holiday mails: December 1940: Total 58,083, inside the District of Columbia 1,059, and outside the District of Columbia 57,024. December 1942: Total 81,902, inside the District of Columbia 357, and outside the District of Columbia 81,545.

[3] Data for December 1940 include a total of 14,938 supervisory employees of the National Youth Administration omitted from previously published data. Data for December 1942 exclude employees who were transferred December 1 to the War Manpower Commission. In November 1942 the Federal Security Agency employed 65,349 workers—8,458 in Washington, D. C., and 56,891 outside.

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF NEGRO RAILROAD EMPLOYEES

THE Negro employees of the Pennsylvania Railroad are in 74 different occupations, many of which require skilled and semiskilled workers. The 16,155 Negroes employed by the company, as of September 28, 1942, represent a gain of more than 6,000 persons over its normal number of Negro workers. According to the National Association of Negroes in American Industry, as reported in Service (Tuskegee Institute, Ala.) for January 1943, the railroad is thus the largest single industrial employer of that racial group.

These Negro employees are scattered through the eastern, central, and western regions, the New York zone, the Long Island Railroad (a subsidiary), the system's general offices, and its Altoona works. The eastern region, which includes Philadelphia but excludes the New York zone, had a total of 5,437 Negro workmen, the central region 2,340, and the western region 2,408. The New York zone, exclusive of the Long Island Railroad with its 548 Negro workers, employed 2,063 of that race. The repair shops at Altoona hired 18 Negro workmen, and the dining-car department employed 3,208. In the general offices of the company there were 133 Negroes.

Of the total number of colored employees, 154 were women, whose occupations ranged from marine stewardesses to coach cleaners, and included elevator operators, matrons, crossing watchwomen, and locomotive preparers.

Male Negro workers were listed in the mechanically skilled and semiskilled classes as well as the unskilled. Those employed in the skilled and semiskilled classes, it is stated, had more than doubled during recent years, beginning well before the outbreak of war. Among the workers in these classes were 37 marine firemen, 65 tallymen, 14 machinists and 72 machinists' helpers, 151 oilers, and 12 stationary engineers and firemen.

Indicative of the railroad's tendency to upgrade Negro workers, it is said, is the fact that they are represented in such skilled occupations as electricians, painters, welders, masons and masons' helpers, blacksmith's helpers, cranemen, and tractor, turntable, and stoker operators. In the maintenance-of-way department, 12 Negro track foremen headed units with 17 assistants, and 19 in the group acted as machine operators.

Negro freight truckers and station baggagemen, numbering 2,012 and 317, respectively, were engaged in handling the system's freight and baggage. The greatest number in this group were in the eastern region (1,197), and in the western and the central division and the New York zone (784).

The dining-car department employed Negroes in the following occupations: 549 chefs and cooks; 2,598 waiters and other food attendants; and 61 attached to trains in various capacities. Altogether, 621 Negroes were station porters, with 14 acting as captains. More than half (approximately 350) of the station porters were in the New York zone and 194 were in the Philadelphia area.

The occupational distribution of the Negro employees of this company is presented in the following table:

Negro Employees of Pennsylvania Railroad, September 28, 1942, by Occupation

Occupation	Number of employees	Occupation	Number of employees
All occupations	16,155	Machine operators	19
		Machinists	14
Ashmen	87	Machinists' helpers	72
Baggagemen, station	317	Masons' helpers	1
Blacksmiths' helpers	10	Matrons	15
Boilermakers	18	Maintenance-of-equipment helpers and apprentices	102
Boilermakers' helpers	58	Messengers	44
Boiler washers	30	Oilers	151
Bridge and building helpers	1	Painters' helpers	9
Carmen	40	Plumbers	2
Carmens' helpers	105	Plumbers' helpers	1
Chauffeurs	20	Pipefitters and helpers	5
Chefs and cooks	549	Porter captains, station	14
Cleaners, car	421	Porters, station	607
Cleaners, locomotive	126	Porters (marine)	2
Cleaners, station	330	Rest-room attendants	6
Clerks	4	Scrap sorters	5
Coopers	3	Stoker operators	6
Conveyor attendants	1	Store attendants	9
Cranemen	2	Stowers	23
Deckhands	18	Switch tenders	1
Drawbridge tenders	4	Tallymen	65
Electricians	5	Tender repair men	3
Electricians' helpers	3	Tender repair men's helpers	5
Elevator attendants, operators	50	Track foremen	12
Engineers, work equipment	5	Track foremen, assistant	17
Engineers and firemen, stationary	12	Trackmen	6,214
Firemen, marine	37	Tractor operators	8
Freight truckers	2,012	Train attendants	26
Hostlers	32	Turntable operators	4
Inspectors, cleaners	1	Waiters, dishwashers, kitchen help	2,598
Janitors and cleaners	106	Warehousemen	20
Laborers, assigned	324	Watchmen	12
Laborers, common, stores	804	Watchmen, bridge	2
Laborers, station	56	Watchmen, crossing	192
Lampmen	4	Watchmen, tunnel	3
Lamp-room attendants	9	Welders	2
Loaders	104		
Locomotive preparers	156		

Women in Industry

REPLACEMENT OF MEN BY WOMEN IN NEW YORK SERVICE INDUSTRIES

THE employment of women and minors in retail stores, restaurants, and other service industries has increased in the State of New York since the war began, and the number of men 21 years of age and over has decreased in these industries. Three surveys recently completed by the Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage of the New York State Department of Labor indicate what is happening to the composition of the labor force in service and trade in that State. In one survey 855 restaurants in New York City [1] which had employed only men in the fall of 1941 were revisited. The second survey was an analysis of minimum-wage inspection records of over 3,000 hotels in 10 resort counties [2] of the State which are representative of the Adirondacks, Long Island, Catskill, and Chautauqua resort areas. The third survey covered retail stores and miscellaneous services in 18 cities [3] in various parts of the State, and included department stores, shoe stores, cleaning and dyeing stores, drug stores, grocery stores, restaurants, and meat markets. The following data reported from these surveys are from the Industrial Bulletin of the New York State Department of Labor for November 1942.

Women in restaurants and hotels.—Sixteen percent (138) of the 855 restaurants revisited in the fall of 1942 were employing a total of 191 women and minors. The employment of men had decreased from 3,790 in 1941 to 3,682 in 1942. One chain of restaurants, which in 1941 had no woman workers, in 1942 employed 26 women. Restaurants of all sizes, ranging from those with only 1 or 2 employees to those with over 25 workers, were employing women and minors.

More women and minors were employed by the 3,000 resort hotels during the 1942 season than in 1941, notwithstanding the rationing of gasoline. In 1942, 14,283 women and minors were working in these hotels, as compared with 13,896 in 1941. Women and minors were employed in 1942 in 122 hotels which in 1941 had employed none, and in 124 new hotels which had been opened in 1942. On the other hand, 420 hotels which had employed women and male minors in 1941 employed none in 1942. The number of hotels subject to minimum-wage inspection decreased from 3,272 in 1941 to 3,181 in 1942, but the hotels which employed women and minors showed increased numbers of such employees in 1942.

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[1] In the Boroughs of Manhattan, Brooklyn, Bronx, and Queens.
[2] Chatauqua, Essex, Greene, Herkimer, St. Lawrence, Saratoga, Suffolk, Sullivan, Ulster, and Warren.
[3] New York City, Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, Schenectady, Binghamton, Troy, Elmira, Jamestown, Poughkeepsie, Middletown, Glens Falls, Cortland, Oneonta, Norwich, Canandaigua, Wellsville, and Penn Yan.

Women in retail trade and miscellaneous services.—An even more notable upward trend in the employment of women and minors was revealed in the survey of retail stores and miscellaneous service establishments. An increase of 9 percent in 1,203 stores was shown, 16,527 being employed in 1941 and 18,068 in 1942. The number of male employees 21 years of age and over decreased from 8,622 in 1941 to 7,782 in 1942, or 10 percent. The proportion of women in the total number of employees increased from 62 percent in 1941 to 65 percent in 1942.

All the different types of stores showed the trend from male to female employees, but it was more marked in some than in others. One grocery store had increased its woman employees fourfold since 1941, and in food stores more than twice as many women were employed in 1942 as in 1941. Employment of women in variety stores showed a gain of 15 percent in the year.

Women had replaced men as window trimmers, buyers, shipping clerks, stock clerks, and porters in department stores; as sales clerks in grocery stores, meat markets, and shoe stores; as cleaners and ushers in movie houses; as cashiers, drug clerks, bakers, dishwashers, checkers, and in numerous other occupations. Male minors were replacing men as janitors, doormen, delivery boys, and as sales clerks in grocery stores.

In Buffalo a 17-percent increase in the employment of women and minors occurred between 1941 and 1942, whereas the employment of adult males decreased 6 percent. In Syracuse, on the other hand, there was an increase of 13 percent in the employment of women and minors but no decrease in the number of adult males employed.

The following table shows the number of employees, by sex, in representative retail trade and service establishments in 18 cities in the State of New York in September 1941 and 1942:

Employment in Representative Retail Trade and Service Establishments in 18 Cities in New York State, September 1941 and 1942

Type of establishment	Number of establishments	Number of employees							
		1941				1942			
		Total	Women	Men	Male minors	Total	Women	Men	Male minors
All types	1,203	25,149	15,505	8,622	1,022	25,850	16,832	7,782	1,236
Clothing and department stores	152	14,037	10,927	2,864	246	14,242	11,179	2,743	320
5- and 10-cent variety stores	14	2,264	1,790	370	104	2,473	2,056	285	132
Food stores	618	4,035	439	3,294	302	4,069	883	2,813	373
Drug stores	94	937	359	510	68	955	443	427	85
Restaurants	82	1,740	1,135	557	48	1,965	1,347	547	71
Cleaning and dyeing	65	640	373	250	17	665	432	213	20
Theaters	58	1,164	261	668	235	1,168	278	657	233
All other	120	332	221	109	2	313	214	97	2

ENROLLMENT CAMPAIGNS FOR WOMAN WORKERS, 1942

THE increasing need for more workers in industry because of war pressure has focused attention on the use of women to supply this need. In many areas where a shortage of male workers exists or is anticipated, large numbers of men from outside the area are filling the demand. It is realized, however, that the use of local labor reserves would save the time of transferring and placing these workers, and would not create housing, transportation, and other community problems. If women in such localities can be persuaded to enter industry in sufficient numbers when needed, the demand for additional workers can be met.

As the need for such workers is not general in all areas, several campaigns to enroll all the women available for work in sections where shortage of workers is acute have been initiated, and other campaigns are being recommended as critical situations arise.[1]

The first drives to enroll woman workers were on a State-wide basis, and were conducted by the Employment Service with the close cooperation of the local women's defense organizations. Oregon's campaign, in February 1942, was for the express purpose of procuring women to take the places of men in nonessential industries as the latter went into war work. The Connecticut campaign, in May 1942, was stated to be for the purpose of supplying a pool of potential workers for future needs. In Oregon 302,000 women, or 79 percent of the women over 18 years, enrolled. Few of the enrollees desired factory or agricultural work. A third of them, however, were willing to help during a harvest emergency. In Connecticut only a small proportion of the expected number enrolled. Half of the woman enrollees wanted factory work, and many preferred clerical or other work; only a few wanted farm work.

Campaigns to recruit local labor were held in Seattle and Akron last summer, to relieve pressing labor and housing shortages, and second campaigns were planned. In Akron both men and women were registered, and an attempt was made to combine a housing investigation with a survey of available workers. The results of the survey indicated that 19,000 residents could be secured for work. When contacted, however, only a third of those who had originally stated they were available were still interested in work opportunities.

The Detroit campaign was the most carefully planned and the most successful thus far held. Faced with a shortage of 170,000 workers before November 1943 unless large numbers of women not usually in the labor force could be recruited, the local agencies of the War Production Board and the Employment Service, together with representatives of employers, made plans for an enrollment campaign in August 1942, as it was estimated that labor reserves would be exhausted by the end of that month. The six major employers' organizations and the two largest organized labor groups supported the drive.

[1] War Manpower Commission. Bureau of Program Planning and Review. The Labor Market, November–December 1942, p. 11.

The registration forms, 650,000 in number, were distributed through the postal service to every household in Wayne County and adjacent urban sections, to be returned by mail to the United States Employment Service in Detroit. Civilian defense workers conducted a house-to-house follow-up campaign, and employers were urged to hire these available registered women.

Three-fourths of the 266,000 women who filled out and returned the questionnaires were not wage workers, and 142,000 of this group signified that they were available for work. Analysis of a very large sample indicated that 121,000, or 62 percent, of the unemployed women wanted factory work, 30 percent of them having had some experience in such work. It has been found that not all of the women who report that they are available for employment will actually accept it. Nevertheless, labor migration to the area will be decreased considerably by this large number of available woman workers.

Between September 15 and October 15, at least 12,000 women entered Detroit war industries. This was 80 percent of the net increase in employment in the month. One of the results of the campaign was that training courses were, to a large extent, being filled by women. By late November, 4,000 women had been referred by the Employment Service to vocational training, and the reserve of prospective woman trainees was considered ample for practically all of the industrial needs of Detroit.

Similar enrollment drives were held in New Bedford, North Adams, and Greenfield, Mass., in September and October 1942, and in these areas, as in other parts of New England, larger numbers of women are entering employment than ever before. Relaxation of employers' requirements and unskilled entrance wage rates as high for women as for men in similar work have aided in procuring sufficient available women.

In Rochester, N. Y., in Dayton, Ohio, and in the Springfield-Holyoke-Northampton section of Massachusetts—areas of critical labor shortage—registration campaigns were held in November, and preliminary reports indicated that a large proportion of the potential woman workers were willing to enter the labor market.

A campaign was also scheduled to be held in the Territory of Hawaii in November. This enrollment, compulsory for all women in the Territory over 16 years of age was under military regulations, as its purpose was to afford necessary information for the Office of the Military Governor and the Office of Civilian Defense, as well as occupational information for placement purposes. It was estimated that 3,000 women could be placed immediately, and recruitment and placement of women were to be expedited as soon as registration forms were received.

Policy for Future Campaigns

The results of the foregoing campaigns indicate the problems inherent in efforts to induce women to enter the labor market. Deterrents such as the rising earnings of male members of the family, inexperience, young children, fears of the effect on the husband's draft status, prejudice against factory work, and the refusal of many

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working men and some unions to accept women, will have to be overcome. Vocational training courses, adequate child-care programs, clarification of Selective Service policy, and the acceptance of the principle of equal pay for equal work, will solve some of the problems.

The experience gained in these campaigns has been drawn upon by the War Manpower Commission in formulating policies to govern the enrollment of women for war work. The conclusion was reached that any scheme for recruiting potential woman workers should be part of a general program for the effective use of all workers in the local area. Qualified workers in essential industries should be used in jobs utilizing their highest skills, and all the unemployed, including minority groups, should be used. The less-essential industries should be drawn upon for workers needed in war industries, and older, part-time, alien, and woman workers should be substituted.

The enrollment of women, it was also found, should be done locally, and only when the need in the local area is clearly evident. Emphasis is laid on the proper timing of recruiting campaigns, whether the recruiting be by an intensive educational program as to the need or by an enrollment campaign. In either case the plan should be inaugurated in time for the completion of interviewing or training of the women before they are needed, and yet so near the time for hiring that the enthusiasm aroused for utmost participation in the war effort will not have waned. In an enrollment campaign, especially, precise timing is essential, as the availability status of women is constantly changing and even a short period of delay may destroy the validity of the information.

In issuing plans for the voluntary mobilization of women, upon the recommendation of the Women's Advisory Committee, the Chairman of the Commission pointed out that in those areas where recruitment is needed, no enrollment of women will take place until—

1. Measures to control migration of outside workers into the area and to prevent pirating of workers are in effect.
2. Effective use is being made of war production workers already employed.
3. Local labor demand cannot be met by full use of the unemployed, transfer from less- to more-essential jobs, and direct recruitment of women on individual basis through educational campaigns.
4. A sufficient local reservoir of women is available to justify the enrollment.
5. Employers have analyzed jobs available to women and have made reports to the local Employment Service office, showing the number of women to be hired, the jobs for which they will be hired, the approximate hiring schedule, and the amount of preemployment training required.
6. Employers have agreed to hire the women recruited by the enrollment, so that a substantial number will be placed immediately.
7. Management and labor support the recruitment plan.

The regional manpower directors will be responsible for conducting all recruitment activities in every area to correspond with specific employer agreements to hire women. These agreements will detail the number of women to be hired, when they will be hired, and in what occupations. Local manpower officials will also take steps to expand training facilities for the kind of training and the number of trainees needed in the area. On-the-job training for woman workers, upgrading training for woman foremen and supervisors, and technical training, will be included.

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR [1]

NUMEROUS court decisions affecting labor have been made during the past few months. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of especial interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the effect of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

Wage and Hour Decisions

APPLICABILITY OF FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

Baker employed by timber company.—In a recent case (*Consolidated Timber Co.* v. *Womack*, 132 Fed. (2d) 101, Dec. 7, 1942) the United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit held that the company's employees engaged in the preparation of meals at the company cookhouses were engaged in a "process or occupation necessary to the production" of timber for interstate commerce and were therefore within the scope of the Fair Labor Standards Act. At one cookhouse operated by the company, primarily for the convenience of its logging crews and the employees of its contractors, meals were also served to the general public. Meals served to the public and to employees of the company's contractors were paid for in cash; those served to the company's employees were charged for at a rate 10 percent less than was charged to cash customers and were paid for by deductions from wages. The greater proportion of the company's employees took their meals at places other than the company's cookhouse. Another cookhouse operated by the company, about 10 miles away, was patronized by substantially all the company's employees in the locality, it being the only practicable eating facility in the neighborhood. This cookhouse was also patronized by employees of the company's contractors and, occasionally, by members of the general public. Meals were paid for in the same manner as at the first cookhouse.

In its decision the court pointed out that the employees at these cookhouses "were actually assisting the work of the loggers by keeping their board close to their place of work, thus rendering it easier (perhaps, even, possible) for Consolidated to maintain a proper organization of its loggers and forwarding their work by furnishing the food whereby the men were given the strength to pursue their labors."

[1] Prepared by the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor.

The United States Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit reached a result contrary to the above in a suit for overtime wages instituted by an employee against a partnership engaged in the business of providing meals and lodging for maintenance-of-way employees of railroad companies. (*McLeod* v. *Threlkeld*, 131 Fed. (2d) 880, Dec. 9, 1942.) The meals were served and sleeping accommodations furnished in railroad cars operating on railroad tracks, under contractual arrangement with a railroad. The service was paid for by deductions from wages. As the employee could not claim that he was engaged in production for commerce, he sought to show that he was "engaged in commerce" and, therefore, within the coverage of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

The court distinguished the above situation from that involved in a leading case under the Federal Employer's Liability Act [2] in which recovery had been allowed, on the theory that in that case the decision was based upon the grounds that the commissary had been operated, not by a contractor but by the railroad itself, and that the employee there involved moved from place to place as a member of a railroad gang. The court concluded that the plaintiff's activities in the present case were purely local in character and that he was not engaged in commerce.

Employees of detective agency furnishing watchmen's services.—The recent case of *Walling* v. *Sondock* (132 Fed. (2d) 77, Dec. 12, 1942) places additional emphasis on the rule that the application of the Fair Labor Standards Act is governed by the duties of an employee and not by the nature of the employer's business. The defendants operated a detective agency, providing watchmen for companies engaged in producing goods for interstate commerce. Holding that the watchmen were necessary to the production of goods by such companies, irrespective of the character of the employers' business, the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals concluded that the defendants were subject to the act. The court, relying on the decision in *Kirschbaum Co.* v. *Walling* (316 U. S. 517), also rejected the defendants' thesis that they were engaged in rendering a service, and that they were, therefore, exempt as a service establishment under section 13 (a) (2) of the act.

Employees maintaining and operating toll road and drawbridge.—In reversing the decision of the Court of Appeals for the Fifth Circuit, in the case of *Overstreet* v. *North Shore Corp.* (63 Sup. Ct. 494, Feb. 1, 1943) the Supreme Court of the United States held that the Fair Labor Standards Act applied to employees of a corporation owning and operating a toll road and drawbridge which connects an interstate arterial highway with an island off the coast of Florida. The drawbridge spanned a creek which is part of the Intracoastal Waterway. The employees involved maintained and repaired the road and drawbridge, operated the drawbridge, and sold and collected toll tickets for the use of the road and bridge. It was alleged that the company had failed to pay the minimum and overtime wages required by the act. The corporation claimed that its employees were not "engaged in commerce" but in activities traditionally local in character and not within the scope of the act. The Court found that the road and bridge are instrumentalities of interstate commerce and, in the language

[2] *Pedersen* v. *Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad*, 229 U. S. 146.

of the *Pedersen case*, previously noted, "the work of keeping such instrumentalities in a proper state of repair * * * is so closely related to such commerce as to be in practice and in legal contemplation a part of it." In connection with the application, as precedents, of decisions involving the Federal Employers' Liability Act, the Court observed that vehicular roads and bridges, "are as indispensable to the interstate movement of persons and goods as railroad tracks and bridges are to interstate transportation by rail."

Maintenance employees of office building.—The Supreme Court had held in two cases that maintenance employees of a loft building housing tenants engaged in the production of goods for interstate commerce were necessary to such production by the tenants and, therefore, subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act (*Kirschbaum Co.* v. *Walling* and *Arsenal Building Corp.* v. *Walling*, 316 U. S. 517). The Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals recently refused to apply the doctrine of these two cases to the maintenance employees of an office building containing tenants engaged in commerce, and not in "production" for commerce, on the apparent theory that the act by definition includes persons "necessary to the production" of goods, but that there is no similar definition defining the status of employees "engaged in commerce" as distinguished from production for commerce (*Johnson* v. *Dallas Downtown Development Co.*, 132 Fed. (2d) 287, Dec. 10, 1942). Although the court did not specifically state that employees who are not engaged in "production" of goods but who are necessary to commerce are excluded from the act, that would appear to be a necessary result of the decision, since maintenance employees may be as necessary to tenants engaged in commerce as they are to those engaged in production of goods. In reaching its conclusions the court relied upon its own decision in *Overstreet* v. *North Shore Corp.* (128 Fed. (2d) 450) in which it had held that employees engaged in the maintenance and operation of a toll road and bridge connected with an arterial interstate highway were not subject to the act. The Supreme Court of the United States, however, recently reversed the decision in the *Overstreet case* (see page 492).

Intrastate distribution by wholesalers.—In *Walling* v. *Jacksonville Paper Co.* the United States Supreme Court for the first time passed on the application of the Fair Labor Standards Act to employees of a wholesaler engaged in the intrastate distribution of goods purchased by it in other States.[3] The Court held the act applicable to employees engaged in the procurement or receipt of goods from other States, in the distribution of merchandise brought into the State in response to a prior order or certain types of transactions substantially of the same character (such as a pre-existing contract or an understanding with specific customers), and in the distribution of goods purchased by the wholesaler to meet the needs of specific customers. The interstate journey of such goods continues, the Court said, until delivery to the customers, even though the wholesaler holds the merchandise at its warehouse temporarily before delivery to customers of the types

[3] 63 Sup. Ct. 332 (Jan. 18, 1943). See, also, the companion case of *Higgins* v. *Carr Brothers Co.* (63 Sup. Ct 337) decided the same day.

In this connection, reference should also be made to *Walling* v. *Goldblatt Bros.*, certiorari denied, 63 Sup. Ct. 524, Feb. 1, 1943, and, particularly, *Walling* v. *American Stores Co.*, 6 Wage Hour Rept. 180 (Feb. 11 1943). In the *American Stores case* the third Circuit Court of Appeals with the Jacksonville and Goldblatt decisions of the Supreme Court before it held an injunction should issue with respect to the wholesale-warehouse employees of an enterprise with numerous retail outlets. These cases will be discussed in detail in later issues of the Review.

indicated. The Court rejected the contention of the Administrator of the act that distribution by a wholesaler to its customers in the same State is "in commerce" merely because the merchandise was brought into the State by the distributor in anticipation of the recurrent needs of the trade. However, the Court said that it did "not mean to imply that a wholesaler's course of business based on anticipation of needs of specific customers, rather than on prior orders or contracts, might not at times be sufficient to establish that practical continuity in transit necessary to keep a movement of goods 'in commerce' within the meaning of the act."

PREVAILING RATES ON PUBLIC WORKS

The New York labor law provides that workmen employed on public works must be paid not less than "prevailing rates" which must be set forth in the contract between the public body and the contractor.[4] In *Fata* v. *S. A. Healy Co.* (6 Labor Cases (C. C. H.), par. 61, 407, Jan. 14, 1943) the New York Court of Appeals upheld the right of an employee to recover from his employer, the contractor, the difference between his actual wages and the prevailing rates, even though the workman is not a party to the contract. The employee, the court held, need not look to the remedy provided by the statute, but may rest his recovery on the common-law theory that the contract containing the prevailing rates was made for his benefit.

MINIMUM WAGES

The New York minimum-wage law provides for the promulgation of wage orders prescribing minimum rates for women and minor employees, based in part on the fair value of the services rendered by employees subject to the orders. The New York Court of Appeals, three judges dissenting, upheld against constitutional attack an order requiring employers in the confectionery industry to pay employees a "guaranteed" minimum of $10 per week for work of 3 days or less in any week during the "peak period" and a minimum of $7 per week for work of 2 days or less in any week during the "dull period" in the industry. (*Mary Lincoln Candies, Inc.*, v. *Department of Labor of the State of New York*, 45 NE. (2d) 434, Dec. 3, 1942.) In answer to the argument that the order called for wages not bearing a reasonable relation to the "fair value" of the work done, the court pointed out that the wage board had carefully considered the value of services and wages currently paid in the industry and that it was not unreasonable or arbitrary to fix wages on a weekly unit basis where only part of a week had been worked.[4a]

Labor Relations and Industrial Disputes

DECISIONS INVOLVING NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS ACT

Refund of check-off dues collected for company-dominated union.—The Circuit Court of Appeals for the Fourth Circuit recently upheld the power of the National Labor Relations Board to make a reparation order as an incident to the disestablishment of a company-dominated

[4] New York Consol. Laws, ch. 31.
[4a] For further discussion of this case, see page 445 of this issue.

union. Sustaining the Board's finding that the employer had "initiated and promoted" the union with which it had entered into a closed-shop agreement providing for a check-off of union dues, the court also upheld the Board's order directing the employer to refund dues deducted by it from the employees' pay under the agreement. (*Virginia Electric Power Co.* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, 132 Fed. (2d) 390 Dec. 9, 1942.) The court refused to follow authority to the contrary [5] emphasizing that the restitution order was not a penalty, but merely "affirmative action * * * to expunge the effect" of the unfair labor practice which gave no choice to the employees but to subscribe to a closed-shop agreement between the employer and the company-dominated union.

Employee's right to court review of order on back pay.—In two recent cases, circuit courts of appeals have considered their jurisdiction to review Labor Board orders granting or denying back pay. (*Anthony* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, 132 Fed. (2d) 620, Dec. 31, 1942, and *Stewart Die Casting Corp.* v. *National Labor Relations Board*, 6 Labor Cases (C. C. H.), par. 61, 386, Dec. 31, 1942.)

In the *Anthony case*, the court pointed out that an employee has "no personal claim to back pay" and is, therefore, not a "person aggrieved" within the meaning of section 10 of the act conferring jurisdiction on the circuit courts of appeal to review orders of the Board.

The *Stewart case* arose out of contempt proceedings to enforce an order for back pay. The Board sought dismissal of the proceedings after a compromise on the amount due was reached between the Board and the employer. Claiming that the amount agreed upon was insufficient, employees opposed the dismissal and sought to intervene. The court denied the employee's application, holding that the right to seek enforcement of a Board order is vested in the Board exclusively.

Effect of repudiation of union by employees after election.—When a union has been chosen by employees at an election and it has been certified as the exclusive bargaining agent for the employees by the National Labor Relations Board, a repudiation of the union by a majority of the employees 1 week after the election in letters sent to the employer will not justify his refusal to bargain with the union. The United States Circuit Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Botany Worsted Mills* (11 Labor Relations Rept. 684, Jan. 18, 1943) decided that, once the bargaining agent of the employees is chosen, orderly procedure requires that the employer bargain with that agent in the absence of a request by employees to hold another election or, perhaps, an arbitrary refusal by the Board to hold such an election within a reasonable time.

STATE LABOR RELATIONS ACT

In construing the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act,[6] the Wisconsin Supreme Court upheld an order of the State Employment Relations Board requiring a hospital to bargain collectively with its employees. (*Wisconsin Employment Relations Board* v. *Evangelical Deaconess Society*, 7 NW.(2d) 590, Jan. 12, 1943.) The court referred to the statutory design to promote industrial peace and said that in the

[5] Compare *N. L. R. B.* v. *West Kentucky Coal Co.*, 116 Fed. (2d) 816; *N. L. R. B.* v.. *United States Truck Co.*, 124 Fed. (2d) 887; and *N. L. R. B.* v. *J. Greenebaum Tanning Co.*, 110 Fed. (2d) 984.

[6] Wis. Stats. (1941), ch. 111.

absence of specific exemption of charitable organizations from the act, it was constrained to hold that the law applied to such institutions.

USE OF INJUNCTIONS IN LABOR DISPUTES

Applicability of State act to retaliatory picketing.—Following an election conducted by the New York State Labor Relations Board, two unions affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations were certified as the sole bargaining agents in the stores of a shoe company. The employer and the unions subsequently entered into a closed-shop contract.

An affiliate of the American Federation of Labor began picketing two of its stores, and the company sought an injunction. It was granted by the Supreme Court of the State of New York in Kings County, on the ground that the provisions of the anti-injunction statute [7] may not be invoked when picketing carried on for retaliatory purposes only is "unrelated to the attainment of a bona fide labor objective." The court found as a fact that the picketing had been initiated "not for the purpose of effectuating an improvement of conditions under which plaintiff's employees work or to secure their protection from labor abuse, but simply in reprisal for the fact that one of the C. I. O. unions itself has picketed certain stores owned by a third party * * * which, in turn, has a closed-shop agreement with an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor." (*Regal Shoe Co.* v. *Doyle*, 11 Labor Relations Rept. 682.)

Applicability of State act to establishment with no employees.—In *Angelos* v. *Mesevich* (Labor Relations Rept. 726, Jan. 21, 1943) the New York Court of Appeals by a divided vote sustained an injunction against peaceful picketing, by a union, of a restaurant in which, according to the majority opinion, all the work was performed by the members of a partnership operating the establishment. The court held that the statute prohibiting injunctions against such picketing was inapplicable, on the theory that its application requires the existence of a labor dispute, and there could be no labor dispute "unless there is employment."

The facts of the case are not readily susceptible to statement, because the vigorous dissent either stresses facts which are omitted from the majority opinion or differs radically from the majority in its interpretation of the facts. The minority opinion emphasizes that picketing began while one of the plaintiffs, who was the sole proprietor before the partnership was formed, employed six persons with whom he subsequently formed the partnership; the majority view makes no reference to the former employment status of the partners. The prevailing opinion held itself bound by the trial court's finding that the organization was "a valid partnership"; the minority adverted to the fact that the partnership was a "device" to "stop the picketing." However, it is plain that the majority rested its view on the formalistic character of the partnership rather than its *bona fides*, since the opinion asserts that the formation of the partnership to "avoid the establishment of a picket line" would not affect the result. The minority opinion upheld the picketing as an exercise of the right of free speech,

[7] New York Civil Practice Act, sec. 876-a.

irrespective of the existence of an employment relation in the establishment.[8]

Constitutional guaranty of right to picket.—Even though picketing by a union may tend to induce a breach of contract between an employer and another union, the West Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals has held that, where such picketing is a peaceful exercise of the right of free speech or press, it may not be enjoined. The employer in the case had a contract with an American Federation of Labor union. After the expiration of the agreement, the employees formed an independent union with which the employer then signed an agreement. Thereafter, the A. F. of L. local attempted to reopen negotiations with the employer, and upon its failure to secure an agreement, caused the company's establishment to be picketed with placards stating that the company was "unfair" to organized labor. Concluding that the union's right to picket was constitutionally protected from judicial interference,[9] the court also rejected the view that an injunction should issue because the "unfair" signs were untrue. The term "unfair," as used in labor disputes, the court held, "does not bear its primary and usual meaning, but has a well-known and well-understood * * * significance. * * * It appears to be merely a word of disapprobation, or invective, loosely applied to any person or practice" failing to meet the "approval, for the time being, of the protesting labor organization." As used in "the parlance of organized labor," the court concluded, the word "unfair" is not actionable. (*Blossom Dairy Co.* v. *International Brotherhood of Teamsters*, 23 SE. (2d) 645, Dec. 8, 1942.)

Workmen's Compensation

Applicability of Jones Act to injury to seamen in course of employment on land.—In a recent opinion the Supreme Court of the United States held that a seaman on shore, assisting in the repair of a gasket connecting a conduit passing from a hatch to a land pipe and injured through the negligence of a fellow employee, may maintain an action under the Jones Act. (*O'Donnell* v. *Great Lakes Dredge & Dock Co.* 63 Sup. Ct. 488, Feb. 1, 1943.) The Court stated that although the maritime law as recognized in the Federal courts has not, in general, allowed recovery for personal injuries occurring on land, the right of maintenance and cure for injuries suffered in the course of service to a vessel, whether occurring on sea or land, has been a well-recognized exception. It held that the Jones Act, which affords seamen a cause of action for injuries resulting from negligence, supplements the remedy of maintenance and cure and it is immaterial whether the injuries were suffered on shipboard or on shore, provided they were occasioned in the course of employment.

"Twilight zone" between Federal and State jurisdiction over compensation for injuries on navigable waters.—The difficulty of harmonizing the exclusive jurisdiction of the Federal Government over admiralty and maritime occupations with the permissible scope of State control over workmen's compensation was emphasized by the United States

[8] The majority and minority also took differing views of the truth of the picketing signs.
[9] Cf. *American Federation of Labor* v. *Swing*, 312 U. S. 321; *Journeymen Tailors Union* v. *Miller's, Inc.*, 312 U. S. 658.

Supreme Court in *Davis* v. *Department of Labor and Industries of Washington* (63 Sup. Ct. 225). The case involved the application of the Washington Workmen's Compensation Act to a workman employed in dismantling a drawbridge over a navigable river. At the time of the accident, the employee was on a barge which was drawn up beneath the bridge and was being loaded with dismantled steel. While engaged in inspecting and cutting the steel on the barge, the workman fell into the river and was drowned. Apparently giving recognition to the problems inherent in determining whether an occupation is maritime in character or is otherwise subject only to Federal regulation, the Washington statute restricts its application to occupations which are "within the legislative jurisdiction of the State."

The Supreme Court referred to the many decisions for and against recovery of compensation by workers performing maritime functions. Many of these cases, the Court said, stemmed from *Southern Pacific Co.* v. *Jensen* [10] which expressed the formula that State legislation is invalid only when it "works material prejudice to the characteristic features of the general maritime law or interferes with the proper harmony and uniformity of that law in its international and interstate relations." In the present case the Court stressed the difficulties involved in applying the formula, pointing out that whether a State law interferes "with the proper harmony and uniformity" of maritime law must depend on particular facts. The *Jensen* doctrine, the Court said, left the boundary of State jurisdiction "a perplexing problem."

It was noted that the lack of certainty in this field of law imposes hardships on both employees and employers: on employees, by requiring them to decide before bringing action whether the State law "interferes with the proper harmony and uniformity" of Federal maritime law—a factual question "over which courts regularly divide among themselves and within their own membership"; and on employers by requiring them to make a choice, at their risk, of paying contributions into a State fund or paying insurance premiums on the assumption of Federal coverage.

Concluding that the facts in the *Davis case* occupied a "twilight zone," the Court achieved a solution by invoking the presumption of constitutionality in favor of State legislation and stressing the absence of conflict of administration between the State act and the Federal Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Act, as well as the fact that the employer had relied on the State insurance fund for protection against workmen's compensation litigation. Accordingly, the decision of the State Court, holding that it was beyond the competence of the State to grant relief, was reversed.

Mr. Chief Justice Stone wrote a dissenting opinion in which he stated that Congress intended the Federal jurisdiction to be exclusive, where it applied, and that there was therefore no "twilight zone" such as was described in the opinion of the Court.

[10] 244 U. S. 205.

Cooperation

DEVELOPMENTS IN CONSUMERS' COOPERATION IN 1942

Summary

THE outstanding development in the consumers' cooperative movement in the United States during 1942 was the remarkable expansion in the productive facilities owned by cooperatives. In no previous year has so much progress been made in this direction. Cooperators have learned by experience that not only do the productive departments return the largest savings but the destiny of the movement may depend upon the degree in which it can become self-sufficient. Therefore, as fast as resources will permit, productive facilities are being acquired.

Cooperative associations were increasingly affected by wartime restrictions and regulations, and had to make many adjustments of method and operation to meet them. Problems of supply and of manpower were by the end of the year facing cooperatives as well as other businesses. The manpower situation was regarded by cooperatives as particularly grave, in view of the special background of cooperative philosophy desired in cooperative employees. For this reason the training courses given throughout the movement were becoming of even greater importance than formerly and special attempts were being made to attract women into cooperative employment.

Early reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that throughout 1942 both retail and wholesale cooperatives were maintaining or even increasing their volume of business, and many reported 1942 as a record year in both sales and earnings. The increased importance of adequate reserves to meet uncertainties ahead was being stressed, and to a large extent earnings were being placed in reserves or, if returned in patronage refunds, were in the form of share capital.

As 1942 was an "off" legislative year, there were no particularly important developments as regards legislation. There were, however, several significant court decisions affecting cooperatives.

Cooperatives have begun to fight in the courts for the rights of cooperative associations and of consumers generally. In Minneapolis, the Cooperative Housing Association, which had bought tax-delinquent forfeited land on which to build houses, was required by the city, as a prerequisite to the installation of water and sewer facilities, to pay off all of the delinquent taxes. The association paid, but began suit in court to recover the money. Its position was upheld by the Minnesota Supreme Court, which declared that the city

must accept the loss. The decision resulted in the recovery of $4,500, or about $125 per member, for the association.

Midland Cooperative Wholesale (Minneapolis) was the leader in the attempt to obtain for consumers' cooperative wholesales the privilege, accorded to private dealers and farmers' cooperatives, of doing business under the Guffey Coal Act. The Bituminous Coal Division which administers the act ruled that Midland was not entitled to the discounts other wholesalers received, because the wholesale's earnings are returned to its members in patronage refunds. This was ruled to be a violation of the price provisions of the law. The U. S. Circuit Court of Appeals at St. Louis upheld the Division, and Midland appealed the case to the Supreme Court. It refused to review the decision, and steps are being taken with a view to having the act amended so as to give specific recognition to cooperatives.

Cooperatives, again led by Midland, were instrumental in obtaining in 1941 a reduction in freight rates on gasoline by which, according to report, "every consumer" throughout the Northwest benefited. Another contest, to obtain a reduction in freight rates on heavier oils, was begun early in 1942.

On May 15, 1942, the United States Court of Appeals upheld by unanimous decision the conviction of the American Medical Association and the Medical Society of the District of Columbia on charges of conspiracy in restraint of trade against Group Health Association of Washington, D. C. These organizations were fined $2,500 and $1,500, respectively. The case was carried to the United States Supreme Court by the medical associations and was argued in the fall term of 1942. The court's unanimous decision, delivered on January 18, 1943, upheld the conviction of the two societies. The Court did not find it necessary to pass upon the defendants' contention that the practice of medicine is a profession and not a trade and that therefore they were exempt from prosecution under the Sherman Act. The Court held that, for the present purpose, the fact that Group Health Association was carrying on a business, with which the medical societies were seeking to interfere, was sufficient.

Group Health Association was also involved in a case brought in a District court against the association and three of the physicians on its staff, by the wife of a member who died following an appendectomy. All defendants were cleared of charges of malpractice and it was held that the deceased had been given appropriate treatment.

Developments Among the Distributive Associations

PRODUCTION BY CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVES

Those regional and district wholesales which have undertaken production and service activities have noted that it is precisely in those departments that the greatest savings have been made. It is this realization that has caused the spread of the slogan (first voiced by the pioneer in the consumers' production field, Consumers Cooperative Association, North Kansas City) that "factories are free." It has been the experience of CCA that the earnings of its various productive departments very soon paid the initial costs and thereafter made possible the return of substantial patronage refunds.

Greater expansion occurred in cooperative production in 1942 than in any previous year. The Cooperative League of the U. S. A. reported that at the end of 1942 consumers' productive enterprises numbered 49, including 12 oil wells, 92 miles of oil pipeline, 4 oil refineries (and another, one-third of which was owned cooperatively), 7 oil-compounding plants, 2 paint factories, a grease factory, 3 printing plants, 2 bakeries, 2 canneries, a coffee-roasting plant, 3 flour mills,[1] 8 feed mills, 11 commercial-fertilizer plants, a lumber mill, tractor factory, serum plant, and a dozen chick hatcheries. Of these, 2 oil refineries, a lumber mill, a cannery, a feed plant, and 2 oil wells were added in1942.

In addition, plans were under way for the purchase of two more oil refineries (by Midland Cooperative Wholesale and Farmers Union Central Exchange), as well as the construction of 57 miles of additional pipeline and a plant for the dehydration of vegetables and fruits by Consumers Cooperative Association.

Midland Cooperative Wholesale started a research department to enable the wholesale "to get into production at the right place, the right time, and in the right way." A 5-year program of cooperative research in the production field was decided upon by the board of directors of CCA.

Acquisition of a binder-twine plant by several of the regional wholesales was reported to be under consideration for early action.

Consumers Cooperative Association put in, at its oil refinery at Phillipsburg, Kans., equipment to be used in the production of codimer, described as "a petroleum fraction which may be used in the manufacture either of synthetic rubber or of aviation gasoline." The association's application for priorities on materials, to enable it to build a plant for the manufacture of grain alcohol from surplus farm products, was denied by the War Production Board. The wholesale's annual meeting authorized further expansion of refining and crude-oil production, the erection of a refinery for lubricating oils, a sawmill, a shingle mill, a roofing plant, cement factory, feed mill, and potato-starch factory.

NEW SERVICES AND ORGANIZATIONS

Numerous expansion measures planned for 1942 had to be postponed because of war conditions. Nevertheless a great many buying clubs opened stores, and store associations embarked upon remodeling and modernization of premises or moved to larger and better quarters. Various innovations were carried into effect. Thus, one association which serves a wide area put into operation what was described as a "butcher shop on wheels"—a truck carrying a refrigerated display case, butcher's block, and butcher. What effect gasoline and tire rationing may have upon this venture is not known. Another association erected a meat-curing plant, which will handle the slaughtered animals of its members, render the lard, make sausage, cure bacon and ham, etc. Midland Cooperative Wholesale started a campaign for "sparkle-clean" restrooms in the service stations of its affiliated petroleum associations, allotting a specified number of points for

[1] A part interest in another cooperative flour mill (not included above) was owned by Eastern Cooperative Wholesale.

each particular standard met and awarding a display sign to all associations scoring 100 percent.

In some small towns cooperatives are the predominant method of business. Thus, in Badger, S. Dak., the cooperative (with a reported membership of 210 in a town with a population of 200), which already owned the grain elevators and the only lumber yard, in 1942 purchased a grocery store. In Stockton, Kans., of 85 private companies of various kinds, 26 are reported to be fully paid members of the cooperative and 16 others are earning shares through patronage refunds; in a number of cases all of the employees of these companies also are members of the cooperative. In Vermillion, Minn., it is stated, every family in the community is a patron of the local cooperative.

The field of membership from which cooperators are drawn varies somewhat with the times. For several years there have been consumers' cooperatives among the migratory farm laborers staying at the Farm Security Administration camps. During the period of operation of the National Youth Administration there were a few small cooperatives among the NYA workers. After the camps for conscientious objectors were opened, the residents in several of these started cooperative activities. Most recently developed associations include the cooperative transportation associations (carrying war workers to and from their jobs) and the cooperatives started or planned in the camps for evacuated aliens of enemy nationalities.

The entering of new fields of business, already noted among the local associations, had its counterpart among the wholesales. The Farmers Union Central Exchange (St. Paul), serving local associations in Minnesota, the Dakotas, and Montana, decided to go into the handling of groceries. By arrangement, the Exchange took over the business of the Northwest Cooperative Society (a joint grocery-buying association for a group of stores in North Dakota and Montana), and the latter closed before the end of 1942. The Exchange plans the active encouragement of grocery departments among its affiliates, most of which are petroleum associations.

Another important extension of cooperative grocery business, representing a significant combination of farmer and urban cooperators, took place in Ohio. Under a program of collaboration between the Farm Bureau Cooperative Association (Columbus) and Central States Cooperatives (Chicago), a new association, the Ohio Cooperative Grocery Wholesale, was organized in November 1942 as a subsidiary of the two above-named wholesales.

In Wisconsin, Central Cooperative Wholesale directors authorized the inauguration of a system of centralized bookkeeping for local associations that cannot afford or cannot obtain bookkeepers. At the same time the management of the wholesale was instructed to study the possibilities of a repair shop for the trucks used in its trucking service. The latter service was greatly expanded during 1942, CCW having taken over the gasoline-transport service of several of the district wholesales, in addition to continuing its previous trucking service in general merchandise, groceries, and farm produce. This service has grown so large that it seemed likely that it would pay the wholesale to do its own truck-repair work.

Central States Cooperatives at its annual meeting voted to establish a regional paper.

Several new organizations of the federated type were started during 1942. In Minnesota a new district federation was formed under the name, Federated Co-ops of East Central Minnesota. Shortly afterwards it took over as a department the United Cooperative Funeral Service of Cambridge, Minn. The new federation will also carry on a district-wide insurance program, and will undertake other duties as need arises. Any cooperative in the area is eligible for membership in the federation. In Colorado a new organization, the Farmers Union Marketing Association, was formed. In addition to its marketing service, the organization will purchase lumber, coal, and other commodities, expanding these gradually; eventually it expects to provide cash funeral benefits.

The Cooperative Terminal (Duluth, Minn.), which was started in 1941 under the sponsorship of Central Cooperative Wholesale, has widened its field somewhat. Its main function is to market and process farm, forest, and marine products, but it is also supplying these products as well as fresh meats to the store associations in its district (northeastern Minnesota and northern Wisconsin). The Terminal took over from Range Cooperative Federation the latter's forest-products business.

In Wisconsin, cooperatives in Appleton and vicinity formed a federation, called Valley Cooperative Services, to undertake activities not feasible for the individual cooperatives. The new federation's first activity will be the provision of funeral service. In the same State an educational association, the Chequamegon Cooperative Federation, was organized, to which both marketing and consumers' cooperatives in the Ashland-Bayfield territory will be eligible.

Steps toward the formation of a national auditing service were taken at the annual meeting of the National Society of Cooperative Accountants. The purpose of the new association would be to seek and obtain the auditing business of regional and national cooperatives of all types.

Early in 1942 the announcement was made of an Inter-American Cooperative Marketing Corporation formed in New York City, to facilitate business relations between cooperatives in the United States and in Latin American countries.

DISCONTINUANCES

In October 1942, the board of directors of Consumers Cooperative Wholesale, Los Angeles, Calif., decided to dissolve the organization. This was a small joint-purchasing association which had been experiencing increasing difficulties in obtaining cooperative-label goods and in establishing dependable sources of supply for nonlabel products.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The training of sufficient numbers of cooperative employees, not only in business methods but also in cooperative philosophy, has for some years been a matter of serious concern to the cooperative movement. To meet the problem, training courses have been given by the various cooperative wholesales and by Rochdale Institute and the Council for Cooperative Business Training. The shortage of trained personnel has been greatly intensified by the wartime conditions—the drafting of the younger male workers and the departure of many of

the others either for war work or to enlist in the armed services. The engaging of woman workers, where possible, has been one of the methods used to meet the situation; it is reported that this has been carried farthest by cooperatives in the Central States Cooperatives territory.

The announcements of cooperative training courses in 1942 particularly stressed the opportunities for women in the various enterprises. Early in February the Cooperative League announced that six training schools had already been scheduled in the United States—in New York City, Harrisburg, Pa., Superior, Wis., Chicago, Ill., North Kansas City, Mo., and Walla Walla, Wash. Most of these included instruction in cooperative principles as well as in business practices, financial problems, and administrative methods. "Post-graduate" courses for the training of cooperative managers were held in Chicago, Walla Walla, and Superior. In addition, a training conference of persons already employed as managers of cooperative stores was held at Amherst, Mass.

During 1942 a much greater use was made of motion pictures to spread the story of cooperation. The various cooperative films were in continuous use throughout the movement, and in addition, the Cooperative League reported, 11 organizations outside the cooperative movement—universities, boards of education, labor organizations, and civic groups—had purchased prints for use in their visual-education departments.

THE RADIO CONTROVERSY

The cooperative movement in 1942 encountered difficulties in placing its program before the people. Early in the year, during the celebration of Wisconsin "cooperative week," officially proclaimed by the Governor, radio talks were planned which were sponsored jointly by cooperatives and the State department of agriculture. Numerous radio stations broadcast the talks, but stations in Sheboygan and Milwaukee are reported to have refused to do so on the ground that the script was "too critical of private business." [2]

In a previously planned drive, funds were raised by cooperators for a coast-to-coast radio program to acquaint the public with the aims and accomplishments of consumers' cooperation. It was planned that the broadcasts should start October 11, 1942, and 30 stations were announced. About a week before the program was scheduled to begin, both major networks cancelled the agreement, giving various reasons for the refusal, among them that the subject of consumers' cooperation is "controversial" and that the programs were designed to attract new members. Repercussions were immediate and widespread. Criticisms of the action, as a violation of the right of free speech, appeared in many newspapers and even in the trade papers of private business. In Congress, Senator Norris introduced a resolution directing the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce to investigate the whole issue. At a joint meeting of the Code Committee of the National Association of Broadcasters and representatives of the Cooperative League, on December 14 and 15, a joint statement of principles was reached. It was agreed that advertising of cooperatives is acceptable when the programs are designed to sell goods, trade-

[2] Cooperative Builder (Superior, Wis.), March 5, 1942.

marks, or services; and that the copy could incorporate statements setting forth that any person can purchase goods at cooperatives, membership is open and voluntary, cooperatives are owned by members, each with a single vote, and net earnings are returned to the members. However, attacks on any other business enterprise or system of distribution were barred, and discussions of cooperative philosophy must be confined to such "sustaining time" as individual stations might see fit to give "in accordance with the public interest." [3] League representatives pointed out that the "broad questions of public interest in the regulation of the radio industry," involved in the Senate investigation, were not covered in the above joint statement.

Following further conferences with executives of the radio industry, the Cooperative League announced that the series would be started on February 14, 1943, and would be broadcast each week, for 13 weeks, from stations in 30 cities (later increased to 34).

Cooperative League Activities

The Cooperative League of the U. S. A. is the capstone of the consumers' cooperative movement in this country. It has in membership various wholesales and educational leagues throughout the United States. The latter, in turn, unite practically all of the larger retail and service cooperatives in the consumers' cooperative distributive movement and a large proportion of the smaller ones.

During 1942 three additional regional organizations were admitted to membership in the Cooperative League. These were Pacific Supply Cooperative (Walla Walla, Wash.), American Farmers Mutual Auto Insurance Co. (St. Paul, Minn.), and Cuna Supply Cooperative (Madison, Wis.).

COOPERATIVE CONGRESS

From the cooperators' point of view, one of the most important events of the year under review was the holding of the Thirteenth Biennial Congress of the Cooperative League, at Minneapolis, September 28–30, 1942. The general subject of the proceedings was "Planning for a Better World"; and the role of cooperatives in the economy of the post-war period held an important place in the agenda and discussions.[4]

Resolutions of the congress included the following:

1. That Canadian and other cooperatives in North and South America be approached with a view to the formation of a federation of cooperatives in the Western Hemisphere.

2. That Rochdale Institute be removed from New York City to a more central location and that it start an extension service.

3. That, for the purpose of facilitating the speedy mobilization of cooperative opinion and action in emergencies, a network of minutemen be formed throughout the cooperative movement, each of whom

[3] Cooperative League News Service, December 17, 1942.

[4] For more extended discussion of this phase of the proceedings, see Monthly Labor Review, January 1943 (p. 86).

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would undertake to notify 10 other cooperators, the Cooperative League to coordinate the whole.[5]

4. That the League board of directors appoint a national planning committee which would draw up a 5-year program, coordinate cooperative activities with the plans of the National Resources Planning Board, and submit the whole to a special meeting of regional cooperatives or to the next congress of the Cooperative League.

5. That a standing committee on post-war planning be appointed, which would also keep in touch with similar groups in other fields.

6. That a committee of three be appointed to formulate a plan for post-war transportation of commodities through cooperatives, to countries needing such distribution, and to cooperate with established agencies such as the Red Cross.

7. That the League board appoint a committee to study the feasibility of a nationwide system of life, casualty, and fire insurance on the cooperative plan, report to be made not later than to the 1944 congress of the League.

8. That the cooperative movement recognizes labor's right to collective bargaining, etc., and urges labor in turn to recognize the peculiar character of the cooperative movement. The appointment by the League of a full-time secretary to work among and collaborate with labor groups was recommended.

9. That regional and local associations (a) offer pay-roll deductions for a plan of cooperative medical care and other benefits and (b) that they make substantial contributions to the cost of such a plan.

10. That the Congress of the United States be requested to amend the Bituminous Coal Act so that consumers may operate coal businesses to serve themselves.

11. That cooperatives give greater publicity to their own activities in the war effort.

Developments in Special Branches of Cooperation

MEDICAL AND HOSPITAL CARE

All of the medical-care cooperatives in the United States known to the Bureau of Labor Statistics operate on a monthly dues basis. The associations are of two general types—those having their own medical staff and equipment, and those which merely contract for medical or hospital care for their members from individual physicians or groups of physicians. In the one case the doctors are employees of the association; in the other they are independent practitioners or associates in a doctor-managed enterprise.

There are some half dozen associations of the first type. They include two associations each operating a hospital and about four which operate clinics giving various kinds of medical care.

The insurance type of association is more numerous. One of the largest of these—Group Health Mutual of Minnesota—by the middle of 1942 had established more than 100 local groups throughout the State, serving about 9,000 members. Under its plan clinical care (through such well-known organizations as the Mayo and Nicollet clinics) was provided, as well as accident treatment from private physicians throughout the United States.

[5] This has already been put into effect in various places and has proved most effective.

Most of the medical-care associations are members of the Group Health Federation of America (Little Rock, Ark.).

INSURANCE ASSOCIATIONS

In Wisconsin and Minnesota, two wholesales (Central and Midland) jointly support an insurance program under which the local cooperative associations affiliated with the two wholesales act as insurance agencies.

The life-insurance phase of the program is carried on by Cooperators' Life Association, an association formed in 1934, with headquarters in Minneapolis. One of the greatest difficulties of insurance associations that do business over a large territory is to obtain democratic control by the members (policyholders). A step toward better democratization of Cooperators' Life Association was taken in 1942 when district meetings and finally the annual meeting of the association voted to form local cooperative "lodges," one function of which would be to select, by vote of policyholders, voting delegates to the annual meeting.

Merger of the Cooperative Insurance Mutual (Wisconsin) and American Farmers Mutual Auto Insurance Co. (Minnesota) was voted by the membership of the two associations.

Further coordination of cooperative activities in the insurance field was made possible by changes in the annual-meeting dates to allow the insurance associations to hold their meetings at the same place, on successive days.

