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In this Issue . . . Unannounced quits and absenteeism • • Foremen as union members • • Labor conditions in Hungary

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 aircraft-parts plants, November 1942.

Day-shift workers in plants making aircraft parts were earning, on the average, 91.1 cents per hour in November 1942, as indicated by a study made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Male workers averaged 96.1 cents; women (comprising nearly a fifth of the total force) averaged 68.9 cents. Page 1054.

Labor conditions in Hungary.

Industrialization of Hungary increased between the last and present wars, but the country has remained primarily agricultural in character. As the employment position of farm labor has been persistently adverse the wage level remained low and, with the exception of the skilled crafts, industrial employment has not afforded the working force marked opportunity for financial improvement. Before the present war, minimum wages and the 8-hour day and 48-hour week were being introduced gradually, time and one-quarter was the official rate of pay for overtime hours of work, vacations with pay were granted, and an extensive system of social insurance was in effect. Now Hungarian labor is being requisitioned, in part for labor in Germany, and many of the social gains have been waived. Page 1069.

Unannounced quits as factor in absenteeism.

Workers who quit their jobs without giving notice, and are therefore carried temporarily on the pay rolls merely as "absent," contribute materially to the reported rate of absenteeism. This is indicated by reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from commercial shipyards, covering a week in January 1943. In the reporting yards, unannounced quits formed up to 23 percent of the absenteeism. The proportion attributable to this cause naturally varied with the length of time the employee was carried on the books (this time being charged as absence) before being dropped; in the reporting yards this ranged from 2 days to a month. The combined absence rate for all the companies was 9.0 percent; when adjusted for unannounced quits it fell to 8.1 percent. Page 1047.

Industrial canteens in Great Britain.

The importance of provision of proper and nutritious food for workers has been recognized in Great Britain, where the Government has been active in promoting communal feeding centers and industrial canteens. Particular attention has been given to meals for persons doing heavy work. A new order gives the Chief Inspector of Factories the authority to require any enterprise engaged in the production of munitions of war or related products, employing more than 250 workers, to establish a canteen where the workers may buy hot meals. By April 1943 about 7,500 industrial canteens had been established. Page 1108.

Union membership and collective bargaining by foremen.

Foremen are commonly excluded from membership in labor organizations in the mass-production industries, but are generally admitted by unions in the printing and building trades, many of the railroad and metal trades, etc. In the Postal Service, and in sections of the railroad and maritime industries, they have their own unions. Page 1049.

Compulsory transfer of manpower in Canada.

The first use of the Canadian Government's compulsory power over the civilian utilization of manpower was made in April 1943. In that month the Government adopted two measures by which men unfit for military service can be ordered to specified jobs deemed suitable for them. These measures are relied upon to alleviate shortages of labor in essential industries. Page 1095.

Wage stabilization in southern California airframe industry.

Wage rates uniform throughout the airframe plants in southern California were established by a decision of the National War Labor Board, issued on March 3, 1943. The occupations are classified into 10 labor grades and minimum hourly rates are set for each. These rates range from 75 cents per hour for grade X occupations to $1.45 in grade I; for exceptional workers in grades I to IV "specialist" rates are set, ranging respectively from $1.30 to $1.60. Second- and third-shift workers are to receive differentials of 6 cents per hour, and the third-shift employees also receive 8 hours' pay for 6½ hours' work. The revisions in hourly pay necessitated by the Board's order will, it is estimated, result in wage increases averaging 3.6 percent. Page 1188.

New dwelling units in nonfarm areas, first quarter of 1943.

There has been a continued downward trend in privately financed building since the summer of 1941. Less than 30 percent of the dwelling units started in the first quarter of 1943 were privately financed, as against 80 percent during the same period of 1942 (before curtailment of nonessential construction). In marked contrast is the increase in publicly financed building. During the first 3 months of 1943 almost three times as many dwelling units were put under construction as during the corresponding period in 1942, or more than 40 percent of the total for the entire year 1942. There has been, however, a definite shift in the Federally financed war housing program to construction of temporary-type units. Page 1149.

Municipal employment and pay rolls, 1929–38.