The annual meeting of Consumers Cooperative Association directed that a study be made of the possibilities of the wholesale's entering the life-insurance field. Toward the end of the year the association circularized its members to obtain their reaction regarding the establishment of an insurance organization.

During 1942 organizations—both cooperative and private—writing automobile insurance had begun to note the effect on their business of the greatly reduced mileage allowed and of the discontinuance of use of cars in some cases.

ELECTRICITY COOPERATIVES

The formation of new rural electricity cooperatives has of necessity been halted by the war, and for a time the installation of new lines by existing cooperatives was forbidden because involving the use of the strategic metal, copper. Liberalization of the War Production Board restrictions, however, has made it possible to extend service to an estimated 20,000 farms per month during the first few months of 1943. Existing associations appear to have fared very well during 1942 and although a few were delinquent in repayments on their REA loans, others not only had met their obligations but had made advance payments amounting to $3,702,651.[6]

In March 1942 representatives of local electricity cooperatives from the 10 REA districts organized a national educational body, the National Rural Electric Cooperative Association, whose efforts will be devoted to the advancement of rural electrification throughout the United States. By the end of July, 30 State-wide meetings had been

[6] Unpublished data supplied to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by Rural Electrification Administration (see Monthly Labor Review, January 1943, p. 91).

held to allow local associations to express their wishes in the matter. Altogether, 28 States were reported to have voted in favor of the new association and 2 against. The first annual meeting of the new federation was held in St. Louis, January 19 and 20, 1943. Among the expected functions of the association are insurance for local cooperatives and the publication of a national paper. The association will have offices in Washington and St. Louis.

CREDIT UNIONS

Credit unions have been hard hit by war conditions. The first measure to affect them was the regulation of installment buying (Federal Reserve Board Regulation W, August 1941), which prohibited the making of contracts which could not be repaid within a period of 18 months (later reduced to 15 and then to 12 months). A substantial proportion of loans of any credit union which has been in operation for any considerable time consists of the larger loans which run for long periods. The immediate effect of the regulation was to reduce the size of many individual loans and to restrict the granting of large loans to such persons as were in a financial position to make large monthly repayments. There will always remain a certain amount of loan business for such purposes as meeting the expenses of sickness and death, and various family purposes. Much of the credit-union business, however, was in loans for education, house repairs or remodeling, vacations, insurance, and other purposes, some of which were incurred as desirable though not necessarily as imperative. It is this latter class of loans that has fallen so greatly; as the emphasis today is on repayment of debts, not on incurring new ones, many credit unions may feel that they cannot with propriety publicize their service in such loans. Also, the rapid turn-over in credit-union membership, with men of draft age being called up and others transferring to different jobs, poses problems of collection that call for strict attention on the part of credit-union directors.

Relations with Other Organizations and Movements

RELATIONS WITH CREDIT-UNION MOVEMENT

Each year, recently, has seen closer relationships between the consumers' cooperative movement and the credit-union movement. For many years a representative of the latter group has attended the biennial congresses of the Cooperative League, and credit unions have generally had some place on the congress agenda. In 1939 the Credit Union National Association ("Cuna"), composed of 44 district and regional leagues, was admitted as a fraternal member of the Cooperative League. Cuna's annual meeting in June 1942 voted to create a joint committee of representatives of Cuna and the League, to facilitate continuous cooperation between the two bodies.

In 1942 the Cuna Supply Cooperative, an association which deals in office supplies, forms, etc., for local credit unions, became a full member of the League.

In the 1942 congress of the League the chairman of the committee on cooperative financing, reporting on "next steps in cooperative finance," presented a program which called for extensive interrela-

tionships with the credit unions. Under the proposed arrangement the consumers' cooperatives would promote credit unions among their members and every cooperative wholesale or other regional member of the League would promote (1) banks to serve credit unions and others and (2) regional credit associations which would serve the long-term credit needs of both the credit unions and consumers' cooperatives. To top the whole would be a central cooperative bank which would coordinate the activities of all, put to use the collective resources, and guarantee the collective liability. This program was the result of several years' work by the committee.

RELATIONS WITH LABOR

The American Federation of Labor, at its 1942 convention, again endorsed consumers' cooperation and directed the appointment of a committee of three to bring about a "reciprocal relationship in the development of consumer cooperatives and credit unions." The Cooperative League, in commenting on this, stated that the railroad brotherhoods had already created similar machinery. Like action was taken in December by the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

The League reported, early in 1943, that local trade-unionists had already begun to act upon the resolutions of their national organizations and were taking an increasingly active part in the cooperatives in their communities. The names of a number of cooperatives, mostly in the Central States territory, were cited in this connection.

The Western Pennsylvania Council of Consumers' Cooperatives issued a series of 10 articles on cooperatives, designed for use in labor papers.

The annual meeting of Central States Cooperatives (Chicago) voted to form a regional Labor-Cooperative Council and local groups of the same kind, with the purpose of accelerating the spread of cooperation among industrial workers. Funds for the purpose are to be supplied by the cooperative associations and the labor unions concerned.

A 5-percent increase in wages of service-station attendants, followed by an additional increase, 5 months later, of $9 per month, was reported by Cooperative Services in Minneapolis. Its agreement with the union also provides a closed shop, 2 weeks' vacation, and 2 weeks' sick leave, with pay.

Midland Cooperative Wholesale also granted a 5-percent increase in wages to its drivers and warehousemen. The collective agreement under which the increase was made provides for revisions in wage scale according to changes in the cost of living.

Consumers Cooperative Services (New York City) early in 1942 granted its cafeteria employees a wage increase of 5 percent, retroactive to November 1, 1941. A second increase of 5 percent went into effect July 1, 1942. After the latter date its minimum rate was $22.70 for a 48-hour week; the basic union scale in privately owned cafeterias was reported to be $16 per week for a 45-hour week for women and $18 for a 48-hour week for men.

The board of directors of Range Cooperative Federation (Virginia, Minn.) voted in September 1942 to pay $1 per month toward medical care for each of its 46 employees. Under the Minnesota Group Health plan this would cover all or half of the cost of care, depending upon the type of plan chosen by the employee.

RELATIONS WITH FARM GROUPS

The National Farmers' Union, one of the most vigorous advocates of cooperative effort, in its 1942 meeting adopted a resolution urging extension of cooperative practice in the field of distribution and in the use of costly farm machinery. It also provided for the establishment of a cooperative department in its organization, the purpose of which will be to work for closer relationships between the various Farmers' Union cooperatives and the national organization, to aid in cooperative education and organizational work, and keep a closer check on legislation affecting cooperatives.

Immediate steps to put this into effect were taken by the board of directors. The Farmers' Union Herald (issue of September 1942) stated that in the Northwest alone there are already more than a thousand cooperative stores, credit unions, burial associations, petroleum associations, creameries, and marketing associations among Farmers' Union members.

RELATIONS WITH RELIGIOUS GROUPS

The consumers' cooperative movement has for many years maintained relations with the Council of Churches of Christ in America. The Council's industrial secretary, Rev. James Myers, has served continuously as chairman of the League's Committee on Cooperatives and Labor. Under his direction numerous district joint meetings of cooperatives and unionists have been held. Institutes bringing together representatives of cooperatives and the various religious denominations have also been held, under his direction or that of Dr. Henry Carpenter (chairman of the League's Committee on Churches and Cooperatives).

The National Catholic Rural Life Conference has for several years given its endorsement of the cooperative movement. Its meeting in October 1942 again endorsed cooperatives and credit unions as being "in close harmony with Christian social philosophy and powerful instruments of self-help." It recommended study of both consumers' cooperatives and credit unions by parish groups.

Cooperatives and the War

Cooperatives have always been among the foremost proponents of peace, and resolutions on this subject have occupied a prominent place among those passed at the congresses. Their wholehearted support of the present war is therefore all the more noteworthy. Local cooperative associations have taken an active part in the various drives for rubber, metal, paper, etc., and have achieved outstanding records of collection. One of the wholesales, Farmers Union Central Exchange, developed a plan whereby its local member associations collected carlots of scrap iron from their members; these were gathered by the wholesale, which handled the sales and prorated the returns. By July 15, these cooperators had collected about 11,000,000 pounds, or 223 carloads, of scrap. In order to interest the children in the conservation program, the wholesale offered war stamps for various items turned in. In the scrap-rubber drive, the various wholesales collected over 8,000 tons.

Several of the central cooperative organizations have turned to war work. Thus, in Minneapolis, the Co-op Press is reported to have become a subcontractor on war work on a 3-shift basis. Consumers Cooperative Association turned over to the Federal Government 36,000 cases of canned goods from the first pack of goods from its new cooperative cannery. The National Farm Machinery Cooperative, owned by several of the regional wholesales, in the spring of 1941 obtained subcontracts for defense production and began manufacturing tank parts for armament contractors. It expects to be engaged on this work for the duration of the war, but is nevertheless carrying on experimental work on tractors and auxiliary equipment, the manufacture of which will be resumed after the war.

A representative of the cooperative movement sits on the petroleum board that advises the Petroleum Coordinator, and another representative is on the Minnesota State War Petroleum Advisory Committee.

At the request of the Federal War Relocation Authority, Rochdale Institute conducted a course in cooperation (principles and technique) in one of the Authority's camps for evacuated Japanese.

WARTIME PROBLEMS

Like all other businesses, cooperatives have been greatly affected by war conditions and have had to make many adjustments to meet them. Some of these are noted below.

Price ceilings.—It is stated that some items handled by the wholesales must be sold at a loss, either because the margin allowed is not great enough to cover handling costs or because of the higher cost of land transportation as compared to water-borne freight formerly used.

The General Maximum Price Regulation and others issued later will necessitate much more careful merchandising and the paring of operating expenses in order not to operate at a loss. The regulation became effective on May 11, 1942; Eastern Cooperative Wholesale, however, did not wait for the regulation to go into effect but instituted the ceiling immediately.

Supplies and rationing.—It has been difficult for the cooperatives to contract for "co-op label" goods, because of Government buying, crop failures in some lines, uncertainty about price ceilings, and finally, the canned-goods freezing order of September 1942. All new-pack canned goods were frozen under a WPB order in September and their release was permitted only at stated times: 35 percent between time of freezing and December 1, 35 percent between December 1 and April 1, and the remaining 30 percent thereafter. As products are canned at different times of the year, some packers had already disposed of a considerable part of their goods before the order, and the distributors depending upon them for later supplies were unable to get them because the rest of the packer's goods could not be shipped. It was reported at a meeting of Eastern Co-operative Wholesale that after contracts had been made for cooperative-label peaches, the entire pack was taken by the Government.

Margins allowed by OPA are said to be about three-fourths of what distributors had been able to operate on before. Cooperative wholesales are classified as "retailer-owned" wholesales and are allowed margins of 2 to 6 percent, or about half to a third of those allowed to "service" wholesales. One of the cooperative buyers predicted re-

cently that 33 to 40 percent of the distributors of the country will have to go out of business during the next year, not so much because of margins as because of the drastic reduction in the amount of goods available to sell. In his opinion, "Any organization that can't get operating costs down or doesn't have reserves to take a loss will fold up."

Operation under quota system works a hardship on businesses—such as cooperative associations, especially wholesales—which have been expanding rapidly. As the quotas are based on business in the previous year, the supply leaves no margin to cover the increased activity. Thus, in the case of Eastern Cooperative Wholesale, the coffee quota of 75 percent was based upon sales 30 to 40 percent below 1942 business.

The cooperative movement has for some time been urging Nation-wide rationing—before shortages arise—of all basic commodities of which there is likely to be a shortage. In August, Eastern Cooperative Wholesale petitioned OPA for rationing of coffee and tea. It was felt that rationing insures equitable distribution among all consumers and frees quantities of goods which otherwise might be hoarded, particularly if it is made clear that the amount on hand must be declared. A conference of representatives from regional cooperatives and organizations of consumers was called by the national Cooperative League and held in Washington, D. C., on November 20, 1942. Instancing the "run" that developed in the case of coffee, this conference, at which 20 national organizations with consumer interests were represented, adopted a resolution urging rationing of those goods that are scarce or becoming scarce, "at once without a preliminary announcement."

As early as February 1942 the Cooperative League urged WPB and OPA to see to it that consumers were given representation on all local rationing boards. It was suggested that consumers' cooperatives, as "effective organizations of consumers," should be consulted when rationing boards were appointed. It was pointed out that the cooperatives could do good work in safeguarding consumer interests. The services of local, regional, and national cooperative organizations, to this end, were offered.

The annual meeting of Eastern Cooperative Wholesale, held in June 1942, adopted a plan (suggested previously by the national Cooperative League) for the creation in local cooperatives of committees on public affairs whose duties would be (1) to acquaint community leaders and organizations of the benefits of cooperation; (2) to inform legislators of the view point of cooperatives on legislation directly affecting consumers, and (3) to study and interpret to cooperative members the legislation and administrative rulings affecting the interests of cooperatives.

The problem of transport and delivery.—Tire and gasoline restrictions have entailed some hardship on cooperatives, especially in the East where a radical revision of delivery policies has ensued. Various methods have been worked out, in order to reduce the number of deliveries and the mileage, and to concentrate orders within an area by the pooling of members' orders at a central point therein.

An order issued by the Office of Defense Transportation, effective June 30, 1942, required a 25-percent reduction (from the 1941 mileage for the same period) in the monthly mileage of trucks operating within

a metropolitan area or not more than 15 miles from the city in which based. Trucks operating in long-distance hauling were required to have capacity loads in one direction and at least 75 percent capacity for the other or return trip. "Circuitous routes" (i. e., more than 10 percent greater in distance than the most direct highway) were prohibited.

The first of these provisions affected the retail deliveries of local cooperatives and the second the wholesales and the local associations doing trucking of supplies to members. In order to comply, cooperatives were forced to pool their trucking needs, so as to insure full loads each way. In Wisconsin the Central Cooperative Wholesale which had operated a fleet of trucks in which to carry supplies to its retail members took over the trucks and haulage business of several of the district federations (C–A–P, Trico, and Range) which had been engaged in hauling supplies for local cooperatives in its district. Combination of these haulage businesses insured the full use of the trucks on the round trip. The Farmers Union Central Exchange also increased the number of its transport trucks. On the Atlantic seaboard, Eastern Cooperative Wholesale has member associations scattered through several States as far south as the District of Columbia and as far north as Maine, and consequently has an extensive haulage problem. It opened a new wholesale branch warehouse in Philadelphia, in order to eliminate some of the haul and cut freight expense; trucking to the Pittsburgh area was let on contract to a private carrier.

In order to meet the problems of transportation, local cooperative associations are also entering into joint ownership of transport facilities. News For Farmer Cooperatives reports (September 1942) that scores of new trucking cooperatives are being formed. In one area 22 are reported and in another 20. Most of these are hauling farm produce between terminal markets and the cooperative associations. In the consumers' cooperative field, it is reported that cooperatives in 5 Iowa towns united in the purchase of a truck to haul their supplies and formed a new association for the purpose. In Ohio a State transportation council was created to coordinate the haulage activities of some 3,000 trucks owned by cooperatives in the State. Montana and western North Dakota petroleum associations formed a new association, the Farmers Union Transport Association, to carry on the pooled trucking business of the member cooperatives.

EFFECTS UPON COOPERATIVES

The associations retailing tires and petroleum products were among the first to be hit by wartime restrictions. Mergers of neighboring cooperatives were being discussed by the end of 1942, and the closing of a sizable percentage of stations had already taken place.[7] In fact, even before the end of 1941, numerous associations which had overexpanded in the palmy days of the petroleum business had closed at least some of their branches.

Faced with declining volume of business, as a result of tire and gasoline restrictions, the petroleum cooperatives are expanding into various sidelines. This trend began several years ago but has been

[7] That the private dealers were also seriously affected is indicated by the fact that one of CCA's truck drivers reported early in October 1942 that of 687 private service stations along his route, 219 had been closed.

accentuated by war conditions. One association in Minnesota made a contract arrangement with two local repair garages for discounts on repair work of cooperative members. Associations with repair departments of their own are featuring that service. Midland Cooperative Wholesale reported in August that already 60 of its affiliated petroleum cooperatives had gone into the grocery business, and that the business of the wholesale's grocery department was running about 65 percent over 1941. In the Central Cooperative Wholesale area these associations are reported to have started handling furniture.

In Texas little diversification of business had taken place among the petroleum cooperatives until war conditions forced them to do so. Now they are reported to be expanding into various sidelines, usually farm supplies and tractor and machinery repair. In one of the Midland districts, associations were reported to be studying the feasibility of entering into distribution of work clothing, drygoods, tableware, etc.

Although many new associations were formed in 1942, wholesale organizations were not particularly encouraging the opening of new stores under conditions as they existed toward the end of the year. Difficulties of obtaining not only the necessary equipment for the store, but also of obtaining stocks of goods, made leaders dubious of the wisdom of opening new business enterprises, at least until important items were placed under rationing. Extension of buying-club technique, enabling groups to obtain supplies without undertaking the overhead and problems of store operation, was being encouraged. In addition, mergers of existing associations, to form more stable societies and cut overhead, were urged.

Up to the end of 1942, thanks partly to the higher level of prices, greater efficiency, and greater sales efforts, both wholesale and retail cooperatives in the food field had in the main been able to maintain or increase their volume of business. It is probable, of course, that eventually some of the weaker associations will have to close. In this connection it is of interest that, regarding the Farmers' Union cooperatives in Nebraska, the Nebraska Union Farmer (Oct. 28, 1942) reported that these organizations were in a "good position to weather war and post-war conditions," as about 75 percent of them were "debt-free or practically so."

Wartime conditions may eliminate some of the benefits heretofore claimed by cooperatives. Thus, the lowered margins allowable under price control will drastically reduce the price savings possible to be made under the cooperative method; and the necessity for strengthening the financial structure of the cooperative movement will tend to abolish, for the duration, the payment of cash patronage refunds even if earned. Also, supply difficulties may slow up and hinder the progress of the cooperative movement toward controlling the quality of goods handled, as associations find they must take what they can get, not what they would prefer.

MEASURES TO MEET CONDITIONS

The president of one of the cooperative wholesales recently presented a 10-point program for cooperatives during the war. In addition to cash trading, training of new employees, and consolidation of weaker associations, these included the following:

1. To keep an uninterrupted flow of goods to agriculture to enable farmers to produce to the maximum.

2. To "speak with a united voice to the end that the cooperative movement may not suffer from discriminatory regulations * * * and see to it that violence is not done to the nonprofit character of cooperatives."

3. To expand into war effort (such as dehydration, manufacture of alcohol, etc.), possibly by joint action of several wholesales.

4. To keep organizations democratic.

5. To build cooperatives "at all levels which will be so sound and effective that people will turn to them naturally and logically in the reconstruction period as the answer to their most pressing economic problems."

The immediate steps urged upon cooperatives include the following: (1) Elimination or drastic reduction of credit business, and reduction of extra service; (2) more efficient use of employee time, improved store lay-out, and close scrutiny of all expenses; (3) keeping the most efficient staff possible, "even at the cost of wages apparently too high for economical operation"; (4) adding new lines of goods to take the place of those no longer obtainable; and (5) closer cooperation with other cooperatives and the wholesale on problems of merchandising. Renewed emphasis is being placed upon making sure that the cooperative is financially stable; this involves building up reserves. In an open letter to local cooperatives, Central Cooperative Wholesale early in 1942 urged that cooperatives achieve "financial self-sufficiency," and noted that to do so would mean for most cooperatives "outlawing cash patronage refunds for the duration of the emergency." It recommended that associations "keep the earnings in the business in one way or another." Cash patronage refunds should be made only after paying all bills, making provision for necessary facilities for efficient operation, reserve to cover a probably 15–25 percent inventory loss when prices drop, reserve to meet "probable freezing of receivables when the present war boom ends and depression comes," and "provision for possible—probable—operating losses in the years of general economic adjustments that will follow termination of the war economy." Somewhat the same adv ce has been given in the periodicals of the other wholesales.

Industrial Relations

ACTIVITIES OF NATIONAL LABOR RELATIONS BOARD, 1941–42

THE duties of the National Labor Relations Board are of two general types: (*a*) To prevent employers engaged in interstate commerce from engaging in any of the unfair labor practices listed under the National Labor Relations Act; and (*b*) to settle controversies with respect to representation of employees and certify the name of the employee organization which shall represent the workers.

During the 12 months ending June 30, 1942, a total of 10,977 new cases was filed with the Board, the largest number received in any year of its activity. For the first time representation cases were in the majority, 6,010 representation cases being filed, as against 4,967 cases involving unfair labor practices; the former increased 39 percent and the latter 3 percent, over the previous fiscal year.

Altogether, 11,741 cases were closed by the Board during the fiscal year—5,456 involving unfair labor practices, and 6,285 involving representation. Of the cases closed, 84 percent were closed through amicable adjustment by agreement, or were withdrawn or dismissed before the institution of formal proceedings. Of the unfair-labor-practice cases, 92 percent were disposed of before formal action, and of the representation cases 78 percent.

Varied action was taken to remedy unfair labor practices, in cases closed by adjustment or by compliance. To rectify discriminatory discharges 8,251 workers were reinstated; and 32,137 were reinstated after strikes caused by unfair labor practices. Back-pay awards totaled $1,266,408, and 5,925 workers received back pay. The posting of notices was required in 1,365 cases and the disestablishment of company-dominated unions in 283 cases. Collective-bargaining negotiations were part of the remedy ordered in 1,032 cases.

A. F. of L. affiliates were the petitioners in 44.7 percent of the representation cases closed during the year, C. I. O. affiliates in 43.3 percent, unaffiliated unions in 10.5 percent, and employers in 1.5 percent (92 cases).

In approximately 75 percent of the elections there was no contest between unions—that is, the name of only one union appeared on the ballot. In most of the remaining elections there were two participants, and in only a negligible number were there more than two participants involved.

Unions affiliated with the C. I. O. won 75 percent, A. F. of L. affiliates 67 percent, and unaffiliated unions 57.7 percent of the elections in which they participated.

TABLE 1.—*Results of Elections and Pay-Roll Checks Conducted During 1942, by Participating Union*

Participating union	Elections in which union participated			Elections won by union		Valid votes cast for union		Per cent of eligibles voting
	Number	Number of eligible voters	Number of valid votes cast	Number	Percent of elections in which union participated	Number	Percent of total	
A. F. of L	2,270	490,028	406,034	1,522	67.0	206,605	50.9	82.9
C. I. O	2,284	999,922	824,442	1,723	75.4	560,815	68.0	82.5
Unaffiliated	678	338,195	283,702	391	57.7	127,834	45.1	83.9

Manufacturing industries accounted for 76 percent of all elections and pay-roll checks, and for 91 percent of all valid votes. More than 50 percent of all valid votes in manufacturing were in iron and steel, transportation equipment (excluding automobile), and nonelectrical machinery.

TABLE 2.—*Comparison of Distribution of Workers and of Valid Votes Cast in 12 Leading Manufacturing Industries*

Industry	Percent of workers [1]	Percent of valid votes	Industry	Percent of workers [1]	Percent of valid votes
Total	84.5	87.1	Apparel	7.3	1.2
			Electrical machinery	5.1	2.9
Iron and steel	12.9	30.1	Chemicals	4.7	3.6
Transportation equipment	11.1	18.5	Printing	4.1	.7
Textiles	10.4	8.8	Lumber	4.1	2.2
Food	9.8	4.0	Furniture	3.4	2.4
Machinery, excluding electrical	8.3	10.7	Stone, clay, and glass	3.3	2.0

[1] Based on Estimated Employment and Wages of Workers Covered by State Unemployment Compensation Laws, October–December 1941, compiled by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board.

Industrial Disputes

STRIKES IN JANUARY 1943

PRELIMINARY estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that strike activity in January 1943 was substantially greater than in December. The number of strikes was about 20 percent greater, the number of workers involved in new strikes was more than 50 percent greater, and the amount of idleness during strikes was more than double that in December.

The greatest contributing factor to the increased strike activity in January was the strike of 20,000 anthracite miners in Eastern Pennsylvania during the first 3 weeks of the month. There was also a 2-day stoppage involving about 16,000 garment workers in New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania.

As compared with January 1942—the month following Pearl Harbor—the number of strikes and the amount of idleness during strikes in January 1943 were about 37 percent greater; the number of workers involved in new strikes was more than 3 times as great.

Idleness during strikes in January was less than half the average for January during the 5-year pre-defense period, 1935–39, although the number of strikes was 15 percent and the number of workers involved 46 percent greater than the respective averages.

Idleness during strikes in January is estimated to be 0.06 percent of available working time. Heretofore, the percentage of strike idleness has been calculated as if industry generally were working an average 5-day week. Beginning with January 1943 the percentage of strike idleness is calculated on the basis of an average 6-day week. The change to a 6-day base reduces the percentage for January 1943 from 0.07 to 0.06 percent.

Past issues of the Monthly Labor Review have included figures on strikes affecting war work as determined by a joint committee of representatives from several Government agencies directly concerned. This series was discontinued with figures for December 1942, as it became more and more difficult to distinguish between strikes which affected war work and those which did not. As increasing proportions of the national economy became converted to war work practically all strikes affected the war effort directly or indirectly to some degree.

Strikes in January 1943 With Comparisons for Earlier Periods

Item	January 1943 [1]	December 1942 [1]	January 1942 [2]	Averages for 5-year period, 1935–39	
				January	December
Number of strikes beginning in month	195	160	141	170	127
Number of workers involved in new strikes	90.000	57,000	25,731	61,742	31,899
Number of man-days idle during all strikes in progress during month	450,000	200,000	328,316	1,012,665	859,534

[1] Preliminary estimates.
[2] Revised, but not final.

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, JANUARY 1943

THE United States Conciliation Service during January disposed of 1,278 situations involving 692,401 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 96 were strikes and lock-outs involving 64,239 workers; 650 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 300,906 workers. During the month, 217 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board, and in 44 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 271 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, January 1943, by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled	[1] 1,278	692,401
Disputes	746	365,145
Strikes	95	64,046
Threatened strikes	86	33,737
Lock-outs	1	193
Controversies	564	267,169
Other situations	271	34,385
Investigations	62	4,820
Technical services	13	3,881
Arbitrations	70	17,566
Requests to conduct consent elections	3	193
Requests for information	15	35
Consultations	77	200
Special services of Commissioners	19	7,668
Complaints	12	22
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations	261	292,871
To National War Labor Board	217	275,461
To National Labor Relations Board	30	11,019
To other Federal agencies	3	1,412
To Wage Adjustment Board	4	1,007
To nongovernmental agencies	5	570
To State agencies	2	3,402

[1] During the month 106 of these cases, involving 60,820 workers, were adjusted, subject to arbitration or approval of the wage provisions by the National War Labor Board.

The facilities of the Service were used in 26 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 46 States and the District of Columbia (table 3).

TABLE 2.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, January 1943, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	1,007	658,016	271	34,385	1,278	692,401
Building trades	35	6,752	18	480	53	7,232
Chemicals	51	15,187	7	2,170	58	17,357
Communications	11	25,955	3	107	14	26,062
Domestic and personal	35	18,339	7	917	42	19,256
Electrical equipment	23	9,255	2	200	25	9,455
Food	75	34,226	21	3,905	96	38,131
Furniture and finished lumber	45	8,917	5	830	50	9,747
Iron and steel	156	99,213	35	1,433	191	100,646
Leather	24	7,548	14	1,221	38	8,769
Lumber	37	34,941	6	354	43	35,295
Machinery	60	18,695	8	222	68	18,917
Maritime	6	585	1	75	7	660
Mining	18	24,614			18	24,614
Motion pictures	3	1,329	3	47	6	1,376
Nonferrous metals	49	29,804	8	130	57	29,934
Paper	13	4,050	4	9	17	4,059
Petroleum	13	7,086	8	5,539	21	12,625
Printing	27	16,421	1	1	28	16,422
Rubber	19	9,374	5	3,408	24	12,782
Stone, clay, and glass	30	6,464	8	349	38	6,813
Textile	57	108,417	24	5,633	81	114,050
Tobacco	4	9,024	1	2	5	9,026
Trade	58	22,812	31	3,799	89	26,611
Transportation	52	27,873	11	536	63	28,409
Transportation equipment	60	94,847	23	1,030	83	95,877
Utilities	7	3,491	4	44	11	3,535
Unclassified	39	12,797	13	1,944	52	14,741

TABLE 3.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, January 1943, by States*

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	1,007	658,016	271	34,385	1,278	692,401
Alabama	8	2,345	3	6	11	2,351
Arizona	3	15,007			3	15,007
Arkansas	3	1,343	3	24	6	1,367
California	90	64,572	22	3,593	112	68,165
Colorado	13	20,365	2	22	15	20,387
Connecticut	10	9,291	7	997	17	10,288
District of Columbia	1	13	4	693	5	706
Florida	16	12,612	4	128	20	12,740
Georgia	7	2,257	5	353	12	2,610
Idaho	3	592			3	592
Illinois	97	65,573	15	350	112	65,923
Indiana	41	14,476	11	5,927	52	20,403

TABLE 3.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, January 1943, by States*—Continued

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Iowa	15	3,100	6	204	21	3,304
Kansas	4	550	1	84	5	634
Kentucky	19	4,321	4	1,078	23	5,399
Louisiana	17	4,177	7	11	24	4,188
Maine	3	135	4	271	7	406
Maryland	6	921	4	2,175	10	3,096
Massachusetts	31	14,180	18	1,673	49	15,853
Michigan	75	42,870	32	3,690	107	46,560
Minnesota	20	3,498	3	91	23	3,589
Mississippi	3	590	3	142	6	732
Missouri	35	32,206	4	353	39	32,559
Montana	1	65			1	65
Nebraska	4	199			4	199
New Hampshire	2	1,007	7	185	9	1,192
New Jersey	46	48,219	4	26	50	48,245
New Mexico	5	1,213	1	100	6	1,313
New York	108	155,337	16	1,567	124	156,904
North Carolina	13	2,777	6	2,920	19	5,697
North Dakota	1	17			1	17
Ohio	101	42,769	22	2,309	123	45,078
Oklahoma	2	2,160	2	106	4	2,266
Oregon	18	1,380	3	84	21	1,464
Pennsylvania	72	45,242	14	664	86	45,906
Rhode Island	6	12,302	3	2,303	9	14,605
South Carolina	2	237	3	1,410	5	1,647
South Dakota	3	2,696			3	2,696
Tennessee	16	1,890	3	175	19	2,065
Texas	17	8,268	4	33	21	8,301
Utah	3	167			3	167
Vermont	3	463	1	1	4	464
Virginia	11	1,868	9	251	20	2,119
Washington	11	4,305	4	133	15	4,438
West Virginia	15	1,479	3	117	18	1,596
Wisconsin	26	8,932	4	136	30	9,068
Wyoming	1	30			1	30

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Cost of Living

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN LARGE CITIES, JANUARY 1943

LIVING costs of city workers increased 0.2 percent from December 15, 1942, to January 15, 1943. This was the smallest monthly advance since February 1941. The cost of goods and services under OPA control on January 15 rose 0.3 percent during the month. The cost of gas, electricity, and other services controlled by other Government agencies remained unchanged, and prices of goods and services not under any form of governmental control declined for the first time since May 1942. The decrease of 0.3 percent occurred largely because of seasonally lower fruit and vegetable prices.

The slower rate of advance for the month ending January 15 was largely brought about by two factors. With new crops from the South, prices of a number of fresh fruits and vegetables declined and the usual January clearance sales of men's and women's heavy wool coats and men's suits in many stores throughout the country brought price reductions in clothing. However, prices of coal went up by 2.5 percent, and there were continued slight advances in prices of many staple foodstuffs.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics cost-of-living index reflects actual prices in retail stores where families with moderate incomes usually trade. Black-market operations or sales to customers who pay bonuses for service cannot, however, be measured.

Food.—The family food bill advanced 0.2 percent from mid-December to mid-January. Among the principal increases were higher prices for meat, which rose 1.1 percent. Beef, veal, pork, and lamb prices went up less than 1 percent, while prices of poultry and fish, used by many families as substitutes for red meats, advanced 3.3 percent and 2.9 percent, respectively. Prices of fresh milk rose 1.4 percent on the average, with higher prices for delivered milk in 8 cities and higher store prices in 13. The usual winter increases were reported for cabbage, green beans, apples, sweetpotatoes, onions, and white potatoes. Among the fresh vegetables not under OPA control, however, lettuce prices dropped seasonally by over 6 percent, while carrots and spinach moved downward contraseasonally by 22 and 6 percent. Prices of oranges, grapefruit, and bananas, all under OPA control, declined seasonally. Prices of fats and oils rose 0.7 percent.

The following statement shows the trend of food prices from December 15 to January 15.

	Percent of change—	
	Dec. 15, 1942, to Jan. 12, 1943	*May 12, 1942, to Jan. 12, 1943*
All foods	+0. 2	+9. 4
Foods under direct control January 12, 1943	+. 6	+7. 4
Controlled on May 18, 1942	+. 6	+1. 8
Brought under control since May 18, 1942 [1]	+. 3	+18. 7
Foods not under direct control January 12, 1943	−2. 3	+27. 2

[1] Includes peanut butter placed under control on May 18, exempted from control in August, and new ceilings set in December.

On January 12 the Bureau's index of food costs stood 33 percent above the 1935–39 average, 9.4 percent above May 12, and 14 percent above a year ago.

Fuel, electricity, and ice.—Costs of fuel, electricity, and ice rose 0.9 percent during the month. Anthracite and bituminous-coal ceilings were revised upward by OPA to compensate the retailer for the higher prices of coal at the mine. In addition, a Federal transportation tax on coal caused a slight increase. Fuel-oil prices advanced in several cities as a result of expenses incurred by dealers in complying with the rationing program.

Clothing.—Clothing prices remained unchanged, on the average, in the large cities of the country between December 15 and January 15, 1943. January clearance sales of men's and women's heavy woolen suits and coats brought about decreases in 11 cities. Elsewhere, however, men's and women's wool coats returned to ceiling levels after December sales. Higher prices for shoes and shoe repairs were also reported. Goods of the quality previously priced were not available in some parts of the country and clothing costs increased because customers were obliged to buy goods in higher price lines.

Housefurnishings.—Housefurnishing costs showed no change between December 15 and January 15. Birmingham, where prices of sheets advanced, was the only city reporting increased prices for household goods, while declines in prices of sheets were noted in New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh. Part-wool blankets were also lower than in December in several cities.

Miscellaneous goods and services.—The cost of miscellaneous goods and services rose 0.3 percent. Higher charges for medical services were reported in Chicago, Cleveland, Detroit, Houston, San Francisco, and Seattle. Newspaper rates advanced in Buffalo, Chicago, Cincinnati, and Philadelphia.

The relative importance of gasoline in cities on the eastern seaboard, as used in computing the index, was reduced to allow for decreased consumption caused by the lowered value of ration coupons and the ban on pleasure driving.

Rents.—Rents were not surveyed in January, as an economy measure. Since last September when rent control had become established in most large cities, rents have varied little from month to month in the 21 cities covered in the Bureau's monthly cost-of-living index. The Bureau's regular survey of rents will be made in March.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities, for Specified Dates*

City	Percent of change—		City	Percent of change—	
	Jan. 15, 1942, to Jan. 15, 1943	Dec. 15, 1940, to Jan. 15, 1943		Jan. 15, 1942, to Jan. 15, 1943	Dec. 15, 1940, to Jan. 15, 1943
Average: Large cities	+7.7	+19.8	West North Central—Con.		
New England: Boston	+8.6	+20.0	St. Louis	+6.7	+18.1
Middle Atlantic:			South Atlantic:		
Buffalo	+8.5	+22.7	Baltimore	+7.6	+22.0
New York	+8.6	+18.7	Savannah	+8.6	+23.4
Philadelphia	+8.2	+20.8	Washington, D. C.	+7.5	+19.8
Pittsburgh	+7.7	+19.4	East South Central: Birmingham	+5.3	+18.9
East North Central:			West South Central: Houston	+6.2	+16.9
Chicago	+6.8	+18.4	Mountain: Denver	+7.5	+19.4
Cincinnati	+7.2	+20.3	Pacific:		
Cleveland	+7.3	+20.7	Los Angeles	+8.9	+20.9
Detroit	+5.7	+19.9	San Francisco	+9.3	+22.5
West North Central:			Seattle	+7.7	+23.2
Kansas City	+7.3	+19.5			
Minneapolis	+6.3	+16.4			

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change, Dec. 15, 1942, to Jan. 15, 1943, in Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities*

City	All Items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	[1] +0.2	[2] +0.2	[3] 0	[4] +0.9	[3] 0	[3] +0.3
New England: Boston	0	−0.2	−1.1	+1.6	0	0
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	+1.0	+1.8	−.3	+1.4	0	+1.1
New York	+.4	+.6	+.3	+1.4	−0.2	+.4
Philadelphia	0	−.2	−.1	+1.4	−.1	+.1
Pittsburgh	+.6	+1.4	−.1	+.2	−.2	+.1
East North Central:						
Chicago	+.1	0	−.4	+.8	0	+.4
Cincinnati	−.2	−.4	0	+.3	0	+.1
Cleveland	+.2	−.1	+.6	+.7	0	+.3
Detroit	−.3	−1.4	+.5	+.2	0	+.7
West North Central:						
Kansas City	+.1	+.1	−.2	+1.0	0	0
Minneapolis	−.2	−.6	+.1	+.8	0	0
St. Louis	−.4	−1.0	−.4	+.1	0	0
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	+.7	+1.3	0	+1.2	0	+.1
Savannah	+.9	+1.6	0	+2.6	0	0
Washington, D. C.	+.3	+.8	−.1	+1.9	−.1	0
East South Central: Birmingham	+.3	+.9	−.1	+.1	+.2	0
West South Central: Houston	0	+.3	−.9	+.2	0	+.1
Mountain: Denver	+.1	+.2	+.1	+.2	0	+.1
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	−.2	−1.0	+.6	0	0	+.3
San Francisco	+.4	+.9	+.2	0	0	+.1
Seattle [5]	[5] +.1	−.1	−.1	0	0	[5] +.5

[1] Rents not surveyed in January. See p. 523.
[2] Based on data for 51 cities.
[3] Based on data for 21 cities.
[4] Based on data for 34 cities.
[5] Indexes for Seattle revised: Oct. 15, 1942, all items 124.0, miscellaneous 118.3; Nov. 15, 1942, all items 124.7, miscellaneous 118.8; and Dec. 15, 1942, all items 125.6, miscellaneous 119.2.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities, by Groups of Items, Jan. 15, 1943*

[Average 1935–39=100]

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	[1] 120.6	[2] 133.0	[3] 125.9	[4] 107.3	[3] 123.7	[3] 113.1
New England: Boston	118.9	130.5	121.5	118.3	118.2	111.1
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	124.8	137.9	126.5	105.0	125.0	120.1
New York	119.8	133.1	126.6	110.7	117.7	112.0
Philadelphia	119.7	130.2	125.8	105.2	122.3	113.7
Pittsburgh	120.7	133.4	128.0	109.8	121.5	112.6
East North Central:						
Chicago	119.6	129.9	120.8	104.5	119.6	112.2
Cincinnati	119.8	131.0	130.3	102.8	125.1	112.3
Cleveland	123.1	134.6	129.0	113.1	123.9	113.5
Detroit	121.0	130.0	127.7	107.5	120.8	115.4
West North Central:						
Kansas City	117.8	127.3	122.3	107.1	117.0	114.0
Minneapolis	119.0	129.1	126.1	99.8	124.3	115.0
St. Louis	119.3	133.1	126.4	106.3	116.3	111.0
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	122.6	139.1	125.8	106.0	127.6	113.0
Savannah	125.3	139.8	127.6	112.5	119.9	115.8
Washington, D. C.	119.4	133.8	131.7	105.8	129.0	115.7
East South Central: Birmingham	121.2	131.4	126.7	100.3	119.3	113.0
West South Central: Houston	119.5	134.8	125.6	93.1	122.2	112.0
Mountain: Denver	119.6	132.6	123.5	99.6	121.9	113.2
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	123.6	141.4	128.3	94.2	118.4	114.8
San Francisco	124.5	141.3	125.8	94.1	119.2	119.6
Seattle	125.7	143.5	128.1	100.6	119.6	119.8

[1] Rents not surveyed in January. See p. 523.
[2] Based on data for 51 cities.
[3] Based on data for 21 cities.
[4] Based on data for 34 cities.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities, 1935 to January 1943*

[Average 1935–39=100]

Year	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1942:							
Jan. 15	112.0	116.2	116.1	108.4	104.3	118.2	108.5
Feb. 15	112.9	116.8	119.0	108.6	104.4	119.7	109.4
Mar. 15	114.3	118.6	123.6	108.9	104.5	121.2	110.1
Apr. 15	115.1	119.6	126.5	109.2	104.3	121.9	110.6
May 15	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
June 15	116.4	123.2	125.3	108.5	105.0	122.3	110.9
July 15	117.0	124.6	125.3	108.0	106.3	122.8	111.1
Aug. 15	117.5	126.1	125.2	108.0	106.2	123.0	111.1
Sept. 15	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
Oct. 15	119.0	129.6	125.9	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.8
Nov. 15	119.8	131.1	125.9	108.0	106.2	123.7	112.7
Dec. 15	120.4	132.7	125.9	108.0	106.3	123.7	112.8
1943: Jan. 15	120.6	133.0	125.9	108.0	107.3	123.7	113.1

Wage and Hour Statistics

EARNINGS IN MANUFACTURE OF ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES, 1942[1]

Summary

THIS report on earnings in plants manufacturing domestic electrical appliances is one of a series undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the purpose of providing information on the effects of the war on the several branches of the electrical-products industries.[2]

Twenty-two of the 27 plants included in this survey had converted to war production by the summer of 1942; of these 22 plants, half were devoting at least 90 percent of their output to war production. Employment increased about 27 percent between August 1939 and September 1942, an amount somewhat below that for many machinery and electrical industries during the same period. The increase between August 1939 and August 1941 was about 47 percent; however, there was a decrease of more than 13 percent during the following year, presumably as a result of the conversion order for the industry. Average hourly earnings (including overtime and shift premiums) rose from approximately 65 cents in August 1939 to 81 cents in the summer of 1942.

Average hourly earnings, exclusive of overtime premiums, are estimated at 76.9 cents during the late summer of 1942. Approximately 200 male workers in the occupations studied were classified in the seven groups which showed average hourly earnings in excess of $1. In general, the larger plants paid higher wages.

Scope of Survey[3]

According to the Census of Manufactures there were, in 1939, 138 plants engaged primarily in the manufacture of domestic electrical appliances. Included in these establishments are plants manufacturing such products as electric fans, irons, mixers, percolators, hot plates, and vacuum cleaners.[4] The only important appliances excluded are domestic refrigerators and washing machines; manufacturers of such equipment are classified in separate industrial divisions. The 27 plants from which data were obtained by means of this survey constitute 25 percent of the 108 establishments which employed six or more workers during 1939; 30 plants employing five workers or less were excluded from the scope of the present survey. The sample

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Odis C. Clark. The study was directed and preparation of the report supervised by Harold R. Hosea.

[2] Previous articles in this series appeared in each issue of the Monthly Labor Review, May 1942–February 1943; individual reports are available on request.

[3] Further detail on the scope and method of this survey appears in the article entitled "Earnings in Manufacture of Domestic Laundry Equipment, 1942" (p. 534 of this issue).

[4] This definition corresponds to that of Census Industry No. 1620.

plants were selected, as far as possible, to be representative of the industry with respect to location, size (in terms of number of employees), and certain other characteristics. Most of the earnings data were for a representative pay-roll period during July 1942.[5]

Characteristics of the Industry

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION

Slightly more than one-half of the plants classified by the Bureau of the Census in this industry, in which nearly two-thirds of the workers in the industry were employed, are in the Midwest; over half of the 1939 labor force was in the States of Illinois and Ohio. One-third of the plants and almost one-third of the workers were found in the Northeastern States. Other plants, most of which were quite small, are in the Pacific Coast States; the few plants in the South were very small.

PRODUCTION OF WAR MATERIALS

No appreciable shift to defense production was reported for the 27 plants studied in this survey until 1941; only 1 plant was reported as devoting any of its facilities to the defense program as early as 1940 and it was producing indirect war materials. During 1941, slightly more than one-third of the plants were manufacturing either war materials or products with high priority ratings, although none of these was reported as devoting as much as 50 percent of facilities to the war program.

In 1942, all production of domestic electrical appliances was rigidly curtailed. All but 5 of the 27 plants studied were at least partially converted to war production at the time this study was made. Of the 22 plants engaged in war work, half were devoting at least 90 percent of their facilities to the war effort.

Although some production of electrical appliances on Government order still continued, the output of the plants at the time they were studied consisted principally of war materials. Articles were being produced as dissimilar from the usual output as ammunition boxes, gun canisters, screw-machine parts, mess kits, and marine hardware. Two large vacuum-cleaner plants closed down certain departments and expanded and converted their electric-motor divisions; both of these establishments were producing several varieties of motors which were more complex than the pre-war product and both had retrained employees formerly making the discontinued items. Among the striking conversions were from vacuum cleaners to portable field-lighting equipment, from electric table stoves to aircraft bombing accessories, and from electric fans to aerial bombs. Despite drastic changes in products, the plants surveyed found, for the most part, that their usual machinery was adaptable to the manufacture of war materials.

On the other hand, substantial readjustments were apparently necessary even on the part of some of the larger establishments. In nearly half of the 17 plants for which information is available, the total labor force at the time of the survey was about 30 percent below that in January 1942.

[5] Pay-roll periods ending in June, August, or September were used for 4 plants.

THE LABOR FORCE

Approximately one-fifth of the male workers for whom detailed earnings data were compiled may be regarded as employed at skilled work; about one-half were employed on semiskilled and about one-third on unskilled jobs. The manufacture of electrical appliances does not involve large proportions of high-precision work, and many of the assembly operations are limited to simple bench work. Thus, the skill requirements of this industry tend to be somewhat lower than those of certain other industrial divisions.

This industry employed substantial numbers of women as factory workers even prior to the war. Slightly over 30 percent of the workers included in this survey were women; in fact, the only plants not employing at least a few female factory workers were five small establishments with fewer than 20 workers each. In two plants, women constituted over 80 percent of the labor force; in each of five other establishments, over half of the workers were women. By far the most important occupation among women was bench assembly work; the second most important was inspection. Substantial numbers of women were also employed as rack and conveyor loaders, packers, product repairers, testers, winders, and wirers. Women were reported infrequently as machine operators except on drill presses and punch presses; in the operation of these machines women were employed in substantial numbers on lighter jobs. Among the females, the ratio of workers at unskilled work was even higher than that for males; approximately 80 percent of the women studied were employed at unskilled jobs.

The number of Negroes employed in the industry was negligible; only about one-fourth of 1 percent of the total employed in the 27 plants studied were Negroes. In fact, only 5 of the plants employed any Negroes and, in the plant employing the largest number, they constituted less than 2 percent of the factory labor force. Most of the Negroes reported in the industry were employed in foundry work or as janitors or truck drivers.

Nationally affiliated unions had working agreements with 11 of the plants studied; one additional plant had a contract with an independent union. Although some small plants had contracts with unions, such contracts were more prevalent among the larger establishments. In fact, only 3 of the 16 plants employing fewer than 100 workers were working under union agreements, as compared with 7 of the 11 larger establishments. Approximately 42 percent of the workers included in the survey were employed in organized shops.

Nine of the 11 collective agreements with nationally affiliated unions were with the members of the American Federation of Labor. Union strength in the industry was about evenly distributed between the North Central area and the Northeastern States; 4 of the 12 plants in the North Central region were unionized as compared with 3 of the 9 plants in the Northeast.

METHOD OF WAGE PAYMENT

Incentive systems of wage payment are common in the manufacture of electrical appliances; it is probable that this method of wage payment was even more prevalent, prior to the conversion to war pro-

duction. Piece rates and bonus systems are, of course, readily adaptable to an industry which employs large numbers at the simple and repetitive machine and assembly work which characterizes the manufacture of small and standardized products.

Some type of incentive system of wage payment was reported for 12 of the 27 plants studied; these plants employed well over two-fifths of the workers included in the survey. In these 12 plants, 45 percent of the workers received pay at piece or bonus rates and the remainder were paid hourly rates. Incentive systems were in effect in small as well as large plants. Five of those included in the survey, and employing fewer than 100 workers each, used some incentive system of wage payment, and over 45 percent of all the workers employed in the plants of this size group were paid at incentive rates. For the industry as a whole, slightly less than 29 percent of the workers were paid under incentive systems.

All but 7 of the plants studied paid for overtime work under more liberal provisions than those required by Federal statute; these 7 firms employed fewer than 100 employees each. In 19 of the establishments, overtime was paid at the rate of time and a half for all work over 8 hours in 1 day, and in 1 of these the double rate applied after 12 hours' work in the same day. The payment of overtime rates for work on Saturday was not so prevalent as in many other industries; only 7 plants paid overtime rates for Saturday work. In 4 plants, time and a half applied to all work on Saturday and in another the same rate was paid for the first 4 hours of work on that day, with double rates thereafter; in the sixth plant, time and a half was paid if Saturday was the sixth day of work in the week, and in the seventh plant the same premium rate was paid for the sixth day of work in any week. Payment for Sunday work was at the rate of time and one-half in 5 plants, at double rates in 6 other plants, and at double rates for work on the seventh day of work in any week in 2 plants. Payment for work on holidays was usually at the same overtime rates as for Sunday work; 5 plants paid time and a half and 6 paid double rates.

Compared with the other industries studied in connection with the survey of plants manufacturing machinery and electrical products, an unusually large proportion of the establishments manufacturing electrical appliances reported the operation of only a single shift. That there is some relation between the comparatively small proportion of plants engaging in multiple-shift operation and the decline in employment, as a result of the industry's shift to war production, seems apparent, however, from the fact that, in the plants which reported only one shift, employment declined over 10 percent between January 1942 and the time of the survey, while for those operating two or three shifts an increase of about 20 percent was reported.

Two-thirds of the 27 plants studied in the industry operated on a single-shift basis (table 1). Of the remaining 9 plants, 3 operated two shifts and 6 were working three. With the exception of one plant, all paid some wage differential for work on the evening and night shifts. The most common shift differential reported was 5 cents above the base rate.

TABLE 1.—*Wage Differentials for Second and Third Shifts in Electrical-Appliance Plants, July 1942*

Number of shifts worked	Number of plants	Differential paid for—	
		Second shift	Third shift
Plants with 1 shift only	18		
Plants with 2 shifts	2	5 cents per hour	
	1	8 cents per hour	
Plants with 3 shifts	1	No differential	No differential.
	1	½-hour paid lunch period	8 hours' pay for 7 hours' work, plus ½-hour paid lunch period.
	1	5 cents per hour	5 cents per hour.
	1	5 percent over base rate	5 percent over base rate.
	1	do	10 percent over base rate.
	1	10 percent over base rate	Do.

Employment, Hours, and Earnings

TREND, AUGUST 1939 TO JULY 1942

Comparable data on employment, earnings, and hours are available from 20 plants for specified periods since the outbreak of the war (table 2). The number of persons employed in these 20 plants increased about 27 percent, an amount somewhat below that for many machinery and electrical industries during the same period. The increase between August 1939 and August 1941 was about 47 percent, but there was a decrease of more than 13 percent during the following year, presumably as a result of the conversion order for the industry. The workweek, however, was lengthened during this later period, so that total man-hours worked decreased only about 3 percent during the year; over the 3-year period, man-hours increased nearly 50 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Average Hourly Earnings, and Average Weekly Hours of Workers in 20[1] Electrical-Appliance Plants, Specified Periods, 1939–42*

Year and month	Total number of wage earners[2]	Average hourly earnings	Estimated average hourly earnings exclusive of premium overtime payments	Average weekly hours
August 1939	2,727	$0.649	$0.641	37.0
April 1940	3,610	.715	.704	37.8
August 1940	3,124	.651	.642	37.2
January 1941	3,544	.686	.669	39.6
August 1941	4,001	.706	.692	38.7
July 1942	3,453	.811	.769	43.2

[1] The exclusion of 7 plants from these computations because complete data were not available is not believed to affect the validity of the trend comparisons for the industry.
[2] Data for 1 company used with reduced weight to avoid overrepresentation of large plants.

Average hourly earnings (exclusive of estimated extra payments for overtime) of the factory workers in these 20 plants rose from approximately 64 cents in August 1939 to nearly 77 cents in July 1942, an increase of 20 percent. Because of the lengthened workweek, however, and the consequent increase in premium overtime payments, average weekly earnings increased from approximately $24 to slightly

more than $35, or more than 45 percent. The sharpest increase in earnings occurred during the last year of the period, when many of these plants had converted to war production.

PLANT AVERAGES

Although shift differentials and variations in the amounts of overtime pay may produce some distortion, general plant average earnings do indicate the approximate effect of certain plant characteristics on workers' earnings. Although some of the plants in both the Northeastern and the North Central States pay average wages below 60 cents per hour, there is some indication from a study of relative plant averages that, compared with other sections of the United States, a somewhat larger proportion of the plants in the North Central area pay average wages of 85 cents or more per hour (table 3). However, geographic location does not appear to affect earnings to any great extent.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Electrical-Appliance Plants by Plant Average Hourly Earnings,*[1] *Region, and Size of Plant, July 1942*

Plant average hourly earnings	All plants[2]	Plants in—		Plants employing—	
		Northeastern States[3]	North Central States[4]	Less than 100 workers	100 or more workers
45.0 and under 50.0 cents	2	1	1	2	
50.0 and under 55.0 cents	3	1	1	3	
55.0 and under 60.0 cents	2	1	1	2	
60.0 and under 65.0 cents	1	1			1
65.0 and under 70.0 cents	4		4	2	2
70.0 and under 75.0 cents	1	1		1	
75.0 and under 80.0 cents	2	1		2	
80.0 and under 85.0 cents	1	1			1
85.0 and under 90.0 cents	5	1	2	1	4
90.0 and under 95.0 cents	3	1	2	2	1
95.0 cents or over	1		1		1
Total	25	9	12	15	10

[1] Includes premium payments for overtime and night work.
[2] Includes 3 Pacific and 1 South Central plants.
[3] Includes plants in Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania.
[4] Includes plants in Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, and Ohio.