A WPA study sponsored by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (covering employment and pay rolls in State, county, and municipal governments) revealed that, in cities with a population of 100,000 or over, from 30 to 55 percent of the employees were engaged in educational work in 1938. Protective services (police, firemen, etc.) formed the next largest group. Although there were some exceptions, the largest cities usually had the highest per capita pay-roll expenditures. Page 1097.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR JUNE 1943

EFFECT OF UNANNOUNCED QUITS ON ABSENTEEISM IN SHIPBUILDING [1]

IN ORDER to evaluate the significance of unannounced quits on absenteeism rates, the Bureau of Labor Statistics requested all commercial shipyards to report the amount of time lost during the midweek of January 1943 by workers who were subsequently dropped from the rolls as having quit without giving notice. Data were submitted by 44 shipyards, with labor forces ranging in size from less than 500 to more than 30,000 wage earners.

The proportion of time lost because of unannounced quits varied greatly from yard to yard, some yards reporting that no time was lost for this reason and other yards reporting that more than 20 percent of the time lost was due to carrying on the rolls those persons who had quit work without giving notice to the company. One shipyard reported that more than 23 percent of its absenteeism was due to these quits and that an additional 9 percent was due to "announced" quits. In this yard, persons who gave notice to the company were carried an average of 2.7 days before their names were dropped from the rolls. The absenteeism rate of 13.2 percent for this shipyard was reduced to 9.3 percent when adjusted for both announced and unannounced quits.

The length of time the persons who had left without giving notice were carried on the rolls also varied greatly from shipyard to shipyard. Some yards terminated such employees after 2 days' absence, whereas many yards carried them for 2 to 3 weeks and one yard carried them for as long as a month. Generally, small yards carried their absentees on the rolls for a shorter period than did large yards. This was undoubtedly due to the fact that the foremen in small yards were better acquainted with their men and consequently knew when an individual who did not report for work had actually "quit." None of the yards with fewer than 1,000 workers reported that they carried absentees more than 7 days. On the other hand, large companies usually carried absentees at least 7 days and most of the companies with employment of 10,000 or more carried them for at least 2 weeks.

The time lost in 44 yards as a result of unannounced quits amounted to 10.2 percent of all time lost because of absenteeism. The over-all rate of absenteeism for the yards—before adjusting for quits—was 9.0 percent and the rates for individual yards ranged from 0.7 percent

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment. For a more detailed discussion on absenteeism in shipyards, see Monthly Labor Review for February 1943 (reprinted, with additional data, as Bulletin No. 734).

to 15.6 percent. After adjusting for quits the over-all rate was reduced to 8.1 percent and the rates for individual yards ranged from 0.7 percent to 15.2 percent.

Absenteeism Rates in 44 Commercial Shipyards, Adjusted for Unannounced Quits, January 1943

Shipyard	Absenteeism rates [1]	Absenteeism rates (adjusted for quits) [2]	Shipyard	Absenteeism rates [1]	Absenteeism rates (adjusted for quits) [2]	Shipyard	Absenteeism rates [1]	Absenteeism rates (adjusted for quits) [2]
All yards (44)	9.0	8.1	Yard No. 15	4.3	3.9	Yard No. 30	10.0	8.7
			Yard No. 16	4.4	4.4	Yard No. 31	10.0	8.3
Yard No. 1	0.7	0.7	Yard No. 17	5.1	4.1	Yard No. 32	10.4	10.2
Yard No. 2	1.2	1.2	Yard No. 18	6.0	5.8	Yard No. 33	10.7	9.9
Yard No. 3	1.3	1.3	Yard No. 19	6.1	4.7	Yard No. 34	10.8	9.3
Yard No. 4	1.8	1.8	Yard No. 20	6.4	5.2	Yard No. 35	11.2	11.0
Yard No. 5	2.0	1.5	Yard No. 21	6.6	6.0	Yard No. 36	11.2	11.1
Yard No. 6	2.9	2.8	Yard No. 22	7.4	6.9	Yard No. 37	11.2	11.1
Yard No. 7	3.2	3.2	Yard No. 23	7.5	7.5	Yard No. 38	11.9	10.7
Yard No. 8	3.2	3.0	Yard No. 24	7.8	6.3	Yard No. 39	11.9	10.4
Yard No. 9	3.2	3.1	Yard No. 25	8.0	7.8	Yard No. 40	12.0	11.7
Yard No. 10	3.3	3.3	Yard No. 26	8.4	7.7	Yard No. 41	12.7	11.9
Yard No. 11	3.8	3.8	Yard No. 27	8.7	8.6	Yard No. 42	13.2	10.4
Yard No. 12	3.8	3.6	Yard No. 28	9.2	7.6	Yard No. 43	13.5	13.4
Yard No. 13	3.9	3.8	Yard No. 29	9.5	8.4	Yard No. 44	15.6	15.2
Yard No. 14	4.0	3.4						