On the other hand, differences in size of plant do appear to be reflected in average earnings. Of the 15 plants employing fewer than 100 workers, only 8 showed averages of more than 60 cents per hour, and in only 3 were the averages above 85 cents. Of the 10 larger plants, none showed an average below 60 cents and 6 paid an average of more than 85 cents.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES

Earnings data, excluding extra payments for overtime and night work, are available for 72 occupational groups of male workers (table 4). In only 7 of these occupational groups were average hourly earnings above $1; these higher-paid occupations are class A working foremen, class A grinding-machine operators, class A screw-machine operators, class A sheet-metal workers, class A testers, tool and die makers, and class A hand welders. Moreover, for only 7 additional occupations were average earnings as high as 95 cents per hour.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings,[1] of Day-Shift Workers in Selected Occupations in Electrical-Appliance Plants, July 1942*

Occupation and class	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
All workers	3,380	$0.720
Male workers	2,206	.805
Acid dippers	13	.859
Apprentices, first year	17	.595
Apprentices, second year	11	.642
Assemblers, bench, class A	18	.940
Assemblers, bench, class B	127	.809
Assemblers, bench, class C	148	.633
Assemblers, floor, class B	13	.977
Buffers	72	.992
Carpenters, class A	6	.895
Carpenters, class B	19	.816
Die setters	17	.880
Drill-press operators:		
Class B	26	.816
Class C	16	.652
Electricians, class A	6	.937
Electricians, class B	6	.862
Electricians, class C	5	.724
Firemen, stationary boiler	12	.895
Foremen, working, class A	32	1.250
Foremen, working, class B	42	.965
Galvanizers	13	.933
Grinding-machine operators:		
Class A	5	1.162
Class B	34	.948
Helpers, machine operators	19	.685
Helpers, other	15	.718
Inspectors, class A	15	.976
Inspectors, class B	43	.812
Inspectors, class C	52	.742
Janitors	57	.628
Job setters	17	.907
Laborers	64	.570
Lathe operators, engine:		
Class A	10	.946
Class B	25	.778
Lathe operators, turret:		
Class A	6	.900
Class B	25	.797
Learners, machine operator	5	.525
Learners, other	23	.677
Loaders and unloaders, racks and conveyors	44	.724
Machine, operators all-round:		
Class A	9	.973
Class B	15	.817
Machinists	12	.999
Milling-machine operators, class A	7	.949
Millwrights, class A	12	.958
Millwrights, class B	6	.797
Packers	57	.781
Painters, spray	48	.866
Male workers—Continued.		
Pipefitters	7	$0.824
Platers	10	.862
Power-shear operators	21	.816
Punch-press operators:		
Class B	51	.943
Class C	68	.731
Repairmen, machine	22	.885
Repairmen, product	64	.720
Screw-machine operators:		
Class A	11	1.100
Class B	7	.807
Class C	11	.600
Sheet-metal workers, class A	14	1.013
Sheet-metal workers, class B	22	.823
Solderers, class C	6	.733
Stock clerks	110	.694
Testers, class A	15	1.095
Testers, class B	17	.712
Time clerks	58	.657
Tool and die makers	96	1.209
Truck drivers	15	.826
Truckers, hand	86	.641
Tumbler operators	5	.814
Watchmen	47	.623
Welders, hand, class A	14	1.064
Welders, hand, class B	19	.869
Welders, machine	139	.794
Winders	27	.829
Female workers	1,174	.562
Assemblers, bench:		
Class A	24	.669
Class B	81	.669
Class C	557	.550
Drill-press operators:		
Class B	7	.626
Class C	14	.425
Inspectors, class B	20	.532
Inspectors, class C	96	.573
Learners, other	20	.406
Loaders and unloaders, racks and conveyors	26	.545
Packers	37	.564
Punch-press operators, class C	55	.533
Repairers, product, class B	14	.621
Repairers, product, class C	50	.501
Solderers, class C	6	.550
Testers, class B	6	.726
Testers, class C	13	.494
Time clerks	7	.616
Welders, machine	5	.470
Winders, class B	5	.690
Winders, class C	75	.563
Wirers, assembly, class C	56	.583

[1] Averages are based on earnings exclusive of premium payments for overtime.

In addition to apprentices and learners, 9 male occupational groups showed average hourly earnings below 70 cents. For all the male workers, average hourly earnings ranged from 52.5 cents for machine-operator learners to $1.25 for class A working foremen.

Of the 22 occupational groups of female workers, only 4—class A and B bench assemblers, class B testers, and class B winders—showed average hourly earnings over 65 cents. In addition to learners, the average hourly earnings for 7 of the occupational groups were below 55 cents, and, for 3 of these occupations—class C drill-press operators, class C testers, and machine welders—the average earnings were less than 50 cents per hour.

The apparent anomaly in the averages shown for class A and B bench assemblers and for class B and C inspectors is the result, at least in part, of varying degrees of division of labor in large and small plants. In the larger establishments, there is a relatively greater division of labor in assembly and inspection work; consequently, proportionately fewer skilled workers are ordinarily employed. In the smaller establishments, however, such elaborate division of labor is not possible, and workers must possess a higher degree of skill in order to perform a larger number of operations. As a result, the smaller plants, even with their generally lower wage levels, employ more class A bench assemblers and class B inspectors while the larger shops, which tend to pay higher wages, hire a far greater proportion of less-skilled assemblers and inspectors. In fact, only 3 plants reported the employment of class A bench assemblers and class B inspectors and each of these plants employed fewer than 100 workers.

Workers in plants with fewer than 100 employees consistently received lower average earnings than those employed in larger plants. In each of the 8 most important (numerically) occupations in the industry the employees of the larger plants received higher average earnings (table 5). Among the occupations for male workers the wage differences ranged from 7.5 cents for stock clerks to 29.6 cents per hour for class C punch-press operators. Among female workers the differences ranged from 12.3 cents for packers to 21.3 cents for class C assembly wirers. If comparisons are limited to production workers, the difference for each occupation was over 10 cents per hour.

TABLE 5.—*Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *of Day-Shift Workers in Electrical-Appliance Plants, by Occupation and Size of Plant, July 1942*

Occupation and class	Plants employing—			
	100 workers or less		Over 100 workers	
	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Male workers:				
Assemblers, bench, class C	12	$0.530	136	$0.642
Buffers	16	.858	56	1.031
Laborers	10	.448	54	.592
Punch-press operators, class C	11	.483	57	.779
Stock clerks	17	.631	93	.706
Female workers:				
Assemblers, bench, class C	114	.444	443	.577
Packers	15	.491	22	.614
Wirers, assembly, class C	17	.435	39	.648

[1] Averages are based on earnings exclusive of premium payments for overtime.

When the output of most electrical appliances ceased, a considerable modification in occupational patterns occurred with the shift to war production. One plant reported that with the assignment to new and unfamiliar work the earnings of incentive workers declined, and as a result, a general job revaluation and piece-rate increases were necessary. In another instance, with a change from routine assembly work to job production, all female employees (about half of all workers) were laid off. Another plant retrained its employees for new tasks, but in this establishment the incentive workers as a group were unable to exceed their guaranteed piece-work rates.

EARNINGS IN MANUFACTURE OF DOMESTIC LAUNDRY EQUIPMENT, 1942[1]

Summary

THIS report on earnings in plants manufacturing various types of domestic laundry equipment is the fourteenth in a series undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the purpose of providing information on the effects of the war on the several branches of the machinery-manufacturing industries.[2]

In the summer of 1942, the 9 plants included in this survey were using nearly all of their facilities in the production of direct war materials; considerable plant conversion was found necessary. All but 1 of the establishments studied were working at least 2 shifts.

Employment in these plants increased over 40 percent between August 1939 and the summer of 1942; average hourly earnings increased 25.3 cents—from 68.8 cents to 94.1 cents per hour—during the same period. It is estimated that about a third of this rise in earnings was a result of increases in extra payments for overtime work. Average hourly earnings in plants which had over 250 workers were about 14 percent higher than those in establishments with 250 or fewer. This industry is concentrated in the North Central States.

More than a tenth of the workers were in the 10 occupational groups which showed average hourly earnings of $1 or more, exclusive of extra payments for overtime and night work; 4 percent were in groups which averaged less than 60 cents per hour.

Scope and Method of the Survey

In order to provide basic information on the effects of the transition to a war economy on technological processes, occupational patterns, and wage structures, the Bureau of Labor Statistics has undertaken a series of studies in establishments manufacturing various types of machinery and similar products. Each of the industrial branches covered in this series is defined in terms of the principal products of the various plants during the year 1939 as reported by the Census of Manufactures. Important changes in type of product are to be expected, especially because the war emergency has accentuated the shifts in production that would ordinarily occur over a 3-year period. The data on these changes are, however, in themselves significant, and it is thus useful to begin with the 1939 classification as a starting point in order to determine their nature.

According to the latest Census of Manufactures (1939), there were, in the United States, 42 plants "engaged primarily in the manufacture of laundry equipment for household use, comprising washing machines, ironing machines, wringers, driers, and extractors, whether operated by mechanical power or by hand."[3] Of this total, 5 establishments reported fewer than 6 wage earners, and were excluded

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Oscar F. Brown. The study was directed and the preparation of the report supervised by Harold R. Hosea.

[2] Previous articles in this series have appeared in each issue of the Monthly Labor Review, May 1942–January 1943; individual reports are available on request.

[3] This definition corresponds to that of Census Industry No. 1781.

from the scope of this survey. The remaining 37 plants as a group employed an average of 7,456 workers during 1939, and slightly over a third (36.6 percent) were working in the 9 establishments included in this survey. This small industry is largely concentrated in the North Central States. In 1939 almost three-fifths of all the plants nd approximately two-thirds of the workers in the industry were in the 3 States of Illinois, Iowa, and Ohio. Few such plants are found elsewhere; New York, with about an eighth of the wage earners in the industry, is the only State outside the North Central region in which the manufacture of domestic laundry equipment is important. The plants selected for study are distributed in essentially the same manner.

The data for the present survey were collected by trained field representatives of the Bureau who visited the plants and analyzed pay rolls and other pertinent records. The detailed wage data on individual employees are limited to day-shift workers in certain occupational groups selected for their numerical importance or because they are key jobs. In general, however, earnings by occupation were compiled for practically all the wage earners on day shifts. The current earnings data shown in this report are based on a representative pay-roll period during July or August 1942.

Characteristics of the Industry

TYPE OF PRODUCT

The manufacture of domestic laundry equipment is a highly specialized industry and makes use of a particular pattern of standard metalworking techniques. The electrical equipment used in most of the items produced is purchased from manufacturers of electrical devices, and only the larger establishments operate their own foundries. Washing machines for household use were by far the most important single product of the industry; in 1939, this one item accounted for over 80 percent by value of the total output. Over 90 percent of the household washers produced in 1939 were electrically driven; the remaining machines were powered mostly by gas or by gasoline engines. The manufacture of hand-operated machines was relatively unimportant. Aside from household washers, electric ironing machines constituted the only other important single article of production in the industry. A miscellaneous group consisting mostly of ironing attachments, wringers, cabinet driers, extractors, parts, and accessories accounted for about 11 percent by value of the total output.

Included among the products mentioned above was a substantial output of goods made as secondary products by establishments classified by the Census in other industries; the domestic laundry equipment made by such concerns amounted to nearly 10 percent of the value of the total produced in the United States. On the other hand, less than 2 percent of the value of total production of domestic-laundry-equipment plants consisted of products not classified in this industry.

PRODUCTION OF WAR MATERIALS

The effect of the war was relatively retarded in this industry. Until fairly late in 1942, the plants studied were almost wholly engaged in manufacturing their usual products at an increasing rate. Of the 9 plants covered in the survey, the 3 which were producing war materials in 1941 were using less than 1 percent of their facilities in defense production. By August 1942, however, all the plants in the survey were manufacturing direct war materials, and small as well as large plants were affected. The transition to war production had no marked effect on employment in the industry as a whole, but in the case of several of the small and medium-sized plants there was some difficulty in adjusting to the war effort at the time of the present survey. Employment in 6 of the 9 plants studied was still below the level for the preceding year. Three plants were using about two-thirds of their facilities in direct war production, and in the remaining 6 establishments the corresponding figure amounted to 90 percent or more. Regular production was, in most instances, limited to the manufacture of repair parts.

The radically different nature of war materials made substantial technological changes necessary in some of the plants studied; a few of the establishments had to retool their plants extensively. Several of the converted plants were concentrating on one specialized type of war material.

THE LABOR FORCE

Detailed earnings data were compiled for about two-thirds of all the workers employed in the plants surveyed; this group included practically all the workers on day shift. Approximately a fourth (24.4 percent) of the male wage earners for whom wage and occupational data were collected were working at skilled jobs, 43.7 percent were doing semiskilled work, and the remainder, who constituted about a third (31.9 percent) of the wage earners studied, were classified as unskilled.

At the time the present survey was made, women constituted slightly over 8 percent of the total employees in the plants studied. Over 90 percent of all the women found were working in 1 plant, where they amounted to about 23 percent of the total working force. The most common occupations were class C inspectors and learners in various occupations; several female class B and C bench assemblers, class C drill-press operators, and class C burrers were reported. About three-fifths (59.2 percent) of the female wage earners found in the industry were doing semiskilled work, while the remainder (40.8 percent) were all working at unskilled jobs; no women employed at skilled jobs were found. The high percentage of semiskilled women can probably be attributed to a policy of encouraging the training of woman workers by the 1 plant which employed nearly all those found in the survey. Only 2 Negroes were employed by the establishments surveyed; both were working as janitors in the same plant.

Seven of the 9 plants had agreements with nationally affiliated unions. Four of these agreements were with unions affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations and 3 with unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. In addition, an independ-

ent labor union was recognized in one of the large plants. The 1 remaining plant employed fewer than 50 workers and was unorganized.

METHOD OF WAGE PAYMENT

Largely because of the lack of standardization resulting from the wide variety of processes involved in manufacturing most of the products of this industry, all but two of the plants studied paid on the basis of straight hourly rates. Of the 2 plants which used an incentive system, 1 had somewhat less than 250 employees, and the other had over 1,000. In these 2 plants which made use of such a system, and in which somewhat over two-fifths (43.0 percent) of the workers in all the plants studied were employed, about a fourth (24.0 percent) were paid incentive-wage rates; these workers constituted about a twelfth (8.8 percent) of all workers studied in the industry. There was some modification of wage-payment methods with the shift to war production and the resulting need for new machines. In most cases, however, there appears to have been a tendency to retain the existing wage structure.

One of the establishments studied paid no overtime rates beyond minimum statutory requirements, i. e., time and a half for all work above 40 hours a week. This premium rate was paid by the other 8 plants studied for work in excess of 8 hours in a day, and by 3 plants for all Saturday work. Three establishments also paid on this same basis for Sunday work, and 1 paid time and a half for holiday operation. Double-time rates were effective on Sundays and holidays in 2 plants.

The high degree of utilization of the productive equipment of the domestic-laundry-equipment industry is evident from the fact that, of the 9 plants studied, only 1 operated on a single-shift basis, while 4 operated two shifts, and the remaining 4 establishments reported three shifts (table 1). All the 8 plants operating more than 1 shift were paying shift differentials at the time the survey was made. In the group of 4 plants which reported 2 shifts, 3 paid the second-shift workers a premium of 5 cents per hour, and 1 paid 5 percent over the base rate. Four establishments worked both a second and a third shift. Three of these plants paid the same bonus to workers on both shifts, i. e., 5 cents per hour; the other plant allowed second-shift workers a differential of 5 percent over the base rate, while its third-shift employees received a rate of 10 percent above those on the day shift.

TABLE 1.—*Wage Differentials for Second and Third Shifts in 9 Domestic-Laundry-Equipment Plants, July–August 1942*

Number of shifts worked	Number of plants	Differential paid for—	
		Second shift	Third shift
Plants with 1 shift only	1		
Plants with 2 shifts	3	5 cents per hour	
	1	5 percent over base rate	
Plants with 3 shifts	3	5 cents per hour	5 cents per hour.
	1	5 percent over base rate	10 percent over base rate.

Employment, Hours, and Earnings

TREND, 1939 TO 1942

Total employment in the 9 establishments as a group increased over 40 percent during the 3-year period for which comparable data are available; the increase was from 2,131 in August 1939 to 3,013 in July–August 1942 (table 2). Average hourly earnings including premium payments for overtime and night work, which amounted to 68.8 cents in the earlier period, had increased to 94.1 cents by the time the survey was made; this rise of 25.3 cents represents a gain of 36.8 percent.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Average Hourly Earnings, and Average Weekly Hours of Workers in 9 Domestic-Laundry-Equipment Plants for Selected Periods, 1939–42*

Year and month	Total wage earners [1]	Average hourly earnings	Estimated average hourly earnings exclusive of extra overtime payments	Average weekly hours
August 1939	2,131	$0.688	$0.669	39.9
April 1940	2,583	.709	.702	36.2
August 1940	2,441	.741	.733	36.5
February 1941	2,641	.721	.715	35.4
August 1941	2,971	.787	.764	40.3
July–August 1942	3,013	.941	.867	46.6

[1] Data for 1 company used with reduced weight to avoid overrepresentation of large plants.

During the same period, the average workweek in these plants as a group had lengthened 6.7 hours, from 39.9 to 46.6 hours, a change which progressively inflated hourly rates as a result of increased premiums for overtime. It is estimated that the elimination of extra payments for overtime work would reduce average hourly earnings for the latest period by 7.4 cents or to about 86.7 cents; on this basis average hourly rates, exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night work, increased by an estimated 19.8 cents, or nearly 30 percent.

PLANT AVERAGES

Average hourly earnings, including premium payments for overtime and night work, amounted to 94.1 cents for the entire 9 plants included in the survey. The averages for individual plants varied from 63 cents in the case of a medium-sized plant in a small city to $1.17 paid in a somewhat smaller establishment in one of the largest industrial centers. Three of the 9 plants showed average hourly earnings of $1 or more; an equal number reported average earnings below 80 cents.

The tendency for average earnings to increase with size was far from uniform among these plants; the establishment with the highest average hourly earnings of all the plants studied had fewer than 100 workers, and showed an average rate of $1.17 per hour. On the other hand, one of the plants with over 1,000 employees paid average hourly earnings about 9 cents below the average for the industry as a whole, despite the large amount of overtime work in that particular establish-

ment. These variations from the general tendency for hourly earnings to vary directly with plant size are probably due in part to organization on a job basis of some of the small plants in which higher proportions of skilled workers are employed, and to the ability of some of the larger plants to make use of mass-production techniques, with consequent dilution of skill, and, in one case, by the extensive use of female labor.

There is a general tendency, however, for average hourly earnings to vary directly with plant size, despite exceptions in the case of individual establishments. Average earnings in the four plants which had 250 or more workers were 14.9 cents per hour higher than the average for those in the smaller size groups. The apparent wage advantage of workers in the larger establishments was due in part to the use of an incentive-payment plan and extensive overtime payments in one of the largest of the plants surveyed.

The fact that the domestic-laundry-equipment industry is largely concentrated in the North Central States precludes any analysis of plant averages on the basis of geographical location. Likewise, an analysis of the relationship between size of community and levels of earnings expressed in terms of plant averages would be inconclusive, partly because of the small number of establishments included in the survey and because such variations are obscured by the combined effect of other and more important factors such as methods of plant operation, unionization, plant size, systems of wage payments, and sex distribution of workers.

Average hourly earnings in the two plants which were not operating under agreements with nationally affiliated unions were about 10 cents lower than the figure for the organized plants. This difference of more than 10 cents per hour is not, of course, to be interpreted as a result of the union factor alone. The working force of the two unorganized plants contained a large number of female workers, as well as a substantially greater percentage of male wage earners in the less highly skilled occupational groups than were employed in the union establishments. On the other hand, one of the unorganized plants was among the largest in the industry. The net effect of these two factors, which tend to offset one another, cannot be stated precisely on the basis of the data available.

OCCUPATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EARNINGS

Average hourly earnings, exclusive of premium payments for overtime and night work, are shown for 1,740 male workers, who constituted about three-fourths of the day-shift workers in the plants surveyed (table 3). These hourly averages (excluding those for apprentices and learners) ranged from 58.5 cents for watchmen to $1.152 for tool and die makers. The general hourly average for all workers in the occupations containing adequate numbers of workers (and distributed among a sufficient number of plants) to warrant detailed study was 82.3 cents. This figure is 4.4 cents below the estimated hourly earnings of 86.7 cents for the industry shown in table 2; the difference is due, at least in part, to the inclusion of shift differentials in the industry average.

Ten occupational groups showed averages of $1 or more per hour. These groups contained about 200 workers, and included almost a half

(48.1 percent) of the skilled employees and slightly over one-tenth (11.7 percent) of all workers for whom detailed occupational data were compiled. By far the largest of the groups earning an average of $1 or more were the tool and die makers, who, as stated above, also received the highest average hourly earnings. Of the occupational groups studied, the averages for four were under 65 cents per hour; 4 percent of the employees, apart from apprentices and learners, were in the two occupational groups which were paid averages under 60 cents per hour.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earning* [1] *of Day-Shift Workers in Selected Occupations in Domestic-Laundry-Equipment Plants, July-August 1942*

Occupation and class	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Occupation and class	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
All workers	1,740	$0.823	Lathe operators, turret:		
			Class A	37	$0.941
Acid dippers	7	.893	Class B	94	.818
Apprentices, first year	8	.600	Learners, journeymen and other	42	.680
Apprentices, second year	8	.713	Learners, machine operator	19	.563
Assemblers, bench, class A	16	.998	Milling-machine operators:		
Assemblers, bench, class B	39	.874	Class A	25	1.023
Assemblers, bench, class C	60	.633	Class B	107	.787
Buffers	15	.944	Millwrights, class A	7	.973
Burrers, class B	9	.818	Millwrights, class B	7	.790
Burrers, class C	40	.789	Molders, machine, class A	19	1.096
Carpenters, class B	9	.823	Packers	26	.684
Casting cleaners	19	.929	Painters, spray	7	.949
Craters, class B	5	.760	Patternmakers, metal	7	1.012
Drill-press operators, class A	18	1.094	Patternmakers, wood	6	1.039
Drill-press operators, class B	38	.742	Platers	11	.750
Drill-press operators, class C	79	.773	Repairmen, machine	23	.836
Electricians, class B	11	.931	Repairmen, product, class B	16	.790
Electricians, class C	5	.754	Screw-machine operators:		
Firemen, stationary boiler	11	.828	Class A	16	1.093
Foremen, working, class A	41	1.104	Class B	13	.855
Foremen, working, class B	40	.897	Class C	107	.882
Grinding-machine operators:			Shake-out men	8	.815
Class A	9	1.059	Sheet-metal workers, class B	5	.754
Class B	14	.851	Stock clerks	87	.662
Heat treaters, class B	13	.801	Testers, class B	11	.877
Helpers, journeymen's and other	13	.715	Time clerks	22	.627
Helpers, machine operators'	11	.764	Tool and die makers	56	1.152
Inspectors, class A	13	.998	Tool-grinder operators	24	.838
Inspectors, class B	65	.840	Truck drivers	8	.687
Inspectors, class C	36	.732	Truckers, hand	29	.686
Janitors	48	.655	Truckers, power, inside	5	.668
Job setters	55	.996	Watchmen	46	.585
Laborers	17	.675			
Laborers, foundry	30	.593			
Lathe operators, engine:					
Class A	7	1.073			
Class B	41	.900			

[1] Averages are based on actual earnings exclusive of extra payments for overtime.

As already stated in connection with general plant averages, a comparison of wage rates on a regional basis is not possible, because of the small proportion of the industry outside the North Central region. Likewise, the small number of plants in the sample surveyed, as well as the other factors mentioned in connection with plant averages, does not permit analysis of average hourly earnings on the basis of size of community, unionization, and method of wage payment.

Occupational rates do tend, however, to vary significantly in relation to the average number of workers employed per plant, despite the fact that, as already noted in analyzing plant averages, the relationship is by no means uniform. In order to compare occupational

rates in the larger and smaller plants, workers in each of the classifications which contain numbers adequate to permit reliable comparisons are divided into two groups: those in plants with fewer than 250 employees, and those in larger plants. For the 373 employees in plants with fewer than 250 workers average hourly earnings were 73.1 cents, whereas the corresponding figure for the 1,367 wage earners in the group of larger plants was 84.7 cents.

In many occupations, the numbers of workers are insufficient to permit any reliable comparison of hourly rates between plants of different size groups, or the distribution of occupations between the smaller and larger plants is so uneven that relative rates are difficult to compute.

There are 16 occupational groups, however, in which the numbers of employees are believed to be adequate for comparisons of average hourly rates between the large and small plants (table 4). For 13 of these occupations, the average earnings of workers in the large plants are higher than the corresponding figure for the smaller establishments; in 6 instances the difference in occupational averages between the two size groups was 20 cents or more. The three occupations in which wage differences were in favor of the small plants were highly skilled. The fact that average hourly earings of certain class C workers shown in table 3 are slightly above the corresponding rates for class B operators in the same occupational groups is a further reflection of the tendency of the larger establishments to pay higher wages; in such cases, plants in the large size group reported a greater number of workers in the lower classification.

TABLE 4.—*Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *of Day-Shift Male Workers in 9 Domestic-Laundry-Equipment Plants, by Occupation and Size of Plant, July–August 1942*

Occupation and class	Average hourly earnings in plants employing—		Occupation and class	Average hourly earnings in plants employing—	
	250 workers or less	Over 250 workers		250 workers or less	Over 250 workers
Number of workers [2]	373	1,367	Lathe operators, engine, class B	$0.605	$1.008
Average hourly earnings [2]	$0.731	$0.847	Lathe operators, turret, class B	.633	.843
Buffers	.921	.969	Milling-machine operators:		
Burrers, class C	.591	.884	Class A	1.055	.998
Drill-press operators, class B	.643	.800	Class B	.633	.917
Foremen, working, class B	.710	.961	Repairmen, product, class B	.714	.851
Inspectors, class A	1.030	.979	Stock clerks	.614	.671
Inspectors, class B	.674	.904	Tool and die makers	1.252	1.109
Janitors	.560	.666	Watchmen	.533	.610
Job setters	.966	1.001			

[1] Averages are based on actual earnings exclusive of extra payments for overtime.
[2] Includes workers in occupations not shown separately below.

WAGES IN MANUFACTURE OF MECHANICAL RUBBER GOODS, AUGUST 1942[1]

Summary

MUCH of the normal output of the mechanical rubber goods division of the rubber-manufacturing industry serves essential industrial uses. Some of the plants in this division, moreover, are engaged in the fabrication of rubber products for direct military use. For these reasons, production and employment have been maintained at a relatively high level in the face of a grave rubber-supply problem.

Workers in plants primarily engaged in the production of mechanical rubber goods received average hourly earnings, exclusive of premium pay for overtime and night-shift work, of 78.8 cents in August 1942. Male factory workers averaged 84.7 cents an hour, as compared with an average of 59.1 cents for female employees. Average earnings in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants were substantially greater than in primary mechanical-goods establishments, and the inclusion of data for workers in these departments has the effect of raising the general level of earnings in mechanical-goods manufacture to 84 cents an hour—90.4 cents for men and 63.8 cents for women.

Some Characteristics of the Industry

PRODUCTS, SIZE OF PLANT, AND CONCENTRATION OF CONTROL

The term "mechanical rubber goods" has reference to the end-use of certain rubber products; that is, to their use for mechanical or industrial purposes. The rubber products that fit into the broad category of mechanical goods are extremely numerous. A few of the more significant types may be mentioned. Belting is an important product, and the belting produced in the industry ranges from very heavy conveyor belts to small V-belts used in motor vehicles and for other purposes. Rubber hose of all kinds—garden hose, air-brake and other pneumatic types, fire hose, oil and gasoline hose—account for an appreciable segment of production. Washers, gaskets, pump sleeves and similar products, and the familiar jar ring used by the housewife in canning are all mechanical rubber goods, as are also rubber tubing, packing, friction tape, rubber-covered rolls (for use in printing and for other purposes). The war has made rubber half-tracks for military tanks an item of some importance.

This variety of products may help to explain the great variation in size of the plants in the industry. The smallest plant covered by the survey employed fewer than 20 workers, and the largest plant employed more than 3,000. The average plant employed approximately

[1] Prepared in the Division of Wage Analysis by H. M. Douty, with the assistance of Joseph W. Bloch and W. H. Weidowke. This is the second of a series of two articles the first of which, dealing with wages in tire and tube plants, appeared in the February 1943 issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 233). Some of the material in the earlier article, notably the discussion of rubber requirements and raw material supply, is relevant also to the mechanical-goods division.

These findings are the result of a detailed study of wages in the mechanical rubber goods and tire and tube branches of the rubber-manufacturing industry undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the National War Labor Board. The survey was designed to provide primary data for use by the Board in its consideration of wage dispute cases in these industry divisions.

385 workers. The great range in size of plant provides some indication of the flexibility of production organization in the mechanical rubber goods division. It is technically and economically feasible to operate a small plant producing one or a few items. Large and diversified plants, producing hundreds of different mechanical rubber goods articles, are also found in the industry.

The question of concentration of control over output in this branch of the industry is of some interest. In the tire and tube division, four major companies control the bulk of the output. The influence of these four companies—Firestone Tire & Rubber Co., B. F. Goodrich Co., Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co., and the United States Rubber Co.—is also felt significantly in the mechanical rubber goods branch. The influence of the "big four" companies, however, is not so great in this branch as in the tire and tube division. Of the 52 establishments included in the Bureau's sample of plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods,[2] only four were operated by the major rubber companies. These 4 plants, however, employed more than one-third (37.4 percent) of the workers in all 52 establishments.

The full importance of the "big four" in the mechanical-goods field is not adequately expressed by the proportion of workers employed by these companies in plants devoted primarily to the manufacture of mechanical goods, since mechanical-goods production is carried on within some of the tire and tube plants operated by the major rubber companies. This is notably true in the case of the B. F. Goodrich Co. The major mechanical-goods operations of this company are still conducted in its works at Akron, Ohio. The mechanical-goods output of the other major Akron companies—Firestone and Goodyear—is found to a considerable extent in specialized plants, although a relatively large amount of mechanical-goods production at Goodyear is carried on at its main Akron establishment.

LOCATION OF THE INDUSTRY

The marked geographical concentration that characterizes the tire and tube division of the rubber-manufacturing industry is not found in the location of mechanical-goods plants. Most of the products manufactured in these latter plants are not standardized and seldom bear trade names; in general, they are not consumer goods and do not, like tires and tubes, move in a Nation-wide market. The location of mechanical-goods plants has undoubtedly been influenced to a large extent by the location of the industries that represent the primary market for mechanical rubber products.

In terms of employment, the eastern region of the industry is predominant. About 64 percent of the workers employed by plants primarily devoted to mechanical-goods production are found in New England and the Middle Atlantic States, principally in Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Although only 23 percent of the employment in mechanical-goods plants is found in the Middle West, the manufacture of these products by tire and tube plants in this region may possibly place the Midwest in a predominant position in terms of actual production. The far West,

[2] It should be noted that the sample is composed of plants normally engaged primarily in the production of mechanical rubber goods. At the time of the survey, mechanical goods accounted for less than half of the value of output in a few plants.

with the exception of the one large plant that dominates the region, is of minor importance in the industry. The number of mechanical rubber goods plants in the South is very small; no southern plants were covered in the present survey.

UNIONIZATION

At the time of the survey, primary mechanical-goods plants employing approximately 78 percent of the wage earners reported the existence of union agreements. The United Rubber Workers of America, affiliated with the C. I. O., exercised collective-bargaining rights in 27 plants in which 55 percent of the total number of workers were employed. Six plants employing almost 19 percent of the workers reported agreements with federal labor unions affiliated with the A. F. of L. The principal source of A. F. of L. representation was in the East. Two eastern plants reported agreements with unaffiliated unions. No union agreements were in effect at the time of the survey in 17 plants employing 23 percent of the workers. Typically, union agreements in this industry cover all factory workers.

CHARACTER OF THE LABOR FORCE

As in the tire and tube division of the industry, the labor force of mechanical-goods plants is composed predominantly of male workers. The proportion of women in the labor force is somewhat greater, however, in mechanical-goods establishments. In the sample of 52 plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods, 31 percent of the labor force consisted of female workers. More than 6,000 women were employed in these plants, principally as trimmers, finishers, assemblers, packers, and inspectors. The proportion of women in the labor force varied from 21 percent in the far West to 34 percent in the East. The relatively high ratio in the East may be attributed, at least in part, to the manufacture of a greater proportion of special rubber war products in eastern plants.

The predominance of male workers in the mechanical-goods division of the rubber industry, as well as in the tire and tube branch, results largely from the nature of the productive processes. Although only a few of the direct production jobs are highly skilled, in the sense of requiring prolonged training, many tasks demand moderate skill and, in some cases, considerable physical stamina. Practically no women are found in rubber preparation departments, and the women employed in processing are engaged, for the most part, on light and repetitive tasks. Finishing and inspecting offer considerable scope for the employment of women. Maintenance and general plant labor, of course, is largely male.

Negro workers constituted less than 2 percent of the labor force. Most of them were employed in the East, principally as janitors and laborers and, to a minor extent, as millmen.

EFFECT OF THE WAR

In view of the nature of the majority of products of this industry division, the demands of war did not compel widespread conversion or drastic alteration of manufacturing practices. The pressure of

wartime requirements and restrictions on the use of rubber, however, have undoubtedly affected the type and volume of production and, to some extent, labor requirements in the industry.

It is probable that the staple commodities of mechanical-goods production (hose, belting, gaskets, and a number of other products) have been altered somewhat to meet specifications for use in tanks, airplanes, and other war machines. The war has required expansion in the production of specified items such as fire hose. Although data are not available for precise measurement, such changes probably have had effects on the size and composition of the labor force.

Additional labor-force changes have been occasioned by the manufacture in mechanical-goods plants of special rubber war goods not normally produced in the industry. It is pointed out elsewhere that 3 of the 52 plants covered in this study were engaged in the fabrication of such products as barrage ballons, rubber boats, and self-sealing fuel tanks at the time of the wage survey. Two additional plants were producing gas masks. These products accounted for at least 75 percent of the value of August 1942 output in 3 of the 5 plants.[3] These five plants employed more than 6,000 workers, or more than one-fourth of all of the workers in the 52 plants covered. The nature of operations and the labor-force requirements in the fabrication of special war products have been discussed in some detail in the article on wages in the tire and tube division of the industry.

Scope and Method of Survey

The present survey of earnings in the manufacture of mechanical rubber goods represents the first detailed study of wages by occupation ever made by the Bureau in this industry division. In 1940, however, the Bureau conducted a mail questionnaire survey of hours and earnings in the entire rubber industry.[4] Data were not obtained in that survey on occupational wages, but the study did yield valuable information on the distribution of workers by hourly earnings in the various divisions of the industry.

The data for the present survey were collected by trained field representatives of the Bureau from pay-roll and other plant records. In most instances, the pay-roll period covered was that ending nearest August 29, 1942. In a few plants, wage data were obtained for a representative week shortly before or shortly after this period.

The data obtained in the course of the survey include occupational average hourly earnings exclusive of premium payments for overtime hours and shift-differential payments. Information was obtained on method of wage payment for each occupation and on the sex of the workers. Data were also secured for each plant on the character of production, general wage changes since July 1940, plant minimum-wage policy, shift operation, unionization, and aggregate employment, man-hours, and earnings for selected periods from August 1939 to August 1942.

[3] The relative importance in terms of employment of special war product output in mechanical-goods plants approaches the relative importance of such output in tire and tube plants. In absolute terms, of course, the employment on war-products fabrication in the latter plants greatly exceeds employment in the former.

[4] Monthly Labor Review, June 1941 (p. 1490): Earnings in the Manufacture of Rubber Products, May 1940.

The survey was not intended to cover all plants engaged primarily in the manufacture of mechanical rubber goods. The study does cover a balanced sample of approximately half of the industry. The sample was selected to reflect as accurately as possible wages in plants of varying size, location, and product. The sample was chosen from the plant list derived from the Bureau's 1940 questionnaire survey, corrected and brought up to date on the basis of the records of the Rubber Division of the War Production Board. In addition to data on this representative sample of plants primarily engaged in the production of mechanical goods, occupational wage data were also obtained for the mechanical-goods departments of 8 tire and tube plants.[5] In these plants, preparatory, general, and maintenance workers were prorated to mechanical-goods production on the basis of the relative value or volume of such production or upon the allocation of cost. The scope of the study is indicated in table 1, which shows, by region, the number of primary mechanical-goods plants included in the survey, together with the total employment in those plants.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Primary Mechanical-Goods Plants and Total Number of Workers Covered by Survey, by Region, August 1942* [1]

Region	Number of plants	Number of workers	Percent of plants	Percent of workers
United States	52	20,040	100	100
East [2]	22	12,819	42	64
Midwest [3]	23	4,657	45	23
Far West [4]	7	2,564	13	13

[1] In addition to the plants shown in the table, the mechanical-goods departments of 8 tire and tube plants were also covered. The occupational data from these mechanical-goods departments are included in table 3, and in the summary of the occupational data in table 2.

[2] 1 plant in Connecticut, 5 in Massachusetts, 1 in Delaware, 7 in New Jersey, 2 in New York, 6 in Pennsylvania.

[3] 11 plants in Ohio, 5 in Illinois, 4 in Indiana, 3 in Michigan.

[4] 6 plants in California, 1 in Colorado.

Of the 52 plants primarily producing mechanical goods, 22 are in the East, 23 in the Midwest, and 7 in the far West. Of the 20,040 workers employed in these plants, 64 percent were found in the eastern division, 23 percent in the Midwest, and 13 percent in the far West. The 8 tire and tube plants, the mechanical-goods departments of which were covered in the survey, are all situated in the Midwest; it is estimated that these plants employed more than 6,000 workers in the production of mechanical rubber goods. Since total employment in the sample of primary mechanical-goods plants represents approximately one-half of the industry, it is apparent that only a minor proportion of all workers engaged in mechanical-goods production were employed in the 8 tire and tube plants.

The selection of occupations for coverage was based primarily on two criteria: (1) The importance of an occupation in terms of number of workers employed, and (2) the strategic importance of a job in the occupational structure. Mechanical-goods plants are homogeneous as to product only to a limited extent. Most preparatory occupations, of course, are common to all plants, and most of the general and maintenance occupations likewise are found in all establishments.

[5] These 8 plants account for almost all of the mechanical-goods production found in tire and tube plants.

This statement should be qualified at least to the extent that differences in plant size affect occupational patterns even in rubber preparation and plant maintenance. Many direct processing occupations are not found in all plants, or even in a majority of plants.

In order to make the occupational data comparable from plant to plant, operations relating to the manufacture of metal products, rubber products [6] other than mechanical goods, miscellaneous specialty goods, rubber reclaiming, and the construction of new plant equipment were not covered by the survey. In substance, the occupational data presented in this report relate to rubber preparatory operations, mechanical-goods processing, and general and plant maintenance occupations. Information was secured on wages in the production of specified rubber war products, including self-sealing fuel tanks, rubber boats, and pontoons. It was hoped that wage data could be shown for workers engaged in the fabrication of these products in mechanical-goods plants, just as data were shown for such workers in tire and tube plants. Significant wage data for these workers could not be shown, however, since fabrication of special rubber war products was found in too few plants [7] to warrant the computation of averages.

One problem arose in connection with the combining of occupational wage data for workers in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants with data for workers in plants primarily engaged in the production of mechanical goods. The latter data represent approximately a 50-percent sample of the mechanical-goods division (defined as composed of plants primarily engaged in mechanical rubber goods production); the data for the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants, on the other hand, represent virtually complete coverage for the occupations shown. Consequently, in combining these data to show average hourly earnings by occupation for the industry as a whole (as in table 3), employment in each occupation in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants was reduced by half to give these departments their proper weight in the total industry.

Methods of Wage Payment

USE OF INCENTIVE-WAGE SYSTEMS

The use of incentive methods of wage payment in primary mechanical-goods plants is not so extensive as in tire and tube establishments. Even in the mechanical-goods division, however, incentive-wage plans are widely employed. The use of incentives was reported in 35 of the 52 plants covered by the survey. Straight piece-rate systems predominated.

In plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods, approximately 47 percent of the workers for whom occupational data were obtained were paid on an incentive basis. The ratio of incentive workers to hourly or day rate workers varied greatly by department. Sixty-seven percent of all rubber preparatory workers, 59 percent of the processing workers, and 16 percent of the general, service, and maintenance workers were paid on an incentive basis. In the tire and tube division, by way of contrast, about 95 percent of

[6] Such as heels and soles, drug sundries, boots and shoes, sponge-rubber products, and household goods.
[7] Data for workers other than those engaged in special war-product fabrication in these plants are shown in this report.

the preparatory workers, 88 percent of the tire and tube processing workers, and about one-third of the general, service, and maintenance workers received incentive earnings.

OVERTIME-PAYMENT PRACTICES

All of the 52 mechanical-goods plants included in the survey reported the payment of time and a half for hours worked above 40 per week, but only 38 of the plants paid time and a half for hours in excess of 8 per day. Double time was reported as paid for work on Sunday and holidays in 12 plants. Nine plants reported the payment of time and a half for Saturday work, but it is not known whether this extra rate is paid if Saturday falls within the normal 40-hour workweek.

SHIFT PRACTICES AND SHIFT DIFFERENTIALS

At the time of the survey, only 14 of the 52 mechanical-goods plants were operating on a single-shift basis, but 28 plants were operating three shifts, and 10 plants reported two-shift operation. In many multiple-shift plants, full operating crews were not employed on the extra shifts. In the 52 plants as a whole, approximately two-thirds of the workers were employed on the first daylight shift. The proportion of the labor force working on extra shifts was highest in the Midwest.

Shift-premium payments were not common in the industry in August 1942. Eleven plants reported the payment of night-shift differentials ranging from 2 to 10 cents an hour, but the number of workers receiving this extra pay constituted only 13 percent of those employed on second and third shifts in the plants surveyed.

Occupational Earnings and Regional Wage Levels, August 1942

The basic information derived from the survey consisted of average hourly earnings, exclusive of premium overtime pay and night-shift premiums, for a comprehensive group of occupations in mechanical rubber goods plants and in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube establishments. Occupational wage data are shown for more than two-thirds of the workers in the sample of 52 plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods,[8] as well as for workers in mechanical-goods processing occupations in tire and tube plants and for the estimated proportion of preparatory and maintenance workers in such establishments allocable to mechanical-goods production.

Every effort was made to classify the occupations in the plants covered on the basis of duties performed and not merely on the basis of job titles. Field representatives of the Bureau were provided with an occupational glossary, for general guidance in the reporting of occupational data. Variations in plant size, production methods, and many other factors may make for small variations from plant to plant in the specific duties and responsibilities attaching to many occupations without seriously affecting their basic comparability.

[8] Some of the workers for whom occupational wage data are not shown are engaged in the production of special rubber war products. Some mechanical-goods occupations were found in too few plants to warrant the presentation of average earnings data. Finally, some workers were engaged in forms of production falling outside the scope of the survey.

EARNINGS BY OCCUPATION

A summary of the data secured on occupational wages in the mechanical-goods division of the rubber-manufacturing industry is shown in table 2. Attention is called to the arrangement of this table which is similar to the arrangement of the detailed occupational table that follows. In the first column, the average earnings of workers by major plant division and sex are shown for the industry as a whole—that is, for workers in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods as well as those employed in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants. The figures are representative of earnings in the total industry. The second column shows data for the industry exclusive of the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants. The wage data in this column relate solely to workers in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods, and the next three columns show data for these workers by region. In the final column, data for workers in mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants are shown.

As table 2 indicates, the straight-time average hourly earnings of all of the workers covered by the occupational data amounted to 84.0 cents in August 1942. In view of the comprehensive nature of the occupational coverage, this figure may be taken with confidence to reflect the general level of straight-time hourly earnings in the industry. The level of earnings of all workers employed in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods was 78.8 cents. The difference between 84.0 cents and 78.8 cents measures the influence of the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants on the general level of earnings in this industry division. Actually, as the general figures in table 2 reveal, the level of hourly earnings in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants was about 31 cents above the level in plants primarily producing mechanical goods. As previously stated, only a small fraction of the employment in the industry division is found in tire and tube plants.

TABLE 2.—*Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *in the Mechanical Rubber Goods Industry, by Plant Division, Sex, and Region, August 1942*

Division and sex	Average hourly earnings in—					
	United States	Plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods				Mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants
		United States	East	Mid-west	Far West	
All workers	$0.840	$0.788	$0.813	$0.748	$0.744	$1.099
Male	.904	.847	.872	.813	.793	1.209
Female	.638	.591	.611	.567	.543	.830
Rubber preparation (male)	.970	.911	.936	.877	.843	1.278
Mechanical-goods processing	.829	.779	.814	.735	.724	1.076
Male	.925	.868	.911	.822	.791	1.241
Female	.641	.595	.619	.568	.541	.828
General, service, and maintenance	.826	.771	.778	.745	.767	1.101
Male	.850	.793	.803	.761	.781	1.137
Female	.604	.565	.569	.542	.562	.791

[1] The average hourly earnings shown in this table are exclusive of premium overtime pay and shift-differential premiums.

The large difference between the level of earnings in the mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants and in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods deserves brief comment. Most of the mechanical-goods production in tire and tube plants is found in the Akron area. As the Bureau's study of wages in the tire and tube division of the industry clearly reveals, wages in the Akron area (including Detroit) are substantially above wages in tire and tube plants in other regions. If important mechanical-goods output were found in tire and tube plants outside of the Akron area, the spread between wages in such plants and wages in primary mechanical-goods plants undoubtedly would be smaller than the difference shown in this article. An appreciable spread unquestionably would remain, however, because of the general tendency for wages, regardless of region, to be higher in tire and tube plants than in primary mechanical-goods plants.

The wage levels for workers in tire and tube production inevitably influence largely the wages of workers in the same plants engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods. It is very difficult to segregate some categories of workers engaged in the two types of production in the same plant. The wages paid to preparatory, general, and maintenance workers engaged in tire and tube production have come to determine, at least in a substantial measure, the wages of similar workers in the same plants who are engaged in mechanical-goods production. In most cases, physical separation of these workers is not practiced. The influence of tire and tube wages is felt also in the mechanical-goods-processing departments, which generally are physically separate. It may be pointed out that the higher level of wages in mechanical-goods-processing departments in tire and tube plants is not a reflection, except to a minor extent, of differences in occupational structure as between mechanical-goods operations in tire and tube plants and in primary mechanical-goods plants. The wage differences are real. This helps greatly to explain the historical tendency for tire companies to dissociate tire and tube and mechanical-goods production.

Table 2 shows that there is a sharp difference in the level of earnings of men and women. Thus, male workers in the total industry averaged 90.4 cents an hour, as compared with an average of 63.8 cents for female employees. In plants primarily engaged in making mechanical goods, men averaged 84.7 cents an hour and women 59.1 cents. These figures, together with other average earnings data in table 2, provide a broad picture of wages in mechanical rubber goods manufacture. A detailed picture is shown in table 3.

Table 3 shows straight-time average hourly earnings for individual occupations by region and sex of workers in three broad plant divisions—rubber preparation, mechanical-goods processing, and general, service, and maintenance. The total number of workers in each division is taken as 100 percent, and the number of workers in each occupation is expressed as a percentage of this total. Thus, the relative importance of various kinds of workers in the occupational structure of a given plant division is indicated.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in the Mechanical Rubber Goods Industry, by Division, Occupation, Sex, and Region, August 1942*

Division, occupation, and sex	United States		Plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods								Mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants	
			United States		East		Midwest		Far West			
	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings
Preparatory												
All workers (male)	100.0	$0.970	100.0	$0.912	100.0	$0.936	100.0	$0.877	100.0	$0.843	100.0	$1.278
Banbury mixers	6.3	.958	7.1	.940	5.9	.993	6.7	.906	14.8	.849	2.3	1.256
Calender operators	13.6	1.093	14.1	1.037	15.1	1.074	11.0	.909	15.6	1.025	11.0	1.475
Helpers	14.9	.955	14.1	.870	16.2	.880	9.5	.883	12.5	.778	19.3	1.285
Millmen, miscellaneous	10.4	.865	10.3	.797	12.0	.808	5.3	.738	10.9	.789	11.0	1.204
Millmen, mixing	17.1	.961	16.1	.885	11.9	.925	26.9	.864	17.3	.794	22.4	1.252
Millmen, sheeting	3.0	1.013	3.1	.975	2.8	.971	4.6	.990	1.6	(2)	2.8	1.240
Millmen, warm-up	22.3	.984	22.4	.938	24.0	.952	20.5	.931	16.4	.837	21.5	1.238
Rubber compounders	10.9	.927	11.2	.870	10.4	.917	13.4	.807	10.9	.781	9.2	1.297
Rubber cutters	1.5	.867	1.6	.852	1.7	.874	2.1	.805	------	------	.5	(2)
Processing												
All workers	100.0	.829	100.0	.779	100.0	.814	100.0	.735	100.0	.724	100.0	1.076
Male workers	66.1	.925	67.3	.868	66.8	.911	65.6	.822	73.2	.791	60.0	1.241
Assemblers:												
Classes A and B	2.7	1.027	2.4	.922	2.8	.969	2.7	.831	------	------	4.4	1.304
Class C	.6	.802	.7	.777	------	------	2.0	.765	.5	.870	.5	.979
Belt builders, large	1.8	1.061	1.7	.959	2.6	.973	.4	(2)	.4	(2)	2.2	1.433
Belt-mold assemblers	.5	1.192	.1	.693	(3)	------	.1	(2)	------	------	2.5	1.250
Bias cutters	.3	1.067	.2	.953	.2	1.010	------	------	1.0	(2)	.7	1.267
Braider and loom operators	2.7	.819	2.9	.770	3.3	.822	1.0	.692	5.2	.658	1.8	1.196
Buffers	.8	.846	.8	.763	.9	.828	.6	.688	.9	(2)	.7	1.309
Cutting-machine operators	2.5	.868	2.7	.841	2.6	.815	3.7	.900	1.1	.645	1.2	1.186
Fabric cutters	.5	.751	.5	.751	.7	.759	.4	.691	.4	.850	------	------
Foremen, working:												
Class A	1.1	1.096	1.2	1.070	1.1	1.082	.8	1.215	2.4	.939	.7	1.295
Class B	3.5	.915	4.0	.901	4.1	.913	3.1	.916	6.0	(2)	.9	1.231
Helpers, machine operators'	4.1	.826	4.2	.782	6.3	.799	1.3	.678	1.8	.697	3.6	1.087
Hose couplers	.8	.906	.7	.799	.9	.766	.7	(2)	.1	(2)	1.2	1.250
Hose makers	5.9	.972	6.1	.926	7.5	.983	1.6	.839	10.2	.774	4.6	1.274
Hose strippers	2.1	.903	2.2	.875	3.6	.888	.2	(2)	1.1	(2)	1.3	(2)
Hose wrappers	.9	.959	.7	.807	.5	.826	.2	.710	2.4	.805	1.8	1.244
Inspectors and testers:												
Class A	1.0	1.159	.4	1.057	.7	1.039	.2	1.180	------	------	3.7	1.217
Class B	1.7	.886	2.1	.886	2.6	.913	.9	.835	2.5	.809	------	------
Class C	.9	.741	1.1	.741	1.5	.759	.7	.672	------	------	------	------
Learners, miscellaneous	.9	.660	.9	.634	.2	(2)	.9	.636	4.2	.634	.9	.789
Liners, tank, pipe, and valve	.3	1.222	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	1.8	1.222
Pressmen	14.7	.966	15.8	.925	13.9	.998	23.5	.846	6.8	.893	9.7	1.296
Pressmen, learners	1.1	.590	1.3	.586	.8	.550	2.4	.607	.8	(2)	.2	.742
Slitting-machine operators	.6	.915	.7	.855	.9	.814	.2	(2)	.4	.686	.5	1.295
Soapstoners	.4	.927	.5	.913	.6	.905	.2	(2)	.2	(2)	.1	1.191
Stock preparers, press	.8	.723	.9	.724	.3	(2)	.8	.658	3.7	.675	.1	(2)
Trimmers and finishers	3.7	.867	3.5	.781	1.1	.886	7.6	.778	4.6	.687	4.7	1.180
Tube cutters	1.0	.894	1.0	.804	.3	.845	2.3	.801	.7	.745	.9	1.364
Tube-machine operators	3.6	.957	3.8	.899	3.7	.910	4.6	.881	2.4	.900	2.8	1.342
V-belt builders	.9	1.022	.7	.918	(3)	------	.5	.952	4.2	.916	1.8	1.227
Vulcanizers, miscellaneous	3.1	.960	3.1	.892	2.5	.955	2.0	.752	8.2	.886	3.0	1.308
Wrapper rollers	.6	.904	.4	.735	.6	.764	------	------	1.0	.663	1.7	1.125

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *in the Mechanical Rubber Goods Industry, by Division, Occupation, Sex, and Region, August 1942*—Continued

Division, occupation, and sex	United States		Plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods								Mechanical-goods departments of tire and tube plants	
			United States		East		Midwest		Far West			
	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings	Percent of workers	Average hourly earnings
Processing—Continued												
Female workers	33.9	$0.641	32.7	$0.595	33.2	$0.619	34.4	$0.568	26.8	$0.541	40.0	$0.828
Assemblers, class C	2.2	.777	.7	.577	------	------	2.2	.576	------	------	9.6	.845
Belt coverers	.6	.740	.2	.607	.3	(2)	.1	(2)	------	------	2.7	.791
Braider and loom operators	3.7	.698	3.7	.653	4.9	.679	.9	(2)	4.9	.605	3.9	.914
Buffers	1.4	.688	1.2	.609	1.4	.595	1.2	.655	.4	(2)	2.5	(2)
Creel tenders	.3	.739	.2	.595	.3	.636	.2	(2)	------	------	.9	.931
Cutting-machine operators	1.0	.573	1.1	.556	1.5	.538	.4	.612	.8	(2)	.5	.767
Forewomen, working, class B	.6	.646	.7	.646	1.1	.647	(3)	------	.1	(2)	------	------
Helpers, machine operators'	.5	.713	.5	.680	.6	.711	.3	(2)	------	------	.5	.857
Inspectors and testers	8.4	.619	8.3	.576	9.3	.592	6.5	.557	7.9	.528	8.9	.816
Learners, miscellaneous	2.8	.490	2.9	.470	1.9	.508	4.2	.436	4.0	.471	2.5	.602
Sewing-machine operators	.8	.604	.9	.596	.4	.646	2.3	(2)	------	------	.1	(2)
Trimmers and finishers	11.5	.640	12.2	.615	11.4	.638	16.1	.603	8.4	.536	7.7	.837
Wrapper rollers	.1	.628	.1	.581	.1	(2)	------	------	.3	(2)	.2	.711
General, service, and maintenance												
All workers	100.0	.826	100.0	.771	100.0	.778	100.0	.745	100.0	.767	100.0	1.101
Male workers	90.2	.850	90.3	.793	89.2	.803	92.7	.761	93.7	.781	89.7	1.137
Carpenters:												
Class A	1.0	1.072	.9	1.028	.9	1.035	.9	.982	1.4	1.042	1.5	1.220
Class B	1.2	.896	1.3	.896	1.2	.937	.7	.785	3.3	.836	.1	(2)
Cement mixers	.8	.866	.9	.843	1.1	.811	.6	(2)	.2	(2)	.4	1.141
Cleaners, equipment	1.4	.741	1.3	.638	1.2	.665	.3	(2)	3.5	(2)	2.2	1.050
Electricians:												
Class A	1.7	1.152	1.3	1.118	1.4	1.138	1.1	1.033	1.6	1.110	3.3	1.224
Class B	.3	.841	.4	.841	.3	.833	.4	(2)	.9	(2)	------	------
Elevator operators	2.3	.781	1.5	.684	1.7	.679	.7	(2)	1.4	(2)	6.6	.897
Factory clerks	13.1	.848	12.6	.763	12.2	.776	10.1	.699	19.0	.763	15.9	1.199
Firemen	2.8	.863	3.1	.834	2.6	.842	5.7	.800	2.1	.913	1.2	1.218
Helpers, journeymen's	3.0	.757	3.4	.737	3.9	.744	1.1	(2)	3.5	.728	1.2	1.045
Janitors	6.8	.706	7.0	.675	6.8	.694	6.7	.627	8.6	.633	5.4	.915
Laborers	14.5	.749	16.8	.741	18.3	.762	10.4	.683	16.0	.635	2.8	1.013
Learners, miscellaneous	.7	.684	.6	.622	.5	.615	1.4	.628	.2	(2)	1.3	.841
Loaders and unloaders, racks and conveyors	1.3	.831	1.3	.746	.7	.840	4.0	(2)	.9	(2)	1.3	1.284
Millwrights:												
Class A	1.4	.990	1.6	.982	1.3	.975	2.7	.984	1.6	1.017	.3	(2)
Class B	1.1	.860	1.2	.858	1.3	.875	1.6	.820	.2	(2)	.1	.940
Packers and craters	5.6	.907	4.9	.811	6.0	.831	3.0	.698	1.4	.645	9.0	1.180
Pipefitters	2.7	1.060	2.4	1.006	2.5	1.031	2.4	.880	1.9	1.066	4.1	1.224
Repairmen, machine	8.4	1.001	8.1	.940	6.2	.962	12.0	.849	12.9	1.010	11.0	1.232
Tool and die makers	2.0	1.042	2.4	1.042	2.0	1.119	5.1	.920	.9	1.050	------	------
Truck drivers	1.2	.803	1.3	.783	.9	.823	1.9	.770	3.3	.727	.4	(2)
Truckers, hand	8.5	.836	7.8	.750	8.8	.747	8.5	.763	.2	(2)	12.3	1.124
Truckers, power	2.5	1.034	1.5	.818	1.5	.819	1.9	.822	1.2	.808	7.8	1.250
Watchmen	5.9	.708	6.7	.699	5.9	.691	9.5	.683	7.5	.769	1.5	.927
Female workers	9.8	.604	9.7	.565	10.8	.569	7.3	.542	6.3	.562	10.3	.791
Factory clerks	2.8	.626	2.4	.552	1.9	.593	2.3	.420	5.8	.549	5.0	.807
Janitors	1.2	.563	1.2	.537	1.2	.508	2.0	.607	------	------	.9	.744
Packers	5.8	.601	6.1	.576	7.7	.573	3.0	.591	.5	(2)	4.4	.783

[1] The average hourly earnings shown in this table are exclusive of premium overtime pay and shift-differential premiums.
[2] Number of plants insufficient to justify the computation of an average.
[3] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Wages are relatively high in rubber preparatory occupations. These are all male occupations. A very large proportion of the workers, as pointed out earlier, are paid on an incentive basis. Average hourly earnings in August 1942 in the entire industry division ranged from 86.5 cents for miscellaneous millmen to about $1.09 for calender operators. Average earnings in the same occupations in plants primarily engaged in mechanical-goods manufacture ranged from almost 80 cents to approximately $1.04. In addition to calender operators, only sheeting millmen averaged more than $1.00 an hour in the total industry; these latter workers in primary mechanical-goods plants averaged 97.5 cents.

For the mechanical-goods industry as a whole, processing workers averaged 82.9 cents an hour in August 1942, the average for men being 92.5 cents as compared with 64.1 cents for women. The corresponding averages in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods were 77.9 for all workers, 86.8 cents for men and 59.5 cents for women.

Earnings for experienced male processing workers in the total industry ranged from 72.3 cents for stock preparers to $1.22 for pipe, valve, and tank liners. The most numerous group of male workers, pressmen, averaged 96.6 cents an hour; average earnings in 19 occupations, employing approximately 66 percent of the male processing workers, were 90 cents or more an hour; in only 3 occupations, with 3.4 percent of the male workers, were average earnings less than 80 cents an hour. In plants primarily manufacturing mechanical goods, pressmen averaged 92.5 cents. Average hourly earnings of 90 cents or more were found in 10 occupations containing almost 50 percent of the male processing workers. In 11 occupations, hourly earnings for experienced workers averaged less than 80 cents; 23 percent of the male processing workers were included within these occupations.

The hourly earnings of experienced female processing workers in the industry as a whole ranged from 57.3 cents for cutting-machine operators to 77.7 cents for class C assemblers. Trimmers and finishers, the most numerous group of female employees, averaged 64 cents. These workers averaged 61.5 cents in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods. The average hourly earnings in the primary mechanical-goods plants in all female occupations, exclusive of the learner category, fell within the range of 55.6 cents to 68.0 cents.

In the industry as a whole, workers classified in the general, service, and maintenance categories averaged 82.6 cents, the average for men being 85.0 cents as compared with 60.4 cents for women. The average for all workers in this group in primary mechanical-goods plants was 77.1 cents an hour, the averages for men and women being 79.3 cents and 56.5 cents, respectively.

Among experienced male workers, skilled maintenance men (class A carpenters, electricians, millwrights, pipefitters, machine repairmen) earned approximately $1.00 an hour or more in the total industry; in primary mechanical-goods plants, average earnings in these occupations ranged from 94 cents for machine repairmen to almost $1.12 cents for first-class electricians. Tool and die makers received average earnings of more than $1.00 an hour in primary mechanical-goods plants. Common laborers and factory clerks,

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numerically the most important occupational groups in the general and maintenance category, averaged 74.9 cents and 84.8 cents, respectively, in the total industry; the corresponding averages in primary mechanical-goods plants were 74.1 cents and 76.3 cents.

The most important occupational group among experienced female employees was composed of packers. These workers averaged 60.1 cents in the total industry and 57.6 cents in primary mechanical-goods plants. The earnings of female factory clerks were very similar to those of inspectors and testers.

REGIONAL WAGE LEVELS IN PRIMARY MECHANICAL-GOODS PLANTS

It is possible to give a measure of general regional variations in earnings that is perhaps somewhat more precise than the measures derived from table 2. The regional averages shown in table 2 are affected to some extent, for example, by differences among regions in the composition of the mechanical-goods labor force and in occupational structures. The following procedure was devised to eliminate the influence of this factor. A group of very clear-cut occupations, represented in each of the three regions in which the primary mechanical-goods plants are situated, was selected.[9] The average wage in each occupation in each of the three regions was weighted by the number of workers in that occupation in the industry. In this way, general averages were computed for each of the three regions. It was assumed, in other words, that each region had the same occupational structure as the industry as a whole. The averages themselves are unimportant. It is the relationship of the regional averages that may have significance. The general level of wages in the Midwest in August 1942, on the basis of these computations, was about 89 percent of the eastern level; the level in the far West was about 90 percent of the eastern level.

The above procedure yields results that are roughly similar to the wage relationships among regions indicated by the data in table 2. That is, in plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical goods, the general level of earnings does not differ materially in the Midwest and the far West. Wages in both of these regions are somewhat below average wages in the East. The indication is that the level of earnings in the eastern plants is in the neighborhood of 10 percent greater than the level in the middle western and far western plants.

Trend of Employment, Hours, and Earnings, 1939 to 1942

For the sample of plants primarily engaged in the manufacture of mechanical rubber goods, data were secured on total employment, man-hours, and pay rolls for representative pay-roll periods in 6 selected months from 1939 to 1942. These data were not available for 11 of the 52 plants covered by the survey for the August 1939 period, and from one to three plants in four of the other periods.

Table 4 shows number of plants, employment, average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings, including overtime premium pay and night-shift premiums, for these six periods

[9] These occupations contained almost 42 percent of the workers for whom occupational data are shown in table 3.

for the industry division as a whole and separately for the industry in three regions. Estimates of average hourly earnings exclusive of overtime premium pay likewise are set forth in this table. Although it was possible to estimate the effect of overtime premium pay on hourly earnings, data were not available for an estimate of the influence on hourly earnings of premium pay for night-shift work. The effect of night-shift premiums, however, appears to be small. Since some plants did not report for certain of the periods shown in table 4, chain indexes of employment were constructed to eliminate the influence of differences in the number of reporting plants. These indexes are shown separately in table 5.

The data in table 4, in conjunction with the employment indexes in table 5, provide a general picture of the trend in employment, hours, and earnings in the industry from 1939 to 1942. The use of aggregate earnings data for comparison over periods of time, or even for comparison of one region with another, may be affected by changes or differences in occupational patterns. The first of these factors—that is, changes in occupational pattern—has been of some importance, especially in the East, since 1939. On the basis of the occupational data in table 3 for August 1942, the pattern of occupations among regions appears to be reasonably comparable for mechanical-goods operations, but this table does not show the new occupations that have developed in the production of special war goods.

TABLE 4.—*Number of Workers and Average Hours and Earnings in Primary Mechanical-Goods Plants, by Region, August 1939–August 1942*

Region, month, and year	Number of plants reporting	Employment	Average weekly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings including overtime	Estimated average hourly earnings excluding overtime[1]
United States:						
August 1939	41	9,981	$25.87	40.1	$0.645	$0.627
July 1940	49	13,655	24.43	39.2	.623	.610
January 1941	50	18,150	24.16	38.5	.627	.616
July 1941	50	21,130	27.00	39.9	.676	.658
June 1942	51	19,113	34.13	42.3	.806	.769
August 1942	52	20,040	35.77	43.6	.820	.774
East:						
August 1939	18	5,855	26.34	39.8	.662	.645
July 1940	20	7,745	25.51	40.1	.636	.618
January 1941	21	10,281	25.38	39.1	.649	.635
July 1941	21	12,462	26.42	39.1	.676	.662
June 1942	22	12,439	34.88	43.2	.808	.764
August 1942	22	12,819	35.99	43.4	.828	.782
Midwest:						
August 1939	16	2,088	24.84	39.1	.635	.622
July 1940	22	3,664	22.27	37.8	.589	.580
January 1941	22	5,634	21.89	37.4	.585	.577
July 1941	22	5,964	26.26	40.2	.654	.635
June 1942	22	4,361	30.67	38.7	.793	.778
August 1942	23	4,657	34.51	42.8	.806	.766
Far West:						
August 1939	7	2,038	25.60	42.2	.607	.580
July 1940	7	2,246	24.23	38.2	.634	.623
January 1941	7	2,235	24.27	38.6	.629	.617
July 1941	7	2,704	31.34	43.4	.723	.683
June 1942	7	2,313	36.57	44.8	.816	.762
August 1942	7	2,564	36.94	46.0	.802	.743

[1] No correction has been made for the influence of shift-differential premium pay. The influence of premium pay for night work on wage levels is believed to be very small.

In the industry division as a whole, as table 5 shows, employment increased by about 56 percent between August 1939 and August 1942. Employment advanced very sharply from July 1940, shortly after the inauguration of the national defense program, to July 1941. The high level of employment in July 1941 reflects the intense economic activity growing out of the defense program at a time, moreover, when rubber supply was not a problem. Employment in August 1942 was approximately 6 percent below the July 1941 level, but this decline, as pointed out below, has been more than balanced by an increase in the length of the average workweek.

The percentage increase in employment between 1939 and 1942 was much greater in the East than in either the Midwest or far West. A very large gain in employment in a single eastern plant had considerable influence on the general level of employment in the eastern region.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment in Primary Mechanical Rubber Goods Plants, by Region, August 1939–August 1942*

[August 1939=100]

Month and year	United States	East	Midwest	Far West
August 1939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
July 1940	106.9	107.8	101.2	110.2
January 1941	141.9	142.7	155.4	109.7
July 1941	165.3	173.1	164.6	132.7
June 1942	148.8	171.4	120.3	113.5
August 1942	155.9	176.7	128.2	125.8

Average weekly hours per worker (table 4) amounted to 43.6 in August 1942, an increase of 9.5 percent as compared with August 1939, and to approximately the same percentage if the comparision is made with July 1941. In fact, employment measured in terms of man-hours was greater in August 1942 than in July 1941, despite some decline in the number of workers employed.

Average hourly earnings, including premium pay for overtime and shift-differential premiums, in the industry as a whole increased from 64.5 cents in August 1939 to 82 cents in August 1942, or by 27 percent. Average weekly earnings, which are affected not only by average earnings per hour but also by the number of hours worked per week, increased from $25.87 in August 1939 to $35.77 in August 1942, an advance of 38 percent. Estimated average hourly earnings exclusive of premium pay for overtime rose from 62.7 cents to 77.4 cents during this 3-year period.[10] An inspection of the table indicates that the greater part of the increase in earnings occurred after July 1941. This statement appears to be true not only for the industry as a whole but for the industry in each of the three regions shown separately.

[10] Straight-time average hourly earnings in primary mechanical-goods plants for all of the workers for whom occupational wage data are shown amounted to 78.8 cents in August 1942 (table 2). Estimated straight-time hourly earnings for August 1942 as shown for the total plant employment in table 4 amounted to 77.4 cents. This relatively small difference of 1.4 cents is probably due largely to the fact that not all of the occupations in these plants, notably those found in special war-goods production, were included in the occupational data. Moreover, the straight-time earnings in table 4 are estimated, and a portion of the difference may reflect this fact. It should be pointed out that the average earnings of all workers for whom occupational data are shown were 74.4 cents (table 2) in the far West; the estimated straight-time earnings of all workers in these plants were 74.3 cents (table 4), a difference of only 0.1 cent. The respective averages in the Midwest were 74.8 cents and 76.6 cents, a difference of 1.8 cents. The appreciable difference (3.1 cents) between the two averages in the East probably reflects the influence of the omitted special war-products occupations.

Earnings by Size of Plant and Unionization

Table 6 shows average hourly earnings, inclusive of premium overtime pay and night-shift premiums, for four groups of plants classified on the basis of size and for union and nonunion plants similarly classified. Average weekly hours for each plant group are also shown, so that allowance can be made for the influence on hourly earnings of premium pay for overtime worked.[11]

An inspection of table 6 suggests that there is no consistent relationship between plant size and the general level of earnings. It is obvious, for example, that if premium pay for overtime were eliminated, the level of earnings in plants employing from 251 to 500 workers would be lower than the level of earnings in plants employing fewer than 100 workers. The level of earnings in plants employing more than 500 workers is more influenced by hours worked than the level in plants employing 101 to 250 workers. If overtime premium payments were removed, it is probable that the level of earnings in the latter group of plants would exceed the level of earnings in the former group.

Table 6 does show, however, that a distinct difference exists in average hourly earnings between organized and unorganized plants in each of the size classes. The level of earnings in union plants as a whole is consistently above the level of earnings in nonunion plants as a whole in the same size groups. Since average weekly hours were also higher in the nonunion groups of plants, the exclusion of punitive overtime pay would undoubtedly increase the differences in hourly earnings shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *and Average Weekly Hours in Primary Mechanical Rubber Goods Plants, by Size of Plant and Unionization, August 1942*

Size of plant	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours
All plants	52	20,040	$0.820	43.6
100 workers and under	21	852	.748	40.8
101 to 250 workers	12	1,969	.823	41.2
251 to 500 workers	6	2,165	.750	45.2
501 workers and over	13	15,054	.830	43.8
Union plants	35	15,473	.839	43.1
100 workers and under	11	518	.775	39.2
101 to 250 workers	10	1,605	.839	41.1
251 to 500 workers	3	1,080	.816	43.3
501 workers and over	11	12,270	.844	43.5
Nonunion plants	17	4,567	.740	45.4
100 workers and under	10	334	.707	43.3
101 to 250 workers	2	364	.751	41.6
251 to 500 workers	3	1,085	.684	47.0
501 workers and over	2	2,784	.765	45.5

[1] Premium overtime pay and shift-differential premiums included.

[11] It is possible to estimate straight-time average hourly earnings for these groups of plants. Such estimates, however, might not be reliable because of the relatively small number of plants and workers in some of the plant groupings. For large groups of plants the importance of overtime premium pay can be estimated with reasonable accuracy.

UNION WAGES AND HOURS IN THE PRINTING TRADES, JUNE 1, 1942

Summary

THE average union rate per hour for all printing trades in the 75 cities covered in a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics was $1.255 on June 1, 1942. The average for the book and job trades was $1.176 and for the newspaper trades $1.408. Almost three-fifths of the union members in the printing trades had rates between $1.10 and $1.50 per hour—56.6 percent in the book and job trades and 62.7 percent in newspapers. Over 23 percent of the book and job workers had scales of less than $1.00 per hour in contrast to only 3 percent in the newspaper trades.

The index of union rates in the printing trades increased 4.3 percent during the period, June 1, 1941, to June 1, 1942, raising the index to 119.0 (1929=100). The book and job group raised its index 4.2 percent and the newspaper branch, 4.3 percent. Over 78 percent of the quoted scales provided for some raises, benefiting more than 80 percent of the members.

Union agreements in the printing trades provided an average maximum workweek of 38.8 hours. In the book and job trades the average was 39.4 hours; the 40-hour week was specified for 86.9 percent of the membership. The newspaper trades had an average of 37.4 hours; almost half of the workers operated on a 37½-hour basis. Very few changes in hour schedules were made during the year. The indexes for all trades combined declined by one-tenth of 1 percent to 87.4 (1929=100). The book and job index (89.4) showed no change, but the newspaper index was reduced by one-tenth of 1 percent to 84.2.

Overtime in the printing trades is practically always paid for at the rate of time and a half. Over 97 percent of the union members were covered by this provision.

Scope and Method of Study

Data on union scales of wages and hours in the printing trades have been collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics each year since 1907. The early studies were made in 39 cities and included 7 book and job occupations and 4 newspaper occupations. The study has been gradually extended to cover 75 cities and now includes 11

book and job occupations and 8 newspaper occupations. These cities are in 40 States and the District of Columbia.[1]

As far as possible the scales covered were those actually in effect on June 1. The collection of the data was made by agents of the Bureau who personally visited some responsible official of each local union included in the study. Each scale was verified by the union official interviewed, and was further checked by comparison with the written agreements, when copies were available. The 1942 survey included 2,629 quotations of scales, covering 66,242 union members in the book and job trades and 34,171 in the newspaper trades, a total of approximately 100,500 members.

Union scale.—A union scale is a scale of wages and hours agreed to by an employer (or group of employers) and a labor organization, for persons who are actually working or would be working if there were work to be done in that locality. The union scale usually fixes the minimum wages and maximum hours. More experienced and skilled workers may earn more than the union rate. This is especially true during periods of prosperity, when a plentiful supply of jobs creates competitive bidding for the better workmen.

Union rates and prevailing rates.—This report is concerned only with the contract scales for union members. No attempt was made to discover what proportions of all the workers in the different occupations were union members. As union strength varies from city to city and trade to trade, the prevailing scale for any one occupation in any one city may or may not coincide with the union scale. If practically all the workers in a particular trade belong to the local

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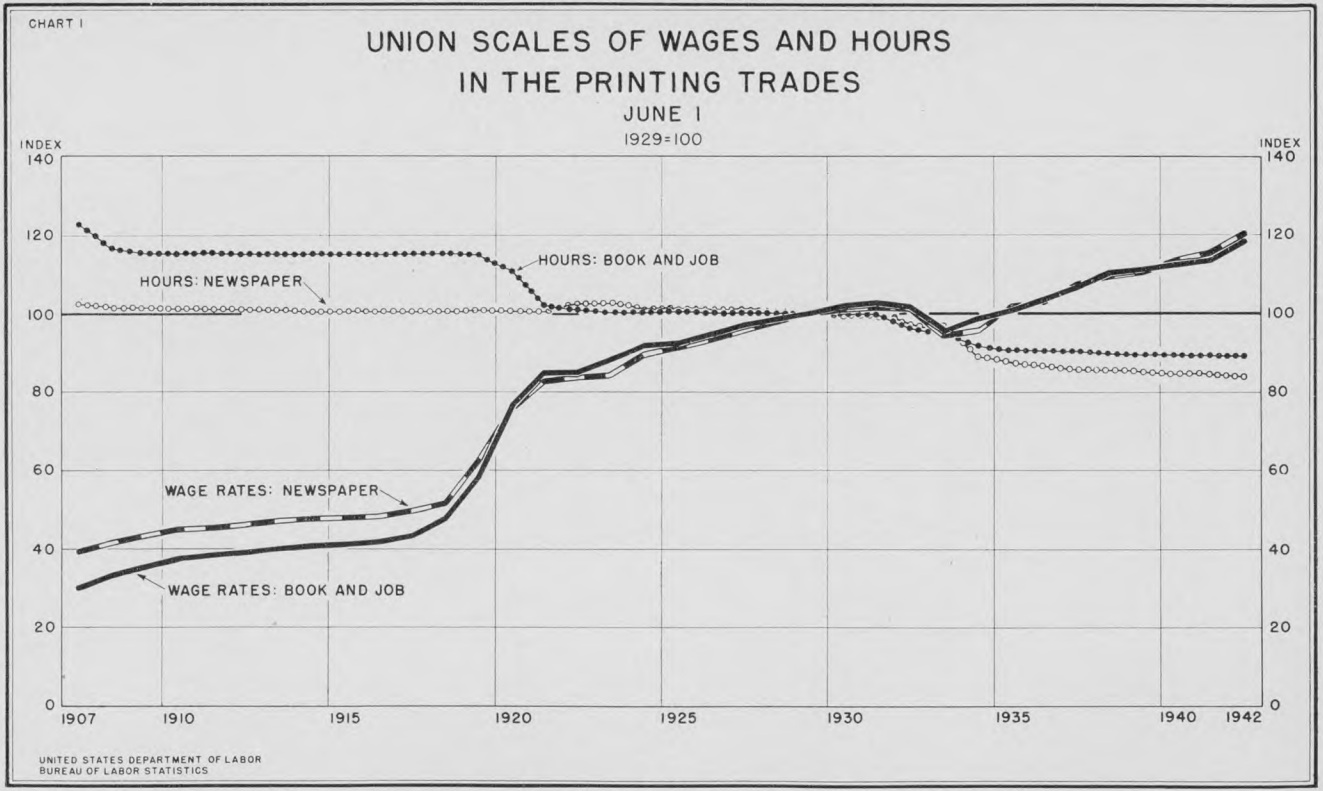
[1] The following are the cities covered. The numerals indicate the population group in which the city is included in tables 8 and 9.

North and Pacific

Baltimore, Md., II.
Binghamton, N. Y., V.
Boston, Mass., II.
Buffalo, N. Y., II.
Butte, Mont., V.
Charleston, W. Va., V.
Chicago, Ill., I.
Cincinnati, Ohio, III.
Cleveland, Ohio, II.
Columbus, Ohio, III.
Davenport, Iowa, included in Rock Island (Ill.) district.
Dayton, Ohio, IV.
Denver, Colo., III.
Des Moines, Iowa, IV.
Detroit, Mich., I.
Duluth, Minn., IV.
Erie, Pa., IV.
Grand Rapids, Mich., IV.
Indianapolis, Ind., III.
Kansas City, Mo., III.
Los Angeles, Calif., I.
Madison, Wis., V.
Manchester, N. H., V.
Milwaukee, Wis., II.
Minneapolis, Minn., III.
Moline, Ill., included in Rock Island (Ill.) district.
Newark, N. J., III.
New Haven, Conn., IV.
New York, N. Y., I.
Omaha, Nebr., IV.
Peoria, Ill., IV.
Philadelphia, Pa., I.
Pittsburgh, Pa., II.
Portland, Maine, V.
Portland, Oreg., III.
Providence, R. I., III.
Reading, Pa., IV.
Rochester, N. Y., III.
Rock Island (Ill.) district, IV.
St. Louis, Mo. II.
St. Paul, Minn., III.
Salt Lake City, Utah, IV.
San Francisco, Calif., II.
Scranton, Pa., IV.
Seattle, Wash., III.
South Bend, Ind., IV.
Spokane, Wash., IV.
Springfield, Mass., IV.
Toledo, Ohio, III.
Washington, D. C., II.
Wichita, Kans., IV.
Worcester, Mass., IV.
York, Pa., V.
Youngstown, Ohio, IV.

South and Southwest

Atlanta, Ga., III.
Birmingham, Ala., III.
Charleston, S. C., V.
Charlotte, N. C., IV.
Dallas, Tex., III.
El Paso, Tex., V.
Houston, Tex., III.
Jackson, Miss., V.
Jacksonville, Fla., IV.
Little Rock, Ark., V.
Louisville, Ky., III.
Memphis, Tenn., III.
Mobile, Ala., V.
Nashville, Tenn., IV.
New Orleans, La., III.
Norfolk, Va., IV.
Oklahoma City, Okla., IV.
Phoenix, Ariz., V.
Richmond, Va., IV.
San Antonio, Tex., III.
Tampa, Fla., IV.



union the union scale will be equivalent to the prevailing scale. On the other hand, if the proportion of craftsmen belonging to the union is small, the union scale may not be the actual prevailing scale.

Apprentices and foremen.—A young person working in the trade for a definite number of years, for the purpose of learning the trade, and receiving instruction as an element of compensation, is considered an apprentice. Scales for apprentices are not included in this report. No rates are included for strictly supervising foremen or for individuals who are paid unusual rates because of some personal qualification as distinct from the usual trade qualifications.

Averages.—The averages given in this report are weighted according to the number of union members covered by each rate. When a union representative reported more than one occupational wage rate he was requested to divide the total membership of his local union, allotting to each quotation the number normally working for the rate specified. Members who happened to be unemployed on June 1 were included in the quotation of the rate that they regularly receive when working. Honorary and inactive members were excluded, as were members employed in government printing plants where wage scales are not established through agreements with the unions. In computing the averages, each particular wage rate or hour scale was weighted by the number of members reported in that particular quotation. Thus, the averages reflect not only the actual rates provided in the union agreements but also the number of persons presumably benefiting from these rates.

Index numbers.—In the series of index numbers the percentage change from year to year is based on aggregates computed from the quotations of unions which furnished reports for identical occupations in both years. The membership weights in both of the aggregates used in each year-to-year comparison are those reported for the second year. The index for each year is computed by multiplying the index for the preceding year by the ratio of the aggregates so obtained. The index numbers were revised on this basis in 1936 in order to eliminate the influence of changes in union membership which obscure the real changes in wages and hours.

Caution: For the trend of union rates, the table of indexes (table 1) should be consulted; for a comparison of wage rates between trades or cities at a given time, the tables of averages (tables 4 and 8) should be used.

Trend in Union Wage Rates, 1907 to 1942

Union wage rates in the printing trades increased 4.3 percent during the period from June 1, 1941, to June 1, 1942, raising the index (1929=100) to 119.0. The newspaper and the book and job branches showed about the same percentage increase in rates (4.3 and 4.2 percent, respectively). The 1942 indexes were 120.1 and 118.3. (See table 2 for indexes of individual trades.)

Since the beginning of the series in 1907, rates for the book and job trades and those for the newspaper trades have advanced at a progressive yearly increase, on the average, of 4.0 percent and 3.2 percent, respectively. The actual increases from year to year were gradual and steady until 1918. During the following 3 years union wage rates advanced rapidly. For all trades combined they increased 72 percent—book and job, 77 percent, and newspaper, 60 percent. Unlike wages in most other industries and trades, rates in the union

printing trades were not generally reduced during the post-war depression of 1921–22. Subsequent to 1922 the trend of rates again resumed a gradual increase until 1931, following which the only reductions in the trend of union wages in the printing trades occurred. By May 1, 1933, general decreases had reduced the index 6.5 percent in the book and job trades and 6.7 percent in the newspaper trades. However, recovery was rapid and by 1935 the index was approximately the same as in 1932. Since 1935 there has been a steady advance each year, the increase during the past year being somewhat greater than in preceding years.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates in All Printing Trades, 1907 to 1942*

[1929=100]

Year	Hourly wage rates			Year	Hourly wage rates		
	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper		All printing	Book and job	Newspaper
1907	(1)	30.0	39.2	1925	92.0	92.9	91.1
1908	(1)	33.3	41.3	1926	94.0	95.0	93.1
1909	(1)	35.7	43.1	1927	96.7	97.3	95.9
1910	(1)	37.6	44.6	1928	98.5	98.7	98.3
1911	40.0	38.6	45.2	1929	100.0	100.0	100.0
1912	40.7	39.3	46.0	1930	101.5	101.8	101.0
1913	41.5	40.0	47.0	1931	102.1	102.5	101.3
1914	42.3	40.9	47.5	1932	101.3	101.4	101.1
1915	42.5	41.1	47.8	1933	95.3	95.8	94.5
1916	42.9	41.7	48.0	1934	97.3	98.4	95.8
1917	44.4	43.2	49.2	1935	101.0	100.6	101.6
1918	48.3	47.8	51.6	1936	103.3	103.5	103.1
1919	59.1	58.9	62.2	1937	106.8	106.7	107.0
1920	75.7	76.9	76.1	1938	110.2	110.4	109.8
1921	83.0	84.7	82.8	1939	111.2	111.2	111.1
1922	83.8	85.0	83.5	1940	112.7	112.2	113.5
1923	86.4	88.3	84.4	1941	114.1	113.5	115.1
1924	90.6	92.0	89.5	1942	119.0	118.3	120.1

[1]Combined data for the years 1907–10 not available.

Trends in Individual Trades

Each of the trades appearing in tables 2 and 3 registered increases in their average rates during the period June 1, 1941, to June 1, 1942. The mailers in the newspaper branch recorded the largest average increase (6.6 percent). The press assistants and feeders (6.0 percent) and the bindery women (5.9 percent) had the largest increases among the book and job trades. Among all of the other trades in both branches, only the book and job bookbinders, mailers, and cylinder pressmen reported an average advance of as much as 5 percent, although 4 of the book and job trades, in addition to the 5 mentioned above, and all of the newspaper trades, except the photoengravers, showed average increases of at least 3.6 percent.

Compared with the base year, 1929, the photoengravers showed the greatest increase in average hourly rates, their 1942 indexes indicating a 21.0 percent rise in the book and job branch and a 22.0 percent advance in the newspaper branch. Bindery women recorded the next highest increase (20.3 percent). All of the other trades in both branches, with the exception of machine operators in book and job work, increased their 1929 averages by at least 16 percent and all of the newspaper trades advanced their rates by at least 18 percent.

The indexes for each printing trade, except mailers, are shown in table 2. Separate indexes for day and night work in the newspaper

trades are not shown, since the movement is very similar although the rates for any one year are different.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates in Each Printing Trade, 1916 to 1942*

BOOK AND JOB

[1929=100]

Year	Bindery women	Bookbinders	Compositors, hand	Machine operators	Machine tenders (machinists)	Electrotypers	Photoengravers	Press assistants and feeders	Pressmen, cylinder	Pressmen, platen
1916	37.9	40.6	42.0	45.7	45.0	41.0	38.9	36.0	44.2	41.8
1917	40.6	43.1	42.9	46.8	46.1	42.3	42.3	37.9	45.0	43.9
1918	45.3	48.4	47.3	50.5	50.6	44.4	44.9	44.3	49.9	48.4
1919	58.7	61.8	57.8	60.9	62.2	50.9	52.3	57.1	60.5	59.4
1920	81.1	81.2	76.1	77.6	77.9	72.9	72.2	78.4	78.6	80.5
1921	94.7	88.9	87.3	87.8	90.1	84.7	76.9	84.8	86.8	89.9
1922	91.7	85.3	88.8	87.9	89.0	86.4	77.6	82.1	84.8	87.9
1923	95.8	90.5	90.9	89.5	90.8	91.8	78.4	91.9	91.5	91.5
1924	97.2	94.5	94.9	93.3	94.8	95.2	83.9	91.1	94.2	94.3
1925	98.3	95.6	94.4	93.3	94.9	94.9	86.0	96.2	95.4	94.8
1926	96.4	97.3	96.3	94.4	98.2	95.8	91.5	97.3	97.3	99.3
1927	98.7	99.4	98.0	98.1	98.8	96.9	95.9	98.5	97.5	100.2
1928	99.2	98.9	99.5	98.4	99.2	97.7	98.6	99.1	98.3	98.5
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	100.7	101.2	102.2	102.7	101.8	102.9	100.2	101.2	101.8	101.7
1931	101.2	101.6	102.8	103.2	102.9	105.2	100.5	102.0	102.5	102.2
1932	98.7	97.9	102.5	103.3	103.5	104.8	103.5	97.6	99.8	100.0
1933	94.8	94.4	96.3	96.9	97.4	98.2	101.5	90.9	93.6	93.1
1934	99.6	97.9	97.3	97.0	100.4	105.1	103.1	94.4	96.3	95.7
1935	100.5	99.3	99.0	98.6	100.9	106.7	109.6	96.5	97.5	96.4
1936	102.4	100.6	102.0	102.0	104.0	107.1	112.3	99.7	101.5	100.4
1937	104.0	103.4	105.8	104.8	107.0	108.5	113.7	104.8	105.1	105.0
1938	109.9	107.2	109.4	107.7	110.3	113.4	116.6	110.2	108.2	108.2
1939	110.6	109.3	109.9	108.0	110.7	114.2	117.5	110.9	109.0	109.2
1940	111.1	109.9	111.8	108.8	111.9	114.4	118.4	111.7	109.7	109.8
1941	113.9	111.5	113.4	109.7	112.8	116.8	118.9	112.8	110.5	110.9
1942	120.3	117.3	117.6	114.9	118.0	118.9	121.0	119.5	116.0	116.3

NEWSPAPER

Year	Compositors, hand	Machine operators	Machine tenders (machinists)	Photoengravers	Pressmen, web presses [1]	Stereotypers
1916	48.9	47.5	50.7	42.7	46.3	51.3
1917	50.1	48.9	51.3	44.6	47.2	52.6
1918	52.3	50.6	53.8	48.3	50.9	54.8
1919	62.9	61.6	68.3	56.9	62.7	61.7
1920	76.4	76.3	84.3	65.6	77.5	75.3
1921	83.3	81.2	87.9	77.6	83.0	87.7
1922	85.2	83.4	88.7	81.3	78.7	86.4
1923	86.0	84.3	88.9	81.0	79.8	88.1
1924	90.6	89.4	94.0	84.4	88.7	90.7
1925	91.3	91.1	91.4	87.8	92.7	93.1
1926	93.4	93.4	90.5	94.4	92.7	94.3
1927	96.5	95.4	95.7	95.7	97.5	95.5
1928	98.3	98.9	97.9	99.5	99.6	95.5
1929	100.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	100.9	100.8	100.8	101.6	101.7	100.8
1931	101.0	100.9	101.0	102.6	102.3	101.2
1932	100.0	100.2	100.4	103.8	103.6	100.2
1933	93.4	93.7	93.3	96.0	97.0	94.6
1934	94.8	94.9	94.5	100.5	97.2	96.0
1935	100.9	101.2	100.9	105.3	102.5	100.5
1936	102.7	102.9	102.8	107.9	103.1	102.0
1937	107.1	107.3	107.2	109.9	106.5	105.2
1938	109.3	109.7	109.8	115.5	109.3	108.8
1939	110.1	110.5	110.3	117.8	111.7	109.9
1940	112.4	112.6	112.4	119.1	114.4	113.0
1941	113.8	113.7	113.7	119.6	116.0	114.8
1942	118.6	118.6	119.0	122.0	120.5	120.3

[1] Includes pressmen-in-charge.

Since data for mailers were not collected in 1929, it is impossible to present index numbers for this craft comparable to those of the other trades. The changes from the previous year, as shown in comparable quotations for each year in which data have been collected for this trade, are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change in Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours of Mailers 1937 to 1942*

Item	Percent of change from previous year				
	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942
Mailers, book and job:					
Hourly wage rates	+5.9	+1.7	+2.7	+1.3	+5.2
Weekly hours	0	0	−.5	0	0
Mailers, newspapers:					
Hourly wage rates	+2.7	+.8	+3.1	+4.0	+6.6
Weekly hours	0	+.1	−.7	−.1	−.4

Average Union Wage Rates, 1942

The average union rate per hour for all printing trades in the 75 cities included in the survey was $1.255 on June 1, 1942 (table 4). The book and job average was $1.176 and the newspaper average for both day and night work was $1.408. For newspaper, the average for day workers was $1.333, while the average for night workers was $1.478.

The photoengravers had the highest average rates in both branches of the printing trades. Their book and job average of $1.633 was almost 46 cents above the average for all trades in that group and over 15 cents higher than the average for the electrotypers, who were in second place. In newspaper work, the photoengravers had an average ($1.716) that was over 30 cents above the average for all trades and 19.4 cents higher than the figure for pressmen-in-charge, their closest rivals for top honors.

Among the book and job trades, 2 of the composing trades (machine operators and machine tenders) ranked next to the photoengravers and electrotypers, with average rates of $1.341 and $1.365, respectively. The bindery women had the lowest average, $0.577. The comparatively low rates for this trade are, to a great extent, due to differences in skill.

In addition to the photoengravers, four newspaper trades (hand compositors, machine operators, machine tenders, and pressmen-in-charge) had average rates above $1.45 per hour. Only the pressmen and mailers had average rates below $1.35.

Actual scales in the printing trades ranged from 35 cents an hour for some of the bindery women in Baltimore to the top rate of $3.00 per hour for compositors and machine operators setting Hebrew text on the night shift for newspapers in New York City. However, almost three-fifths of the union members in all printing trades included in the survey had rates ranging from $1.10 to $1.50 per hour.

Including bindery women, who had no rates as high as 75 cents, almost three-fifths of the book and job members had rates between $1.10 and $1.50, and 62.7 percent of the members in newspaper work had rates in the same range. Only 3 percent of the union newspaper workers had rates below $1.00, but 23.1 percent of the members in the book and job trades were under that amount.

Differences in rates for day and night work on newspapers were responsible for the sharp variations in the percentages of union members having rates between $1.10 and $1.50. Over 74 percent of those on the day shift had hourly rates between $1.10 and $1.50, and 16.4 percent had rates of $1.50 or more. On the night shift, only 51.9 percent had rates between $1.10 and $1.50, while 44.2 percent had rates of $1.50 or more. The night rates for photoengravers constituted one of the main factors in this large difference—over 93 percent of the total members on night shifts had rates of at least $1.50, and 33 percent had rates as high as or higher than $2.00.

TABLE 4.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Members in the Printing Trades, by Hourly Rates, June 1, 1942*

Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union members whose rates (in cents) per hour were—								
		Under 40	40 and under 50	50 and under 60	60 and under 70	70 and under 80	80 and under 90	90 and under 100	100 and under 110	110 and under 120
All printing trades	$1.255	0.2	0.8	4.4	4.2	1.4	2.0	3.4	6.5	13.4
Book and job	1.176	.3	1.1	6.6	6.2	2.0	2.7	4.2	8.1	14.5
Bindery women	.577	1.9	6.8	45.7	39.7	5.9				
Bookbinders	1.118		1.4	2.6	.7	.5	2.6	4.2	19.7	29.4
Compositors, hand	1.293						.1	.9	5.1	19.2
Electrotypers	1.481						.1	.1	2.9	9.6
Machine operators	1.341						.1	.5	4.4	15.1
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.365						.2		2.7	15.8
Mailers	1.076			.3	4.5	.5	7.2	10.9	22.4	16.7
Photoengravers	1.633								.5	(1)
Press assistants and feeders	.999	.1	.4	1.1	5.6	8.1	14.6	16.2	17.1	15.7
Pressmen, cylinder	1.305				.1	(1)	.7	3.3	7.1	18.8
Pressmen, platen	1.096				.2	1.6	6.7	22.2	20.6	15.6
Newspaper	1.408			.1	.1	.1	.8	1.9	3.4	11.3
Day work	1.333			.1	.2	.3	1.3	1.8	5.5	14.2
Night work	1.478			(1)	.1	(1)	.5	1.9	1.4	8.6
Compositors, hand	1.472									
Day work	1.408					.1			1.0	8.0
Night work	1.527									3.1
Machine operators	1.478									
Day work	1.416					.1			1.1	9.3
Night work	1.531									3.5
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.476									
Day work	1.417								.5	5.4
Night work	1.536									1.6
Mailers	1.114									
Day work	1.041			1.1	1.6	1.8	11.4	13.6	35.3	21.8
Night work	1.169			.3	.6	.1	3.2	14.3	6.5	44.7
Photoengravers	1.716									
Day work	1.575							1.4	.6	1.0
Night work	1.822								2.5	.4
Pressmen (journeymen)	1.339									
Day work	1.260					.3		.2	3.4	29.9
Night work	1.426						.2		1.6	2.5
Pressmen-in-charge	1.522									
Day work	1.421						.3		.3	2.1
Night work	1.608							.1	.1	.3
Stereotypers	1.351									
Day work	1.276							1.8	4.0	11.6
Night work	1.458							.5	1.4	8.1

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

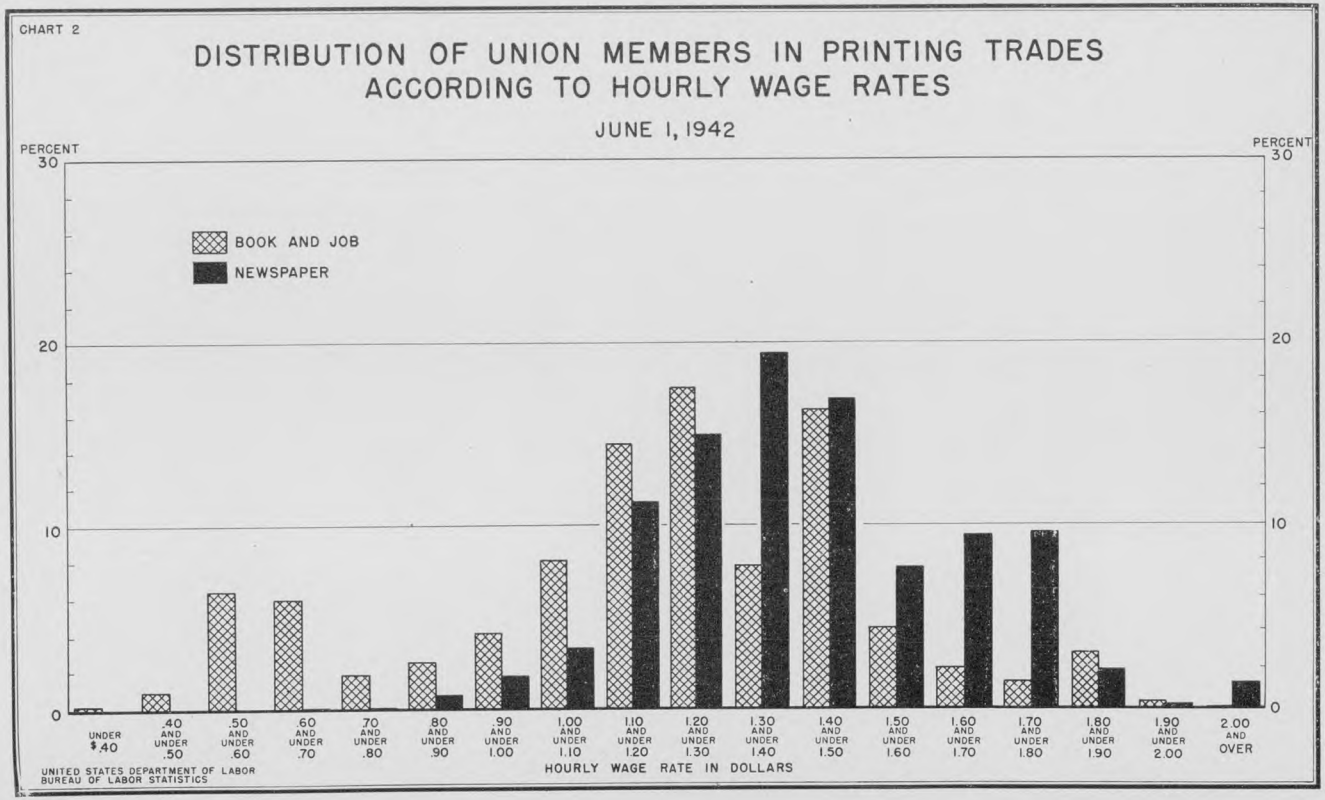
TABLE 4.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Members in the Printing Trades, by Hourly Rates, June 1, 1942*—Continued

Trade	Percent of union members whose rates (in cents) per hour were—								
	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160	160 and under 170	170 and under 180	180 and under 190	190 and under 200	200 and over
All printing trades	16.8	11.8	16.7	5.6	4.7	4.4	2.8	0.4	0.5
Book and job	17.7	7.9	16.5	4.5	2.3	1.6	3.2	.5	.1
Bindery women	31.9	6.7	.3						
Bookbinders	27.8	12.9	33.8	.1					.1
Compositors, hand	19.6	11.1		10.5	24.4	21.7			
Electrotypers	17.2	12.5	49.7			.2			.3
Machine operators	10.9	15.8	36.2	16.0			2.4		
Machine tenders (machinists)	33.4	4.1							
Mailers	1.4	9.3	12.0	27.1	6.3	5.5	33.1	4.8	
Photoengravers	17.7	3.4							
Press assistants and feeders	20.1	9.0	26.4	9.5	4.0	.9	.1	(1)	
Pressmen, cylinder	23.1	6.7	3.3						
Pressmen, platen									
Newspaper	15.0	19.4	17.0	7.8	9.5	9.7	2.2	.3	1.4
Day work	22.0	19.7	18.5	3.1	11.5	.8	(1)	.4	.6
Night work	8.6	19.1	15.6	12.1	7.6	18.0	4.2	.2	2.1
Compositors, hand									
Day work	17.4	25.9	23.7	3.2	19.5		.1	.6	.5
Night work	6.9	17.6	19.7	15.1	3.6	33.7			.3
Machine operators									
Day work	17.5	22.0	26.6	3.5	16.4		.2	1.2	2.1
Night work	8.0	14.6	20.2	17.4	4.4	31.0			.9
Machine tenders (machinists)									
Day work	15.5	27.5	26.8	1.8	22.2			.3	
Night work	6.7	16.3	21.9	15.5	4.0	34.0			
Mailers									
Day work	12.8	.6							
Night work	8.1	17.5	3.6	1.1					
Photoengravers									
Day work	1.9	5.3	16.5	18.7	37.3	17.3			
Night work	.5	.8	2.1	11.6	14.0	5.2	26.3	3.6	33.0
Pressmen (journeymen)									
Day work	29.0	21.9	15.1	.2					
Night work	12.6	33.6	13.6	10.2	25.7				
Pressmen-in-charge									
Day work	21.5	27.8	10.4	15.9	21.2	.5			
Night work	6.3	12.1	26.6	2.6	5.1	13.7	33.1		
Stereotypers									
Day work	47.2	17.4	16.4	.3	1.3				
Night work	16.2	24.6	14.1	12.3	.6		21.8		.4

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Among the individual book and job trades, only the photoengravers reported no rates of less than $1.00 per hour. In fact, over three-fourths of the members had rates of at least $1.50 per hour and about one-third had rates between $1.80 and $1.90. A majority of the machine operators and tenders had rates of $1.40 or more, and the electrotypers had a majority of their members working under scales between $1.50 and $1.80. Next to the bindery women, all of whom had rates between 35 and 75 cents, the press assistants and feeders had the lowest rates, with 63 percent of them receiving less than $1.10 per hour.

In the newspaper branch, all of the trades on the day shift, except mailers and photoengravers, had a majority of their members under contract to receive rates between $1.20 and $1.50; the same trades on night shifts, excluding pressmen-in-charge, had a majority of



their members rated between $1.30 and $1.60. The only craft with a substantial number of members receiving less than $1.00 per hour was the mailers—29.5 percent on day shift and 18.5 percent on night shift received less than this rate. An additional 35.3 percent of the day-shift members were reported to be receiving between $1.00 and $1.10, while 44.7 percent of the night membership had rates between $1.10 and $1.20. Practically all of the photoengravers (95.1) on day shift had rates of at least $1.30 but less than $1.80 per hour, while 62.9 percent of the night members had rates of at least $1.80, with 33 percent receiving a minimum of $2.00. Practically all of the photoengravers receiving $2.00 or more were in New York City, but there were a few in Newark also.

Changes in Union Rates Between 1941 and 1942[2]

Wage-rate increases were reported in 1,952 of the 2,478 quotations of all printing trades for the period June 1, 1941, to June 1, 1942 (table 5). These raises in scales benefited 80.4 percent of the total membership included in the survey. A greater proportion of the members in the newspaper branch received increases than did those in the book and job trades (82.9 percent and 79.2 percent). The number of quotations reporting reduced scales from 1941 was negligible, being only 12 in number and affecting but one-tenth of 1 percent of the total membership.

On an individual basis in the book and job branch the mailers, followed closely by the platen pressmen, recorded the largest proportion of increased scales (89.5 percent and 88 percent, respectively) being higher than in 1941. These raises affected 94.7 percent and 90.2 percent of the respective memberships. Over 90 percent of the bookbinders, press assistants and feeders, and cylinder pressmen also benefited by increases. The only trade which did not secure increases for a majority of its members was that of the electrotypers, who received next to the highest rate in the industry.

Among the newspaper trades, the mailers were most successful in negotiating wage increases. Over 88 percent of both day and night quotations showed raises. The proportions of the members benefiting from these increased wage rates were even larger—93.1 percent of those on day shift and 96.7 percent of those on night shift. The machine tenders were not far behind the mailers, as 85 percent of their quotations also indicated increases, affecting 92 percent of the day membership and 94.7 percent of the night membership.

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[2] Certain anomalies enter into a comparison of average rates between 2 years when such averages reflect not only the actual rates provided for in the agreements but the number of union members for those years in each local union covered by the reported rates. By and large, it would be expected that a general increase in actual rates would be accompanied by a corresponding increase in the average rate paid to union members, but if union membership increases most (or decreases least) in the lower-paid crafts or in areas with less-than-average rates, the average of the rates paid to all union members may not increase correspondingly or may even show a decrease. Conversely, the average rate may increase in spite of a downward swing in actual rates if union membership declines sufficiently in the lower-paid crafts or in areas where lower-than-average rates are paid.

Because the averages do not accurately reflect changes from year to year, no table comparing 1941 and 1942 averages is included in this report. For the trend of actual union rates, the tables of indexes (tables 1 and 2) should be consulted, since these are so computed as to eliminate the effect of fluctuating memberships at various rates. The current averages, on the other hand, best serve for comparison of the general level of wage rates between trades, or between cities and regions at the time the survey was made.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Changes in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1942, Compared with June 1, 1941*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1941	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of union members affected by—		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All printing trades	2,478	1,952	12	514	80.4	0.1	19.5
Book and job	1,371	1,096	3	272	79.2	(1)	20.8
Bindery women	84	59		25	71.1		28.9
Bookbinders	194	168	2	24	92.2	.1	7.7
Compositors, hand	89	65		24	70.9		29.1
Electrotypers	56	27		29	41.7		58.3
Machine operators	104	79		25	87.2		12.8
Machine tenders (machinists)	35	30		5	79.4		20.6
Mailers	38	34		4	94.7		5.3
Photoengravers	62	26		36	51.7		48.3
Press assistants and feeders	230	188		42	94.6		5.4
Pressmen, cylinder	352	308	1	43	93.6	.1	6.3
Pressmen, platen	127	112		15	90.2		9.8
Newspaper	1,107	856	9	242	82.9	.1	17.0
Day work	580	445	6	129	82.5	.2	17.3
Night work	527	411	3	113	83.3	(1)	16.7
Compositors, hand:							
Day work	82	62	2	18	86.5	.2	13.3
Night work	75	62	1	12	90.4	(1)	9.6
Machine operators:							
Day work	85	64	2	19	84.3	.3	15.4
Night work	78	64	1	13	90.4	(1)	9.6
Machine tenders (machinists):							
Day work	65	55	1	9	92.0	.3	7.7
Night work	62	53		9	94.7		5.3
Mailers:							
Day work	63	56		7	93.1		6.9
Night work	52	46		6	96.7		3.3
Photoengravers:							
Day work	51	28		23	54.3		45.7
Night work	50	27		23	45.7		54.3
Pressmen (journeymen):							
Day work	86	66		20	74.9		25.1
Night work	77	57		20	61.6		38.4
Pressmen-in-charge:							
Day work	74	56		18	78.5		21.5
Night work	66	49		17	71.6		28.4
Stereotypers:							
Day work	74	58	1	15	84.9	.5	14.6
Night work	67	53	1	13	92.1	.2	7.7

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Almost 75 percent of the quotations for all trades except photoengravers for both shifts showed increases benefiting almost 72 percent of the members. The photoengravers listed the smallest proportion of wage increases (54 percent) as well as members affected by increases. However, the average hourly rates for this craft, as shown in table 4, are the highest in the industry.

Practically all the wage increases in all printing trades were less than 10 percent (table 6). Of the total advances reported (1,952), over two-fifths were of less than 5 percent, and over six-sevenths were of less than 10 percent. Over nine-tenths of the total members benefiting from raises had their 1941 rates increased by less than 10 percent; these increases covered about 73 percent of all members included in the survey. Almost 8 percent of the total membership reported raises of between 10 and 15 percent. Only slightly over 1 percent of the entire membership covered reported increases of 15 percent or over.

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In general, similar conditions existed in the individual trades in both branches of the printing industry. The bindery women were the only book and job workers who had a substantial number (28.5 percent) of their members receiving increases of 10 percent or more. The mailers constituted the only newspaper trade which was able to negotiate raises of 10 percent or over for a considerable number of its members; 18.3 percent on the day shift and 18.1 percent on the night shift were recipients of these comparatively large increases. In fact, 5.3 percent of the day-shift workers had their rates advanced by at least 20 percent.

TABLE 6.—*Number of Increases in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1942, Compared With June 1, 1941*

Trade	Number of quotations showing increases of—					Percent of total members affected by increases of—				
	Less than 5 percent	5 and under 10 percent	10 and under 15 percent	15 and under 20 percent	20 percent and over	Less than 5 percent	5 and under 10 percent	10 and under 15 percent	15 and under 20 percent	20 percent and over
All printing trades	810	875	215	28	24	36.9	36.2	6.4	0.7	0.2
Book and job	458	473	123	22	20	36.0	36.5	5.5	1.0	.2
Bindery women	5	24	20	8	2	7.0	35.6	22.5	5.9	.1
Bookbinders	58	73	33	3	1	42.1	45.1	4.6	.3	.1
Compositors, hand	35	27	2	------	1	34.2	36.1	.3	------	.3
Electrotypers	16	10	1	------	------	37.6	3.9	.2	------	------
Machine operators	50	28	------	------	1	36.9	50.1	------	------	.2
Machine tenders (machinists)	19	9	1	------	1	36.9	35.2	4.9	------	2.4
Mailers	8	17	7	2	------	45.4	41.7	5.3	2.3	------
Photoengravers	20	4	2	------	------	47.4	2.1	2.2	------	------
Press assistants and feeders	63	77	30	7	11	38.3	45.5	9.3	.9	.6
Pressmen, cylinder	146	144	14	2	2	46.0	44.9	2.5	.1	.1
Pressmen, platen	38	60	13	------	1	44.5	40.1	5.5	------	.1
Newspaper	352	402	92	6	4	38.8	35.7	8.0	.1	.3
Day work	175	211	52	3	4	33.5	38.8	9.5	.1	.6
Night work	177	191	40	3	------	43.9	32.7	6.6	.1	------
Compositors, hand:										
Day work	25	28	9	------	------	41.4	34.5	10.6	------	------
Night work	28	28	6	------	------	60.5	26.1	3.8	------	------
Machine operators:										
Day work	27	30	7	------	------	36.0	37.4	10.9	------	------
Night work	30	30	4	------	------	60.1	27.9	2.4	------	------
Machine tenders (machinists):										
Day work	21	25	9	------	------	37.1	40.2	14.7	------	------
Night work	24	24	5	------	------	63.7	28.3	2.7	------	------
Mailers:										
Day work	10	32	10	1	3	10.8	64.0	12.8	.2	5.3
Night work	9	29	8	------	------	26.5	52.1	18.1	------	------
Photoengravers:										
Day work	17	7	4	------	------	35.6	12.2	6.5	------	------
Night work	18	4	5	------	------	31.7	10.6	3.4	------	------
Pressmen (journeymen):										
Day work	22	38	5	------	1	27.1	39.0	8.6	------	.2
Night work	22	28	6	1	------	19.7	31.8	9.9	.2	------
Pressmen-in-charge:										
Day work	28	24	3	1	------	35.0	41.8	1.5	.2	------
Night work	25	18	5	1	------	25.9	28.6	16.9	.2	------
Stereotypers:										
Day work	25	27	5	1	------	43.3	36.1	4.9	.6	------
Night work	21	30	1	1	------	29.3	60.4	1.2	1.2	------

Night-Rate Differentials

There was an average wage-rate differential of 10.9 cents an hour in favor of newspaper night workers as compared with day workers in identical occupations and cities. In a very few instances the same rate was reported for both day and night work, but these quotations applied to less than 1 percent of the total membership normally working on night shifts. Over half of the membership on night shifts had wage rates that were 8 or more cents per hour higher than the corresponding day rates, and over a third had differences amounting to between 6 and 8 cents.