[1] Ratios, expressed in percent, of total time lost from absenteeism to time lost plus time worked.
[2] Absenteeism rates computed after the exclusion of time lost by workers subsequently dropped from pay rolls as unannounced quits.

UNION MEMBERSHIP AND COLLECTIVE BARGAINING BY FOREMEN [1]

THE membership of supervisory personnel in labor organizations and their inclusion under collective-bargaining agreements are not new developments. Practice differs widely as between industries and unions, and in many cases within industries and among the various locals of international unions. The general outlines are clear, however, and can be summarized as follows:

1. Exclusion of foremen and supervisors from membership in unions which include the production workers is the general rule in the mass-production industries, such as the manufacture of steel, automobiles, electrical products, rubber, and clothing. Some of the agreements, however, cover "working" foremen and supervisors such as gang leaders.

2. Separate organization by supervisory groups has long been the practice in the maritime industry, in parts of the railroad industry, and in the Postal Service.

3. Foreman membership in unions and the inclusion of foremen under agreements covering production workers are general in the printing and building trades, in the metal trades insofar as they operate on a craft basis, in many of the railroad trades, and to a greater or lesser extent, among the teamsters, longshoremen, and others.

Industries Where Foremen are Customarily Excluded From Production Workers' Unions

In a majority of the mass-production industries, foremen and supervisory officials do not belong to the unions to which the men who work under them belong, although some are members of unions of their own. Also, foremen are specifically excluded from coverage under most of the collective agreements which cover production and maintenance workers. The line of distinction, however, is not always clearly defined and may not be uniform from plant to plant even in the same industry. For instance, in some cases the term "managerial position" or "supervisor" may be interpreted to exclude some foremen or section leaders. In other plants these persons may be considered as a part of the supervisory staff. Usually, if there is a dispute between the employer and union over the question of interpretation, the matter is taken up through the grievance machinery as provided in the agreement, and thus an arbitrator makes the final determination.

Typical agreement clauses relating to the status of foremen are—

> The employer agrees to employ none but members of the union, excepting office workers and employees engaged in any kind of managerial position.

> The company recognizes the union as the sole collective-bargaining agency for all its production and maintenance employees, excluding superintendents, foremen, and technicians.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division.

Where foremen are excluded from coverage in the employer-union contract it is by decision jointly arrived at through collective bargaining. In such cases a union in one plant may include certain groups of employees which might be excluded in another plant with which the same union has an agreement. Where a union's constitution excludes certain types of workers, the practice throughout the union's jurisdiction would tend to be uniform, but there is the possibility of varying interpretations from plant to plant.

The constitutions of at least 37 international and national unions specifically exclude supervisors and foremen, although some of them permit subforemen, assistant foremen, and gang or section bosses to be members. The constitutions of 120 unions do not mention foremen. Presumably most of these exclude foremen from membership, although some of their locals may include foremen in the absence of a constitutional provision debarring them.

Unions Composed Solely of Foremen and Supervisors

Nine long-established unions are composed solely of persons of foreman and supervisory rank. Some of these unions are unaffiliated, and others are affiliated with either the American Federation of Labor or the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Three are organizations of licensed maritime personnel, two include yardmasters and supervisors in the railroad industry, one is composed of master mechanics and foremen of navy yards, and three are composed of supervisory personnel in the Postal and Railway Mail service.

In addition to the long-established unions are several independent foremen's unions which have recently been organized. One of these, the Foremen's Association of America, signed an agreement with the Ford Motor Co. in March 1943, which covers six classifications of foremen, ranging from shop foremen supervising 30 men to general foremen supervising 150 men. This union has also recently won a consent election at the Packard Motor Car Co.