The photoengravers had the highest average difference (20.3 cents) among the several trades. Sixty-three percent of their night-working members had rates that were more than 20 cents per hour higher than the corresponding day rates; only 8.4 percent had night rates that were not at least 10 cents higher than their day rates. For pressmen, pressmen-in-charge, and stereotypers, night rates were higher by between 14 and 16 cents. The differences for the typographical trades and mailers were between 8 and 10 cents.

All of the differentials in excess of 32 cents per hour were reported in either New York, Chicago, or Newark. The highest was that of the hand compositors and machine operators setting Hebrew text in New York, who had a night rate 81.9 cents per hour higher than the day rate. Similar work in Chicago had a night differential of 63.3 cents per hour. The other differences of over 32 cents occurred among the stereotypers. In New York the night-shift workers in this trade received 36.6 cents more than the day shift, in Newark 41.2 cents, and on foreign text in Chicago 37.3 cents.

The average differentials and the distribution of the night-working membership, according to the amount of their differences, are shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Differences in Union Wage Rates Between Day and Night Work in Newspaper Printing Trades, June 1, 1942*

Trade	Average difference per hour in wage rate [1]	Percent of night workers whose wage-rate differences (in cents) in comparison to day work were—												
		0	Up to 4	4 and under 6	6 and under 8	8 and under 10	10 and under 12	12 and under 14	14 and under 16	16 and under 20	20 and under 24	24 and under 28	28 and under 32	32 and over
All newspaper trades	$0.109	0.3	2.7	9.0	35.2	9.5	11.4	8.4	5.7	9.8	4.0	0.5	1.7	1.8
Compositors, hand	.082	-----	.3	7.1	55.9	13.0	15.2	4.7	3.6	-----	-----	-----	-----	.2
Machine operators	.084	-----	.6	8.4	57.2	11.7	13.3	4.3	3.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	.7
Machine tenders (machinists)	.087	1.1	.5	8.1	34.1	14.0	36.0	2.4	3.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Mailers	.096	.3	15.1	14.9	21.0	3.2	5.8	13.8	3.9	21.6	.4	-----	-----	-----
Photoengravers	.203	-----	-----	3.0	4.8	.6	4.7	22.8	.8	.3	23.6	7.8	31.6	-----
Pressmen (journeymen)	.142	.7	1.4	6.8	6.3	9.6	11.6	10.1	14.3	28.5	10.7	(2)	-----	-----
Pressmen-in-charge	.157	.4	1.5	6.3	4.9	7.3	.9	16.1	4.0	38.6	17.6	2.4	-----	-----
Stereotypers	.154	1.0	2.0	18.9	19.2	7.2	4.6	9.1	7.5	6.8	1.9	-----	-----	21.8

[1] Since some cities did not have both day and night workers, and are thus excluded from table 7, the average differences shown in this table are not the same as the difference between the averages for day and night work shown in table 4.

[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

City and Regional Averages

AVERAGE RATES IN EACH CITY [3]

New York City recorded the highest average rates in both branches of the printing industry. In the book and job branch its average of $1.352 was 6.7 cents higher than that of Chicago ($1.285). San Francisco ($1.215) and Detroit ($1.204) ranked third and fourth in the book and job trades. In the newspaper crafts, the highest wage cities outside of New York were Chicago ($1.535), Detroit ($1.481). and Newark ($1.479). (See table 8.)

In addition to the four highest in the book and job branch, Kansas City ($1.195), and Madison ($1.179) had average rates that were higher than the average for the 75 cities combined ($1.176). The high average for Madison is due in part to the fact that it had no bindery women in its composite average. Other cities having averages of at least $1.15 per hour were Cleveland, Toledo, and Cincinnati. Richmond had the lowest average ($0.819).

In the newspaper trades, nine cities had averages higher than the average for the 75 cities ($1.408) included in the survey. In addition to the four already mentioned were Cleveland ($1.474), Washington, D. C. ($1.468), Boston ($1.447), Providence ($1.442), and Cincinnati ($1.432). Seven others—Milwaukee, San Francisco, Columbus, Seattle, St. Louis, Indianapolis, and Toledo—had average rates of at least $1.35 per hour. New Orleans recorded the lowest average ($1.029).

Not all the trades had effective union scales in all the cities. This was especially true among the bindery women, bookbinders, electrotypers, machine tenders, mailers, and photoengravers—occupations which either did not exist or were not organized in a number of the smaller cities. No averages have been included in table 8 unless they were computed from the effective rates of at least two distinct printing trades. In consequence, a few cities included in the survey do not appear in the table. In this respect, the three typographic classifications were considered as constituting only one trade, as were the newspaper pressmen and pressmen-in-charge. Day and night newspaper rates for identical occupations were also considered as representing but one trade. As it may be assumed that the types of printing done in cities of comparable size will in general be similar, the averages should be comparable within the city-size groups.

[3] The averages are weighted according to the number of members in each local union covered by the reported rates. Although a comparison of average rates between cities where averages include the influence of the membership factor may be somewhat misleading where membership is unusually large or small in comparison to the same trade in other cities, a weighted average of this kind is obviously more realistic than a simple average of specific rates. In the latter case a wage rate in a trade including half a dozen members would be given the same importance as that of a trade including several thousand members.

TABLE 8.—*Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Printing Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, June 1, 1942*

City and population group	Rate	City and population group	Rate
Book and job		*Newspaper*	
Population group I (over 1,000,000):		Population group I (over 1,000,000):	
New York, N. Y	$1.352	New York, N. Y	$1.663
Chicago, Ill	1.285	Chicago, Ill	1.535
Average for group I	*1.284*	*Average for group I*	*1.523*
Detroit, Mich	1.204	Detroit, Mich	1.481
Philadelphia, Pa	1.119	Philadelphia, Pa	1.289
Los Angeles, Calif	1.092	Los Angeles, Calif	1.268
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):		Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):	
San Francisco, Calif	1.215	Cleveland, Ohio	1.474
Cleveland, Ohio	1.169	Washington, D. C	1.468
St. Louis, Mo	1.106	Boston, Mass	1.447
Average for group II	*1.094*	*Average for group II*	*1.395*
Buffalo, N. Y	1.076	San Francisco, Calif	1.363
Boston, Mass	1.075	Milwaukee, Wis	1.357
Milwaukee, Wis	1.072	St. Louis, Mo	1.356
Washington, D. C	1.040	Baltimore, Md	1.324
Baltimore, Md	.995	Buffalo, N. Y	1.312
Pittsburgh, Pa	.944	Pittsburgh, Pa	1.306
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):		Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):	
Kansas City, Mo	1.195	Newark, N. J	1.479
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.175	Providence, R. I	1.442
Toledo, Ohio	1.169	Cincinnati, Ohio	1.432
Indianapolis, Ind	1.145	Seattle, Wash	1.389
Seattle, Wash	1.139	Indianapolis, Ind	1.382
Providence, R. I	1.134	Columbus, Ohio	1.369
Portland, Oreg	1.120	Toledo, Ohio	1.359
Dallas, Tex	1.092	St. Paul, Minn	1.342
Newark, N. J	1.081	*Average for group III*	*1.325*
Columbus, Ohio	1.073	Portland, Oreg	1.308
Houston, Tex	1.069	Minneapolis, Minn	1.306
Rochester, N. Y	1.058	Louisville, Ky	1.303
Denver, Colo	1.054	Rochester, N. Y	1.292
Average for group III	*1.036*	Dallas, Tex	1.290
Louisville, Ky	1.013	Memphis, Tenn	1.283
New Orleans, La	.966	Kansas City, Mo	1.273
St. Paul, Minn	.938	Houston, Tex	1.270
Atlanta, Ga	.924	Denver, Colo	1.256
Birmingham, Ala	.916	Birmingham, Ala	1.194
Memphis, Tenn	.840	San Antonio, Tex	1.191
Minneapolis, Minn	.839	Atlanta, Ga	1.183
San Antonio, Tex	.820	New Orleans, La	1.029
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):		Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
Norfolk, Va	1.141	Youngstown, Ohio	1.343
Youngstown, Ohio	1.134	Dayton, Ohio	1.297
Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	1.126	Erie, Pa	1.297
Peoria, Ill	1.104	Des Moines, Iowa	1.290
Erie, Pa	1.100	Reading, Pa	1.249
Dayton, Ohio	1.081	Scranton, Pa	1.245
Charlotte, N. C	1.078	Peoria, Ill	1.230
South Bend, Ind	1.070	Duluth, Minn	1.220
Omaha, Nebr	1.052	Richmond, Va	1.220
Reading, Pa	1.049	Rock Island (Ill.) district [1]	1.217
Worcester, Mass	1.023	South Bend, Ind	1.217
Average for group IV	*1.014*	Tampa, Fla	1.217
Des Moines, Iowa	1.002	Norfolk, Va	1.215
Grand Rapids, Mich	.991	Jacksonville, Fla	1.209
Oklahoma City, Okla	.989	*Average for group IV*	*1.209*
Springfield, Mass	.983	Grand Rapids, Mich	1.204
Scranton, Pa	.974	Springfield, Mass	1.194
New Haven, Conn	.966	New Haven, Conn	1.185
Tampa, Fla	.965	Omaha, Nebr	1.183
Jacksonville, Fla	.957	Worcester, Mass	1.170
Duluth, Minn	.943	Charlotte, N. C	1.154
Spokane, Wash	.897	Spokane, Wash	1.149
Salt Lake City, Utah	.895	Nashville, Tenn	1.147
Wichita, Kans	.890	Oklahoma City, Okla	1.130
Nashville, Tenn	.882	Salt Lake City, Utah	1.124
Richmond, Va	.819	Wichita, Kans	1.032
Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):		Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
Madison, Wis	1.179	Butte, Mont	1.277
Charleston, W. Va	1.121	Binghamton, N. Y	1.261
El Paso, Tex	1.119	Phoenix, Ariz	1.227
Phoenix, Ariz	1.114	Madison, Wis	1.199
Mobile, Ala	1.078	Charleston, W. Va	1.196
Binghamton, N. Y	1.011	*Average for group V*	*1.175*
Average for group V	*1.007*	El Paso, Tex	1.165
Butte, Mont	.998	Mobile, Ala	1.141
York, Pa	.957	Manchester, N. H	1.140
Jackson, Miss	.936	Portland, Maine	1.110
Manchester, N. H	.912	Little Rock, Ark	1.103
Little Rock, Ark	.878		
Portland, Maine	.849		

[1] Includes Rock Island, Ill., Davenport, Iowa, and Moline, Ill.

AVERAGE WAGE RATES, BY SIZE OF CITY

The averages of the wage rates for all printing trades within the several population groups varied directly with the size of the city groups (table 9). This direct relationship prevailed for all printing trades combined, for the book and job branch, and for the newspaper group.

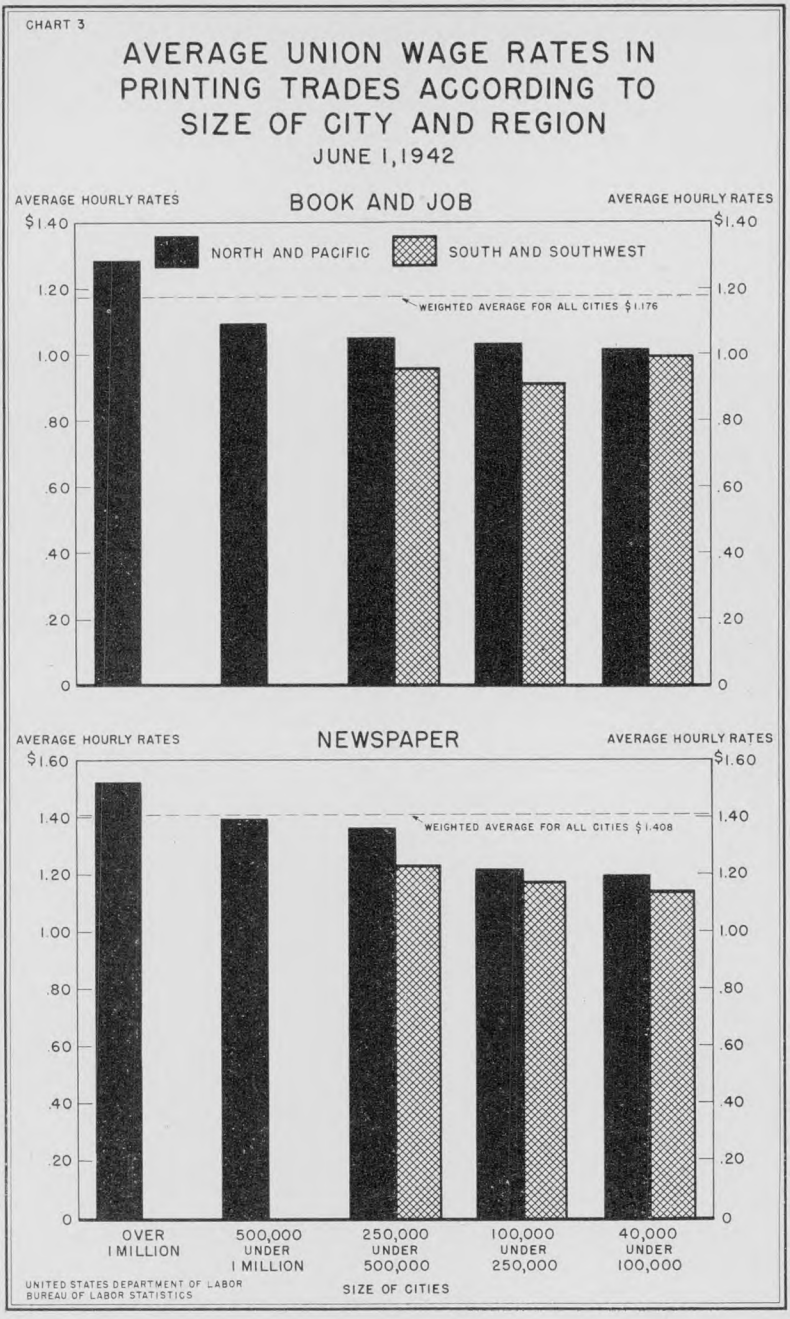
The differences between the averages of group I cities (over 1,000,000 population) and the cities in group II (500,000 to 1,000,000) were considerably greater than the differences in averages between subsequent groups. For all printing trades combined the difference between groups I and II was 15.1 cents; between groups II and III (250,000 to 500,000) 5.8 cents; between groups III and IV (100,000 to 250,000) 4.4 cents; and between groups IV and V (40,000 to 100,000) 0.6 cent. In the combined book and job trades the differences, in descending group order, were 19.0 cents, 5.8 cents, 2.2 cents, and 0.7 cent; for the newspaper branch they amounted to 12.8, 7.0, 11.6, and 3.4 cents.

In the North and Pacific region, the direct variation in accordance with population held for the averages of all trades combined and also for the averages of both the book and job and newspaper branches.

In the South and Southwest, the averages for the newspaper trades varied directly with the city sizes, but this was not true of the averages for the book and job trades and for all trades combined. In the book and job branch the average for group V was higher than for group III, which in turn was higher than that for group IV. This was largely due to the fact that the lowest-paid trades in the book and job group—bindery women, bookbinders, and press assistants and feeders—were usually less widely organized in the small cities than in the large cities. These lower-paying trades included less than one-fifth of the total book and job membership in size V cities, while the proportion was over one-third in cities of group III and almost 37 percent in group IV cities. The influence of the lower-paid trades on the average thus logically becomes greater as these trades extend their organization. The high rates for pressmen in Phoenix and El Paso also raised the group V averages to a considerable extent. Some of these influences carried over into the averages for all printing trades combined, with the result that the average for size V cities in the South and Southwest was higher than that for size IV cities.

Direct variation by city size was not the rule among the individual book and job trades, as only 5 of the 11 trades had this relationship. Four trades in the northern and Pacific group and 4 trades in the southern and southwestern cities varied directly. The most frequent exception in the averages of all cities, as well as the averages for the North and Pacific cities, was a higher average for size V cities than for size IV cities.

The averages for the individual newspaper trades varied with the city-size groups more consistently than those of the book and job trades, as the day-shift pressmen constituted the only trade not in direct variance. Group V cities, owing to the influence of the high rates in Butte, Mont., Binghamton, N. Y., and Madison, Wis., had average rates for pressmen higher than those of group IV. Both the averages for all regions and for the northern and Pacific cities showed the effects of these differences. Other averages not in direct variation



in the North and Pacific area were the mailers and pressmen-in-charge on both the day and night shifts, and pressmen on the night shift. The mailers on day shifts had higher averages in size III cities than in size II cities, while the mailers on the night shifts showed a higher average for size V cities than for size IV cities. The pressmen on the night shift and the pressmen-in-charge for both shifts, had higher averages in group V cities than in group IV cities.

TABLE 9.—*Average Hourly Union Wage Rates in the Printing Trades, by Regions and Population Groups, June 1, 1942*

Trade	Average hourly wage rates in cities of specified population group [1]											
	Group I [2]	Group II [2]	Group III			Group IV			Group V			
	North and Pacific	North and Pacific	All regions	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	All regions	North and Pacific	South and Southwest	All regions	North and Pacific	South and Southwest
All printing trades	$1.354	$1.203	$1.145	$1.161	$1.092	$1.101	$1.111	$1.063	$1.095	$1.103	$1.081
Book and job	1.284	1.094	1.036	1.053	.959	1.014	1.033	.912	1.007	1.014	.994
Bindery women	.610	.577	.532	.539	.488	.525	.550	.464	.530	.554	(3)
Bookbinders	1.130	1.153	1.088	1.111	.986	.934	.935	.931	1.068	1.105	(3)
Compositors, hand	1.395	1.240	1.190	1.216	1.098	1.124	1.137	1.053	1.094	1.093	1.096
Electrotypers	1.662	1.227	1.266	1.272	1.190	1.241	1.253	1.110	(3)	(3)	-------
Machine operators	1.435	1.268	1.201	1.228	1.121	1.135	1.148	1.086	1.023	1.154	1.051
Machine tenders (machinists)	1.469	1.186	1.264	1.268	1.100	1.097	1.183	1.000	1.216	1.239	1.184
Mailers	1.120	1.117	1.112	1.125	(3)	.887	.885	(3)	(3)	(3)	-------
Photoengravers	1.719	1.506	1.477	1.507	1.336	1.395	1.403	1.374	1.352	1.352	-------
Press assistants and feeders	1.098	.924	.848	.887	.645	.856	.871	.663	.720	.735	.674
Pressmen, cylinder	1.413	1.233	1.179	1.209	1.049	1.185	1.205	1.021	1.064	1.067	1.054
Pressmen, platen	1.252	1.052	.981	1.000	.891	.965	.993	.866	.946	.905	.998
Newspaper	1.523	1.395	1.325	1.363	1.231	1.209	1.219	1.179	1.175	1.197	1.144
Day work	1.445	1.335	1.285	1.318	1.191	1.182	1.191	1.152	1.141	1.160	1.108
Night work	1.570	1.459	1.384	1.431	1.281	1.246	1.263	1.206	1.211	1.248	1.173
Compositors, hand:											
Day work	1.588	1.422	1.359	1.394	1.259	1.218	1.226	1.190	1.167	1.186	1.134
Night work	1.662	1.514	1.429	1.472	1.327	1.277	1.290	1.244	1.221	1.246	1.202
Machine operators:											
Day work	1.635	1.432	1.370	1.397	1.278	1.220	1.228	1.191	1.169	1.191	1.135
Night work	1.684	1.515	1.449	1.476	1.372	1.278	1.292	1.247	1.236	1.263	1.205
Machine tenders (machinists):											
Day work	1.601	1.428	1.358	1.388	1.290	1.229	1.243	1.190	1.166	1.173	1.153
Night work	1.690	1.505	1.429	1.466	1.341	1.281	1.298	1.247	1.238	1.253	1.223
Mailers:											
Day work	1.138	1.023	.993	1.040	.839	.877	.883	.859	.807	.821	.738
Night work	1.223	1.129	1.056	1.119	.963	.965	.990	.914	.951	1.061	.842
Photoengravers:											
Day work	1.686	1.591	1.454	1.528	1.348	1.359	1.368	1.335	(3)	(3)	-------
Night work	1.963	1.762	1.519	1.677	1.304	1.491	1.511	1.436	(3)	(3)	-------
Pressmen (journeymen):											
Day work	1.320	1.239	1.213	1.248	1.131	1.139	1.148	1.108	1.151	1.210	1.071
Night work	1.481	1.394	1.304	1.329	1.245	1.205	1.222	1.162	1.175	1.261	1.099
Pressmen-in-charge:											
Day work	1.525	1.354	1.321	1.336	1.271	1.266	1.270	1.251	1.240	1.325	1.072
Night work	1.705	1.435	1.407	1.426	1.371	1.329	1.341	1.306	1.246	1.386	1.107
Stereotypers:											
Day work	1.345	1.318	1.238	1.268	1.169	1.149	1.155	1.126	1.122	1.153	1.062
Night work	1.591	1.477	1.321	1.365	1.247	1.228	1.245	1.196	1.170	1.220	1.112

[1] Group I, over 1,000,000 population; Group II, 500,000 to 1,000,000; Group III, 250,000 to 500,000; Group IV, 100,000 to 250,000; Group V, 40,000 to 100,000.
[2] No city of this size in the South or Southwest.
[3] Insufficient quotations to compute an average.

Among the southern groups there were two exceptions to direct variation. The day-shift mailers and night-shift photoengravers had higher averages in group IV cities than in group III cities.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN WAGE RATES

There is no city in the South or Southwest with a population of over 500,000. Consequently, the comparison of average wage rates between the regions, given in table 9, had to be confined to population groups III, IV, and V.

Within the comparable city-size classifications the averages for all printing trades combined, as well as for both the book and job and the newspaper branches, were consistently higher in the North and Pacific region than in the South and Southwest. The same relationship prevailed generally throughout the averages of the individual trades, there being only two exceptions in the book and job trades and none in the newspaper trades.

The southern and southwestern cities in group V had higher averages for hand compositors and platen pressmen in the book and job branch than did the northern and Pacific cities. The difference for platen pressmen was due primarily to the influence of Phoenix and El Paso, but the difference for hand compositors, 109.6 compared with 109.3, was so slight that it is impossible to attribute the cause to the influence of any one city.

Overtime Rates

Time and a half for all overtime, or for the first few hours of overtime, is practically universal in the printing trades, over 97 percent of the union members being paid on this basis.

Double time is effective in over one-third of the 753 agreements analyzed, most frequently after 11 or 12 consecutive hours of work. In a few cases triple time is called for after 15 or 16 consecutive hours. Double time is specified as the initial overtime rate in a few of the book and job quotations, but none of the workers in the newspaper branch receive initial penalty compensation amounting to twice the regular hourly rate. The bindery women indicated double time for 10.7 percent and machine tenders for 4.1 percent of their membership, these being the only trades to have less than 98 percent of their members receiving time and a half for overtime. In the newspaper trades, agreements covering day-shift pressmen and pressmen-in-charge specified no penalty rate for 11.6 percent and 8.3 percent of their respective memberships, while for the night shift 22.1 percent and 13.6 percent of their members respectively, worked under the same type of agreement. All other trades except the stereotypers provided time and a half exclusively as their initial overtime rate.

Among the agreements which provided that the initial overtime rates applied for only a limited number of hours, book and job photoengravers had the greatest number (93 percent) calling for double time, usually after 11 or 12 consecutive hours of work. The bookbinders and bindery women and the pressmen also reported the same provisions in a majority of their agreements (69 percent and 51 percent, respectively). Double-time provisions are considerably less

frequent in newspaper agreements, the stereotypers (39 percent) and photoengravers (23 percent) being the only trades to have a substantial number providing double time, usually after 11 or 12 consecutive hours. A number of the unions require any member who has worked overtime to take equivalent time off as soon as a competent substitute is available to work in his place.

The distribution of the initial overtime rates provided in the printing-trades agreements, and the proportions of the memberships to which they applied, are shown in table 10.

TABLE 10.— *Initial Overtime Rates Provided in Printing-Trades Union Agreements, June 1, 1942*

Trade	Number of quotations showing initial rates of—				Percent of union members having initial overtime rates of—			
	Time and a half	Double time	Other penalty scales	No penalty rate specified	Time and a half	Double time	Other penalty scales	No penalty rate specified
All printing trades	2,608	6	9	6	97.1	1.2	0.5	1.2
Book and job	1,479	6	3		98.0	1.8	.2	
Bindery women	94	3	2		88.6	10.7	.7	
Bookbinders	213		1		99.5		.5	
Compositors, hand	89	1			98.8	1.2		
Electrotypers	57				100.0			
Machine operators	104	1			98.6	1.4		
Machine tenders (machinists)	34	1			95.9	4.1		
Mailers	40				100.0			
Photoengravers	73				100.0			
Press assistants and feeders	250				100.0			
Pressmen, cylinder	392				100.0			
Pressmen, platen	133				100.0			
Newspaper	1,129		6	6	95.1		1.3	3.6
Day work	592		4	3	96.0		1.2	2.8
Night work	537		2	3	94.2		1.4	4.4
Compositors, hand:								
Day work	83				100.0			
Night work	76				100.0			
Machine operators:								
Day work	88				100.0			
Night work	80				100.0			
Machine tenders (machinists):								
Day work	65				100.0			
Night work	62				100.0			
Mailers:								
Day work	71				100.0			
Night work	58				100.0			
Photoengravers:								
Day work	54				100.0			
Night work	53				100.0			
Pressmen (journeymen):								
Day work	85		2	1	83.4		5.0	11.6
Night work	76		1	1	70.7		7.2	22.1
Pressmen-in-charge:								
Day work	72		2	1	87.1		4.6	8.3
Night work	65		1	1	83.5		2.9	13.6
Stereotypers:								
Day work	74			1	99.5			.5
Night work	67			1	99.6			.4

Weekly Hours[4]

TREND IN UNION HOURS, 1907 TO 1942

There was practically no change in the index of weekly hours (at regular rates) in all printing trades during the period June 1, 1941, to June 1, 1942. The book and job index showed no change whatever, maintaining its previous index of 89.4, while the newspaper index was reduced by one-tenth of 1 percent to a figure of 84.2.

The trend of weekly hours in the printing trades is marked by short periods of abrupt change followed by long intervals of practically no change. This is especially true in the book and job branch. The index of weekly hours for these trades indicates a 27-percent reduction from 1907 to 1942. Practically all of this decrease occurred in three short periods—1907–9, 1919–22, and 1931–35. The most noticeable reduction in weekly hours occurred during the period 1919–22, when the printing-trades unions concentrated on a drive for the 44-hour week. As a result, maximum weekly hours were decreased by 12.5 percent. Average weekly hours remained relatively unchanged for the next 9 years, after which a combination of factors—various share-the-work plans established during the depression, and the NRA 40-hour-week program—induced a movement for another sharp reduction. During this period (1931–35) weekly hours in the book and job branch decreased 9.5 percent. Since 1935 the decreases have been very slight, the 1942 index being only 1.2 percent lower.

TABLE 11.—*Indexes of Union Weekly Hours in All Printing Trades, 1907 to 1942*

[1929=100]

Year	Weekly hours			Year	Weekly hours		
	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper		All printing	Book and job	Newspaper
1907	(1)	122.4	102.3	1925	100.3	100.3	100.5
1908	(1)	116.8	101.8	1926	100.2	100.1	100.7
1909	(1)	115.8	101.5	1927	100.1	100.1	100.4
1910	(1)	115.4	101.3	1928	100.1	100.1	100.2
1911	111.6	115.4	101.3	1929	100.0	100.0	100.0
1912	111.5	115.3	101.1	1930	99.9	99.9	99.8
1913	111.4	115.3	101.0	1931	99.8	99.9	99.8
1914	111.3	115.3	100.8	1932	96.5	96.1	97.3
1915	111.3	115.3	100.7	1933	95.7	95.1	96.8
1916	111.3	115.3	100.6	1934	90.8	91.8	89.1
1917	111.3	115.3	100.6	1935	89.3	90.4	87.6
1918	111.3	115.3	100.6	1936	88.9	90.5	86.5
1919	111.3	115.2	100.8	1937	88.5	90.3	85.7
1920	108.1	110.9	100.7	1938	88.1	89.9	85.3
1921	101.5	102.1	100.4	1939	87.8	89.6	84.9
1922	101.1	100.8	102.4	1940	87.6	89.4	84.6
1923	100.7	100.2	102.2	1941	87.5	89.4	84.3
1924	100.3	100.2	100.8	1942	87.4	89.4	84.2

[1] Combined data for the years 1907–10 not available.

The index of weekly hours in the newspaper branch did not change materially during the entire period from 1907 to 1931, representing, in general, scales from 40 to 48 hours. A slight increase in the index was indicated in 1922, but the effect of this upturn was practically canceled by 1924. Beginning in 1931 and continuing until 1936, the hours for newspaper workers decreased rapidly. The reductions

[4] "Maximum weekly hours," discussed in this section, refers to the scheduled workweek at regular pay. Actual time worked with overtime rates may be longer

during these 5 years (13.3 percent) amounted to over five times the amount (2.5 percent) of the reductions for the 25-year period preceding them. The greater part of this decrease occurred between May 15, 1933, and May 15, 1934, when the newspaper index declined by 8 percent. These recent declines represent an ever-widening adoption of weekly scales of less than 40 hours a week.

Trend in Individual Trades

Seven of the 11 book and job trades did not register a change in their average weekly hours during the past year. Only the photoengravers succeeded in reducing their average, and this decrease amounted to only three-tenths of 1 percent. In contrast, all of the newspaper trades showed declining indexes. The decreases amounted to less than 1 percent in each of the trades.

In relation to the base year (1929) the electrotypers' index for 1942 (81.7) reflected the greatest reduction in average allowed hours among the book and job trades. The least reduction among the book and job trades was that of the press assistants and feeders, whose 1942 index showed a decline of 8.5 percent during the 12-year period. In the newspaper branch the typographic trades (compositors, machine operators, and machine tenders) had the greatest reductions in hours since 1929 (17.1, 18.4, and 20.9 percent, respectively).

The indexes for each printing trade, except mailers, are shown in table 12. Separate indexes for day and night work in the newspaper trades are not shown, since the movement is very similar.

TABLE 12.—*Indexes of Union Weekly Hours in Each Printing Trade, 1916 to 1942*

BOOK AND JOB

[1929=100]

Year	Bindery women	Bookbinders	Compositors, hand	Machine operators	Machine tenders, (machinists)	Electrotypers	Photoengravers	Press assistants and feeders	Pressmen, cylinder	Pressmen, platen
1916	107.0	107.4	108.7	107.7	108.8	103.5	108.9	108.1	108.4	107.9
1917	107.0	107.4	108.7	107.7	108.8	103.4	108.9	108.1	108.4	107.9
1918	107.0	107.4	108.7	107.7	108.8	103.4	108.6	108.1	108.4	107.9
1919	107.0	107.4	108.7	107.7	108.8	103.4	108.6	108.1	108.4	107.9
1920	107.0	107.4	108.7	107.7	108.8	103.3	100.2	108.0	108.4	107.8
1921	102.1	101.9	102.8	102.1	100.8	100.1	100.0	102.2	102.4	102.2
1922	100.8	100.9	100.7	100.6	100.4	98.7	100.0	101.1	101.2	101.6
1923	100.3	100.4	99.7	100.2	100.1	99.6	100.0	100.4	100.7	100.3
1924	100.3	100.1	100.0	99.8	100.0	99.3	100.0	100.6	100.9	100.6
1925	100.3	100.4	100.0	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.3	100.4	100.5
1926	100.5	100.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.2	100.0	100.2	100.2	99.7
1927	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.2	100.0	100.3	100.0	100.1	100.2	99.7
1928	99.8	100.7	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.8	99.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
1931	99.8	99.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.1	99.8	100.0	100.0	100.5
1932	99.9	99.7	99.7	99.9	100.0	98.2	94.9	87.9	91.4	98.2
1933	99.9	99.6	96.5	95.6	95.0	93.1	91.7	92.9	92.4	95.9
1934	93.5	93.1	94.1	92.9	91.5	90.1	90.5	89.8	89.2	92.0
1935	92.8	91.5	92.4	91.2	90.7	88.2	86.9	89.6	88.9	91.3
1936	92.4	91.5	91.7	90.4	90.2	86.5	85.7	91.9	90.7	91.3
1937	91.9	91.5	91.6	90.3	90.2	86.3	85.2	91.7	90.4	90.9
1938	91.5	91.2	91.4	90.1	90.1	84.5	84.4	91.5	90.1	90.6
1939	90.4	90.0	91.4	90.1	90.0	83.6	83.8	91.5	90.1	90.6
1940	90.4	90.0	91.4	90.1	90.0	81.7	83.7	91.5	90.1	90.6
1941	90.4	89.9	91.4	90.1	90.0	81.7	83.6	91.5	90.1	90.4
1942	90.6	90.0	91.4	90.1	90.0	81.7	83.3	91.5	90.1	90.4

TABLE 12.—*Indexes of Union Weekly Hours in Each Printing Trade, 1916 to 1942*—Continued

NEWSPAPER

Year	Compositors, hand	Machine operators	Machine tenders (machinists)	Photoengravers	Pressmen, web presses [1]	Stereotypers
1916	100.7	100.5	100.2	106.9	98.4	101.0
1917	100.7	100.5	100.2	106.9	98.3	100.9
1918	100.8	100.7	100.3	105.7	98.3	100.9
1919	100.8	100.7	100.3	105.4	99.0	101.0
1920	101.1	100.8	100.4	104.3	98.6	100.5
1921	100.9	100.6	100.4	101.1	98.4	99.1
1922	102.1	102.1	101.0	101.8	103.5	101.0
1923	102.1	102.0	101.0	100.9	103.0	100.9
1924	101.1	100.6	100.4	100.9	99.8	100.8
1925	101.0	100.5	100.9	100.2	99.2	100.4
1926	101.2	100.3	100.7	99.8	100.3	100.4
1927	100.6	100.2	100.1	100.2	100.1	100.2
1928	100.4	99.9	100.3	100.0	99.7	100.7
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	00.0	100.0	100.0
1930	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.8	100.0
1931	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.5	99.8	100.1
1932	97.6	95.9	92.9	99.4	97.8	99.3
1933	96.5	95.2	92.1	99.6	98.7	98.1
1934	86.7	85.2	82.6	95.5	93.9	94.9
1935	85.6	84.3	81.4	92.4	91.8	92.7
1936	84.0	82.7	79.9	92.1	91.4	92.3
1937	83.5	82.2	79.7	91.1	90.3	90.6
1938	83.5	82.1	79.6	88.6	89.7	88.8
1939	83.4	82.1	79.6	88.4	89.1	86.1
1940	83.1	81.9	79.5	88.2	88.9	85.3
1941	83.0	81.8	79.4	88.1	88.6	84.3
1942	82.9	81.6	79.1	87.9	88.5	84.2

[1] Includes pressmen-in-charge.

Union Hours, 1942

The two branches of the printing trades differed sharply in their hour scales for a normal workweek (table 13). In the book and job trades the 40-hour week prevailed; 86.9 percent of their members were operating under agreements specifying that scale. The newspaper trades in general had a shorter workweek. The 37½-hour week applied to 49.7 percent of the newspaper workers (day shift 52.4 percent, night shift 46.9 percent), while only 20.9 percent had 40 hours and almost none had more than 40 hours as their normal workweek. Only 13.8 percent of the night-shift workers were covered by 40-hour scales. In fact, 3 of every 8 newspaper workers on night shifts operated on schedules of less than 37½ hours; about 1 of every 7 workers on day shifts were in the same category. Only one-tenth of 1 per cent of the newspaper workers and none of the book and job members had workweeks of over 40 hours.

TABLE 13.—*Percentage Distribution of Union Members in the Printing Trades, by Hour Scales, June 1, 1942*

Trade	Average hours per week	Percent of members whose hours per week were—								
		Under 30	30	Over 30 and under 35	35	Over 35 and under 37½	37½	Over 37½ and under 40	40	Over 40
All printing trades	38.8	0.2	0.1	3.2	6.2	3.6	21.0	1.2	64.5	(1)
Book and job	39.4	.1	.....	2.2	3.9	.4	6.3	.2	86.9	.....
Bindery women	40.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100.0	.....
Bookbinders	40.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100.0	.....
Compositors, hand	39.9	.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	4.7	.....	95.2	.....
Electrotypers	35.9	.....	.....	45.8	.8	8.7	.....	.9	43.8	.....
Machine operators	39.8	.3	.....	.2	.7	.....	5.3	.....	93.5	.....
Machine tenders (machinists)	39.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2.7	.....	97.3	.....
Mailers	39.8	.....	.....	.....	.7	3.4	4.1	.....	91.8	.....
Photoengravers	36.9	.....	.....	.6	37.9	.....	45.3	2.2	14.0	.....
Press assistants and feeders	40.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.6	.....	98.4	.....
Pressmen, cylinder	39.9	.....	.....	.....	1.4	.....	1.7	.....	96.9	.....
Pressmen, platen	40.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.9	.....	98.1	.....
Newspaper	37.4	.4	.3	5.2	10.6	9.7	49.7	3.1	20.9	0.1
Day work	37.9	.7	.5	.3	6.0	6.9	52.4	4.4	28.5	.3
Night work	36.9	.2	.1	9.8	14.9	12.4	46.9	1.9	13.8	.....
Compositors, hand	37.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	37.4	.6	.7	.2	9.4	13.2	58.6	3.0	14.3	.....
Night work	37.3	.2	.1	.2	8.0	17.1	62.9	.8	10.7	.....
Machine operators	37.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	37.1	2.2	1.4	.5	9.6	13.2	55.2	4.6	13.3	.....
Night work	37.3	.7	.2	.1	8.8	15.7	62.0	1.3	11.2	.....
Machine tenders (machinists)	37.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	37.4	.....	.3	.5	8.0	17.0	60.3	2.3	11.6	.....
Night work	37.3	.....	.....	.5	7.2	19.5	63.7	.5	8.6	.....
Mailers	37.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	38.9	.....	.....	.....	1.1	.1	40.0	3.0	55.8	.....
Night work	36.9	.....	.....	22.1	20.2	.3	33.7	3.4	20.3	.....
Photoengravers	38.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	38.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	64.1	.4	35.5	.....
Night work	37.7	.....	.....	.....	7.8	.5	74.1	1.1	16.5	.....
Pressmen (journeymen)	37.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	38.6	.....	.....	.....	.2	.3	50.8	7.8	39.7	1.2
Night work	36.3	.....	.....	22.5	28.9	16.5	11.3	4.2	16.6	.....
Pressmen-in-charge	37.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	38.5	.....	.....	.....	.5	.7	57.1	4.5	35.9	1.3
Night work	36.1	.....	.....	13.9	42.9	11.7	16.0	3.6	11.9	.....
Stereotypers	37.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Day work	38.3	.....	.....	1.0	10.5	1.2	41.3	3.9	42.1	.....
Night work	35.6	.....	1.0	33.2	9.7	3.0	36.6	.2	16.3	.....

[1] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

These various hour scales resulted in an average workweek in the printing trades of 38.8 hours. The average for the book and job trades was 39.4. The newspaper average was 37.4 hours; on day work it amounted to 37.9 hours, on night work 36.9 hours.

Nine of the 11 book and job trades reported the 40-hour week as applying to over 91 percent of their members; 4 of them included over 98 percent. Only the electrotypers (43.8 percent) and photoengravers (14.0 percent) reported a minority of their members on the 40-hour basis. The electrotypers had 45.8 percent of their members on a 32-hour week. The photoengravers had workweeks of 35 hours applying to 37.9 percent, and 37½ hours covering 45.3 percent of their number. Because of these exceptions, the electrotypers and photoengravers had the lowest average hours per week (35.9 and 36.9, respectively). None of the other book and job trades had average workweeks of less than 39.8 hours, although none of them exceeded 40.

Among the newspaper workers, the mailers on day shift were the only ones with a majority of their number (55.8 percent) working a 40-hour week. The typographic trades and photoengravers, day and night shifts, had substantial majorities of their members operating under agreements providing for a 37½-hour week, as did also the day-shift workers of the pressmen (journeymen and pressmen-in-charge). However, over one-half of the night-shift workers of the pressmen group had workweeks of 35 hours or less, as did over one-third of the stereotypers on night shifts. Only the pressmen and pressmen-in-charge reported workweeks of over 40 hours, 1.2 percent and 1.3 percent, respectively, having scales of 42 hours. The stereotypers on night work had the lowest average hours per week (35.6) closely followed by the night pressmen-in-charge (36.1) and pressmen (36.3).

Changes in Hours Between 1941 and 1942

There was very little change in weekly hours for union members in the book and job printing trades during the period June 1, 1941, to June 1, 1942. Only 10 of 1,371 quotations reported differences from last year (table 14). Six of these changes provided for a shorter workweek affecting less than 1 percent of the total members. Hours of work at straight time remained the same for over 98 percent of the members in this branch. Seven of the trades had no changes whatever.

In the newspaper branch, changes were slightly more numerous, although 93.7 percent of the total members maintained their 1941 schedules. Both day and night workers had 4.5 percent of their number working a shorter week than in the previous year.

Among the individual trades, only the mailers on night shift had as many as 15 percent of their members receiving a reduction in working hours. The machine tenders on day shift obtained a shortened workweek for 10.1 percent of their number. In contrast, the pressmen-in-charge and pressmen on night shifts had their workweek lengthened by 9.1 percent and 7.6 percent, respectively. All of the other trades and shifts maintained their 1941 scales for at least 90 percent of their members.

TABLE 14.—*Number of Changes in Union Hour Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1942, Compared with June 1, 1941*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1941	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of union members affected by—		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All printing trades	2,478	18	76	2,384	1.1	2.1	96.8
Book and job	1,371	4	6	1,361	.7	.8	98.5
Bindery women	84	2		82	3.3		96.7
Bookbinders	194	1		193	2.1		97.9
Compositors, hand	89			89			100.0
Electrotypers	56	1		55	.6		99.4
Machine operators	104			104			100.0
Machine tenders (machinists)	35			35			100.0
Mailers	38			38			100.0
Photoengravers	62		6	56		8.8	91.2
Press assistants and feeders	230			230			100.0
Pressmen, cylinder	352			352			100.0
Pressmen, platen	127			127			100.0
Newspaper	1,107	14	70	1,023	1.8	4.5	93.7
Day work	580	5	35	540	1.0	4.5	94.5
Night work	527	9	35	483	2.4	4.5	93.1
Compositors, hand:							
Day work	82	1	5	76	2.2	4.5	93.3
Night work	75	2	4	69	1.5	3.0	95.5
Machine operators:							
Day work	85	1	4	80	1.8	6.5	91.7
Night work	78	2	3	73	1.4	4.3	94.3
Machine tenders (machinists):							
Day work	65	1	5	59	1.3	10.1	88.6
Night work	62	2	4	56	1.3	4.3	94.4
Mailers:							
Day work	63	1	5	57	.5	5.3	94.2
Night work	52		4	48		15.7	84.3
Photoengravers:							
Day work	51		3	48		2.9	97.1
Night work	50		4	46		1.9	98.1
Pressmen (journeymen):							
Day work	86	1	5	80	.1	2.6	97.3
Night work	77	2	7	68	7.6	1.3	91.1
Pressmen-in-charge:							
Day work	74		5	69		3.1	96.9
Night work	66	1	7	58	9.1	1.7	89.2
Stereotypers:							
Day work	74		3	71		3.0	97.0
Night work	67		2	65		1.2	98.8

WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN UNITED STATES INDUSTRIES

THE following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending December 15, 1942, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry, and furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments During Month Ending December 15, 1942 [1]

Group and industry	Establishments		Employees		Average percentage change in wage rates of employees having increases
	Total number covered [2]	Number reporting increases	Total number covered [2]	Number receiving increases	
Manufacturing					
All manufacturing	34,570	184	9,426,700	87,916	[a] 6.0
Durable goods	13,660	124	5,812,300	44,242	6.6
Nondurable goods	20,910	60	3,614,400	43,674	5.5
Iron and steel and their products not including machinery	3,595	21	1,314,200	5,747	5.9
Electrical machinery	745	13	516,300	14,865	7.6
Electrical equipment	580	8	[3]	4,621	7.9
Radios and phonographs	95	5	[3]	10,244	7.4
Machinery, except electrical	2,735	35	891,200	2,263	8.7
Machinery and machine-shop products	1,545	23	388,600	1,320	8.8
Engines and turbines	70	3	[3]	434	9.6
Machine-tool accessories	215	5	[3]	364	7.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	620	5	1,742,300	11,798	5.2
Aircraft and parts (excluding engines)	170	3	[3]	11,549	5.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	1,185	6	332,400	971	5.9
Lumber and timber basic products	1,250	34	170,500	7,829	6.6
Sawmills	675	31	126,300	7,339	6.6
Planing and plywood mills	575	3	44,200	490	7.6
Stone, clay and glass products	1,565	6	227,300	420	5.5
All textiles and finished textile products	6,875	12	1,386,600	383	9.2
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	3,125	6	987,900	215	7.5
Apparel and other finished textile products	3,750	6	398,700	168	11.4
Food and kindred products	5,170	14	576,600	908	11.7
Baking	970	7	88,500	778	12.0
Paper and allied products	1,350	4	216,900	178	8.7
Chemicals, petroleum and coal products	2,455	23	575,200	41,969	5.2
Chemicals and allied products	2,175	23	481,500	41,969	5.2
Paints, varnishes, and colors	490	3	22,700	279	3.8
Rayon and allied products	35	7	51,900	14,102	4.0
Chemicals	290	3	95,200	672	4.3
Fertilizers	320	3	14,800	46	8.6
Miscellaneous industries	1,050	3	239,800	51	9.5
Nonmanufacturing					
Nonmanufacturing (except building construction)	85,570	50	3,070,500	1,671	10.5
Metalliferous mining	480	3	85,700	369	6.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	1,340	4	47,100	134	14.8
Public utilities: Electric light and power	2,640	16	181,600	425	9.0
Wholesale trade	13,870	4	326,800	84	5.7
Retail trade	46,890	13	1,117,200	100	9.4

[a] Correct figure for October is 6.9, instead of 9.6 as published on page 136 of the Monthly Labor Review for January 1943.

[1] Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included where practicable in "all manufacturing," and in the various industry groups. No decrease reported.

[2] Approximate—based on previous month's sample.

[3] Included in group totals but not available for publication separately.

EARNINGS OF CLERICAL WORKERS IN ILLINOIS AND NEW YORK FACTORIES, OCTOBER 1942

Illinois [1]

AVERAGE weekly earnings of male clerical workers in Illinois manufacturing plants increased 20 percent, and those of women 13 percent, in the year from October 1941 to October 1942, as shown by data based on reports received by the Illinois Department of Labor from 2,000 establishments with 55,401 clerical employees. During the year and a half from April 1941 (when the department's first semiannual survey of clerical workers was made) to October 1942, the increase for men was 34 percent and for women 22 percent. In the 6 months from April to October 1942, earnings of men increased about 12 percent and those of women a little over 8 percent. Data showing the number of hours worked were not tabulated, but the Illinois department attributes the greater increases in men's earnings to their having worked more overtime than women, whose daily working hours are limited by law to 8. Weekly earnings in October 1942 in all manufacturing industries combined averaged $49.43 for men, $27.50 for women, and $38.55 for both sexes taken together.

Table 1 shows the number of reporting establishments and the number of clerical workers in the major manufacturing groups, and the average weekly earnings of men and of women in the major groups and their subdivisions. It will be noted that earnings varied considerably from industry to industry. The report states that this variation was due partly to the different types of work performed. In some plants the clerical workers consist of a few timekeepers and stockmen, while in others there are large clerical staffs, including many production clerks and technical employees. The workers covered by the survey included clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, and other clerical employees in the production and nonproduction departments, as well as technical employees such as draftsmen, chemists, and other laboratory assistants doing routine work. Salesmen and clerks in sales offices were excluded.

[1] The data for October 1942 are from the Illinois Labor Bulletin, Illinois Department of Labor, Chicago, November 30, 1942. Reports of the Illinois Department of Labor's three previous surveys of employment and earnings of clerical workers in Illinois manufacturing industries, giving data for April and October 1941, and April 1942, were published in the Illinois Labor Bulletin for May and December 1941 and May 1942, respectively

TABLE 1.—*Employment and Average Weekly Earnings of Clerical Workers in Illinois Factories, October 1942*

Industry	Number of reporting establishments	Number of workers			Average weekly earnings		
		Both sexes combined [1]	Male	Female	Both sexes combined	Male	Female
All manufacturing industries	2,000	55,401	26,862	26,940	$38.55	$49.43	$27.50
Stone, clay, and glass	81	879	401	478	32.99	42.48	25.03
Gravel and other stone					32.10	41.06	24.78
Lime, cement, and plaster					38.35	47.70	24.48
Brick, tile, pottery, clay products					40.09	53.89	24.11
Glass and glass products					31.37	39.57	25.37
Metals and machinery	752	32,881	17,805	14,471	40.91	51.37	28.03
Blast furnaces and rolling mills					40.57	45.03	26.69
Foundry and forge products					39.36	47.72	27.34
Sheet iron and tin plate					34.86	46.30	25.62
Cutlery, edge tools, hardware					36.99	51.19	26.90
Heating, plumbing equipment					38.17	49.42	26.75
Machinery and machine tools					40.08	54.46	27.22
Electrical machinery, apparatus					44.04	56.21	30.66
Agricultural implements					45.92	54.11	26.36
Nonferrous metals and products					37.60	45.46	30.15
Watches, clocks, and jewelry					30.42	44.96	23.78
Transportation equipment	75	3,429	1,867	1,415	42.13	51.79	27.09
Automobiles (excluding repair)					42.31	52.13	27.55
Cars—locomotive, electric—steam					43.05	50.82	27.99
Other transportation equipment					40.26	52.54	24.91
Wood and allied products	111	896	408	488	36.03	48.36	25.71
Sawmills and planing mills					39.06	45.78	25.28
Furniture and cabinet work					34.84	47.34	25.34
Other wood products					36.71	51.79	26.37
Rubber products	13	194	73	121	31.68	42.27	25.28
Leather and allied products	64	943	257	686	28.29	41.04	23.52
Leather, tanning					35.03	43.93	30.68
Boots and shoes					26.33	37.95	22.03
Other leather and fur goods					33.13	61.35	25.22
Chemicals and allied products	149	2,254	875	1,379	34.17	46.60	26.28
Drugs, compounds, cosmetics					26.88	35.87	24.76
Paints, varnishes, dyes, colors					33.07	45.16	26.91
Petroleum refining					48.21	58.66	28.19
Chemicals, explosives, soap					32.80	42.28	26.39
Paper goods, printing, publishing	249	4,552	1,852	2,700	33.39	44.18	25.98
Paper boxes, bags, tubes					35.68	47.77	27.99
Other paper goods					31.82	41.20	27.56
Job printing					37.57	53.17	26.24
Newspapers and periodicals					31.82	39.73	24.97
Bookbinding and publishing					32.57	47.04	25.68
Lithography and engraving					32.68	48.51	24.41
Textiles	87	1,545	350	1,195	30.39	44.82	26.17
Cotton, woolen, silk goods					30.55	45.18	26.25
Knit goods					29.07	42.96	24.61
Thread and twine					29.69	41.13	26.83
Clothing and millinery	120	1,313	401	912	29.55	40.33	24.80
Men's clothing					31.09	40.77	23.98
Men's furnishings, work clothes					24.16	37.68	20.75
Women's and children's clothing					31.16	42.30	27.73
Women's and children's underwear					25.88	33.60	24.38
Millinery					26.48	42.00	25.88
Food, beverages, and tobacco	243	5,970	2,315	2,808	36.19	42.47	30.26
Slaughtering and meat packing					37.41	43.14	29.71
Dairy products					29.92	39.81	24.50
Flour, feed and other cereals					31.41	31.77	31.11
Fruit and vegetable canning					33.95	47.26	26.57
Other groceries					43.97	54.94	38.08
Bakery products					30.78	40.12	24.36
Confectionery					33.85	55.19	30.78
Beverages					32.23	37.72	25.35
Tobacco products					39.41	50.60	28.21
Miscellaneous manufacturing	56	545	258	287	38.86	51.52	27.47

[1] The figures in this column are not in all cases the sum of the figures shown for males and females separately, as some of the totals include workers employed by firms which did not furnish data by sex.

New York [2]

Weekly earnings of 67,427 workers in factory offices in New York State in October 1942 averaged $44.69, representing a new all-time high and an increase of 13.2 percent over earnings in October 1941, according to data obtained by the New York State Department of Labor in its annual survey of factory office workers. Increases in individual industry groups ranged from 4.2 percent in printing and allied trades to 27.2 percent in the manufacture of rubber products, only one group—food and tobacco products—showing a decrease (0.5 percent). Employment in New York factory offices rose 30.1 percent during the year, the greatest increase (49.9 percent) taking place in the metals and machinery group, which also had over half of the total number of employees covered by the survey.

Employment, pay rolls, and average weekly earnings in factory offices in New York State in October 1942 are shown in table 2, with the percentage of change since October 1941, by industry group. Variations in average earnings among the different industry groups are accounted for in part, the report states, by the uneven distribution of the higher-salaried supervisory and technical staff and the lower-paid clerical force reported for different industries. The workers covered by the figures in the table include clerks, stenographers, bookkeepers, accountants, cashiers, stock clerks, office managers, etc., and also such technical employees as draftsmen, chemists, and laboratory assistants doing routine work.

TABLE 2.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Average Weekly Earnings in Factory Offices in New York State, October 1942* [1]

Industry	Number of employees, October 1942	Percent of change, October 1941–October 1942	Amount of pay roll, October 1942	Percent of change, October 1941–October 1942	Average weekly earnings, October 1942	Percent of change, October 1941–October 1942
All industries	67,427	+30.1	$3,013,325	+47.2	$44.69	+13.2
Food and tobacco products	2,924	−2.1	101,325	−2.6	34.65	−.5
Textile-mill products	1,332	−9.5	40,775	−5.2	30.61	+4.8
Apparel, etc	3,046	−5.7	89,386	+.2	29.35	+6.2
Furniture and lumber products	1,030	−11.9	35,161	−3.1	34.14	+9.9
Paper, etc	1,222	−2.8	43,903	+5.2	35.93	+8.2
Printing, etc	3,828	−3.9	146,244	+.1	38.20	+4.2
Chemicals and petroleum products	2,860	+13.9	114,128	+24.4	39.90	+9.2
Rubber products	670	+29.1	32,380	+64.2	48.33	+27.2
Leather products	1,697	−9.0	43,878	−.1	25.86	+9.8
Stone, clay, and glass	1,179	+17.0	41,860	+29.3	35.50	+10.5
Metals and machinery	35,973	+49.9	1,784,619	+67.6	49.61	+11.8
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	11,666	+48.9	539,666	+61.7	46.26	+8.6

[1] Based on an unweighted aggregate of the reports from 1,624 firms for which comparable figures for the months of October 1941 and October 1942 were available.

Earnings of men and of women in factory offices in New York State as a whole, in up-State New York, and in New York City, in October 1942, are given in table 3, by industry group. While earnings of men, as shown in the table, averaged almost twice those of women, and both earned less in New York City than up-State, the report cautions that no conclusions should be drawn from the figures

[2] Data are from Industrial Bulletin, New York State Department of Labor, Albany, November 1942.

in the table as to the relative pay of men and women in the same occupation either upstate or in New York City, because of variations in the composition of the labor force reported by different firms. Men are more likely to be employed in the higher-paid research and supervisory positions. Also, the up-State sample includes not only a greater proportion of large plants, which hire highly paid office personnel, but also most of the war plants covered by the survey. On the other hand, New York City has a large proportion of small firms whose executives take care of many of the duties performed by high-salaried employees in the large establishments.

TABLE 3.—*Average Weekly Earnings of Men and Women in Factory Offices in New York State, October 1942* [1]

Industry	Men			Women		
	Total State	New York City	Up-State	Total State	New York City	Up-State
All industries	$56.17	$52.17	$58.38	$30.00	$29.41	$30.38
Food and tobacco products	46.09	46.22	45.84	26.65	27.65	25.22
Textile-mill products	47.32	43.25	48.18	24.96	26.23	24.78
Apparel, etc	43.18	42.15	46.41	25.81	25.97	25.38
Furniture and lumber products	48.77	49.09	48.66	24.86	27.19	24.24
Paper, etc	46.64	49.20	45.76	26.17	27.18	25.53
Printing, etc	46.03	46.79	43.91	27.84	29.11	24.91
Chemicals and petroleum products	54.29	46.00	58.79	27.98	26.73	29.88
Rubber products	58.58	40.90	62.32	27.89	25.01	29.24
Leather products	38.12	36.95	39.08	22.62	24.79	21.31
Stone, clay, and glass	48.98	36.82	50.16	27.70	26.60	27.82
Metals and machinery	58.92	55.09	59.61	32.54	29.09	33.40
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	59.34	56.19	69.08	32.56	34.89	29.31

[1] Based on an unweighted aggregate of the reports from 2,387 firms, which reported separate figures for men and women.

Wage and Hour Regulation

WAGE ORDERS UNDER FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT [1]

THE Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division has recently issued orders establishing a 40-cent minimum hourly rate for five industries: Grain-products industry, converted paper-products industry, manufacture of candy and related products, seamless hosiery industry, and handkerchief industry. The rate for the grain-products industry became effective on March 1, and that for candy manufacturing on March 29, 1943; February 15 was the effective date for the other three industries.

Grain-Products Industry

The 40-cent rate became effective March 1, 1943. The term "grain-products industry" means the handling, warehousing, and storing of grain when performed in conjunction with milling operations, and the processing of grain or alfalfa into food products or feeds. It includes, but without limitation, the production of flour, prepared or blended flours, breakfast cereals, coffee substitutes, pearl barley, hominy, flakes, grits, rice, meal, feeds, and prepared or mixed feeds, including those made wholly or in part from such products as cottonseed, soy beans, or peanuts (but not the crushing of such products), except those made chiefly from meat products. It excludes bakery products.

Handkerchief Industry

In the handkerchief industry, where the 40-cent minimum became effective February 15, 1943, the determination applies to the manufacture of men's, women's, and children's handkerchiefs, plain or ornamented, from any materials.

Manufacture of Candy and Related Products

The branches of the candy industry covered by the 40-cent rate are the production of chocolate and cocoa products; candied, crystallized or glace fruits and fruit peels; and any other products of the candy and related products manufacturing industry. The effective date of the order was March 29, 1943.

Seamless-Hosiery Industry

The hourly rate of pay for work on and after February 15, 1943, in the seamless-hosiery industry, was fixed at 40 cents. Under the order

[1] Federal Register, Washington, January 27, 1943.

the seamless-hosiery industry covers the manufacture or processing of seamless hosiery, including among other processes the knitting, dyeing, clocking, and all phases of finishing seamless hosiery, but excluding manufacturing or processing yarn or thread.

Converted Paper-Products Industry

A 40-cent hourly minimum, effective February 15, 1943, was ordered for the converted paper-products industry. The order applies to the manufacture of all products which have as a basic component pulp, paper, or board, and the manufacture of all like products in which synthetic materials such as cellophane, pliofilm, or synthetic resin, used in sheet form, are basic components. Products covered by other wage orders are excluded, as are rayon, cellophane, and other such pulp products; roofing paper, insulation board, and products therefrom; newspapers, etc.

RULING OF SECRETARY OF LABOR ON SEVENTH-DAY DOUBLE TIME

THE Secretary of Labor recently amended her interpretation of the so-called "premium pay order" issued by the President, under which payment of double time is required for the seventh day worked in a regularly scheduled workweek whenever an employee works for 7 consecutive days.

In her first interpretation of this requirement, the Secretary stated that double time was required for the seventh day worked, regardless of whether the 7 days fell within the same workweek, unless (1) the employee had at least 1 day off in each regularly scheduled workweek and (2) his work schedule was mutually satisfactory to him and his employer.

In the new interpretation, the Secretary points out that schedules are frequently considered efficient and generally satisfactory, under which employees have 2 days off followed by 10 days of work, and then 2 days off again; the same is true of swing-shift schedules, which occasionally require 7 straight days of work but afford at least 1 day of rest in every workweek.

Double time will not be required on the seventh consecutive day of work in the workweek. Although 7 consecutive days are worked, if a day of rest is afforded in each workweek double time is not required. A workweek consists of 7 days, starting with the same calendar day each week. This is the definition of a workweek under the Fair Labor Standards Act and is generally accepted in industry. This will permit, without penalty payment, the use of various work schedules which facilitate maximum production and still afford proper days of rest. It will, however, by the requirement of double time, discourage work schedules which do not allow a day of rest each week and thereby impair health and efficiency and maximum production.

Any payments previously made in accordance with the earlier interpretation should be regarded as in compliance with Executive Order 9240. From the date of this interpretation (January 26, 1943), double time for the seventh consecutive day of work may be paid only where all 7 days fall in the same workweek.

INCREASED MINIMUM-WAGE RATES IN BRAZIL, 1943 [1]

MINIMUM wage rates in Brazil were increased by 25 percent in the Federal District, the Territory of Acre, and the capitals of the various States and by 30 percent for all other localities, by an order of January 8, 1943. The order, which was issued by the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization of Brazil, was retroactive to January 1, 1943. The offices handling minimum-wage scales are charged with carrying out the terms of the order.

The basic minimum rates thus increased were established May 1, 1940, by decree-law No. 2162. That law fixed rates for all adult workers without distinction as to sex, according to locality. Minors under 18 received half the adult rate. Premiums over the basic rate were provided for in unhealthful operations.[2]

CENTRAL CONTROL OF FARM WAGES IN ENGLAND AND WALES [3]

A GOVERNMENT decision to have minimum wages and hours of agricultural workers in England and Wales established by the Central Agricultural Wages Board instead of by the 47 county wages committees, as formerly, was announced to the National Farmers' Union and the workers' unions on November 12, 1942. Centralized wage and hour administration is expected to continue as long as agricultural prices are fixed nationally and an assured market for agricultural produce is maintained.

When a 60s. minimum weekly wage was applied to adult-male farm labor in England and Wales late in 1941, it was approved by most of the county committees,[4] but notwithstanding adoption of the 60s. national minimum, varying rates are being proposed by local county wages committees in some instances. For example, the East Riding of Yorkshire committee recently recommended a 65s. weekly minimum.

The Government is of the opinion that to permit variations in wages among the different districts would jeopardize stability by creating differences in the production outlays of farmers. Also, in view of the pledge that production costs will be considered in fixing prices, wage variation would interfere with the Government's policy of fixed rates for agricultural produce.

The general secretary of the Agricultural Workers' Union supported the new order to centralize the fixing of wages and hours, and stated that he understood the Central Board would also have control over holidays with pay. Women will benefit from national wage fixing, as their rates of pay have varied as much as 7s. or 8s. from county to county. He foresaw a wage claim for higher pay, stating that the land worker "cannot regard £3 a week as a ceiling * * * he ought to have the same consideration as any other industrial employee."

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[1] Data are from report of Walter J. Donnelly, counselor for economic affairs, United States Embassy at Rio de Janeiro.
[2] For provisions of the law, and specific rates by locality, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1940 (p. 158).
[3] Data are from report of E. Mabel Hodgkinson, United States Embassy, London.
[4] See Monthly Labor Review, February 1942 (p. 501).

MINIMUM-WAGE LEGISLATION IN HAITI, 1942 [1]

EACH manual laborer in Haiti, whether employed at day, piece, or job rate, in public work or in private agricultural, industrial, or commercial enterprises, is to receive a minimum daily wage of 1.50 gourdes.[2] This rate was established by a decree-law of May 4, 1942, as amplified by decree-law No. 205 of September 24, 1942. An agreement between employer and worker is operative only in case it provides a rate higher than the above minimum. Fines are prescribed for cases of violation of the legislation, to be applied by the competent justices of the peace.

The amplification of the original decree law was needed because employers were said to be evading the provisions for a minimum daily wage by assigning work on a piece or job basis, making it impossible for a worker to earn the legal minimum.

Previous legislation on wages in Haiti, embodied in the labor law of August 10, 1934, fixed the minimum wage of employees and day laborers in public services (not including paid domestic servants) at 1.50 gourdes per day. This wage was not liable to attachment beyond one-tenth of its total, and not more than one-third of the total salary of salaried employees and clerks was liable to attachment.[3] As the legislation of 1942 repealed only such wage provisions as were in conflict with its provisions, presumably the provisions concerning attachment of wages and salaries are still in force.

This legislation is to be carried out under the direction of the Secretaries of State for Labor, for National Economy, and for Justice.

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[1] Data are from report of Vinton Chapin, second secretary of the United States legation at Port-au-Prince.
[2] Gourde=20 cents in United States currency.
[3] See Monthly Labor Review, August 1940 (p. 453).

Labor Turn-over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, DECEMBER 1942

THE total separation rate of 6.37 for December 1942 for all manufacturing industries combined continued its steady decline since the September high of 8.10 per 100 employees. This is the lowest since April 1942.

The decrease in total separations is largely the result of significant declines in the quit rate and in the rate for miscellaneous separations which is heavily weighted by military separations.

The rate for total accessions dropped to 6.92 per 100 employees which is lower than any month since February 1942 when, on the average, 6.02 persons were added to the pay rolls for every hundred workers. Many firms in the Bureau's reporting sample commented in December on the continuing shortage of labor, particularly in the industrial areas where most of the war manufacturing is found.

Most of the 42 manufacturing industries for which the Bureau publishes individual industry data, showed declines in the quit rate, as did also all of the 11 selected war industries. The average rate for the 11 selected war industries was 3.40; the most significant declines were in shipbuilding (from 5.41 in November to 4.49 in December) firearms (3.55 to 2.73) and aluminum and magnesium products (4.77 to 3.82).

These labor turn-over data are based on reports from approximately 7,800 plants employing 4,000,000 workers in December 1942. Table 1 shows the monthly turn-over rates for 135 combined industries, and table 2, the rates in 42 selected manufacturing industries for November and December 1942 and December 1941. The quit rates for each of the 11 selected war industries for which the publication of other turn-over data has been restricted for military reasons are given in table 3.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Representative Establishments in 135 Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Separations:												
Quits:												
1942	2.36	2.41	3.02	3.59	3.77	3.85	4.02	4.31	5.19	4.65	4.21	3.71
1941	1.31	1.33	1.70	2.08	2.20	2.06	2.25	2.46	2.81	2.11	1.57	1.75
Discharges:												
1942	.30	.29	.33	.35	.38	.38	.43	.42	.44	.45	.43	.46
1941	.18	.19	.21	.25	.24	.26	.29	.30	.31	.28	.24	.29
Lay-off: [2]												
1942	1.61	1.39	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.21	1.05	.87	.68	.78	.65	.70
1941	1.61	1.20	1.06	1.19	1.08	1.03	1.40	1.13	1.16	1.41	1.44	2.15
Miscellaneous separations: [3]												
1942	.83	.73	.82	.87	.96	1.02	1.23	1.46	1.79	2.03	1.80	1.50
1941	.31	.43	.43	.37	.34	.36	.30	.25	.25	.33	.26	.52
Total:												
1942	5.10	4.82	5.36	6.12	6.54	6.46	6.73	7.06	8.10	7.91	7.09	6.37
1941	3.41	3.15	3.40	3.89	3.86	3.71	4.24	4.14	4.53	4.13	3.51	4.71
Accessions:												
Rehirings:												
1942	1.41	1.03	1.18	1.11	1.07	1.12	1.09	1.12	1.08	.85	.91	.77
1941	1.45	1.08	1.24	1.04	.92	.90	1.04	1.11	.87	.86	.79	.94
New hirings:												
1942	5.46	4.99	5.81	6.01	6.22	7.13	7.19	6.78	8.07	7.84	7.23	6.15
1941	4.09	3.84	4.38	5.00	5.03	5.41	4.96	4.32	4.29	4.01	3.12	3.82
Total:												
1942	6.87	6.02	6.99	7.12	7.29	8.25	8.28	7.90	9.15	8.69	8.14	6.92
1941	5.54	4.92	5.62	6.04	5.95	6.31	6.00	5.43	5.16	4.87	3.91	4.76

[1] Turn-over rates are not comparable to the employment and pay-roll reports issued monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as the former are based on data for the entire month, while the latter refer only to the pay period ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered by the labor turn-over survey and the sample is not as extensive as that of the employment survey, which includes a larger number of small plants.

[2] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

[3] Military separations included.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 42 Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit	Discharge	Lay-off	Miscellaneous [2]	Total separation	Rehiring	New hiring	Total accession
Agricultural implements	Dec. 1942	1.76	0.35	0.12	1.15	3.38	0.41	4.95	5.36
	Nov. 1942	2.39	.30	1.29	1.54	5.52	.48	5.69	6.17
	Dec. 1941	1.25	.26	.85	.60	2.96	.36	2.02	2.38
Automobiles and bodies	Dec. 1942	2.54	.29	.40	1.28	4.51	1.18	6.63	7.81
	Nov. 1942	2.49	.25	.80	1.57	5.11	1.73	8.18	9.91
	Dec. 1941	.95	.24	5.02	.44	6.65	.53	3.61	4.14
Automobile parts and equipment	Dec. 1942	3.34	.65	1.00	1.44	6.43	1.16	6.82	7.98
	Nov. 1942	3.91	.73	1.46	1.78	7.88	1.40	6.58	7.98
	Dec. 1941	1.75	.33	8.89	.62	11.59	1.47	4.10	5.57
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	Dec. 1942	2.60	.17	.45	1.70	4.92	.72	4.18	4.90
	Nov. 1942	2.87	.18	.21	1.91	5.17	.73	4.68	5.41
	Dec. 1941	1.09	.11	.40	.59	2.19	.41	1.64	2.05
Boots and shoes	Dec. 1942	4.14	.29	.51	.98	5.92	.89	4.66	5.55
	Nov. 1942	4.71	.22	.41	1.16	6.50	1.14	5.97	7.11
	Dec. 1941	1.72	.17	1.64	.32	3.85	1.49	3.17	4.66
Boxes, paper	Dec. 1942	4.78	.59	1.51	1.34	8.22	.72	7.33	8.05
	Nov. 1942	6.01	.49	.60	1.51	8.61	.80	10.79	11.59
	Dec. 1941	2.50	.66	4.03	.46	7.65	.54	2.77	3.31
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	Dec. 1942	4.50	.40	2.56	1.19	8.65	1.07	4.05	5.12
	Nov. 1942	5.14	.43	1.62	1.47	8.66	.69	6.95	7.64
	Dec. 1941	1.95	.28	4.82	.36	7.41	.72	2.21	2.93
Cast-iron pipe	Dec. 1942	2.57	.47	.58	1.27	4.89	.25	3.85	4.10
	Nov. 1942	2.42	.32	.24	1.71	4.69	.49	6.46	6.95
	Dec. 1941	1.22	.28	.47	.50	2.47	.57	1.94	2.51

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 42 Manufacturing Industries*[1]—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit	Discharge	Lay-off	Miscellaneous[2]	Total separation	Rehiring	New hiring	Total accession
Cement	Dec. 1942	3.24	0.26	1.88	1.56	6.94	0.40	2.89	3.29
	Nov. 1942	2.88	.22	.15	1.51	4.76	.58	2.85	3.43
	Dec. 1941	.93	.11	1.64	.46	3.14	.37	1.71	2.08
Chemicals	Dec. 1942	3.62	.67	.45	1.65	6.39	.58	6.62	7.20
	Nov. 1942	3.49	.50	.38	1.81	6.18	.61	6.30	6.91
	Dec. 1941	1.40	.31	.60	.76	3.07	.25	3.82	4.07
Cigars and cigarettes	Dec. 1942	5.25	.26	2.19	.59	8.29	1.22	3.67	4.89
	Nov. 1942	5.49	.24	.12	.74	6.59	1.20	4.66	5.86
	Dec. 1941	3.01	.21	6.52	.25	9.99	.60	2.65	3.25
Cotton manufacturing	Dec. 1942	4.96	.37	.47	1.16	6.96	1.20	5.22	6.42
	Nov. 1942	5.49	.38	.51	1.18	7.56	1.46	6.20	7.66
	Dec. 1941	2.47	.31	1.11	.41	4.30	.82	3.02	3.84
Dyeing and finishing textiles	Dec. 1942	4.02	.72	.66	1.57	6.97	.73	6.49	7.22
	Nov. 1942	5.20	.47	.26	1.75	7.68	.94	7.15	8.09
	Dec. 1941	2.06	.34	1.83	.46	4.69	.84	2.30	3.14
Flour	Dec. 1942	7.32	.47	.34	1.35	9.48	.73	8.93	9.66
	Nov. 1942	6.34	.57	.59	1.38	8.88	1.29	7.71	9.00
	Dec. 1941	1.94	.13	1.16	.40	3.63	.83	4.83	5.66
Foundries and machine shops	Dec. 1942	3.83	.65	.35	1.50	6.33	.42	7.18	7.60
	Nov. 1942	4.26	.58	.48	1.81	7.13	.38	8.08	8.46
	Dec. 1941	1.65	.38	1.24	.53	3.80	.55	4.10	4.56
Furniture	Dec. 1942	6.11	.84	1.11	1.27	9.33	1.11	9.38	10.49
	Nov. 1942	6.73	.74	2.38	1.70	11.55	1.52	8.87	10.39
	Dec. 1941	2.77	.39	2.99	.65	6.80	.57	2.33	2.90
Glass	Dec. 1942	3.89	.53	2.57	1.73	8.72	1.45	7.42	8.87
	Nov. 1942	4.56	.33	.61	1.93	7.43	1.69	7.80	9.49
	Dec. 1941	1.27	.27	3.86	.62	6.02	.99	2.08	3.07
Hardware	Dec. 1942	4.49	.40	.51	1.32	6.72	.79	7.57	8.36
	Nov. 1942	5.14	.24	.97	1.24	7.59	.53	7.44	7.97
	Dec. 1941	2.47	.40	2.90	.52	6.29	.57	3.57	4.14
Knit goods	Dec. 1942	4.01	.22	.39	.73	5.35	.47	3.92	4.39
	Nov. 1942	4.20	.22	.30	.62	5.34	.55	5.68	6.23
	Dec. 1941	1.81	.18	1.58	.23	3.80	.81	1.72	2.53
Leather goods	Dec. 1942	3.42	.25	.37	1.21	5.25	.46	5.07	5.53
	Nov. 1942	3.46	.19	.25	1.14	5.04	.36	4.73	5.09
	Dec. 1941	.84	.15	1.20	.29	2.48	.73	1.99	2.72
Lighting equipment	Dec. 1942	3.97	.24	1.16	1.11	6.48	.78	7.86	8.64
	Nov. 1942	5.34	.28	.28	1.42	7.32	.83	7.45	8.28
	Dec. 1941	1.74	.25	19.46	.54	21.99	1.07	2.67	3.74
Men's clothing	Dec. 1942	4.23	.21	1.48	.74	6.66	2.03	4.10	6.13
	Nov. 1942	4.52	.22	2.09	.63	7.46	1.08	5.01	6.09
	Dec. 1941	1.45	.12	2.68	.13	4.38	2.12	1.51	3.63
Paints and varnishes	Dec. 1942	3.48	.37	.68	1.38	5.91	.10	5.01	5.11
	Nov. 1942	4.54	.64	.35	1.82	7.35	.15	5.87	6.02
	Dec. 1941	1.25	.27	1.18	.57	3.27	.39	2.02	2.41
Paper and pulp	Dec. 1942	5.78	.36	.52	1.72	8.38	.50	7.30	7.80
	Nov. 1942	5.79	.51	.74	1.83	8.87	.67	8.15	8.82
	Dec. 1941	1.36	.24	.94	.57	3.11	.46	2.40	2.86
Petroleum refining	Dec. 1942	2.26	.14	.17	1.41	3.98	.27	3.49	3.76
	Nov. 1942	1.65	.16	.29	1.27	3.37	.23	3.08	3.31
	Dec. 1941	.50	.11	.97	.43	2.01	.66	1.64	2.30
Planing mills	Dec. 1942	5.95	.72	1.61	1.72	10.00	.80	6.35	7.15
	Nov. 1942	6.37	.96	2.21	2.18	11.72	1.08	9.15	10.23
	Dec. 1941	2.22	.35	4.11	.72	7.40	1.76	2.68	4.44
Printing: Book and job	Dec. 1942	3.10	.29	2.42	.90	6.71	1.09	6.00	7.09
	Nov. 1942	3.62	.17	1.21	1.23	6.23	.98	7.61	8.59
	Dec. 1941	1.63	.23	4.20	.46	6.52	1.31	3.68	4.99
Printing: Newspapers and periodicals	Dec. 1942	1.20	.08	.94	.92	3.14	.59	2.23	2.82
	Nov. 1942	1.55	.08	.54	.96	3.13	.43	2.58	3.01
	Dec. 1941	.66	.28	1.59	.22	2.75	1.07	3.33	4.40
Radios and phonographs	Dec. 1942	4.53	.55	.16	.80	6.04	.04	8.05	8.09
	Nov. 1942	4.42	.52	.16	1.45	6.55	.51	8.38	8.89
	Dec. 1941	2.26	.31	1.45	.37	4.39	.57	2.35	2.92
Rayon and allied products	Dec. 1942	2.08	.22	1.25	1.66	5.21	.60	3.54	4.14
	Nov. 1942	2.03	.28	.40	1.57	4.28	.35	3.59	3.94
	Dec. 1941	.48	.11	.96	.30	1.85	.24	1.31	1.55
Rubber boots and shoes	Dec. 1942	7.14	.34	.23	1.54	9.25	1.05	10.49	11.54
	Nov. 1942	7.89	.21	.48	1.44	10.02	.84	11.14	11.98
	Dec. 1941	2.32	.12	1.20	.50	4.14	1.05	.98	2.03
Rubber tires	Dec. 1942	3.68	.24	.23	1.41	5.56	.28	6.90	7.18
	Nov. 1942	3.99	.25	.11	1.96	6.31	.24	8.58	8.82
	Dec. 1941	.95	.08	7.15	1.01	9.19	.60	1.00	1.60

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in 42 Manufacturing Industries*[1]—Continued

Industry	Date	Separation rates					Accession rates		
		Quit	Discharge	Layoff	Miscellaneous[2]	Total separation	Rehiring	New hiring	Total accession
Sawmills	Dec. 1942	4.64	0.58	2.76	1.26	9.24	1.19	4.70	5.89
	Nov. 1942	4.96	.44	2.40	1.77	9.57	1.06	5.81	6.87
	Dec. 1941	2.60	.32	4.21	.70	7.83	1.16	3.02	4.18
Silk and rayon goods	Dec. 1942	4.74	.34	.69	.84	6.61	.89	3.86	4.75
	Nov. 1942	5.12	.34	1.55	.90	7.91	1.21	4.82	6.03
	Dec. 1941	2.34	.23	2.24	.38	5.19	1.14	2.15	3.29
Slaughtering and meat packing	Dec. 1942	8.98	.87	2.53	2.91	15.29	2.64	15.05	17.69
	Nov. 1942	7.26	.65	1.85	2.91	12.67	3.59	13.46	17.05
	Dec. 1941	1.92	.34	5.37	.85	8.48	5.82	7.21	13.03
Stamped and enameled ware	Dec. 1942	4.93	.78	.51	2.15	8.37	.48	9.59	10.07
	Nov. 1942	5.35	.73	.71	1.87	8.66	.85	9.01	9.86
	Dec. 1941	2.40	.46	8.04	.63	11.53	.98	2.46	3.44
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus	Dec. 1942	2.96	.24	.48	1.95	5.63	.29	5.70	5.99
	Nov. 1942	3.17	.27	.08	2.20	5.72	.13	6.24	6.37
	Dec. 1941	1.98	.30	.50	.76	3.54	.51	2.64	3.15
Stoves	Dec. 1942	4.86	.75	3.35	1.70	10.66	.95	7.87	8.82
	Nov. 1942	5.61	.67	.95	1.56	8.79	.99	11.02	12.01
	Dec. 1941	3.01	.24	6.95	.62	10.82	1.52	1.69	3.21
Structural and ornamental metalwork	Dec. 1942	3.65	.62	.90	1.87	7.04	.31	6.74	7.05
	Nov. 1942	4.49	.77	3.20	2.07	10.53	.64	7.02	7.66
	Dec. 1941	1.70	.15	2.52	.48	4.85	.41	2.81	3.22
Textile machinery	Dec. 1942	3.25	.18	.11	1.73	5.27	.25	4.34	4.59
	Nov. 1942	2.17	.16	.29	2.80	5.42	.45	5.03	5.48
	Dec. 1941	2.25	.32	.13	.91	3.61	.35	4.25	4.60
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	Dec. 1942	3.61	.47	.41	1.45	5.94	.30	6.19	6.49
	Nov. 1942	4.10	.40	.41	1.43	6.34	.35	6.82	7.17
	Dec. 1941	1.70	.35	.26	.53	2.84	.49	3.83	4.32
Woolen and worsted goods	Dec. 1942	3.42	.15	.92	.91	5.40	.87	3.41	4.28
	Nov. 1942	3.58	.20	.94	1.61	6.33	1.34	4.19	5.53
	Dec. 1941	2.10	.15	1.31	.41	3.97	1.19	2.71	3.90

[1] No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.
[2] Military separations included.

In the following table are given quit rates for strategic war industries for which the publication of other turn-over data has been restricted.

TABLE 3.—*Monthly Quit Rates (per 100 Employees) in Selected War Industries*

War industry	December 1942	November 1942	December 1941
Average for 11 selected war industries [1]	3.40	3.86	1.72
Aircraft	3.69	3.93	2.28
Aluminum and magnesium products [2]	3.82	4.77	1.80
Brass, bronze, and copper products	4.27	4.46	1.79
Electrical machinery	2.57	2.64	1.29
Engines and turbines	1.68	1.91	1.22
Explosives	1.94	2.39	.65
Firearms	2.73	3.55	1.05
Metalworking machinery	2.35	3.02	1.58
Shipbuilding	4.49	5.41	2.93

[1] Includes blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills and foundries and machine shops as shown in table 2.
[2] Beginning in October 1942 the sample was expanded and now includes magnesium products.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, JANUARY 1943 [1]

BUILDING permit valuations for January 1943 were 62 percent below those reported for January 1942. The most pronounced decline, 85 percent, occurred in the valuations of new nonresidential buildings. Although contracts for Federal housing projects were more than doubled this January, continued curtailment of private building caused a 34-percent decrease in new residential building. Valuations for additions, alterations, and repairs dropped 58 percent between January 1942 and January 1943.

From December 1942 to January 1943 there was a decrease of 30 percent in proposed expenditures for building construction, chiefly as a result of the 75-percent drop in new nonresidential building, and a 13-percent decline in additions, alterations, and repairs. Permit valuations for new residential construction rose 36 percent during the month, due to the public housing program for war workers.

Comparison of January 1943 With January and December 1942

The volume of building construction in 2,421 identical cities with populations of 500 and over which reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics in January 1943, January and December 1942, is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,421 Identical Cities, January 1943*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	January 1943	Percent of change from—		January 1943 (in thousands of dollars)	Percent of change from—	
		December 1942	January 1942		December 1942	January 1942
All construction	31,828	+10.0	−21.2	69,120	−29.5	−62.4
New residential	13,785	+48.2	−3.5	44,951	+36.1	−33.7
New nonresidential	2,482	−18.7	−55.6	13,337	−74.6	−85.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs	15,561	−6.1	−24.2	10,832	−13.1	−57.5

The number of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and the permit valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction in the 2,421 cities reporting in January 1943 are presented in table 2. Percentage changes between January 1943 and December and January 1942 are also shown.

[1] More detailed information by geographic divisions and population groups is contained in a separate mimeographed release entitled "Building Construction, January 1943," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,421 Identical Cities, January 1943, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Permit valuation		
	January 1943	Percent of change from—		January 1943 (in thousands of dollars)	Percent of change from—	
		December 1942	January 1942		December 1942	January 1942
All dwellings	19,632	+63.1	+7.2	44,562	+38.1	−80.7
Privately financed	5,114	−29.0	−64.2	15,065	−30.9	−69.8
1-family	2,994	−35.9	−73.3	9,589	−40.6	−77.9
2-family [1]	843	−18.7	−23.2	2,087	−21.6	−15.6
Multifamily [2]	1,277	−14.4	−34.1	3,389	+13.4	−17.9
Publicly financed	14,518	+200.2	+259.7	29,497	+182.1	+105.1

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores. [2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during January 1943 and January and December 1942 on all construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is shown in table 3. This table includes other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside the 2,421 reporting cities.

TABLE 3.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds in Specified Months*

Source of funds	Contracts awarded and force-account work started (thousands of dollars)		
	January 1943 [1]	December 1942 [2]	January 1942 [2]
Total	178,651	356,950	2,350,850
War Public Works	1,704	714	2,802
Regular Federal appropriations [3]	101,500	313,947	2,335,467
Federal Public Housing Authority [4]	75,447	42,289	[5] 12,581

[1] Preliminary; subject to revision. [2] Revised. [3] Exclusive of contracts awarded for public housing.
[4] Includes contracts awarded for all public housing.
[5] Includes $9,072,915 for contracts awarded on U. S. H. A. projects and $3,507,927 for contracts awarded from regular Federal appropriations.

The value of all contracts awarded for public buildings and highways to be financed wholly from State funds, as reported by the States for January 1943 and January and December 1942, was as follows:

	Public buildings	*Highway construction*
January 1942	$356,793	$9,839,102
December 1942	300,647	4,580,475
January 1943	127,368	780,275

Building-permit data are collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics each month from more than 2,500 places having a population of 500 or more in 1940, from which are selected those for cities which also reported in the preceding month and in the corresponding month of the previous year. In addition, the Bureau receives notifications of the value of construction contracts awarded by Federal and State governments. Federal and State building construction in the 2,421 reporting cities totaled $34,674,000 in January 1943, as contrasted with $54,025,000 in the previous month and $88,582,000 in January 1942.

The permit-valuation figures represent estimates of construction costs made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build and the value of contracts awarded by Federal or State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of the reporting cities is included in the tabulations.

FOOD PRICES IN JANUARY 1943

RETAIL costs of food advanced slightly between December 15, 1942, and January 12, 1943. The index reached 133 percent of the 1935–39 average, 0.2 percent above December 15, 9.4 percent above May 12 (the last survey preceding control of prices at retail), and 14.5 percent above January 1942. The average cost of foods in January 1943 rose 42 percent from August 15, 1939, the point immediately preceding the outbreak of war in Europe.

The advance was a result of continued moderate advances in the prices of meats, dairy products, and some other foods which are under OPA control, and sharp declines for some fresh fruits and vegetables which had risen steeply in the last few months. Prices of foods under OPA control rose 0.6 percent and those not controlled by OPA (making up about 10 percent of the family food bill) decreased 2.3 percent from mid-December to mid-January, partly because of normal seasonal declines and partly because of contraseasonal reactions from previous high peaks. This was the first decline in uncontrolled foods since May 1942; in January 1943 they were 27 percent above the May level as compared with 1.8 percent for foods which have been under control since that month.

The following statement shows the trend of food prices from December 15 to January 12.

	Percent of change from—	
	Dec. 15, 1942, to Jan. 12, 1943	*May 12, 1942, to Jan. 12, 1943*
All foods	+0.2	+9.4
Foods under direct control, January 12, 1943	+.6	+7.4
Controlled on May 18, 1942	+.6	+1.8
Brought under control since May 18, 1942[1]	+.3	+18.7
Foods not under direct control January 12, 1943	−2.3	+27.2

[1] Includes peanut butter placed under control on May 18 and exempted from control in August; new ceilings were set in December.

Many factors other than price changes are affecting the family food bill. Difficulties in obtaining certain foods are being reported from all over the country and these short supplies have forced the consumers to purchase substitutes which are not currently priced. Reports of black-market operations for meats cannot be fully reflected in official reports.

Prices for five of the uncontrolled foods showed increases, while 3 declined. The increases varied from 1.3 percent for fresh and frozen fish to 21.7 percent for cabbage. Decreases ranged from 5.6 percent for spinach to 21.7 percent for carrots. Decreases for carrots and spinach were contraseasonal, while lettuce showed the usual seasonal decline after rising contraseasonally in December. All increases reported among the other uncontrolled foods followed the usual seasonal pattern.

Prices of canned and dried fruits and vegetables, coffee, and lard and other shortenings, all under the mark-up type of OPA price ceiling, advanced during the month, with short supplies reported locally for most of these articles. Other significant increases reported from mid-December to mid-January included meats, dairy products, certain fresh vegetables, and peanut butter. Retailers were given until March 10 to determine new ceilings for many commodities under the mark-up plan, and the effects of these adjustments were noticeable at the January pricing period and will continue through February and the first part of March.

Percentage changes in retail costs of food on January 12 compared with costs for January, May and December 1942, and August 1939 are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Changes in Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups*

Commodity group	Percent of change, January 12, 1943, compared with—				Commodity group	Percent of change, January 12, 1943, compared with—			
	1942			1939		1942			1939
	Dec. 15	May 12	Jan. 13	Aug. 15		Dec. 15	May 12	Jan. 13	Aug. 15
All foods	+0.2	+9.4	+14.5	+42.2	Dairy products	+1.4	+8.8	+10.5	+44.1
Cereals and bakery products	0	+.6	+2.5	+13.3	Eggs	−.4	+44.3	+27.2	+83.6
Meats	+1.1	+8.4	+15.7	+40.8	Fruits and vegetables	−1.7	+12.0	+23.0	+56.0
Beef and veal	+.5	+3.3	+6.5	+28.7	Fresh	−2.6	+13.2	+23.6	+58.5
Pork	+.2	+1.9	+17.1	+42.6	Canned	+1.2	+5.3	+19.0	+41.0
Lamb	+.7	+15.6	+22.2	+38.3	Dried	+2.1	+17.1	+26.1	+70.1
Chickens	+3.3	+22.9	+29.9	+47.4	Beverages	0	−.1	+7.8	+31.2
Fish, fresh and canned	+2.9	+25.0	+30.0	+89.5	Fats and oils	+.7	+3.1	+14.1	+49.3
					Sugar	−.2	+.2	+7.5	+33.3

Details by Commodity Groups

Indexes of retail food costs by commodity groups are presented in table 2 for January 1943, January, May, November, and December 1942, and August 1939. The accompanying charts show the trend and costs of all foods January 1913 to January 1943, inclusive, and for each major commodity group for the period, January 1929 to January 1943, inclusive.

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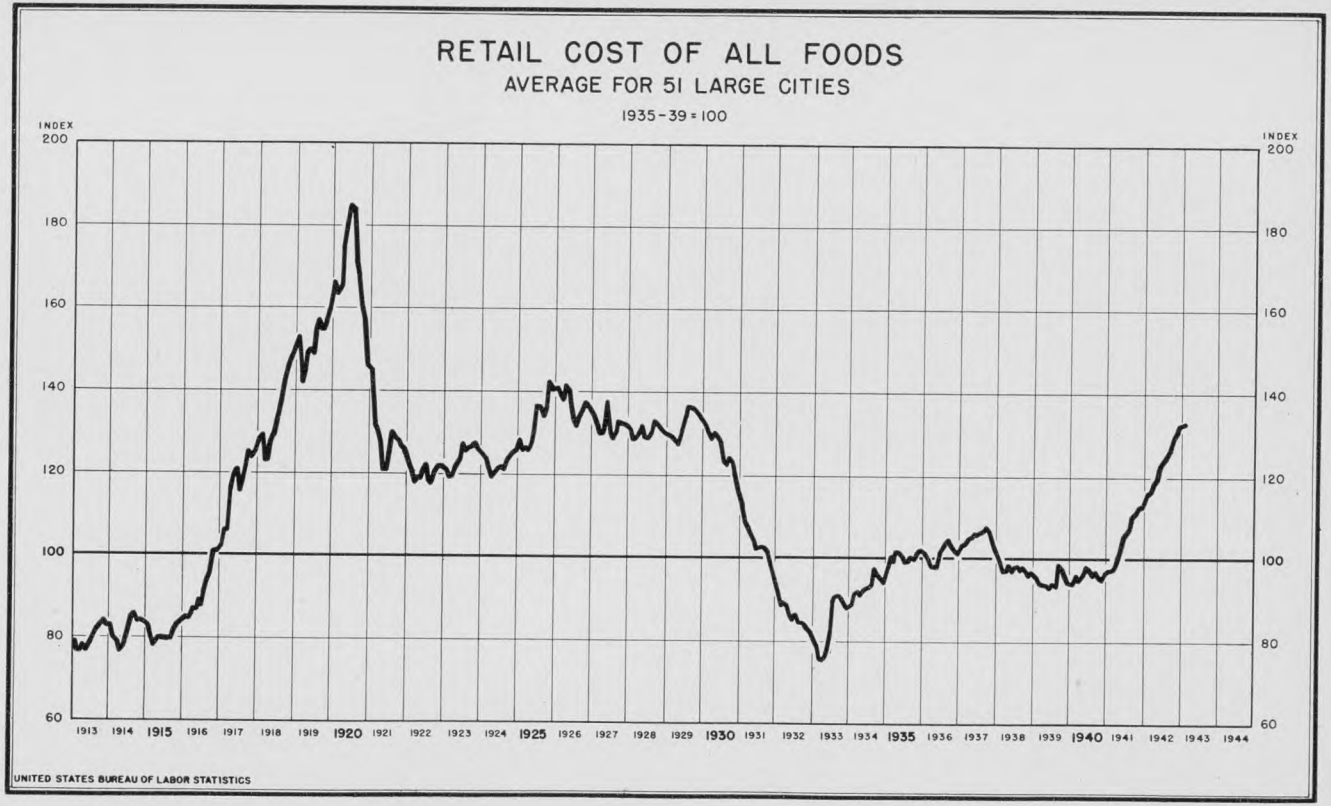

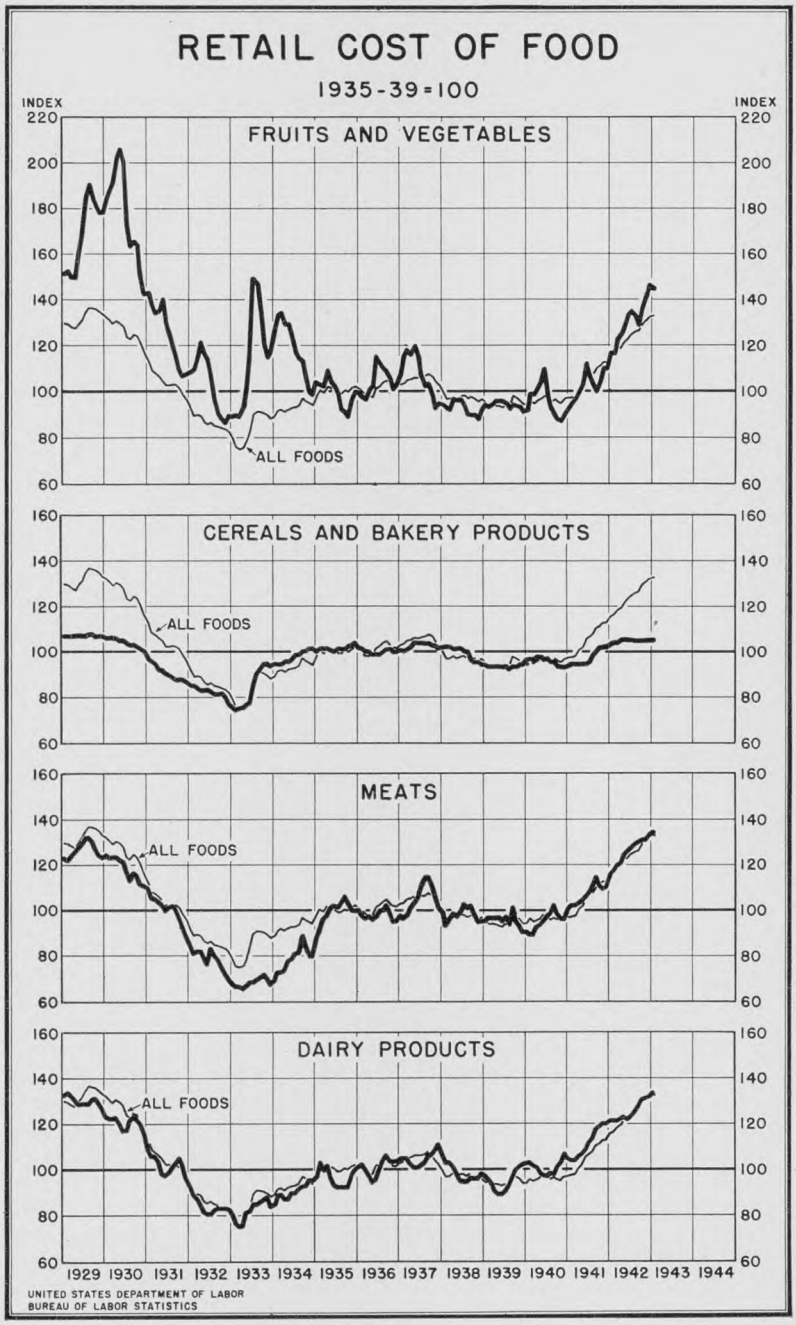

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 51 Large Cities Combined,*[1] *by Commodity Groups, in Specified Months*

[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1943	1942				1939
	Jan. 12[2]	Dec. 15	Nov. 17	May 12	Jan. 13	Aug. 15
All foods	133.0	132.7	131.1	121.6	116.2	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	105.8	[3] 105.8	105.7	105.2	103.2	93.4
Meats	134.7	133.2	131.9	124.3	116.4	95.7
Beef and veal	128.2	127.5	126.6	124.1	120.4	99.6
Pork	125.5	125.2	124.8	123.2	107.2	88.0
Lamb	136.6	135.7	134.0	118.2	111.8	98.8
Chickens	139.4	134.9	133.5	113.4	107.3	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	188.7	[3] 183.3	177.9	150.9	145.1	99.6
Dairy products	134.2	132.3	131.8	123.3	121.5	93.1
Eggs	166.5	167.2	166.3	115.4	130.9	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	144.1	146.6	141.5	128.7	117.2	92.4
Fresh	147.1	151.0	144.6	130.0	119.0	92.8
Canned	129.2	[3] 127.7	126.8	122.7	108.6	91.6
Dried	153.6	150.5	149.7	131.2	121.8	90.3
Beverages	124.5	124.5	124.6	124.6	115.5	94.9
Fats and oils	126.2	125.3	124.2	122.4	110.6	84.5
Sugar	127.4	127.7	127.0	127.1	118.5	95.6

[1] Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] Revised.

Cereals and bakery products.—The largest advance shown for the group was 3 percent reported for soda crackers with smaller increases for rye bread, rolled oats, wheat flour, and vanilla cookies. Prices of macaroni declined slightly and the average for other foods in the group remained unchanged. Small increases were reported for white bread in 5 cities, but the average for 51 cities combined remained stable. The index for the group was unchanged from December and was only 2.5 percent above January 1942, thus registering the smallest increase of any food group over the year.

Meats.—The average for meats rose 1.1 percent, with increases of 3.3 percent for roasting chickens, 2.9 percent for fresh and canned fish, and less than 1 percent for beef, veal, pork, and lamb. Increases were well distributed over the country, the number of cities sharing in the rise varying from 20 for salt pork to 43 for roasting chickens. Local shortages were reported throughout the 51 cities for all meats except fresh fish and chickens. The use of the latter two as substitutes for other meats indicates that family expenditures for meat products may have risen more than the 1.1 percent shown in the index.

Dairy products.—The dairy-products index rose 1.4 percent from mid-December to mid-January and is now 10.5 percent above a year ago. All commodities priced in the group shared in the increase. Prices of fresh milk delivered to homes rose in 8 cities, accompanied by increases in 13 cities for that sold through grocery stores. Six cities showed increases of 1 cent or more per quart and the average increase for the 51 cities combined was 1.3 percent for home delivery and 2.2 percent for grocery-store sales. Prices of butter increased slightly and widespread reports of shortages for this commodity were received. On January 8 the OPA placed evaporated milk under the mark-up type of ceiling and the average prices for January 12 compared with December 15 showed a 4.3-percent increase. Cheese, for which reports of short supplies are beginning to come in, advanced 3 percent over the month.

Eggs.—Prices of eggs decreased less than the usual seasonal amount. The average price of 59 cents per dozen on January 12 was 0.5 percent below the December level. Twenty-four of the 51 cities reported increases and 22 showed decreases. In January 1943 egg prices were 27 percent above January 1942 and 83 percent above August 1939.

Fruits and vegetables.—Prices of all fruits and vegetables combined decreased 1.7 percent from December 15 to January 12, as a result of sharp declines of fresh produce. Canned and dried fruits and vegetables moved up 1.2 percent and 2.1 percent, respectively. Canned fruits and vegetables were 5.3 percent above May, fresh were 13.2 percent, and dried were 17.1 percent higher. The index for the group was 23 percent above January 1942.

Beverages.—The index for beverages remained unchanged as coffee advanced 2.1 percent and tea declined 3.2 percent over the 4-week period. By mid-January beverages were 7.8 percent above the previous year and 31 percent above August 1939.

Fats and oils.—The average for the fats and oils group increased to a point 0.7 percent above December, 14 percent above the previous year, and 49 percent above August 1939. Increases ranged from 0.4 percent for shortening in containers other than cartons to 3 percent for shortening in cartons. Pure lard advanced 1.6 percent. These commodities are under the mark-up type of ceiling. Peanut butter, placed under ceiling on December 29, rose 3.7 percent in price, while oleomargarine remained unchanged, and salad dressing decreased slightly.

Sugar.—Prices of sugar remained fairly stable with declines in 11 cities being sufficient to cause a decrease of 0.2 percent in the average. In no city was there a change of more than 0.2 cent per pound in the average.

Average prices of 65 foods in 51 cities combined are given in table 3 for January 1943, May and December 1942, and December 1941.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 65 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, January 1943 and January, May, and December 1942*

Article	1943	1942		
	Jan. 12 [1]	Dec. 15	May 12	Jan. 13
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat ..... 10 pounds	55.9	55.6	51.6	50.7
Macaroni ..... pound	14.1	14.2	14.2	14.1
Wheat cereal [2] ..... 28-oz. pkg.	24.2	24.1	24.1	23.9
Corn flakes ..... 8 ounces	7.0	7.0	7.2	7.2
Corn meal ..... pound	5.2	5.2	4.7	4.5
Rice [2] ..... do	12.5	12.5	12.3	10.2
Rolled oats [2] ..... do	8.9	8.8	8.6	7.8
Bakery products:				
Bread, white ..... do	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7
Bread, whole-wheat ..... do	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.5
Bread, rye ..... do	9.7	[3] 9.6	9.7	9.6
Vanilla cookies ..... do	26.7	26.2	27.7	26.1
Soda crackers ..... do	17.3	16.8	16.4	15.3
Meats:				
Beef:				
Round steak ..... do	44.9	44.7	44.2	42.3
Rib roast ..... do	35.2	35.0	34.0	33.2
Chuck roast ..... do	30.6	30.4	28.9	28.2
Veal: Cutlets ..... do	55.5	55.3	53.6	52.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 65 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, January 1943 and January, May, and December 1942*—Continued

Article		1943	1942		
		Jan. 12 [1]	Dec. 15	May 12	Jan. 13
Meats—Continued.					
Pork:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Chops	pound	43.3	43.1	43.2	35.0
Bacon, sliced	do	42.2	[3] 41.8	39.3	36.7
Ham, sliced [2]	do	59.6	59.7	58.8	54.4
Ham, whole	do	38.5	38.5	37.8	34.6
Salt pork	do	23.5	23.5	24.0	20.6
Lamb:					
Leg	do	39.0	38.8	33.8	31.5
Rib chops	do	47.5	47.2	41.3	39.5
Poultry: Roasting chickens	do	44.4	43.1	36.1	34.2
Fish:					
Fresh, frozen	do	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]
Salmon, pink	16-oz. can	22.3	22.3	21.8	20.3
Salmon, red [2]	do	40.7	40.2	40.0	37.5
Dairy products:					
Butter	pound	55.1	54.8	45.7	42.4
Cheese	do	37.3	[3] 36.2	34.0	34.8
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	15.3	15.1	14.9	15.0
Milk, fresh (store)	do	13.9	13.6	13.5	13.7
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [2]	do	14.8	14.6	14.4	14.5
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	9.6	9.2	8.7	8.8
Eggs	dozen	59.0	59.3	40.9	46.4
Fruits and vegetables:					
Fresh:					
Apples	pound	7.4	7.1	7.5	5.9
Bananas	do	10.8	11.0	12.0	7.5
Oranges	dozen	39.0	[3] 44.1	31.4	29.1
Grapefruit [2]	each	6.0	6.1	6.3	4.9
Beans, green	pound	19.6	17.0	13.4	13.6
Cabbage	do	5.6	4.6	4.5	4.7
Carrots	bunch	8.3	10.6	6.6	6.9
Lettuce	head	13.4	16.0	9.2	12.7
Onions	pound	5.5	5.0	6.8	6.2
Potatoes	15 pounds	53.8	[3] 51.8	53.0	47.0
Spinach	pound	11.8	12.5	7.4	8.2
Sweetpotatoes	do	6.3	5.8	5.4	4.9
Canned:					
Peaches	No. 2½ can	25.5	25.3	23.3	21.8
Pineapple	do	28.9	29.1	27.1	23.1
Grapefruit juice [2]	No. 2 can	13.4	13.3	9.8	9.7
Beans, green [2]	do	14.3	14.1	14.0	12.5
Corn	do	13.9	13.8	13.0	12.2
Peas	do	15.0	14.8	15.8	14.6
Tomatoes	do	12.3	12.0	12.1	10.2
Dried:					
Prunes	pound	16.3	16.0	12.3	11.0
Navy beans	do	9.5	9.2	9.0	8.8
Beverages:					
Coffee	do	29.2	28.6	28.9	27.1
Tea	¼ pound	20.9	21.6	22.4	20.1
Cocoa [2]	½ pound	9.8	[3] 10.0	10.2	9.4
Fats and oils:					
Lard	pound	19.1	18.8	17.9	15.6
Shortening, other than lard:					
In cartons	do	20.3	19.7	19.8	18.2
In other containers	do	24.5	24.4	25.8	24.1
Salad dressing	pint	24.9	25.0	25.4	23.9
Oleomargarine	pound	22.5	22.5	22.4	20.3
Peanut butter	do	30.9	29.8	26.9	20.6
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar	do	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.4
Corn sirup [2]	24 ounces	15.3	15.3	14.8	14.1
Molasses [2]	18 ounces	15.2	[3] 15.2	14.5	13.7

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not included in index.
[3] Revised.
[4] Composite prices not computed.

Details by Cities

Increases in food costs between December 15 and January 12 were distributed throughout the country, with 34 cities reporting advances, 16 showing decreases, and 1 (Chicago) remaining unchanged. The largest advances were in Norfolk (2.1 percent), Buffalo and Atlanta (1.8 percent), and Savannah (1.6 percent), where greater-than-ordinary increases were reported for dairy products and fruits and vegetables. Decreases of 1 percent or more in Detroit, St. Louis, and Los Angeles were primarily due to large decreases for fruits and vegetables. All cities showed increases of more than 10 percent over January 1942, with Memphis reporting the greatest advance among the cities included in the index (19 percent).

Indexes of food costs by cities are shown in table 4 for January 1943, and January, May, and December 1942.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of all Foods, by Cities,*[1] *January 1943 and January, May, and December 1942*

[1935-39=100]

City	1943	1942		
	Jan. 12[2]	Dec. 15	May 12	Jan. 13
United States	133.0	132.7	121.6	116.2
New England:				
Boston	130.5	130.7	118.3	112.6
Bridgeport	132.5	[4]131.4	121.3	115.1
Fall River	131.0	130.9	120.8	113.8
Manchester	133.4	132.3	124.0	114.5
New Haven	132.1	133.0	120.6	113.8
Portland, Maine	131.7	131.3	121.7	112.4
Providence	130.8	131.0	122.1	113.9
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo	137.9	135.5	125.2	118.4
Newark	135.5	134.5	120.9	116.0
New York	133.1	132.3	118.0	115.4
Philadelphia	130.2	130.5	119.4	113.9
Pittsburgh	133.4	131.6	121.4	116.9
Rochester	132.2	132.0	122.3	116.3
Scranton	133.7	131.7	121.0	114.6
East North Central:				
Chicago	129.9	129.9	121.7	116.0
Cincinnati	131.0	131.5	122.4	115.8
Cleveland	134.6	134.8	124.1	117.8
Columbus, Ohio	126.9	126.0	118.6	113.5
Detroit	130.0	131.8	122.4	115.0
Indianapolis	131.3	[4]131.4	125.0	118.1
Milwaukee	129.0	128.6	119.8	113.3
Peoria	136.1	135.2	129.0	118.6
Springfield, Ill	136.4	136.0	128.0	119.8
West North Central:				
Kansas City	127.3	127.2	118.8	112.2
Minneapolis	129.1	129.9	120.9	114.9
Omaha	128.6	129.0	119.9	113.1
St. Louis	133.1	134.4	123.8	119.8
St. Paul	128.0	128.1	118.7	113.4
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta	132.5	130.2	120.4	114.3
Baltimore	139.1	137.3	125.8	119.0
Charleston, S. C.	131.0	129.2	123.2	116.4
Jacksonville	139.7	[4]138.3	127.4	120.2
Norfolk[3]	139.2	136.4	126.1	121.1
Richmond	132.4	131.3	120.9	115.7
Savannah	139.8	137.6	130.3	121.2
Washington, D. C.	133.8	132.7	120.7	116.4
East South Central:				
Birmingham	131.4	130.2	120.5	115.2
Louisville	128.9	128.0	122.6	116.8
Memphis	137.2	137.1	123.5	115.3
Mobile	139.5	138.3	126.8	124.0
West South Central:				
Dallas	127.2	126.9	116.8	112.7
Houston	134.8	134.4	125.9	120.1
Little Rock	130.6	131.1	123.2	117.9
New Orleans	144.8	142.9	129.0	123.0
Mountain:				
Butte	131.8	132.7	121.5	113.0
Denver	132.6	132.4	122.9	116.4
Salt Lake City	139.0	137.8	124.2	116.9
Pacific:				
Los Angeles	141.4	142.8	128.1	120.6
Portland, Oreg	146.4	145.9	134.5	125.8
San Francisco	141.3	140.1	125.5	120.7
Seattle	143.5	143.6	129.9	125.3

[1] Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

[4] Revised.

Annual Average Indexes of Retail Food Costs, 1913–41

Annual average indexes of food costs for the years 1913–41 and monthly indexes for 1942 are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined, 1913 to January 1943*

[1935–39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1926	137.4	1939	95.2	*1942*—Con.	
1914	81.8	1927	132.3	1940	96.6		
1915	80.9	1928	130.8	1941	105.5	July	124.6
1916	90.8	1929	132.5	1942	123.9	August	126.1
1917	116.9	1930	126.0			September	126.6
1918	134.4	1931	103.9	*1942*		October	129.6
1919	149.8	1932	86.5			November	131.1
1920	168.8	1933	84.1	January	116.2	December	132.7
1921	128.3	1934	93.7	February	116.8		
1922	119.9	1935	100.4	March	118.6		
1923	124.0	1936	101.3	April	119.6	*1943*	
1924	122.8	1937	105.3	May	121.6		
1925	132.9	1938	97.8	June	123.2	January	133.0

COAL PRICES, DECEMBER AND YEAR 1942

Prices in December 1942

RETAIL prices of coal in 1942 maintained, with minor variations, the level reached in January as a result of the sharp advances after June 1941, amounting to approximately 7 percent for bituminous coal and 8 percent for Pennsylvania anthracite. Seasonal reductions in 1942, effective in April only, were 0.8 percent for bituminous coal and about 1.3 percent for Pennsylvania anthracite. With the exception of 1941 the seasonal decrease was less than in any of the years since 1922. Prices of coal in December were higher than in January 1942 by 0.1 percent for Pennsylvania anthracite and by 0.5 percent for bituminous. The increase between these months in 1941 amounted to about 6.5 percent. Slight advances during 1942 were shown for prices of Arkansas and Colorado anthracites, while New Mexico anthracite was unchanged.

Prices of coal were controlled by mutual agreement with producers and dealers until May 18, 1942, when formal price ceilings were established. There have been several adjustments in ceiling prices of coals produced in various localities to correct inequalities and to cover higher costs of production and distribution.

Average prices of coal, together with indexes for bituminous coal and for stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite are presented in table 6 for December and September 1942 and December 1941.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined, December and September 1942 and December 1941*

Kind of coal	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price (October 1922–September 1925=100)			Percent of change Dec. 15, 1942, compared with—	
	1942		1941	1942		1941	1942	1941
	Dec. 15[1]	Sept. 15	Dec. 15	Dec. 15[1]	Sept. 15	Dec. 15	Sept. 15	Dec. 15
Bituminous coal (35 cities) old series[2]	$9.56	$9.54	$9.50	97.2	97.0	96.5	+0.2	+0.7
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series:[3]								
Stove	12.43	12.42	12.35	88.3	88.2	87.7	+.1	+.7
Chestnut	12.49	12.48	12.43	88.9	88.8	88.5	+.1	+.5
Pea	10.56	10.55	10.48				+.1	+.8
Buckwheat	8.58	8.57	8.52				+.1	+.7
Western anthracite:								
Arkansas (6 cities)	13.63	13.63	[4] 13.57				0	+.4
Colorado (1 city)	15.85	15.85	15.81				0	+.3
New Mexico (1 city)	24.72	24.72	24.72				0	0

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Unweighted average. Weighted composite prices are in preparation.
[3] Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail or rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.
[4] Revised.

Prices, 1929 Through 1942

Annual average prices of bituminous coal and Pennsylvania anthracite in 1942 were about 4 percent higher than in 1941. Prices of bituminous coal were 5.9 percent above the level of 1929, while Pennsylvania anthracite prices were lower—stove by 12.2 percent and chestnut by 9.0 percent. During these 14 years prices of bituminous coal were at the lowest point in 1933 when the index, 79.1 percent of the average in 1923–25, was 22.5 percent below the 1942 level. Pennsylvania anthracite prices continued to move downward for 6 years after bituminous prices began to advance and reached the lowest point in 1939 when the indexes for stove and chestnut, which were about 77 percent of the 1923–25 average, were 15 percent lower than in 1942.

Average prices and indexes for bituminous coal and for stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite are shown in table 7 by years from 1929 through 1942, and by months for 1941 and 1942.

TABLE 7.—*Average Retail Coal Prices and Indexes for Large Cities Combined, 1929 to December 1942*

Date	Average price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index (October 1922–September 1925=100)		
	Bituminous (unweighted average, 38 cities)	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 25 cities)		Bituminous (unweighted average, 38 cities)	Pennsylvania anthracite (weighted average, 25 cities)	
		Stove	Chestnut		Stove	Chestnut
1929	$8.85	$14.14	$13.70	91.5	100.5	97.7
1930	8.83	14.03	13.66	91.3	99.7	97.3
1931	8.33	13.68	13.65	86.2	97.1	97.3
1932	7.71	12.55	12.45	79.7	89.2	88.7
1933	7.65	12.12	11.93	79.1	86.2	85.0
1934	8.26	12.18	11.92	85.4	86.6	85.0
1935	8.29	11.38	11.14	85.7	80.9	79.4
1936	8.42	11.74	11.61	87.1	83.5	82.7
1937	8.58	11.05	11.19	88.4	78.5	79.6
1938	8.61	10.96	11.11	88.7	77.9	79.1
1939	8.52	10.79	10.84	87.7	76.7	77.2
1940	[1] 8.60	11.33	11.35	87.9	80.5	80.8
1941	9.15	11.96	12.02	93.1	85.0	85.5
1942 [2]	9.53	12.42	12.48	96.9	88.2	88.9
1941:						
January	8.87	11.64	11.67	90.3	82.7	83.0
February	8.87	11.63	11.66	90.3	82.7	83.0
March	8.88	11.63	11.66	90.3	82.7	83.0
April	8.86	11.64	11.67	90.1	82.7	83.0
May	8.85	11.62	11.64	90.1	82.5	82.8
June	8.89	11.51	11.57	90.5	81.8	82.4
July	9.06	11.84	11.88	92.0	84.1	84.6
August	9.24	12.10	12.17	93.8	86.0	86.6
September	9.34	12.36	12.41	94.9	87.8	88.3
October	9.42	12.40	12.46	95.8	88.1	88.7
November	9.47	12.35	12.42	96.3	87.7	88.4
December	9.50	12.35	12.43	96.5	87.7	88.5
1942:						
January	9.52	12.41	12.48	96.7	88.2	88.8
February	9.51	12.42	12.48	96.7	88.2	88.9
March	9.51	12.42	12.48	96.7	88.2	88.9
April	9.43	12.28	12.29	95.9	87.2	87.5
May	9.46	12.42	12.48	96.1	88.2	88.8
June	9.49	12.41	12.48	96.6	88.1	88.8
July	9.52	12.42	12.48	96.8	88.2	88.8
August	9.52	12.42	12.48	96.9	88.2	88.8
September	9.54	12.42	12.48	97.0	88.2	88.8
October	9.54	12.42	12.49	97.0	88.3	88.9
November	9.55	12.42	12.49	97.1	88.3	88.9
December	9.56	12.43	12.49	97.2	88.3	88.9

[1] 35 cities, beginning December 1940.
Preliminary.

ESTABLISHMENT OF PRICE CEILING IN BRAZIL, 1943 [1]

A TEMPORARY price ceiling, at the December 1, 1942, level, was established in Brazil for merchandise, products, and transportation, by the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization. This ceiling will be in force until the Coordinator can readjust prices to their appropriate levels, taking into consideration the variations in foreign trade and the results of studies on the subject.

[1] Data are from reports of Walter J. Donnelly, counselor for economic affairs of the United States Embassy at Rio de Janeiro

The above order was issued on January 8, 1943; further regulations were published January 10, 1943, and were effective from that date.

The prices effective on December 1, 1942, were to be established as ceiling prices within 10 days after January 8, 1943, by the municipal price commissions. Each commission was to ascertain what prices were charged on December 1, 1942, in its municipality by producers and wholesale and retail dealers, and to publish within 10 days from its first meeting a list of maximum prices of foodstuffs and basic commodities of importance in the municipal area, to be effective immediately. Within 30 days from date of publication of the above list, it was to publish a price list of maximum prices of all the commercial products of necessity to the less-privileged classes. The commissions are also charged with enforcing the observance of the price list, making necessary changes, upon the advice of the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization. They are required to receive and submit to the Coordinator suggestions made by specified local organizations or by any 10 reliable persons residing in the municipality who are not of a relationship to each other closer than that of cousins, and shall submit to the Coordinator's Delegate for Price Control authentic copies of all incoming complaints and of all decisions made. The commissions must furnish data on prices fixed and price changes to the Service of Statistics of Welfare and Labor of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce.

Each municipal price commission shall be organized under the chairmanship of the municipal mayor, with equal representation of sellers and consumers. Presidents of specified local employer and commercial organizations and of worker and consumer organizations, certain other specified persons, and additional members of both groups chosen by the chairman, shall make up the personnel of each commission. Decisions of the commission shall be made by majority vote of members present, the chairman having the right to vote in case of a tie; the minority may appeal from majority decisions to the Federal Price Commission.

The first meeting of each commission was to be held within 72 hours from date of publication of the regulations (January 10, 1943), and first appointments of members shall be effective for 120 days dating from that meeting.

A Federal Price Commission, under the chairmanship of the Delegate for Price Control, with equal representation of employers, employees, and specialized technicians, all appointed by the Coordinator of Economic Mobilization, is authorized to supervise prices in the Federal District, to review cases appealed from municipal price commissions, and to exercise certain supervisory functions relating to the price-control program for the entire country.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JANUARY 1943 [1]

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics comprehensive index of 889 price series in primary markets [2] reached a new war-time high of 101.9 percent of the 1926 average during January. With continued advances in prices for agricultural products and higher ceiling prices for coal, and for mixed fertilizers in some areas, the all-commodity index rose 0.9 percent from December to January to the highest level in almost 17 years. Average prices for these commodities were over 6 percent higher than in January 1942, and nearly 36 percent higher than in August 1939.

Market prices for farm products advanced 2.8 percent in January. Foods rose 0.9 percent; chemicals and allied products, 0.7 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 0.2 percent; and textile products, and fuel and lighting materials, 0.1 percent. Building materials declined slightly as a result of lower prices for several types of pine lumber, for rosin, and for sewer pipe.

Quotations for raw materials advanced 2 percent in January to a point nearly 63 percent over the August 1939 average, while semi-manufactured commodities increased 0.3 percent and manufactured products were 0.5 percent higher than in December.

Except in a few instances, prices for most industrial commodities have moved within narrow limits in the past 12 months under the influence of Government regulation. Drugs and pharmaceuticals rose 31 percent as a result of increased taxes on alcohol. Ceiling prices of coal were raised to compensate for higher production costs, and in addition a transportation tax of 4 cents a ton was added. The Office of Price Administration also adjusted ceiling prices upward for mixed fertilizers in some areas. Prices for some commodities, particularly industrial fats and oils, paper and pulp, and plumbing and heating fixtures were somewhat lower than they were in January 1942.

Quotations for most commodities have risen substantially over their relatively low levels of August 1939. Among the outstanding increases are 150 percent for industrial fats and oils, 114 percent for drugs and pharmaceuticals, 108 percent for grains and cattle feed, over 95 percent for livestock and poultry, 85 percent for "other farm products," 75 percent for fruits and vegetables, from 60 to over 70 percent for dairy products and cotton goods, and more than 50 percent for meats, "other foods," hides and skins, and "other textile products."

[1] During the period of rapid changes caused by price controls, materials allocation, and rationing the Bureau of Labor Statistics will attempt promptly to report changing prices. Indexes marked (*), however, must be considered as preliminary and subject to such adjustment and revision as required by later and more complete reports.

[2] The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

The increase in January for the farm products group was led by advances of 6.6 percent for grains and 4.3 percent for livestock and poultry. Oats rose nearly 10 percent; corn, 8 percent; rye and wheat, about 6 percent; and barley, over 2 percent. Quotations for live poultry at New York were 13 percent higher, and at Chicago about 5 percent higher. Hogs, cows, and calves increased approximately 5 percent and higher prices were also reported for sheep and lambs. In addition, cotton and peanuts advanced 4 percent and prices rose sharply for onions, potatoes, hay, seeds, and tobacco. On the contrary, citrus fruits were seasonally lower and eggs and wool also declined. Average prices for farm products, which have risen 16 percent since January 1942, are nearly 92 percent higher than just before the outbreak of the war.

Increases of 1.5 percent for cereal products and 1.4 percent for dairy products largely accounted for the advance in the foods group index. Quotations were higher for butter, cheese, and milk. Rye flour advanced sharply during the month and higher prices were also reported for oatmeal and cornmeal, for most fresh fruits and vegetables, fresh beef, lamb, and dressed poultry, and for certain vegetable oils. Prices for mutton, on the contrary, declined sharply.

Average prices for cotton goods advanced slightly because of higher quotations for gingham and muslin.

Anthracite and bituminous coal and gasoline in the North Texas area rose fractionally.

Weakening prices for rosin and sewer pipe, together with minor declines in prices for Ponderosa and Idaho white pine lumber, brought the building materials group index down 0.2 percent. Higher prices were reported for linseed oil and turpentine, for common building brick, and for red gum, oak, sugar pine, and spruce lumber.

The advance of 0.7 percent in average prices for chemicals and allied products was accounted for by continued advances in prices for fatty acids, Office of Price Administration action in raising prices for mixed fertilizers in certain areas, and higher quotations for ground bone. Phenol declined as a result of lower production costs.

Prices for boxboard, which has been selling below ceilings for some time, rose 6.2 percent in January. Higher prices were also reported for soap products.

Average prices for cattle feed advanced 0.5 percent as a result of higher quotations for bran and middlings. Cottonseed meal declined.

Percentage comparison of the January 1943 level of wholesale prices with December 1942, January 1942, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers, are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, January 1943, With Comparisons for December and January 1942 and August 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	January 1943	December 1942	Percent of change	January 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of change
All commodities	*101.9	*101.0	+0.9	96.0	+6.1	75.0	+35.9
Farm products	117.0	113.8	+2.8	100.8	+16.1	61.0	+91.8
Grains	107.3	100.7	+6.6	95.9	+11.9	51.5	+108.3
Livestock and poultry	129.2	123.9	+4.3	105.7	+22.2	66.0	+95.8
Other farm products	111.5	110.4	+1.0	98.4	+13.3	60.1	+85.5
Foods	105.2	104.3	+.9	93.7	+12.3	67.2	+56.5
Dairy products	113.4	111.8	+1.4	96.0	+18.1	67.9	+67.0
Cereal products	90.6	89.3	+1.5	91.1	−.5	71.9	+26.0
Fruits and vegetables	102.6	104.3	−1.6	78.3	+31.0	58.5	+75.4
Meats	115.5	113.6	+1.7	101.6	+13.7	73.7	+56.7
Other foods	96.2	95.9	+.3	91.0	+5.7	60.3	+59.5
Hides and leather products	117.8	117.8	0	114.9	+2.5	92.7	+27.1
Shoes	126.4	126.4	0	121.1	+4.4	100.8	+25.4
Hides and skins	116.0	116.0	0	115.3	+.6	77.2	+50.3
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.4	−.1	84.0	+20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	113.3	+1.7	97.1	+18.6
Textile products	97.3	97.2	+.1	93.6	+4.0	67.8	+43.5
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	101.1	+5.8	81.5	+31.3
Cotton goods	112.5	112.4	+.1	110.5	+1.8	65.5	+71.8
Hosiery and underwear	70.5	70.5	0	69.0	+2.2	61.5	+14.6
Rayon	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	+6.3
Silk	(1)	(1)	-------	(1)	-------	44.3	-------
Woolen and worsted goods	112.4	112.1	+.3	103.0	+9.1	75.5	+48.9
Other textile products	97.7	97.7	0	97.5	+.2	63.7	+53.4
Fuel and lighting materials	79.3	79.2	+.1	78.2	+1.4	72.6	+9.2
Anthracite	88.5	86.2	+2.7	85.3	+3.8	72.1	+22.7
Bituminous coal	112.5	112.4	+.1	108.4	+3.8	96.0	+17.2
Coke	122.1	122.1	0	122.2	−.1	104.2	+17.2
Electricity	(1)	(1)	-------	67.6	-------	75.8	-------
Gas	(1)	76.1	-------	76.4	-------	86.7	-------
Petroleum and products	60.8	60.7	+.2	59.5	+2.2	51.7	+17.6
Metals and metal products	*103.8	*103.8	0	103.5	+.3	93.2	+11.4
Agricultural implements	96.9	96.9	0	96.7	+.2	93.5	+3.6
Farm machinery	98.0	98.0	0	97.8	+.2	94.7	+3.5
Iron and steel	97.2	97.2	0	97.0	+.2	95.1	+2.2
Motor vehicles	*112.8	*112.8	0	112.4	+.4	92.5	+21.9
Nonferrous metals	86.0	86.0	0	85.4	+.7	74.6	+15.3
Plumbing and heating	90.4	90.4	0	93.6	−3.4	79.3	+14.0
Building materials	109.8	110.0	−.2	109.3	+.5	89.6	+22.5
Brick and tile	98.7	98.7	0	96.9	+1.9	90.5	+9.1
Cement	94.2	94.2	0	93.4	+.9	91.3	+3.2
Lumber	133.3	133.3	0	131.6	+1.3	90.1	+47.9
Paint and paint materials	100.6	100.3	+.3	99.1	+1.5	82.1	+22.5
Plumbing and heating	90.4	90.4	0	93.6	−3.4	79.3	+14.0
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	102.2	103.0	−.8	103.1	−.9	89.5	+14.2
Chemicals and allied products	100.2	99.5	+.7	96.0	+4.4	74.2	+35.0
Chemicals	96.9	96.1	+.8	95.3	+1.7	83.8	+15.6
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	165.4	165.4	0	126.3	+31.0	77.1	+114.5
Fertilizer materials	79.0	79.0	0	78.6	+.5	65.5	+20.6
Mixed fertilizers	85.3	82.8	+3.0	81.8	+4.3	73.1	+16.7
Oils and fats	101.5	101.5	0	106.4	−4.6	40.6	+150.0
Housefurnishing goods	102.5	102.5	0	102.4	+.1	85.6	+19.7
Furnishings	107.3	107.3	0	107.2	+.1	90.0	+19.2
Furniture	97.4	97.4	0	97.4	0	81.1	+20.1
Miscellaneous commodities	90.7	90.5	+.2	89.3	+1.6	73.3	+23.7
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	71.0	+2.8	60.5	+20.7
Cattle feed	142.8	142.1	+.5	135.2	+5.6	68.4	+108.8
Paper and pulp	100.1	99.0	+1.1	102.8	−2.6	80.0	+25.1
Rubber, crude	46.3	46.3	0	46.3	0	34.9	+32.7
Other miscellaneous	94.9	94.9	0	92.5	+2.6	81.3	+16.7
Raw materials	108.2	106.1	+2.0	96.1	+12.6	66.5	+62.7
Semimanufactured articles	92.8	92.5	+.3	91.7	+1.2	74.5	+24.6
Manufactured products	*100.1	*99.6	+.5	96.4	+3.8	79.1	+26.5
All commodities other than farm products	*98.5	*98.1	+.4	94.8	+3.9	77.9	+26.4
All commodities other than farm products and foods	*96.0	*95.9	+.1	94.6	+1.5	80.1	+19.9

*Preliminary.

[1] Data not available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to January 1943

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1942, inclusive, and by months from January 1942 to January 1943, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

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 allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
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	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	*78.5	*103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	*98.8
1942											
January	100.8	93.7	114.9	93.6	78.2	103.5	109.3	96.0	102.4	89.3	96.0
February	101.3	94.6	115.3	95.2	78.0	103.6	110.1	97.0	102.5	89.3	96.7
March	102.8	96.1	116.7	96.6	77.7	103.8	110.5	97.1	102.6	89.7	97.6
April	104.5	98.7	119.2	97.7	77.7	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.8	90.3	98.7
May	104.4	98.9	118.8	98.0	78.0	103.9	110.1	97.3	102.9	90.5	98.8
June	104.4	99.3	118.2	97.6	78.4	103.9	110.1	97.2	102.9	90.2	98.6
July	105.3	99.2	118.2	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.3	96.7	102.8	89.8	98.7
August	106.1	100.8	118.2	97.3	79.0	103.8	110.3	96.2	102.7	88.9	99.2
September	107.8	102.4	118.1	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.4	96.2	102.5	88.8	99.6
October	109.0	103.4	117.8	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.4	96.2	102.5	88.6	100.0
November	110.5	103.5	117.8	97.1	79.1	*103.8	110.1	99.5	102.5	90.1	*100.3
December	113.8	104.3	117.8	97.2	79.2	*103.8	110.0	99.5	102.5	90.5	*101.0
1943											
January	117.0	105.2	117.8	97.3	79.3	*113.8	109.8	100.2	102.5	90.7	*101.9

*Preliminary.

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, manufactured 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 "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 to 12 of Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1941, Serial No. R. 1434.

TABLE 3.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities*

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*1942*—Con.					
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6						
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	March	98.2	92.3	97.8	96.2	95.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	April	100.0	92.8	98.7	97.2	95.6
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May	99.7	92.9	99.0	97.4	95.7
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	June	99.8	92.8	98.6	97.1	95.6
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	July	100.1	92.8	98.6	97.0	95.7
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	August	101.2	92.7	98.9	97.5	95.6
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	September	102.2	92.9	99.2	97.7	95.5
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	October	103.0	92.7	99.4	97.9	95.5
1942	100.6	92.6	*98.6	*97.0	*95.5	November	103.9	92.6	*99.4	*97.9	*95.8
						December	106.1	92.5	*99.6	*98.1	*95.9
1942						*1943*					
January	96.1	91.7	96.4	94.8	94.6						
February	97.0	92.0	97.0	95.5	94.9	January	108.2	92.8	*100.1	*98.5	*96.0

*Preliminary.

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during December 1942 and January 1943 are shown by the index numbers in table 4. These indexes are not averaged to obtain an index for the month but are computed only to indicate the fluctuations from week to week.

TABLE 4.—*Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities, December 1942 and January 1943*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Jan. 30	Jan. 23	Jan. 16	Jan. 9	Jan. 2	Dec. 26	Dec. 19	Dec. 12	Dec. 5
All commodities	*101.8	*101.7	*101.6	*101.4	*101.2	*101.2	*100.7	*100.5	*100.1
Farm products	117.7	117.2	116.6	116.1	115.4	115.2	113.3	112.0	110.6
Foods	105.0	104.7	104.8	104.4	104.2	104.6	104.2	104.0	103.3
Hides and leather products	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4
Textile products	96.8	96.8	96.7	96.7	96.7	96.6	96.6	96.6	96.6
Fuel and lighting materials	80.1	80.1	80.1	80.0	79.9	79.9	79.9	80.0	79.8
Metals and metal products	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9	*103.9
Building materials	110.1	110.0	110.0	110.0	110.0	110.0	110.0	110.0	110.0
Chemicals and allied products	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.6
Housefurnishing goods	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1	104.1
Miscellaneous	90.5	90.5	90.5	90.4	90.4	90.4	90.4	90.3	90.0
Raw materials	108.3	108.0	107.6	107.2	106.7	106.6	105.4	104.7	103.7
Semimanufactured articles	92.5	92.5	92.5	92.5	92.5	92.4	92.5	92.5	92.5
Manufactured products	*100.3	*100.3	*100.3	*100.2	*100.1	*100.1	*99.8	*99.8	*99.7
All commodities other than farm products	*98.4	*98.4	*98.3	*98.2	*98.2	*98.2	*98.0	*98.0	*97.8
All commodities other than farm products and foods	*96.3	*96.3	*96.3	*96.2	*96.2	*96.2	*96.2	*96.2	*96.1

*Preliminary.

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR JANUARY 1943

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments January 1943 was 37,906,000, about 3 million more than were employed in January 1942, 6 million more than in January 1941, and 8 million more than in January 1940. These figures do not include proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, public emergency employees, and personnel in the armed forces.

Two-thirds of the gain in employment over the year was in the manufacturing industries, which accounted for an increase of 2,251,000. Chief employment decreases were noted in trade (364,000), contract and Federal force-account construction (204,000), and mining (91,000).

Between mid-December and mid-January there was a decrease of about a million workers due almost entirely to seasonal declines in trade and in construction. This decline is somewhat less than the average December-to-January change which has occurred in recent years.

Manufacturing employment was 15,719,000—slightly more than in December. This is the first time since 1935 that manufacturing employment has not been lower in January than in December. Usually there is a decline of more than 100,000 over this period. All other industry divisions showed seasonal declines—about the same amount as in recent years. These ranged from 11,000 in mining to 216,000 in construction and 715,000 in trade.

Industrial and Business Employment

The momentum of the war effort has been most strongly felt in those industries largely engaged in production for war use. Industries of the durable-goods group enploying 7,886,000 wage earners in January gained 1,779,000 workers since January 1942. This increase was largely confined to the metal and metalworking groups, which are now engaged almost entirely in war work; while such groups as lumber and timber products, furniture and finished lumber products, and stone, clay, and glass products reported decreases.

The transportation equipment group, which employed 2,068,000 wage earners, added the largest number to its pay roll, more than a million since January 1942 and 70,000 during the month. The largest numerical decrease, on the other hand, was in the lumber and timber basic products group, which employed 499,000 in January 1943, 44,000 less than in January 1942, and 16,000 less than in December 1942.

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The nondurable-goods industries gained only 276,000 over the year and registered a decline from December to January. Wage-earner employment in the nondurable group in January was 5,625,000, 5 percent above the level in the first month of last year. Chiefly responsible for the increase were chemicals and allied products and rubber products (reflecting munitions orders) and food and kindred products. On the other hand there was no increase of employment in textiles, apparel, or leather products despite large war orders in these industries. Over the month interval only 3 of 11 nondurable industry groups showed increases—chemicals and allied products (13,000), rubber products (3,000), and paper and allied products (1,000).

Employment in both wholesale and retail trade showed sizable declines which reflected the usual reduction in temporary personnel employed to handle the Christmas holiday trade. Street-railway and bus companies continued to take on more workers to meet increased demands. The gain over the month was between 1 and 2 percent. In spite of the shortage of labor confronting most bituminous-coal operators, this industry reported an increase of more than 1 percent in wage-earner employment from mid-December to mid-January. The anthracite industry, however, reported a decline in employment of nearly 10 percent, due largely to the strike situation.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Group* [1]

[Subject to revision]

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	January 1943	December 1942	November 1942	January 1942	January 1943	December 1942
All manufacturing	13,511	13,482	13,267	11,456	164.9	164.6
Durable goods	7,886	7,781	7,597	6,107	218.4	215.5
Nondurable goods	5,625	5,701	5,670	5,349	122.8	124.4
Iron and steel and their products	1,691	1,676	1,643	1,515	170.6	169.0
Electrical machinery	660	649	630	493	254.7	250.3
Machinery, except electrical	1,203	1,190	1,168	979	227.7	225.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,068	1,998	1,909	958	1,302.6	1,258.8
Automobiles	[2] 640	615	592	490	[2] 159.0	152.9
Nonferrous metals and their products	405	405	398	362	176.7	176.5
Lumber and timber basic products	499	515	526	543	118.7	122.5
Furniture and finished lumber products	359	365	363	392	109.5	111.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	361	368	368	375	122.9	125.5
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,271	1,287	1,277	1,294	111.1	112.5
Apparel and other finished textile products	882	886	887	890	111.7	112.2
Leather and leather products	361	364	363	377	104.0	104.9
Food and kindred products	965	1,021	1,038	925	113.0	119.5
Tobacco manufactures	96	99	100	92	103.0	106.3
Paper and allied products	310	309	304	329	117.0	116.4
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	332	342	338	345	101.3	104.2
Chemicals and allied products	721	708	693	496	250.1	245.7
Products of petroleum and coal	123	124	125	122	116.1	117.4
Rubber products	183	180	174	146	151.3	149.0
Miscellaneous industries	381	381	371	333	155.6	155.9

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been revised since the publication of December data. Adjustments have been made to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942, made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. Estimates and indexes for the period January 1939 to October 1942, comparable to the data in the above table, will be released in about 1 week.

[2] Estimate based on incomplete sample.

Public Employment

War-agency employment in the Federal executive service rose 87,000 during January 1943 but the laying off of temporary postal employees who were hired for the heavy Christmas business, seasonal declines in the Interior and Agriculture Departments, and the closing of some Tennessee Valley Authority projects offset all but 2,000 of the war-agency increase. Federal employment rose since January 1942, however, by 1,173,000 with an increase in war-agency employment of 1,211,000 and a decrease in employment in other agencies of 38,000. The latter decline, however, was almost altogether the result of the transfer of employees of the United States Employment Service, the National Youth Administration, and certain other employees of the Federal Security Agency to the War Manpower Commission in December 1942.

The WPA and CCC programs reduced personnel in January 1943 by 48,300 and 400, respectively, while the NYA dropped 1,140 from its war production training program and added 4,580 persons on the student work program. In January 1943 personnel on the WPA and CCC programs aggregated 289,000 and on the NYA 171,000—or 874,000 and 373,000 fewer persons, respectively, than a year ago.

Employment on Federally financed construction and shipbuilding and repair projects decreased 3,900 from mid-December 1942 to mid-January 1943 as the result of seasonal declines on nonresidential building construction and reclamation projects and the completion of certain airport construction projects. Partially offsetting these declines were additions on housing, river, harbor, and flood control projects, and ship construction and repair. The employment increase on all Federally financed construction and shipbuilding projects since January 1942 was 1,194,000. Contrary to prior practice, the construction employment figures which appear in table 2 include employment on ship repairs as well as that on new ship construction.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative, judicial, and force-account employees are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the respective offices; for the executive-service employees, data are reported through the Civil Service Commission. The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction projects financed wholly or partially by Federal funds directly from the contractors and subcontractors, and for the NYA, WPA, and CCC programs from the respective agencies.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data for the regular Federal services, for construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, and for other Federal programs is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially From Federal Funds*

[Subject to revision]

Service or program	Employment			Pay rolls		
	January 1943 [2]	December 1942	January 1942	January 1943 [2]	December 1942	January 1942
Federal services:						
Executive [1]	2,916,104	2,913,874	1,742,980	$544,878,304	$481,875,821	$265,401,399
Judicial	2,597	2,636	2,584	708,351	710,948	667,221
Legislative	6,212	6,406	6,354	1,420,289	1,434,978	1,380,152
Construction projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations [3]	2,228,200	2,238,411	1,147,593	462,616,300	475,713,777	203,873,426
War	2,143,200	2,151,368	1,044,028	447,352,800	460,083,081	188,708,474
Other	85,000	87,043	103,565	15,263,500	15,630,696	15,164,952
Public housing [4]	76,500	74,469	58,770	11,727,900	11,447,239	8,027,001
War public works	11,100	11,734	2,299	1,514,200	1,600,601	344,505
Financed by RFC [5]	102,900	98,031	15,626	20,385,500	19,420,549	3,129,694
War	102,000	96,944	13,877	20,218,700	19,239,232	2,845,794
Other	900	1,087	1,749	166,800	181,317	283,900
Other programs:						
National Youth Administration [6]	170,973	167,533	544,327	3,122,165	3,014,572	7,661,217
Student work program	90,862	86,280	306,843	671,165	722,465	1,847,803
War production training program [7]	80,111	81,253	237,484	2,451,000	2,292,107	5,813,414
Work Projects Administration projects	288,652	336,934	1,023,703	18,590,172	22,971,789	62,740,558
War	(8)	106,562	325,055	(8)	(8)	19,697,972
Other	(8)	230,372	698,648	(8)	(8)	43,042,586
Civilian Conservation Corps	511	943	139,464	84,880	143,586	6,864,646

[1] Includes force-account employees and employees in United States navy yards also included under construction projects, and supervisory and technical employees included under NYA, WPA, and CCC.
[2] Data partially estimated.
[3] Includes ship construction and repair in private shipyards and United States navy yards. Data in previously published series excluded employment on ship repair.
[4] Includes all Federal housing projects, including those formerly under the United States Housing Authority.
[5] Includes employees and pay roll of the RFC Mortgage Co.
[6] Beginning July 1942 the National Youth Administration was considered a training program for war work, rather than a work-relief program. Value of maintenance is included in the pay-roll data for January 1942 but excluded from December 1942 and January 1943.
[7] Called the out-of-school work program prior to July 1942.
[8] Break-down not available.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, DECEMBER 1942

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of civil employees in nonagricultural establishments by major groups are given in table 1. With the exception of the trade and finance-service-miscellaneous groups, they are not comparable with estimates published in the September 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Revisions for the years 1929 to 1939 are contemplated, and comparable figures for the months from January 1939 to July 1942 are given in the October 1942 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The estimates are based on reports of employers to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, on data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, and the Bureau of the

Census. They do not include military personnel, emergency employment (such as WPA, NYA, and CCC), proprietors or self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, and domestics.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments by States are given each month in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' mimeographed release on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimates of Employment in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Divisions* [1]

[In thousands]

Industry division	December 1942 (preliminary)	November 1942	Change, November to December 1942	December 1941	Change, December 1941 to December 1942
Total [2]	38,956	38,533	+423	36,088	+2,868
Manufacturing	15,669	15,434	+235	13,566	+2,103
Mining	887	894	−7	976	−89
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,726	1,896	−170	1,880	−154
Transportation and public utilities	3,497	3,520	−23	3,344	+153
Trade	7,112	6,771	+341	7,511	−399
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,281	4,295	−14	4,227	+54
Federal, State, and local government (civil employees)	5,784	5,723	+61	4,584	+1,200

[1] Comparable series January 1939 to July 1942 in October 1942 Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Estimates exclude proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, unpaid family workers, public emergency employees (WPA, NYA, and CCC), and personnel in the armed forces.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 152 manufacturing industries and for 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction, water transportation, and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, while for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in 152 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country

and about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 152 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

The average weekly earnings for individual industries shown in table 3 are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are now computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings and are not comparable with figures published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review, which were computed by dividing total weekly pay roll by total employment without any formal weighting of figures for the component industries.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND EARNINGS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for October, November, and December 1942, where available, are presented in tables 2 and 3.

In table 4 indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 nonmanufacturing industries, by months, from December 1941 to December 1942, inclusive. The chart on page 623 indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to December 1942.

The revised manufacturing indexes and aggregates in tables 2 and 4 are not comparable with the indexes published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review, as a result of changes in definitions, a change in the index base period, and adjustments in levels. Revised figures for the major manufacturing groups are available in mimeographed form by months from January 1939 through October 1942 and for individual manufacturing industries from January 1939 through August 1942.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released

by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency. The Bureau of Employment Security data referred to are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers regardless of size of establishment.

Data relating to individual manufacturing industries have been adjusted from 1937 to date to conform to levels of the 1939 Census of Manufactures. Not all industries in each Census group are represented in the tables since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustment to unemployment-compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group will not in general add to the total estimate for that group.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Specified Months* [1]

[Manufacturing indexes are based on 1939 average as 100. For the individual industries they have been adjusted to the 1939 Census of Manufactures and for the groups to final 1941 and preliminary second quarter 1942 figures of the Bureau of Employment Security. Comparable series for earlier months available on request]

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Estimated number of employees, December 1942 [1]	Indexes [2] of—					
		Employment			Pay rolls		
		Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
	(*Thousands*)						
All manufacturing	13,482	164.6	161.9	160.7	287.7	280.4	270.9
Durable goods	7,781	215.5	210.4	206.7	391.2	382.8	366.2
Nondurable goods	5,701	124.4	123.8	124.5	186.5	180.3	177.7
Durable goods							
Iron and steel and their products	1,676	169.0	165.7	164.9	278.7	270.1	264.1
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills [3]	520	134.0	133.4	135.5	204.7	204.1	200.7
Steel castings [3]	82	273.0	269.0	265.1	452.8	445.8	434.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	20	121.6	121.9	121.7	202.7	205.7	204.0
Tin cans and other tinware	28	89.0	90.5	98.8	133.5	127.9	139.4
Wire drawn from purchased rods	35	159.3	156.0	154.0	238.0	227.3	221.3
Wirework	32	106.3	103.7	103.5	185.8	178.4	172.5
Cutlery and edge tools	21	137.2	133.9	131.3	263.6	252.4	242.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	27	176.8	173.6	173.4	317.3	307.2	303.4
Hardware	42	118.1	117.0	118.5	215.1	210.8	209.9
Plumbers' supplies	22	89.1	85.8	82.2	140.2	132.7	126.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, n. e. c.	52	112.8	110.1	106.9	179.4	170.1	167.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	57	187.0	183.4	178.6	326.9	319.3	307.5
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	77	138.9	135.7	134.9	247.4	231.4	227.2
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	68	192.0	190.4	189.6	324.0	313.9	317.5
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	11	142.5	140.1	138.2	241.4	227.1	215.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	27	187.5	184.7	181.4	305.1	295.0	305.4
Forgings, iron and steel	39	252.3	246.6	243.6	476.1	442.3	431.2
Wrought pipes, welded and heavy riveted	22	266.4	255.4	239.5	480.5	460.7	431.1
Screw-machine products and wood screws	49	286.6	285.7	283.1	516.0	506.6	489.7
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	7	112.4	110.6	114.1	193.8	183.9	180.7
Electrical machinery	649	250.3	243.0	235.3	415.5	402.8	382.7
Machinery, except electrical	1,190	225.1	221.0	217.3	392.9	381.5	371.5
Machinery and machine-shop products	465	230.0	226.0	222.0	394.6	381.9	371.5
Tractors [3]	49	155.6	150.8	148.9	223.1	211.9	212.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors [3]	31	109.8	106.2	115.2	181.1	171.6	186.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Specified Months* [1]—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of employees, December 1942 [1]	Indexes [2] of— Employment			Pay rolls		
		Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
	(Thousands)						
Machinery, except electrical—Continued.							
Textile machinery	29	133.7	133.7	131.2	231.6	219.0	222.6
Pumps and pumping equipment	69	285.1	284.7	281.2	582.7	556.3	531.3
Typewriters	11	66.8	68.3	73.3	119.6	120.4	130.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	33	165.7	159.9	151.8	296.8	279.5	260.1
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	11	144.6	141.6	137.8	226.5	217.4	213.3
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	11	142.4	140.6	135.5	269.6	264.3	259.8
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	46	131.2	123.4	115.4	205.1	190.8	176.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1,998	1258.8	1202.8	1156.5	2342.1	2275.9	2116.3
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9	131.7	129.8	131.7	234.7	219.9	216.2
Automobiles	615	152.9	147.1	142.3	255.6	261.4	235.1
Nonferrous metals and their products	405	176.5	173.5	171.2	301.2	292.2	282.7
Primary smelting and refining [4]	42	150.5	146.4	143.1	232.8	227.5	215.0
Clocks and watches	26	126.5	127.8	127.4	231.5	231.5	228.3
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	17	115.8	115.8	113.2	182.9	170.2	160.4
Silverware and plated ware	11	94.6	93.2	92.9	152.3	145.8	142.8
Lighting equipment	22	107.3	105.0	103.8	188.8	182.3	164.6
Sheet-metal work	30	158.1	154.3	149.5	268.2	251.2	238.9
Lumber and timber basic products	515	122.5	125.1	127.2	181.9	188.7	198.2
Sawmills	283	98.2	100.6	102.5	144.5	152.8	163.0
Planing and plywood mills	86	119.0	120.5	121.4	177.2	173.9	174.8
Furniture and finished lumber products	365	111.3	110.5	112.3	170.5	165.0	168.2
Mattresses and bedsprings	16	86.8	86.7	85.4	127.2	118.8	116.6
Furniture	170	106.7	105.8	108.3	163.9	158.2	164.5
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	32	127.4	125.2	126.5	205.6	199.3	197.4
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12	97.5	95.7	95.2	144.6	140.6	130.4
Wood preserving	12	103.0	104.1	107.1	168.9	169.8	171.5
Wood, turned and shaped	23	105.3	105.9	105.0	162.5	160.6	157.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	368	125.5	125.3	125.2	181.3	179.2	178.9
Glass	82	118.0	117.3	117.0	166.1	161.1	163.8
Glass products made from purchased glass	12	119.9	117.9	116.6	167.2	163.4	157.3
Cement	29	120.8	123.4	124.0	156.1	169.3	167.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	59	104.1	105.9	108.7	149.7	151.9	154.7
Pottery and related products	45	137.2	138.1	137.3	188.2	187.8	183.8
Gypsum	5	95.7	94.2	93.3	148.6	144.9	144.8
Wallboard and plaster (except gypsum) and mineral wool	11	140.7	139.6	134.3	212.0	208.2	201.7
Lime	10	105.3	104.6	107.1	160.3	165.9	164.0
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	13	70.6	72.9	73.7	88.3	87.9	90.8
Abrasive wheels	21	275.6	254.8	238.0	423.3	382.6	365.3
Asbestos products	22	137.1	135.9	135.8	237.8	228.1	226.1
Nondurable goods							
Textiles and finished textile products	2,173	112.4	112.0	112.7	169.6	165.9	166.3
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,287	112.5	111.7	111.5	180.8	175.4	173.0
Cotton manufactures, except small wares	510	128.9	127.7	127.7	217.7	212.8	210.6
Cotton small wares	18	132.5	133.7	134.7	222.3	219.3	227.5
Silk and rayon goods	99	82.7	82.7	83.2	133.7	131.3	130.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	177	118.5	118.1	118.7	207.9	201.0	198.2
Hosiery	124	78.1	78.1	77.9	106.5	104.6	103.2
Knitted cloth	12	109.6	107.0	107.3	167.7	157.6	152.9
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	32	112.2	109.8	107.5	175.3	164.4	158.6
Knitted underwear	45	117.4	115.8	116.1	184.0	179.2	177.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	73	108.7	106.5	104.7	166.3	157.9	153.1
Carpets and rugs, wool	24	93.0	91.5	90.8	145.1	138.6	137.7
Hats, fur-felt	10	68.4	65.6	61.3	109.3	97.9	83.0
Jute goods (except felts)	4	114.2	112.4	109.3	196.6	193.0	182.2
Cordage and twine	16	135.7	133.9	131.7	221.9	206.9	202.2
Apparel and other finished textile products	886	112.2	112.3	114.5	154.0	152.7	157.0
Men's clothing, n. e. c.	236	107.8	107.6	111.0	145.7	144.7	148.4
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	65	92.2	93.3	93.8	144.4	142.8	141.9
Underwear and neckwear	13	79.2	83.2	85.8	123.0	123.2	125.4
Work shirts	19	138.0	137.6	139.6	226.0	222.0	222.2
Women's clothing	247	91.1	91.4	92.5	124.0	123.1	127.1
Corsets and allied garments	18	93.7	94.0	93.1	130.3	133.6	128.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Specified Months*[1]—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of employees, December 1942[1]	Indexes[2] of— Employment			Pay rolls		
		Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued							
Textiles and finished textile products—Continued.	(*Thousands*)						
Apparel and other finished textile products—Con.							
Millinery	18	72.6	71.6	85.5	75.7	75.7	103.3
Handkerchiefs	4	81.2	87.9	87.0	115.8	135.3	131.2
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	18	108.1	104.8	99.5	163.4	156.0	149.5
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	16	152.7	152.0	151.3	239.2	232.8	229.0
Textile bags	17	139.6	134.5	129.2	203.4	188.1	181.7
Leather and leather products	364	104.9	104.7	103.0	159.5	153.4	149.2
Leather	50	105.5	103.8	102.4	157.5	152.7	145.8
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	19	99.0	99.1	96.4	141.3	138.0	133.7
Boots and shoes	204	93.5	93.4	91.3	144.5	137.4	134.5
Leather gloves and mittens	14	144.3	140.8	144.6	208.8	196.5	199.4
Trunks and suitcases	16	186.9	199.6	201.8	256.4	275.5	260.6
Food and kindred products	1,021	119.5	121.5	128.6	165.7	160.5	164.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	187	155.0	145.8	144.6	213.6	181.3	176.8
Butter	21	114.8	120.2	120.0	154.6	161.7	159.0
Condensed and evaporated milk	12	120.5	126.0	134.7	161.8	167.7	180.3
Ice cream	14	91.1	95.5	102.1	111.3	118.1	123.6
Flour	27	108.1	104.9	104.5	155.3	148.4	149.6
Feeds, prepared	22	139.9	136.0	133.6	214.2	204.2	195.3
Cereal preparations	10	131.9	130.4	131.7	189.9	186.0	183.0
Baking	264	114.4	114.1	114.7	149.3	144.0	143.5
Sugar refining, cane	12	87.9	87.6	81.4	113.0	109.7	95.1
Sugar, beet	23	218.8	253.4	239.2	301.7	380.7	293.8
Confectionery	64	128.6	130.3	129.5	184.9	182.4	178.0
Beverages, nonalcoholic[3]	24	113.5	113.9	116.6	127.9	127.8	133.3
Malt liquors[3]	41	113.2	115.5	120.1	136.3	137.4	143.5
Canning and preserving	116	86.6	103.9	146.4	139.2	163.9	228.7
Tobacco manufactures	99	106.3	106.8	106.4	159.7	157.4	153.7
Cigarettes[3]	36	129.9	129.2	126.0	182.1	178.6	171.8
Cigars[3]	49	95.5	96.7	98.0	148.1	146.2	145.2
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	9	94.7	94.4	93.5	135.4	135.3	129.8
Paper and allied products	309	116.4	114.7	113.1	168.3	163.5	158.9
Paper and pulp	151	109.6	109.3	109.5	163.6	161.1	158.9
Paper goods	48	127.4	124.2	119.9	172.2	164.7	156.0
Envelopes	10	116.4	113.3	109.6	156.3	146.5	138.1
Paper bags	12	109.7	106.8	105.9	160.9	156.1	151.4
Paper boxes	79	113.6	110.7	107.4	162.0	154.3	146.9
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	342	104.2	103.1	100.9	126.8	122.4	116.3
Newspapers and periodicals	118	99.5	98.5	98.1	113.4	111.3	109.4
Book and job	134	106.3	105.4	101.8	133.7	127.5	119.2
Lithographing	25	96.5	94.0	92.0	118.6	114.1	103.4
Bookbinding	28	108.5	106.2	103.2	162.8	154.1	139.9
Chemicals and allied products	708	245.7	240.3	233.4	382.9	365.3	351.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	29	103.4	102.8	102.6	138.9	134.9	130.9
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	42	152.3	148.9	141.5	197.3	189.9	183.7
Perfumes and cosmetics	10	99.8	101.4	101.0	130.1	128.9	125.6
Soaps	14	101.5	101.7	103.1	135.4	133.9	134.3
Rayon and allied products	51	105.8	105.1	106.9	148.5	141.2	144.7
Chemicals	112	161.1	159.6	158.9	242.2	235.6	230.6
Compressed and liquified gases	6	160.2	158.4	160.7	236.9	229.8	231.2
Cottonseed oil	22	143.2	150.7	154.0	234.9	243.1	246.4
Fertilizers	21	109.4	104.4	102.6	173.3	164.2	164.1
Products of petroleum and coal	124	117.4	117.8	119.3	165.1	165.4	160.8
Petroleum refining	78	107.1	107.0	108.4	151.5	150.9	145.7
Coke and byproducts	26	119.2	120.1	122.8	161.3	162.9	160.4
Paving materials	2	63.2	77.3	82.3	95.0	123.2	131.6
Roofing materials	11	132.5	132.1	128.8	204.8	204.8	201.9
Rubber products	180	149.0	143.8	139.9	228.6	213.3	201.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes	80	148.0	141.9	136.7	219.7	204.0	190.0
Rubber boots and shoes	22	145.3	140.4	136.1	237.8	221.9	208.8
Rubber goods, other	70	134.7	130.9	129.0	208.6	196.4	191.3
Miscellaneous industries	381	155.9	151.7	150.7	261.8	247.6	236.3
Photographic apparatus	26	150.8	147.8	144.5	229.6	222.5	209.4
Pianos, organs, and parts	9	112.4	100.0	91.4	197.6	166.8	151.5
Games, toys, and dolls	15	79.3	80.0	75.5	133.9	128.9	119.8
Buttons	13	114.5	109.9	111.9	182.3	174.3	172.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Specified Months* [1]—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Industry	Estimated number of employees, December 1942 [1]	Indexes [2] of—					
		Employment			Pay rolls		
		Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
Coal mining:							
Anthracite [5 6]	(7)	45.8	46.2	46.2	50.3	49.2	48.3
Bituminous [8]	(7)	88.5	89.3	90.6	128.1	123.9	124.8
Metalliferous mining [8]	(7)	79.1	79.1	77.7	104.0	104.1	99.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	(7)	46.9	48.6	50.0	61.8	66.8	68.9
Crude-petroleum production [9]	(7)	54.6	55.0	55.5	65.1	63.6	64.1
Public utilities:							
Telephone and telegraph [10]	(7)	92.7	93.1	93.3	128.2	129.0	128.4
Electric light and power [10]	(7)	80.5	81.3	82.7	109.9	109.4	111.2
Street railways and busses [10 11]	(7)	77.0	75.9	75.9	101.3	97.8	95.3
Trade:							
Wholesale [12]	(7)	88.8	89.3	90.0	95.4	96.3	94.6
Food products [13]	(7)	−1.5	−.6	−.9	−2.0	+.8	+.8
Groceries and food specialties [13]	(7)	−.3	−1.1	+.3	−.6	+.9	+3.6
Dry goods and apparel [13]	(7)	−1.6	−.2	−.1	−2.5	+1.7	+2.2
Machinery equipment and supplies [13]	(7)	+.9	−.6	−.7	−.6	+2.6	+1.4
Farm products [13]	(7)	−5.1	−11.9	+21.2	−2.0	−11.2	+14.9
Petroleum and petroleum products [13] (includes bulk tank stations)	(7)	+.1	−.8	−1.2	0	+3.8	−.8
Automotive [13]	(7)	+1.4	−1.0	−.3	+.2	+.4	+2.3
Retail [10]	(7)	106.2	96.8	94.6	107.2	99.2	96.4
Food [10]	(7)	113.9	113.9	114.5	120.8	119.9	119.5
General merchandising [10]	(7)	165.5	131.8	121.1	163.2	130.8	121.6
Apparel [10]	(7)	109.7	97.9	96.5	112.9	101.8	98.7
Furniture and housefurnishings [10]	(7)	61.3	58.9	58.9	67.9	64.3	63.6
Automotive [10]	(7)	51.8	51.2	51.3	59.2	59.3	57.8
Lumber and building materials [10]	(7)	66.7	67.5	69.3	78.8	80.8	82.2
Hotels (year-round) [5 14]	(7)	95.0	95.4	95.6	107.0	103.9	103.2
Laundries [5]	(7)	113.3	114.2	115.9	120.1	118.5	118.9
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	(7)	115.7	119.7	124.8	104.8	107.9	112.5
Brokerage [13]	(7)	+.9	−1.0	−1.3	+5.0	+.2	+2.0
Insurance [13]	(7)	−.8	−1.3	−1.2	+.8	+.4	+.4
Building construction [13]	(7)	−7.6	−4.5	−1.4	−6.8	−3.6	−.9
Water transportation [15]	(7)	80.9	80.8	74.6	0	+10.7	+7.3
Class I steam railroads [16]	(7)	129.4	129.1	129.5	(7)	(7)	(7)

[1] Data for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only; for crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force; for public utilities, brokerage, insurance and hotels they relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives; and for trade, to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and strictly supervisory personnel.

[2] The indexes for the manufacturing industries are computed from aggregates of at least 3 significant figures. Information concerning the following war industries is not published but may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying, rolling, and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum; aluminum manufacturers; ammunition; cars, electric and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment, other; radios; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine-tool accessories; machine tools; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments; and shipbuilding.

[3] The following pairs of industries were carried as single industries in the mimeographed reports for August 1942 and prior months: "blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills" and "steel castings" as "blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills"; "electrical equipment" and "communication equipment" as "electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies"; "agricultural machinery" and "tractors" as "agricultural implements (including tractors)"; "nonalcoholic beverages" and "malt liquors" as "beverages"; and "cigarettes" and "cigars" as "cigars and cigarettes".

[4] Revisions in indexes are as follows: *Smelting and refining.*—April to September, inclusive, employment indexes to 128.1; 127.9; 130.4; 134.0; 136.0; and 139.3. April to September, inclusive, pay-roll indexes to 170.1; 174.7; 183.0; 189.9; 193.5; and 202.8.

[5] Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" pamphlet.

[6] See table 7 of October 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised figures for anthracite mining, February 1940 to September 1940, inclusive.

[7] Not available.

[8] See table 7 of February 1941 pamphlet for revised figures for metalliferous and bituminous-coal mining from January 1938 to January 1941, inclusive.

[9] Does not include well-drilling or rig-building.

[10] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 Census and public-utility indexes to 1937 Census. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940, with but one exception, retail furniture, which has been revised since publication of July 1940 pamphlet, back to January 1936. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

[11] Covers street-railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

[12] Indexes adjusted to 1933 Census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls."

[13] Indexes of employment and pay rolls not available; percent of change from preceding month substituted.

[14] Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

[15] Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trades only. Pay-roll indexes not available. Percent of change from preceding month substituted.

[16] Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

TABLE 3.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing [2]	$40.27	$39.78	$38.89	44.4	44.0	43.6	90.7	90.5	89.3
Durable goods [2]	46.38	46.27	45.31	46.2	46.1	45.8	100.4	100.5	99.0
Nondurable goods [2]	32.08	31.25	30.66	42.1	41.3	40.8	76.2	75.6	75.1
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products [2]	44.62	44.20	43.45	45.3	44.8	44.3	98.5	98.4	97.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills [3]	45.49	45.57	43.93	41.6	42.0	40.9	108.8	108.1	107.3
Steel castings [3]	46.05	46.00	45.45	46.1	46.2	45.7	99.9	99.5	99.4
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	36.05	36.48	36.24	44.6	44.8	44.2	80.5	81.2	81.7
Tin cans and other tinware	35.16	33.12	33.09	44.0	41.6	41.9	80.3	79.7	79.3
Wirework	43.13	42.45	41.25	47.2	47.0	46.1	91.6	90.5	89.6
Cutlery and edge tools	41.27	40.33	39.44	48.1	47.5	46.6	86.1	85.6	85.3
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	43.31	42.74	42.33	48.5	48.0	48.1	89.2	89.0	88.1
Hardware [4]	39.48	39.18	38.40	47.6	47.2	46.5	82.9	83.0	82.6
Plumbers' supplies	40.75	40.00	39.57	45.8	45.5	45.2	88.6	87.9	87.5
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	39.53	38.43	38.88	45.4	44.4	44.7	87.9	87.1	87.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	45.20	45.19	44.70	47.8	47.8	47.6	94.2	94.7	94.0
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	42.36	40.57	40.04	46.7	45.3	45.1	90.7	89.6	88.8
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	46.51	45.44	46.43	47.9	46.8	47.6	97.6	97.6	97.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	41.51	40.76	42.97	44.3	44.0	46.0	93.6	92.5	93.5
Forgings, iron and steel	56.90	54.09	53.09	49.2	47.9	48.1	114.7	112.4	110.5
Firearms	57.33	56.70	55.81	49.9	49.2	49.0	115.0	115.3	113.9
Electrical machinery [2]	44.37	44.24	43.73	47.0	47.0	46.7	94.4	94.2	93.6
Electrical equipment [3]	46.56	46.38	45.25	47.5	47.2	46.9	97.7	97.6	96.6
Radios and phonographs	38.90	38.53	38.25	46.1	46.2	46.1	84.4	83.0	83.0
Communication equipment [3]	40.42	40.57	40.62	45.8	46.6	46.3	88.0	86.9	87.9
Machinery, except electrical [2]	50.25	49.64	49.34	49.7	49.5	49.5	101.1	100.3	99.7
Machinery and machine-shop products [4]	49.28	48.65	48.30	49.4	49.0	49.0	99.1	98.6	98.3
Engines and turbines excluding aircraft engines [4]	55.21	55.90	55.36	49.5	49.8	50.1	112.0	112.5	111.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors [3]	43.79	42.66	42.85	43.6	43.1	43.7	100.1	99.0	98.0
Tractors [2 3]	48.37	47.46	48.16	45.4	44.6	45.0	106.6	106.3	107.0
Machine tools	53.73	53.18	52.32	53.0	52.8	52.5	101.3	100.7	99.8
Textile machinery	44.43	42.39	43.90	50.4	48.3	50.3	88.4	87.4	87.4
Typewriters	43.04	42.31	42.88	49.3	48.1	49.1	87.3	88.0	87.4
Cash registers, adding, and calculating machines	54.30	52.99	51.96	49.0	48.2	47.7	112.3	110.8	109.8
Automobiles [2]	54.69	54.65	52.97	45.5	45.5	45.2	120.2	120.2	117.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles [2]	54.02	55.49	53.34	47.3	47.7	47.1	114.2	116.3	113.2
Locomotives	61.35	59.17	56.49	50.2	48.6	48.4	122.6	119.6	116.6
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	48.89	42.35	47.75	44.5	40.7	43.9	109.9	104.2	108.7
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	46.68	46.53	45.75	47.2	46.8	46.3	100.3	99.7	99.1
Aircraft engines [4]	58.49	58.89	60.18	47.7	47.5	48.9	122.6	123.9	123.0
Shipbuilding and boat building	58.09	60.67	57.54	47.7	48.0	47.6	122.0	126.4	120.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
Durable goods—Continued							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Nonferrous metals and their products [2]	$44.70	$44.15	$43.43	45.8	46.0	45.4	97.6	95.9	95.6
Primary smelting and refining [5 6]	41.12	41.39	40.01	42.9	43.2	42.6	96.3	95.8	93.8
Alloying; and rolling and drawing (of nonferrous metals except aluminum) [2 4]	49.35	48.03	49.26	46.3	45.7	56.7	106.7	105.2	105.5
Clocks and watches [5]	37.46	37.26	36.85	45.5	45.7	45.6	82.7	81.6	80.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings [4 6]	41.30	38.46	36.69	47.1	45.8	45.3	86.1	82.6	80.8
Silverware and plated ware	42.61	41.12	40.38	47.2	46.3	46.5	89.6	88.6	86.8
Lighting equipment	45.17	44.61	40.74	45.5	44.7	44.2	93.5	94.3	92.2
Aluminum manufactures	46.84	46.59	46.16	46.1	47.2	45.8	102.3	98.7	100.9
Lumber and timber basic products	28.03	28.58	29.52	41.4	41.7	42.5	67.7	68.5	69.4
Sawmills	26.37	27.43	28.69	40.1	40.9	42.0	65.7	67.0	68.4
Planing and plywood mills [5]	33.23	32.25	32.23	45.4	44.3	44.3	73.3	73.1	72.9
Furniture and finished lumber products [2]	30.02	29.34	29.33	43.7	42.8	42.8	68.7	68.5	68.5
Furniture	30.86	30.05	30.50	44.0	43.1	43.3	70.6	70.3	70.7
Stone, clay, and glass products [2]	33.94	33.53	33.52	41.9	41.4	41.3	81.0	81.0	81.2
Glass	35.59	34.73	35.40	40.6	39.7	39.9	87.8	87.8	88.9
Cement	34.29	36.51	35.91	40.6	42.4	41.7	84.6	86.0	86.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta [5]	29.26	29.26	28.99	40.2	39.7	39.8	72.4	73.2	72.5
Pottery and related products	31.08	30.77	30.29	40.3	39.9	39.4	77.6	77.0	77.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	33.49	32.33	32.98	40.3	39.5	40.3	80.8	80.0	80.0
Asbestos products	41.80	40.44	40.10	47.4	46.3	46.0	88.2	87.3	87.2
Nondurable goods									
Textiles and apparel and other finished products [2]	25.71	25.27	25.15	39.8	39.2	39.0	64.6	64.4	64.4
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures [2]	26.73	26.17	25.84	41.5	40.8	40.4	64.4	64.2	63.9
Cotton manufactures, except small wares	24.04	23.62	23.39	41.4	41.0	40.6	57.8	57.7	57.6
Cotton small wares	31.15	30.56	31.46	44.5	43.6	44.4	70.3	70.4	71.1
Silk and rayon goods	25.88	25.46	25.31	41.7	41.1	40.9	61.9	61.9	61.5
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	32.62	31.53	31.13	41.4	40.2	39.7	78.9	78.9	78.3
Hosiery	25.21	24.57	24.15	39.1	38.1	38.2	64.4	64.5	64.3
Knitted cloth	30.43	29.04	28.30	44.3	42.9	41.6	69.2	68.5	68.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	25.74	24.52	24.16	40.4	40.0	39.3	61.9	61.5	61.0
Knitted underwear	23.39	23.06	22.76	41.1	40.5	40.0	56.2	56.2	56.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	31.60	30.47	30.32	44.9	43.5	43.1	71.0	71.0	70.9
Carpets and rugs, wool	35.71	34.67	34.69	43.0	42.2	42.2	83.0	82.5	82.
Hats, fur-felt	36.55	34.26	31.10	40.6	38.5	36.2	91.4	90.0	86.
Apparel and other finished textile products [2]	24.27	23.97	24.17	37.4	37.0	37.1	64.9	64.8	65.2
Men's clothing	25.70	25.66	25.56	36.6	36.5	36.5	70.7	70.5	70.2
Shirts, collars, and nightwear [4]	21.36	20.90	20.65	38.6	38.1	37.6	55.8	55.0	54.9
Underwear and neckwear [4]	21.25	20.21	19.93	38.1	35.7	35.8	55.1	56.0	55.1
Women's clothing	27.60	27.48	28.17	37.4	36.8	37.1	65.1	65.1	66.3
Corsets and allied garments	24.29	24.67	23.96	40.2	40.2	39.8	60.9	61.5	60.4
Millinery	25.36	25.71	29.38	30.5	29.6	32.3	73.5	75.5	76.4
Leather and leather products [2]	28.98	27.79	27.58	40.3	39.0	38.9	71.9	71.3	70.8
Leather	36.62	36.03	34.89	42.8	42.2	41.5	85.7	85.5	84.2
Boots and shoes	27.52	25.97	26.03	39.6	37.9	38.1	69.2	68.3	68.3
Food and kindred products [2]	33.30	31.84	30.97	43.7	42.4	41.6	76.2	75.1	74.4
Slaughtering and meat packing	38.46	34.52	34.02	45.9	42.0	41.4	83.9	82.3	82.1
Butter	29.71	29.70	29.25	47.2	47.7	47.3	62.6	61.7	61.7
Ice cream	33.63	34.07	33.34	45.8	46.5	46.0	71.7	71.5	70.9
Flour	36.25	35.92	36.36	47.7	46.7	47.5	77.0	77.1	76.9
Baking	33.46	32.32	31.90	44.1	43.2	43.1	75.4	74.6	74.1
Sugar refining, cane	30.74	30.00	28.01	41.0	40.5	36.5	74.9	74.1	76.8
Sugar, beet	34.39	37.67	30.90	46.7	51.8	42.2	74.2	72.8	73.0
Confectionery	26.49	25.80	25.30	42.8	41.9	41.4	61.9	61.7	61.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic [3]	28.63	28.52	29.05	42.3	41.9	42.8	69.9	70.6	70.7
Malt liquors [3]	41.99	41.57	41.69	41.6	40.8	40.8	101.3	102.2	102.5
Canning and preserving	25.65	25.18	24.93	38.2	37.5	37.6	68.7	68.5	67.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued									
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Tobacco manufactures [2]	$25.26	$24.82	$24.32	41.2	40.6	40.4	61.3	61.1	60.2
Cigarettes [3]	29.25	28.83	28.46	42.1	41.2	41.3	69.5	70.0	68.9
Cigars [3]	22.27	21.74	21.34	40.8	40.2	40.1	54.9	54.3	53.5
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	25.21	25.28	24.38	40.2	40.3	38.9	62.2	62.7	62.7
Paper and allied products	34.57	34.01	33.46	44.9	44.0	43.4	77.0	77.2	77.1
Paper and pulp	37.83	37.18	36.59	45.7	44.8	44.2	82.9	83.1	82.8
Paper boxes	31.06	30.53	29.89	44.5	43.6	42.8	69.9	70.3	70.2
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	39.49	38.56	37.51	40.3	39.5	38.5	98.0	97.6	97.3
Newspapers and periodicals	43.36	42.88	42.29	36.8	36.5	36.1	115.5	115.3	114.6
Book and job	37.64	36.48	35.32	42.2	41.1	40.1	89.8	88.6	88.6
Chemicals and allied products [2]	38.98	38.10	37.74	44.5	43.9	43.6	87.6	86.7	86.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors	38.71	37.84	36.79	43.3	42.6	41.8	89.5	89.0	88.3
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides [4]	30.75	30.27	30.84	42.4	41.7	41.7	72.7	73.1	74.2
Soaps	38.05	37.54	37.14	42.2	41.9	41.1	90.1	89.7	90.3
Rayon and allied products	34.18	32.68	32.96	40.7	39.4	39.5	84.0	82.9	83.4
Chemicals	44.85	44.22	43.38	43.4	43.0	42.6	103.6	102.9	101.9
Explosives and safety fuses [4]	46.34	45.91	45.09	46.5	46.3	46.0	99.7	99.1	98.2
Ammunition	40.72	38.89	38.92	46.6	45.6	45.0	87.0	85.3	86.4
Fireworks	33.57	33.02	31.87	42.6	43.3	41.7	78.8	76.3	76.4
Cottonseed oil [6]	22.20	21.83	21.68	52.3	52.5	53.0	42.0	41.3	40.7
Fertilizers	22.59	22.51	23.10	39.1	38.6	39.2	57.8	58.3	58.9
Products of petroleum and coal	45.75	45.61	43.80	41.9	41.8	40.5	109.2	109.3	108.1
Petroleum refining	49.11	48.80	46.56	41.9	41.6	40.1	117.6	117.4	116.0
Rubber products [2]	42.89	41.48	40.39	44.4	43.4	42.7	96.6	95.5	94.7
Rubber tires and inner tubes	49.70	48.14	46.55	44.0	42.8	41.8	113.1	112.5	111.5
Rubber boots and shoes	36.99	35.70	34.65	45.4	44.3	43.7	81.5	80.5	79.2
Rubber goods, other	36.98	35.51	35.07	44.5	43.9	43.3	82.5	81.3	81.4
Miscellaneous industries	38.52	37.34	36.23	46.3	45.3	44.8	83.2	82.9	81.1
Professional and scientific instruments and fire control	49.65	49.65	48.17	51.5	50.7	50.6	96.5	98.0	95.2

NONMANUFACTURING

Nonmanufacturing:									
Coal mining:							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Anthracite [7]	$36.14	$35.05	$34.36	35.9	35.7	35.1	100.3	99.3	98.4
Bituminous	38.25	36.71	36.56	35.7	34.4	34.2	108.5	107.3	107.0
Metalliferous mining	41.13	41.16	40.11	44.1	44.4	44.0	93.3	92.8	91.3
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	32.99	34.14	34.01	43.8	45.6	45.7	75.7	75.0	74.4
Crude-petroleum production	42.62	42.12	42.26	40.5	38.7	39.8	105.7	106.6	103.9
Public utilities: [8]									
Telephone and telegraph	33.84	33.90	33.67	40.7	40.7	40.6	83.5	83.5	83.3
Electric light and power	41.94	41.14	40.85	40.8	39.8	40.5	102.3	102.7	100.4
Street railways and busses	43.34	42.05	40.98	49.9	49.0	47.9	85.6	84.7	84.0
Trade:									
Wholesale [8]	37.04	37.41	36.52	41.8	41.7	41.7	88.4	89.3	87.9
Retail [8]	22.87	23.20	23.36	40.9	40.7	40.9	60.9	62.5	62.3
Food	27.32	27.09	26.75	41.0	40.9	40.9	63.1	63.5	63.0
General merchandising	19.56	19.43	19.75	38.3	36.9	37.3	50.1	52.0	52.0
Apparel	23.83	24.12	23.74	37.3	36.6	36.7	64.4	65.9	64.8
Furniture and housefurnishings	33.50	33.48	33.06	44.3	44.6	44.2	78.3	77.9	77.6
Automotive	34.14	34.53	33.46	47.9	48.3	47.8	70.9	71.6	70.5
Lumber and building materials	32.33	32.98	33.09	42.6	42.7	43.4	78.9	79.8	78.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942	Dec. 1942	Nov. 1942	Oct. 1942
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Hotels (year-round) [8]	$19.14	$18.69	$18.60	44.8	44.4	45.0	42.2	41.3	40.6
Laundries	22.40	21.86	21.57	44.0	43.3	43.3	51.3	51.0	50.2
Dyeing and cleaning	25.22	25.48	25.23	43.3	43.1	43.5	60.1	60.8	60.1
Brokerage [8 9]	44.96	43.15	43.06	[10]	[10]	[10]	[10]	[10]	[10]
Insurance [8]	39.52	38.91	38.26	[10]	[10]	[10]	[10]	[10]	[10]
Building construction	46.07	45.90	45.36	38.0	38.0	37.9	123.0	120.9	119.8

[1] These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnish man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Weekly earnings for manufacturing groups are now weighted, and are therefore not comparable with the unweighted series published in the November 1942 and earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

[2] Data for groups and separate industries not comparable with previously published figures as indicated below. Comparable averages for earlier months available on request.

All manufacturing group: Average hourly earnings.
Durable group: Average hourly earnings.
Nondurable group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Iron and steel group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Electrical machinery group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Machinery group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Transportation group: Average hourly earnings.
Automobile group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Nonferrous group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Furniture group: Average hourly earnings.
Stone group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Textile and apparel group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Textile-mill products group: Average hourly earnings.
Apparel group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Leather group: Average hourly earnings.
Food group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Tobacco group: Average hourly earnings.
Chemicals group: Average hours and average hourly earnings.
Rubber group: Average hourly earnings.
Tractors: Average hourly earnings.
Alloying: Weekly earnings, hours and hourly earnings.

[3] The following pairs of industries were carried as single industries in the mimeographed reports for August 1942 and prior months: "blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills" and "steel castings" as "blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills"; "electrical equipment" and "communication equipment" as "electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies"; "agricultural machinery" and "tractors" as "agricultural implements (including tractors)"; "nonalcoholic beverages" and "malt liquors" as "beverages"; and "cigarettes" and "cigars" as "cigars and cigarettes".

[4] New series agrees with Standard Industrial Classification definition.

[5] Industry definitions changed slightly to conform to Standard Industrial Classification; not strictly comparable with previously published series.

[6] Revisions in the following industries have been made as indicated: *Smelting and refining.*—April, May, June, July, August, and September average weekly earnings to $35.38; $36.39; $37.39; $37.75; $37.90, and $38.75. May, June, August, and September average hours to 40.8; 41.2; 41.3; and 41.8. April, May, June, July, August, and September average hourly earnings to 87.9; 89.0; 90.1; 91.2; 91.5; and 92.6 cents. *Jewelry.*—July and September average hours to 42.5 and 44.8. July, August, and September average hourly earnings to 76.1, 76.1, and 79.9 cents. *Cottonseed oil.*—September average hours to 48.7 and September average hourly earnings to 39.4 cents.

[7] See table 7 of October 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised figures for anthracite mining, February 1940 to September 1940 inclusive.

[8] Not comparable with figures published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet prior to January 1938, as they exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

[9] See note 18 in table 9 in the July 1941 issue of "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised average weekly earnings in the brokerage industry, January 1939 to January 1941.

[10] Not available.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing [1] and Nonmanufacturing [2] Industries, December 1941 to December 1942*

EMPLOYMENT

Industry	1941		1942											
	Average	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Manufacturing														
All industries	132.1	141.1	139.8	142.3	144.3	146.3	148.0	149.9	153.4	157.1	159.6	160.7	161.9	164.6
Durable goods [3]	153.8	168.5	169.1	172.3	175.8	180.0	184.1	188.9	193.9	199.2	202.5	206.7	210.4	215.5
Nondurable goods [4]	115.0	119.5	116.8	118.6	119.4	119.8	119.6	119.2	121.4	123.9	125.9	124.5	123.8	124.4
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining [5]	49.7	49.1	49.0	48.8	48.4	47.8	48.2	45.5	46.8	46.7	46.6	46.2	46.2	45.8
Bituminous-coal mining [5]	86.2	95.5	95.1	94.5	93.7	93.5	92.9	92.7	93.0	92.3	91.6	90.6	89.3	88.5
Metalliferous mining [6]	77.6	80.2	80.7	81.0	81.9	81.9	82.2	81.8	81.5	80.3	78.6	77.7	79.1	79.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	49.8	50.9	46.8	46.7	47.7	50.3	51.7	51.9	51.6	51.5	50.7	50.0	48.6	46.9
Crude-petroleum production	61.0	61.1	61.3	60.6	59.7	58.8	58.1	57.5	57.1	56.7	55.9	55.5	55.0	54.6
Telephone and telegraph [7]	86.3	90.0	90.4	90.3	90.5	91.2	91.7	92.5	93.5	93.8	93.6	93.3	93.1	92.7
Electric light and power [7]	92.7	93.1	92.0	90.5	89.6	88.9	88.0	87.7	86.9	85.9	84.2	82.7	81.3	80.5
Street railways and busses [7 8]	69.3	70.6	70.4	70.7	71.2	72.1	72.9	74.0	74.8	75.0	75.7	75.9	75.9	77.0
Wholesale trade	94.0	96.3	94.9	94.3	93.9	92.7	91.2	90.4	89.7	90.2	89.4	90.0	89.3	88.8
Retail trade [7]	98.0	113.0	95.4	94.0	94.4	94.3	94.0	92.8	90.3	89.4	91.7	94.6	96.8	106.2
Year-round hotels [5]	95.0	95.3	94.2	94.1	93.5	95.2	96.1	95.5	94.4	93.4	93.9	95.6	95.4	95.0
Laundries [5]	108.5	108.4	108.8	107.6	107.9	110.3	113.7	114.8	119.1	117.4	116.4	115.9	114.2	113.3
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	115.1	113.3	109.8	109.5	113.8	121.3	127.6	130.1	126.9	123.7	123.0	124.8	119.7	115.7

See footnotes at end of table.

Industry	1941		1942											
	Average	December	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Manufacturing														
All industries	167.5	195.1	200.7	208.2	215.1	221.4	228.7	234.5	242.7	254.8	261.8	270.9	280.4	287.7
Durable goods [3]	202.3	242.0	255.9	265.8	276.3	287.2	300.0	312.1	323.9	342.0	352.4	366.2	382.8	391.2
Nondurable goods [4]	133.5	149.3	146.8	151.9	155.4	157.0	159.0	158.7	163.3	169.5	173.3	177.7	180.3	186.5
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining [5]	41.4	35.9	39.4	49.6	50.9	44.7	51.5	56.0	45.9	48.2	50.2	48.3	49.2	50.3
Bituminous-coal mining [5]	99.6	119.9	117.1	118.2	116.7	118.3	122.1	140.3	112.7	118.6	122.2	124.8	123.9	128.1
Metalliferous mining [6]	81.9	93.7	94.3	98.4	99.1	99.1	100.8	102.0	99.3	102.1	99.1	99.8	104.1	104.4
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	51.8	55.8	48.9	52.0	54.4	58.1	63.0	65.1	65.9	67.4	67.5	68.9	66.8	61.8
Crude-petroleum production	60.5	64.6	64.8	64.8	62.6	63.2	62.0	62.9	62.4	62.4	64.9	64.1	63.6	65.1
Telephone and telegraph [7]	112.7	122.9	120.9	120.9	121.8	122.2	125.0	125.3	126.0	127.4	130.5	128.4	129.0	128.2
Electric light and power [7]	111.2	115.2	114.6	113.7	113.5	113.5	113.6	113.6	113.4	112.8	112.5	111.2	109.4	109.9
Street railways and busses [7 8]	75.4	80.0	80.5	83.7	84.7	84.4	86.8	89.4	91.0	93.8	93.6	95.3	97.8	101.3
Wholesale trade	87.1	92.8	91.8	93.7	93.9	92.2	91.7	91.0	91.3	91.7	92.3	94.6	96.3	95.4
Retail trade [7]	93.4	107.8	94.6	93.9	93.7	93.6	94.0	93.4	91.8	91.4	93.1	96.4	99.2	107.2
Year-round hotels [5]	88.5	93.3	91.5	92.6	91.6	93.5	95.4	96.6	96.5	96.6	98.5	103.2	103.9	107.0
Laundries [5]	99.3	102.6	103.8	102.5	104.3	108.6	113.8	115.2	117.8	116.8	117.3	118.9	118.5	120.1
Dyeing and cleaning [5]	90.4	88.6	86.5	85.6	92.7	105.7	113.1	117.7	109.2	106.4	107.9	112.5	107.9	104.8

[1] 1939 average=100—adjusted to final 1941 and preliminary second quarter 1942 data supplied by Bureau of Employment Security. Not comparable with previously published indexes.

[2] 1929 average=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls" or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5, 6, and 7.

[3] Includes the following groups: Iron and steel and their products; machinery except electrical; transportation equipment except automobiles; nonferrous metals and their products; lumber and timber basic products; stone, clay, and glass products; electrical machinery; automobiles; and furniture and finished lumber products.

[4] Includes the following groups: Textiles and finished textile products; leather and leather products; food and kindred products; tobacco manufactures; paper and allied products; chemicals and allied products; products of petroleum and coal; rubber products; textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures; apparel and other finished textile products; printing, publishing, and allied industries; and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.

[5] Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 Census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of "Employment and Pay Rolls." See also table 7 of October 1940 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised figures for anthracite mining, February to September 1940.

[6] See table of February 1941 "Employment and Pay Rolls" for revised indexes, January 1938 to January 1941.

[7] Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 Census and public-utility indexes to 1937 Census. Not comparable with indexes published in "Employment and Pay Rolls" prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series, January 1929 to April 1942, available in mimeographed form.

[8] Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

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EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT IN JANUARY 1943

UNEMPLOYMENT declined by 100,000 persons from December 1942 to January 1943, reaching a new low of 1,400,000, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. At the same time, employment decreased by 900,000 persons, and the civilian labor force declined by 1,000,000.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force, by Employment Status and by Sex, April 1940 to January 1943*

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Month	Estimated number (millions of persons)								
	Labor force			Employed			Unemployed [1]		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1940									
April	53.9	40.6	13.3	45.1	34.1	11.0	8.8	6.5	2.3
May	54.7	41.3	13.4	46.3	35.3	11.0	8.4	6.0	2.4
June	56.2	42.3	13.9	47.6	36.4	11.2	8.6	5.9	2.7
July	56.9	43.1	13.8	47.6	36.8	10.8	9.3	6.3	3.0
August	56.6	42.9	13.7	47.7	36.9	10.8	8.9	6.0	2.9
September	54.9	41.5	13.4	47.9	36.7	11.2	7.0	4.8	2.2
October	54.4	41.3	13.1	47.0	36.2	10.8	7.4	5.1	2.3
November	53.7	41.1	12.6	46.3	35.8	10.5	7.4	5.3	2.1
December	53.4	40.9	12.5	46.3	35.7	10.6	7.1	5.2	1.9
1941									
January	53.0	40.7	12.3	45.3	35.1	10.2	7.7	5.6	2.1
February	52.9	40.6	12.3	45.7	35.4	10.3	7.2	5.2	2.0
March	52.7	40.4	12.3	45.8	35.4	10.4	6.9	5.0	1.9
April	53.5	40.9	12.6	46.8	36.2	10.6	6.7	4.7	2.0
May	54.2	40.9	13.3	48.5	37.0	11.5	5.7	3.9	1.8
June	56.2	42.3	13.9	50.2	38.3	11.9	6.0	4.0	2.0
July	56.6	42.6	14.0	50.9	38.9	12.0	5.7	3.7	2.0
August	56.4	42.4	14.0	51.0	38.8	12.2	5.4	3.6	1.8
September	54.8	41.0	13.8	50.3	38.0	12.3	4.5	3.0	1.5
October	54.1	40.4	13.7	50.2	37.9	12.3	3.9	2.5	1.4
November	54.1	40.3	13.8	50.2	37.7	12.5	3.9	2.6	1.3
December	54.0	40.2	13.8	50.2	37.6	12.6	3.8	2.6	1.2
1942									
January	53.2	40.0	13.2	48.9	37.0	11.9	4.3	3.0	1.3
February	53.4	40.0	13.4	49.4	37.2	12.2	4.0	2.8	1.2
March	54.5	40.0	14.5	50.9	37.6	13.3	3.6	2.4	1.2
April	53.7	39.8	13.9	50.7	37.8	12.9	3.0	2.0	1.0
May	54.2	40.0	14.2	51.6	38.4	13.2	2.6	1.6	1.0
June	56.1	41.1	15.0	53.3	39.4	13.9	2.8	1.7	1.1
July	56.8	41.6	15.2	54.0	39.9	14.1	2.8	1.7	1.1
August	56.2	41.1	15.1	54.0	39.7	14.3	2.2	1.4	.8
September	54.1	39.2	14.9	52.4	38.2	14.2	1.7	1.0	.7
October	54.0	39.0	15.0	52.4	38.1	14.3	1.6	.9	.7
November	54.5	38.5	16.0	52.8	37.5	15.3	1.7	1.0	.7
December	53.4	37.9	15.5	51.9	37.0	14.9	1.5	.9	.6
1943									
January	52.4	37.1	15.3	51.0	36.3	14.7	1.4	.8	.6

[1] Includes persons on public emergency projects.

In January 1943, the civilian labor force stood at 52,400,000—the lowest level recorded since the inception of the current series of labor-force estimates in 1940. This was the result of the withdrawal of large numbers of men from civilian life to enter the armed forces. The drain on the male labor supply has been offset to a large extent—but not entirely—by increases in the number of women and older persons in the labor force. A decline of 2,900,000 men in the civilian labor force over the past year has been accompanied by an increase of 2,100,000 women (table 1). Over the same period, the number of workers 55 years of age or over rose by 900,000, whereas the number under 55 years decreased by 1,700,000.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment, and Unemployment, by Age Groups, in Specified Months*[1]

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Labor-market status and age	January 1943	December 1942	January 1942	December 1941	January 1941	December 1940
	Estimated number (millions of persons)					
Labor force	52.4	53.4	53.2	54.0	53.0	53.4
14 to 24 years	10.5	11.0	11.2	11.7	11.7	11.9
25 to 54 years	33.1	33.5	34.1	34.3	33.6	33.7
55 years and over	8.8	8.9	7.9	8.0	7.7	7.8
Employed	51.0	51.9	48.9	50.2	45.3	46.3
14 to 24 years	10.1	10.5	9.9	10.6	8.9	9.5
25 to 54 years	32.4	32.8	31.9	32.4	29.8	30.0
55 years and over	8.5	8.6	7.1	7.2	6.6	6.8
Unemployed	1.4	1.5	4.3	3.8	7.7	7.1
14 to 24 years	.4	.5	1.3	1.1	2.8	2.4
25 to 54 years	.7	.7	2.2	1.9	3.8	3.7
55 years and over	.3	.3	.8	.8	1.1	1.0
	Unemployment rate [2] (percent) [3]					
All age groups	2.8	2.8	8.1	7.0	14.5	13.3
14 to 24 years	4.2	3.8	11.7	9.7	23.6	20.7
25 to 54 years	2.0	2.0	6.5	5.7	11.4	10.8
55 years and over	3.8	4.4	9.6	8.7	14.2	13.2
	Percentage distribution of unemployed [3]					
All age groups	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
14 to 24 years	30.8	28.2	30.6	29.8	35.8	34.6
25 to 54 years	45.7	45.7	51.8	51.9	49.9	50.9
55 years and over	23.5	26.1	17.6	18.3	14.3	14.5

[1] All data exclude persons in institutions. Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed.
[2] Unemployed as a percent of labor force in each age group.
[3] Percentages computed from unrounded numbers.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

MARCH 1943

Absenteeism

Absenteeism. (In Labor Market, U. S. War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Program Planning and Review, Washington, November–December 1942, pp. 18–27.)

Discusses reasons for absenteeism in war plants, and methods of control.

Problem of absenteeism in relation to war production. By Duane Evans. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 9 pp. (Serial No. R 1507, reprint from January 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

The problem of absenteeism [*Great Britain*]. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1942. 8 pp.

Consumer Problems

Changes in consumer buying practices resulting from tire and gas rationing. By P. D. Converse. Urbana, Ill., University of Illinois, Bureau of Economic and Business Research, 1943. 8 pp. (University of Illinois Bull., Vol. 40, No. 20.)

The survey was made in one primary trading center (Champaign-Urbana), two secondary trading centers, and five villages, in Illinois, information being obtained from a total of 538 families.

The consumer goes to war: A guide to victory on the home front. By Caroline F. Ware. New York, Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1942. 300 pp. $2.

Contains explanations of the rationing program, difficulties of price control, and other matters of interest to consumers, as well as descriptions of the policies of various national organizations, types of defense council organizations, and sources of consumer information.

Cooperative Movement

Bibliographical review of literature on cooperative housing. [Boston], Edward A. Filene Good Will Fund, Inc., 1942. 267 pp.; processed. (Studies of the Cooperative Project sponsored by U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and U. S. Work Projects Administration, series E, Cooperative housing, Vol. I.)

Contains abstracts of available literature on cooperative housing in the United States and foreign countries. Phases covered are cooperative housing proper, building and loan associations, and housing copartnership associations. A general summary of developments in the field of cooperative housing is given at the beginning of the volume; excerpts from this summary were given in the January 1943 Monthly Labor Review (p. 93).

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries. The amounts do not include postage, and also they are subject to change.

The geographical distribution of the principal categories of cooperatives. By G. Fauquet. (In Annals of Collective Economy, Geneva, January–April 1942, pp. 79–94.)

Gives data on the development of the various branches of the cooperative movement throughout the world.

Legislative history of cooperatives under the income tax [United States]. By Tessim Zorach. (In Bulletin of National Tax Association, Lancaster, Pa., December, 1942, pp. 92–97. 25 cents. Also reprinted.)

Review of agricultural cooperation in Venezuela. By Manuel Cardozo. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, 1942. 18 pp.; mimeographed. (Series on cooperatives, No. 19.)

As the title indicates, most of this report is devoted to agricultural cooperatives; however, descriptions are given of several agricultural and labor banks, and an appendix gives information on various types of cooperatives, including credit, consumers', and student cooperatives.

Dismissal Compensation

Dismissal compensation. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 32 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 50.)

The study was made to determine what effect the war and the State unemployment-compensation laws have had on dismissal-compensation plans. Very few of the plans had been given up and the satisfaction of employers with dismissal compensation is said to be evident from the extent to which this activity has been retained and even expanded during the past decade.

Economic and Social Problems

Economic fluctuations in the United States: A systematic analysis of long-run trends and business cycles, 1866–1914. By Edwin Frickey. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1942. 375 pp., charts. (Harvard economic studies, Vol. LXXIII.) $5.

The author develops methods of breaking down time series for analyzing the several kinds of fluctuations described as secular, cyclical, seasonal, and irregular. He analyzes a large number of time series, including employment, immigration, prices, and production.

Refugee settlement in the Dominican Republic. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1942. 410 pp., maps, charts, illus. $4.

Part 2 of this book contains information on industrial distribution of the population of the Dominican Republic and on housing, income, standards of living, and agricultural and industrial wages. There are some comparisons of wages of agricultural labor with those paid in other tropical countries. Part 1 is on economics of refugee settlement and part 3 deals particularly with the problems of the Sosua refugee colony.

English social history: A survey of six centuries, Chaucer to Queen Victoria. By G. M. Trevelyan. London, New York, etc., Longmans, Green & Co., 1942. 628 pp., maps. $4.50.

The writer states that social history might be defined negatively as the history of a people with politics left out. It is impossible to leave politics out, but this book stresses the social.

Government and industry, their future relations. By Samuel Courtauld. London, Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 1942. 32 pp. 6d.

Notes reprinted from the Economic Journal (Royal Economic Society, London), presenting the author's views as to how best to meet the inevitably changed conditions that will exist in Great Britain after the war. He foresees continued Government control and a greater sharing by labor in management policy and the rewards of industry.

Social and industrial problems of Shanghai. By Eleanor M. Hinder. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, International Secretariat, 1942. 74 pp., map; processed. 50 cents.

The study was completed shortly before the Japanese occupation of the International Settlement at Shanghai. It deals with industrial conditions, employment relations, labor organization, housing, food and nutrition, education of skilled workers, and child protection.

Education and Training

Adult education in wartime. (In Adult Education Journal, New York, January 1943, pp. 2–43.)
Deals with the effect of the war on adult-education programs in different localities throughout the United States.

School for Americans: An essay in adult education. By John W. Powell. New York, American Association for Adult Education, 1942. 212 pp.; processed.
Description of an experiment in principle and practice, in adult education, carried out in San Francisco.

Apprentice training in construction. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Construction and Civic Development Department, 1943. 8 pp.

Army without uniform: The story of the War Department's civilian training program. Washington, U. S. War Department, [1942]. 31 pp., illus.
The pamphlet describes different branches of civilian service in the war establishment and tells how and where to apply for War Department work.

Mexican trade trainees in U. S. "earn as they learn." By Elliott S. Hanson. (In Foreign Commerce Weekly, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, January 30, 1943, pp. 10, 35, illus. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)
Account of the Inter-American Trade Scholarship Program to provide technical training in the United States, in industrial, agricultural, commercial, and other fields, for qualified young men from Latin American countries.

Training programs in the Federal service. Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, Division of Training, 1942. 78 pp., charts, illus.

Visual aids in industrial training. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 60 pp., illus. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 49.)
A study primarily of the use of films to supplement an industrial training program for the quick training of workers in wartime. The survey covered 239 companies engaged in war production, of which 148 were found to be using visual aids in their training, including different types of films and glass slides.

Food and Nutrition

Democracy means all of us: How communities can organize to study and meet community needs with special suggestions for developing nutrition programs in war time. Washington, U. S. Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, Nutrition Division, 1942. 30 pp., bibliography.

The food front. Washington, U. S. Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, 1942. 52 pp.
A series of 11 lectures, delivered in the U. S. Department of Agriculture Auditorium, March 11 to April 15, 1942, dealing with food and nutrition.

Industrial nutrition issue, Manufacturers' News. Chicago, August 1942, pp. 1–36 et seq., illus. 20 cents.
The various articles deal with the value of good nutrition for production, better plant cafeterias, the importance of vitamins for war workers, and health-for-victory clubs organized in industrial plants.

Nutrition and food supply: the war and after. Edited by John D. Black. Philadelphia, American Academy of Political and Social Science, January 1943. 279 pp. (The Annals, Vol. 225.) Paper, $2; cloth, $2.50.
The articles are classified under science and nutrition, food supplies and public policy, consumption and distribution, and production and processing.

Nutritional programs for industrial employees. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1942. 8 pp. (Industrial relations digests, XIII.) 20 cents.

Handicapped Workers

Manpower shortage relieved by use of afflicted workers. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1942. 4 pp. (Supplement to NAM Industrial Relations Bulletin, No. 45, December 1942.)

Summary of data obtained in a survey made by the National Association of Manufacturers to learn what war plants are doing to make use of physically handicapped persons and to restore present or prospective workers to health. The data cover 35 representative plants which have adopted policies along this line. Suggested jobs for handicapped workers are listed.

Service for the handicapped, New York State—placement activities, year ended December 31, 1941. Albany, United States Employment Service for New York, [1942]. 24 pp.; mimeographed.

Statistics by occupation group, industry, and type of disability, of placements of handicapped persons in employment in New York State, through the efforts of regular and special interviewers of the Employment Service.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Health hazards in the fur industry. By Harry Heimann. (In Journal of Industrial Hygiene and Toxicology, Baltimore, Md., December 1942, pp. 322–331. 75 cents.)

Medical results of a study by the Division of Industrial Hygiene, New York State Department of Labor.

Industrial eyesight in war—in peace. By Charles P. Tolman. (In Industrial Safety Survey, International Labor Office, Montreal, October–December 1942, pp. 121–131, chart, illus. 50 cents.)

The writer summarizes results of a survey, by the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, of eyesight-conservation practices by 50 plants, many of them front-rank concerns. The returns, he states, "show a serious lack of attention to conservation of eyesight in industry in contrast to practices with regard to general safety." Various measures for protecting workers' eyesight are suggested.

The medical department in war industries. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1942. 8 pp. (Industrial relations digests, XIV.) 20 cents.

Medical services in industry: A selected, annotated bibliography with particular reference to health programs in war industries. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, December 1942. 11 pp.; mimeographed. (Bibliographical series No. 71.) 10 cents.

Occupational medicine and hygiene; its role in Britain in wartime. By E. R. A. Merewether, M. D. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, January 1943, pp. 1–14. 50 cents.)

An account of the factory medical-inspection service in Great Britain as it has functioned during the war and of some of the special problems which have had to be dealt with, such as the blackout, effects of enemy action, overwork and overstrain among the workers, and emergency first-aid arrangements.

Housing

Housing provided in 138 defense areas. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1504, reprint from December 1942 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Annual report of Alley Dwelling Authority for District of Columbia, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1942. Washington, [1942?]. 45 pp.; mimeographed.

Reviews the changes in functions of the Authority owing to the war, that is, a shift from slum reclamation to housing for war workers.

Rehousing the low-income families of Boston: A review of activities of the Boston Housing Authority, 1936–1940. Boston, Boston Housing Authority, [1941]. 95 pp., map, plans, illus.

Report of State Commissioner of Housing to Governor and Legislature of State of New York. Albany, 1943. 29 pp., illus. (Legislative document, 1943, No. 25.)

Discusses progress of New York State's housing program and existing and future problems.

Income

Outlay and income in the United States, 1921–1938. By Harold Barger. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1942. xxvii, 391 pp., charts. (Conference on research in national income and wealth, studies in income and wealth, Vol. 4.) $2.50.

This volume brings together the estimates of national income, commodity flow, and capital formation made by the National Bureau of Economic Research, and adds estimates of the value of consumers' services. The author also makes use of the materials available for estimating outlay and income on a quarterly basis for the entire period covered. Separate figures for wages are not given, but under short-term income, which includes salaries and also the net income of farmers and of professional and business men not operating on a corporate basis in the service industries, the author gives quarterly figures both with and without adjustment for seasonal variation.

Minnesota incomes, 1938–39: A report on distribution of family and individual incomes. By Minnesota Income Study. St. Paul, Minnesota Resources Commission, 1942. 4 vols.; maps.

A field survey supplemented by unemployment-compensation data and individual income-tax data. The first volume gives general data from the field survey, with tables showing income distribution by income levels up to $10,000 and over, for the State and various subdivisions, and for various groups, including wage earners. Volumes 2 and 3 give detailed data from the field survey and from the supplementary sources. The fourth volume is devoted to Minneapolis and St. Paul. The preface refers briefly to earlier Federal and State income studies of a similar nature.

Industrial Accidents and Accident Prevention

Metal- and nonmetal-mine accidents in the United States during calendar year 1940 (excluding coal mines). By W. W. Adams and M. E. Kolhos. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Mines, 1942. 51 pp. (Bull. No. 450.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Bibliography on electrical safety, 1930-1941. New York, American Institute of Electrical Engineers, 1942. 14 pp. 50 cents.

Life-saving measures for merchant seamen in time of war. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1942. 59 pp. (Studies and reports, Series P, No. 4.) 35 cents.

The report contains the resolutions on safety measures for seamen adopted by the Joint Maritime Commission at its London session in June 1942, and a summary statement of life-saving measures, prepared by the International Labor Office.

Manual for instructors of advanced course in industrial accident prevention. New York, New York University, Center for Safety Education, 1942. 74 pp.; mimeographed.

Report of 1942 convention and annual general meeting of Industrial Accident Prevention Associations, held in Toronto, April 20 and 21, 1942. Toronto, Industrial Accident Prevention Associations, 1942. 116 pp.

Safety measures: A selected list of recent references on accident prevention in its various aspects. Compiled by Anne L. Baden. Washington, Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, September 1942. 56 pp.; mimeographed.

Industry Reports

Labor aspects of the Chicago milk industry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1942. 53 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 715.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Labor situation in western logging camps and sawmills. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 1500, reprint from December 1942 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

The maritime industry—Federal regulation in establishing labor and safety standards. By Rudolf Walter Wissmann. New York, Cornell Maritime Press, 1942. 386 pp., bibliography. $5.

The purpose of the study was to show to what extent certain types of Federal labor and navigation laws have been found necessary to promote not only the welfare of maritime workers and the development of the American merchant marine, but also the public interest involved therein. The first chapter discusses the peculiarities of seamen's employment and describes briefly the history and general characteristics of legislation for seamen. Other chapters deal with recruitment of personnel, training facilities, collective bargaining, seamen's organizations, right to strike, settlement of labor disputes, regulation of seamen's working and living conditions at sea and in port, provisions looking toward safety of life and property at sea, and inspection and enforcement of labor standards.

Transportation and national policy. Washington, U. S. National Resources Planning Board, 1942. 513 pp., maps, charts. $1.25.

A comprehensive study of transportation problems. The final section of 29 pages is devoted to labor. Policy recommendations include a proposal for a national transport agency, a program of expansion and improvement for maintaining employment after the war, and the extension of arrangements for maintaining relations between employers and employees "far beyond the normal limits of bargaining to embrace systematic cooperation between men and management" in the various transport agencies. It is stated that long-range considerations call for a better balance among the several transport agencies in collective-bargaining arrangements, labor standards, and labor legislation.

The study is summarized in a pamphlet issued by the National Resources Planning Board under the title "The future of transportation," in the series of pamphlets on post-war planning.

Labor Departments

Labor's voice in the cabinet: A history of the Department of Labor from its origin to 1921. By John Lombardi, New York. Columbia University Press, 1942. 370 pp., bibliography. (Studies in history, economics, and public law, No. 496.) $3.50.

The author reviews the almost 50 years of effort by organized labor to have established within the Federal Government a Department of Labor with cabinet status. The major part of the volume is devoted to an informative description of the development of the functions of the Department under the first Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson, and the role of the Department during World War I and up to March 4, 1921.

Organization and functions of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry. Harrisburg, Department of Labor and Industry, 1942. 37 pp. (Bull. No. 50.)

Outline of functions and work of Ministry of Labor and National Service [Great Britain]. By Ernest Bevin. London, [Ministry of Labor and National Service?], 1942. 12 pp.

Address by the Minister of Labor and National Service to the London County Council.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

Brief history of International Glove Workers Union of America. By Agnes Nestor. [Chicago], International Glove Workers Union of America, Research Department, [1942?]. 31 pp., illus.

Daily proceedings of fifth constitutional convention of Congress of Industrial Organizations, November 9–13, Boston, Mass. Washington, Congress of Industrial Organizations, [1943?]. 420 pp.

A short account of the proceedings of this convention was published in the December 1942 Monthly Labor Review (page 1219).

Report of proceedings of 62d annual convention of American Federation of Labor, held at Toronto, Ontario, Canada, October 5–14, 1942. Washington, American Federation of Labor, [1942?]. xxxvi, 737 pp.

A short account of the proceedings at the convention was published in the November 1942 Monthly Labor Review (p. 1000), together with statistics of membership of affiliated organizations in 1941 and 1942.

Los sindicatos en Colombia. By Alvaro Pineda de Castro. (In Anales de Economía y Estadística, Contraloría General de la República, Bogotá, September 20, 1942, pp. 75–78.)

Deals with the development of workers' associations and their affiliates in Colombia. Statistics presented show number of associations, membership, and capital, by geographical division, for the year 1938; and total number of associations, total membership, and total capital at the end of 1941. Between 1938 and 1941, the number of associations increased from 520 to 727, membership from 82,893 to 95,449, and capital from 266,166.38 pesos to 1,128,162 pesos.

The institution of a tripartite labor organization in India. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, January 1943, pp. 1–21. 60 cents.)

Account of the fourth labor conference (first tripartite conference), New Delhi, August 1942, at which the new organization was constituted, with a brief sketch of the general background and of India's relations with the International Labor Organization. The Indian organization is modeled on the International Labor Organization, and is composed of representatives of the governments of the Indian Provinces and States, of employers, and of workers.

Manpower

Is there enough manpower? By Harold W. Metz. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1942. 25 pp. (Pamphlet No. 45.) 25 cents.

A study of the sources of additional manpower and the amount of labor needed under certain assumptions regarding the size of the armed forces and their uses at the fighting fronts. It is stated that information in these fields is urgently needed as a basis for making significant decisions regarding the recruiting and allocation of manpower and the adoption of appropriate measures to give effect to the decisions.

Recruiting applicants for the public service. Chicago, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1942. xvi, 200 pp. $3.

Where can we get war workers? By Sanford Griffith. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1942. 32 pp., charts. 10 cents.

Results of a manpower survey in Baltimore, which was chosen for the survey because of the variety and complexity of its war production problems and also because it was the first city in which the Federal Government tried out the effectiveness of its voluntary manpower efforts.

Manpower allocation in Germany. By Herbert Block. (In Harvard Business Review, Vol. XXI, No. 2, New York, winter 1943, pp. 259–268. $1.25.)

An article on "Manpower control in Germany" by the same author was published in the January 1943 Monthly Labor Review (pp. 10–21) and reprinted in Bureau of Labor Statistics Serial No. R. 1508.

Manpower-control policies in Great Britain. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 8 pp. (Serial No. R. 1501, reprint from December 1942 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Migration

Differentials in internal migration. By Albert Hoyt Hobbs. Philadelphia, the author, University of Pennsylvania, 1942. 122 pp., bibliography. $2.

Describes the problem of migration as it affected a town in the anthracite region of Pennsylvania in which mining was practically the only industry and where the industry had been declining for a number of years.

Migratory beet workers in Michigan. By J. F. Thaden. East Lansing, Michigan State College, Agricultural Experiment Station, [1942]. 47 pp., maps, illus.

Describes the nature of beet-field work and the sources and characteristics of 7,400 Mexican migrants into Michigan and Ohio beet fields in 1941. Information is also given on housing facilities and on minimum-wage rates and earnings of beet workers in Michigan.

Negro internal migration. By Lyonel C. Florant. (In American Sociological Review, Menasha, Wis., December 1942, pp. 782–791. $1.)

Discusses Negro migration both as a mass movement and as an individual experience, and the changes in Negro migration. Considering such aspects as distance, direction, fluctuations in gross rates of movement, relation of individual moves to subsequent distribution of population, and measurable characteristics of migrants, it seems apparent that the movements of Negroes have not been random but have followed a pattern. The individual experiences underlying the pattern are related to greater opportunities, directions and distances of moves, improved transportation, and other factors.

Occupations

Broad occupational distribution of wage or salary workers in each industry, for the United States, March 1940. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1942. 19 pp.; processed. (Sixteenth census of the United States, 1940, series P–14, No. 6.)

Careers in labor relations. By Florence Peterson. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1943. 49 pp., bibliography, illus. (American job series, Occupational monograph No. 32.) 60 cents.

A brief description of the various kinds of labor-relations activities and the qualifications and requirements for handling labor-relations jobs. Prepared for vocational-school and college students.

Careers in the making: Readings in modern biography as studies in vocational guidance. Edited by Iona Robertson Logie. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1942. 243 pp., bibliography. $1.40.

Old-Age Pensions

The jumble of public retirement systems. By Marguerite L. Pizer. (In George Washington Law Review, Washington, December 1942, pp. 57–71. $1.)

Reviews the growth of independent public retirement systems in the United States and discusses particularly the variations in coverage, contribution rates, benefits, etc., as well as the desirability and practicability of unifying and expanding the systems to attain universal coverage.

Pension systems for State and local government employees. Washington, U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1942. 5 pp., charts. (State and local government special study No. 17.)

Preliminary report on the results of a questionnaire study by the Bureau of the Census. It shows that nearly three thousand State and local governments operate public-employee pension systems.

Consolidated annual report of Comptroller of City of New York for fiscal year 1941–1942. New York, 1942. 482 pp.

Statistics include receipts and disbursements for all the city's retirement systems for which the comptroller is custodian—the New York City employees', teachers', and board of education retirement systems, and the police and fire department pension funds.

Sixteenth annual report of Board of Trustees of Employees' Retirement System of Territory of Hawaii, June 30, 1941. Honolulu, 1942. 66 pp. (Publication No. 13.)

The report for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1941, covers the operation of the annuity savings fund, the annuity reserve fund, the pension reserve fund, and the pension accumulation fund.

Price and Food Control

Facing the price problem. Washington, U. S. Office of Price Administration, Division of Research, 1942. 50 pp., charts; multilithed.

Description of the circumstances which made necessary the adoption of a general price ceiling, an analysis of the dangers of inflation, and a discussion of the position of various economic groups, particularly of wage earners and farmers, in the price control and anti-inflation program.

Permanent price control policy. Compiled by Julia E. Johnsen. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. 113 pp., bibliography. (Reference Shelf, Vol. 15, No. 9.) $1.25.

This number in the series supplements Volume 15, No. 4, on "Federal price control," and emphasizes the question of price control as a policy of continuing interest, as distinguished from the temporary policy embodied in the Emergency Price Control Act. Selections included are from various sources and are designed to present the major considerations that should be taken into account in the formulation of an intelligent policy in the field of price control beyond the period provided for in the Emergency Price Control Act. A summary of that act is reprinted from the March 1942 number of the Monthly Labor Review.

Price freezing under [United States] Office of Price Administration. By Victor Abramson. (In American Economic Review, Menasha, Wis., December 1942, pp. 760–774. $1.25.)

Rent control in 1943. By James Simsarian. (In National Municipal Review, New York, January 1943, pp. 17–20, 25. 50 cents.)

Outlines rent-control procedure of the Office of Price Administration under the Emergency Price Control Act and gives some figures showing extent of regulation.

Food rationing in Great Britain. By Kendrick Lee. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1943. 19 pp. (Vol. 1, 1943, No. 1.) $1.

Describes the British food-rationing system and discusses the probable application of similar methods for a wide variety of foods in the United States.

Women in Industry

Equal pay for the woman worker. By Geneva Seybold. (In Conference Board Management Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, January 1943, pp. 1–6.)

Shows how the principle of equal pay for equal work has been applied by individual companies with reference to readjustment of jobs, entrance wage rates, and differential wage rates; the influence of the National War Labor Board's decisions and its stabilization order; and the attitude of women already employed toward changing over to jobs formerly filled by men.

Manpower in the plastics industry. (In Modern Plastics, Easton, Pa., January 1943, pp. 61–65 et seq., illus. 50 cents.)

Describes the recruiting, training, and working conditions needed for the employment of women, and the kinds of jobs being done successfully by women in the plastics industry.

With women at work, the factory changes. By Elinore M. Herrick. (In New York Times Magazine, New York, January 24, 1943, pp. 4, 34.)

Outlines the problems involved in the employment of women in war industries and how they were met in one shipyard. The conclusion was reached that many changes made to comply with requirements of labor laws and to safeguard the health of woman workers are also having an effect on the working conditions of male workers and will remain in effect after the war.

The women graduates of a collegiate school of business. By Ann Brewington and Evelyn Van Emden Berg. Chicago, University of Chicago, School of Business, 1942. 99 pp. (Studies in business administration, Vol. XII, No. 2.) $1.

The study is based on data obtained by questionnaire from 245 women. Information is given on careers chosen, work experience, salaries, unemployment, and other matters.

Womanpower: The key to the manpower problem. (In Employment Security Review, U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, December 1942, pp. 1–28. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

The problems involved in the employment of women are considered in articles dealing with the need for women, methods of recruitment, training, foreign experience, and possible programs of action. Actual illustrations of how obstacles in recruiting and training women were met in some localities are also given.

Utilization of female help in aircraft plants in Great Britain. By R. W. Hambrook. Washington, Aeronautical Chamber of Commerce of America, 1942. 17 pp.; mimeographed. (Information bull. No. 1.)

While the three articles brought together in this information bulletin emphasize the aircraft industry, the writer discusses general employment and training of women in industry in England, and lists types of work which they are doing. The third paper, on aviation training of women in England and the United States, lists Federally-aided and private aviation courses for women in the United States.

General Reports

Directory of Connecticut manufacturing and mechanical establishments, 1942. Hartford, Department of Labor and Factory Inspection, [1942?]. 94 pp.

The plants are listed alphabetically by city and town, and the products or services of each are shown. In addition to the directory, the bulletin includes a table giving the number of plants, total employees, and male and female employees separately, in 1939 and 1942, with the increase or decrease (number and percent) during that period, in the State as a whole, in each county, and in individual cities and towns. For the State as a whole, the number of plants increased 19.7 percent, and the total number of employees, 72.5 percent.

Proceedings of National Conference of Social Work: Selected papers, 69th annual conference, New Orleans, La., May 10–16, 1942. New York, Columbia University Press, 1942. 670 pp. $5.

The papers presented in this volume are classified according to subject. The first part deals with the effect of war on social work, and the second, dealing with basic social, economic, and industrial problems, contains articles on economic conditions in the South, migration and the alien, unemployment and industrial relations, health, children in need, the Negro, etc.

Study of health, social, and economic conditions in health area 20, East Harlem Health District, New York City. New York, East Harlem District Health Committee, 1942. 39 pp., maps, charts; mimeographed. 50 cents.

University debaters' annual: Constructive and rebuttal speeches delivered in debates of American colleges and universities during college year 1941–1942. Edited by Edith M. Phelps. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. 459 pp. $2.25.

Federal incorporation of labor unions, compulsory saving, and post-war reconstruction are among the subjects covered in the volume. Each chapter is accompanied by a bibliography.

Investigaciones sociales, 1941 [*Argentina*]. Buenos Aires, Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1942. 121 pp., charts; processed. (Series A, Sintesis Anual, No. 6.)

Statistical report for the Argentine Republic including, for 1941 and certain earlier years, data on cost of living; average hourly wages in Buenos Aires, by industry, sex of worker, and occupation; explanation of method of computing basic wage for purposes of workmen's accident compensation, in agriculture, cattle raising, fishing, and forestry, with tables of rates by region, industry, and occupation; employment in Buenos Aires, by industries; labor organizations; strikes; industrial accidents (1939); sanctions imposed for noncompliance with social and labor legislation; and critical discussion of the statistics.

Statistical yearbook of Quebec, 1941. Quebec, Bureau of Statistics, 1942. xxxiii, 461 pp.

Covers vital statistics and economic matters in the Province of Quebec, Canada, including data on manufacturing, labor disputes, employment-office activities, industrial accidents, prices and cost of living, agricultural wages, agricultural cooperative associations, and cooperative people's banks, in 1940 and earlier years.

Soviet-Russian economics: I, The limits of the planning system; II, The economy of the Kolkhozy and Kolkhoz-members' homesteads at end of second five-year plan; III, Statistical and economic notes. By S. N. Prokopovicz. (In Annals of Collective Economy, Geneva, January–April 1942, pp. 34–78.)

Part II, dealing with the collective farms in Soviet Russia, includes data on working conditions of the participants, statistics of production, etc.

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