Industries Where Foremen Customarily Belong to Unions

There are at present 29 unions which permit, and in some cases, require membership of foremen in the same union as production workers. In most of these unions the inclusion of foremen has been a long-standing practice. One union, the United Mine Workers of America, has only recently adopted the necessary rules for the acceptance of supervisors into membership. Most of the unions which include foremen under the same agreements covering production workers are in the printing and building trades, in the metal trades insofar as they operate on a craft basis, and in many of the railroad trades.

PRINTING TRADES

In both newspaper and book and job printing, union membership of foremen, under the closed-shop agreements, has been required since 1889. The practice is so thoroughly established that it now appears to be accepted as a matter of course. Contracts provide wage scales for foremen, and include foremen under other provisions.

Foremen continue to have a voice and vote in the union, although they tend to become inactive members. A recent study[2] notes that—

In early years, many publishers were strongly opposed to having their representatives owe allegiance to the union. As contracts became more inclusive, however, and rights of both employers and unions more clearly defined, publishers in general ceased to object. They are now chiefly concerned lest foremen should be subject to union discipline for differing with the local union in the interpretation of the terms of a contract. The internationals generally recognize the justice of the publishers' position and a method is provided for the joint settlement of such disputes. The unions do not, however, forego their right to discipline foremen for disobeying laws relating to internal union matters, or for deliberately disregarding union rules. Although there is still occasional complaint that some locals attempt, by disciplining foremen, to enforce conditions not provided for in contracts, the practice is not so common as to constitute a major issue. * * *

The foreman represents the employer in dealing with grievances arising in his department. He settles many day-to-day grievances and complaints with the chapel (local) chairman, without recourse to the joint standing committee or to arbitration. * * *

In book and job printing the union membership of foremen is so thoroughly established that it does not become an issue except occasionally in a newly organized plant. It is clearly recognized that the foreman's first responsibility is to management. His duty to the union is to administer the agreement fairly in the plant. There are advantages in this system in that the foreman, necessarily a skilled man himself, is thoroughly acquainted with the problems of the men and with the union agreement and rules. He is in good position, therefore, to interpret the union's position to management, and vice versa. However, the fact that he may be disciplined by the union, if the union considers that he has violated the agreement or a union rule, is a source of difficulty in some cases. Fear of union discipline sometimes interferes with a foreman's efficiency, although the strong foreman is little affected. There is in some cases a need for more thorough protection of foremen from union discipline for carrying out office orders, pending determination of an issue through the negotiation or arbitration machinery.

BUILDING TRADES

Nearly all the building-trades unions require foremen to be union members. Foremen usually work with tools along with the men they supervise. Union contracts therefore often regulate their wages, hours, ratio to journeymen, and the conditions under which they may use tools. Foremen are considered agents of the employer, with power to hire and fire under the terms of the contract. They are under the control of the union, however, to the extent that foremen who violate union rules are suspended and this automatically ends their foremanship. The following statement, written in 1929,[3] is in all probability largely true today:

The employer objects to such rules (regulating foremen's work) chiefly because the union reserves the right to discipline the foreman for his conduct on the job. A foreman convicted of "rushing" is subject to stricter discipline than a worker guilty of the same offense. His activities on the job are often subject to review by the union; workers may file complaints against him. Conviction results in suspension from foreman's duties for a period of time, a fine, and frequently even suspension from the union. These limitations on the foreman's power restrict his supervisory initiative and deprive the employer of much of the value of his services. Recently, by giving the right of reviewing a foreman's activities to a joint trade board, this objection has been partly met.

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[2] How Collective Bargaining Works. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1942, pp. 67, 68, 147.

[3] Industrial Relations in the Building Industry, by William Haber. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1930, p. 218.

METAL TRADES

Although the practice is less uniform in the metal trades than in printing and building, the tradition among the metal-trades unions is to require foremen to be union members, and to establish wage rates for them. Thus, in shipyards under agreements signed by A. F. of L. metal-trades councils, foremen as well as working foremen are usually required to be union members. Machinists generally expect foremen to be members until they become "general foremen," or superintendents. Some agreements require membership only of "working foremen," however. Foremen may attend meetings and have a vote in the union, although there are sometimes restrictions upon holding office.

When the A. F. of L. metal-trades unions, especially the machinists and the electrical workers, organize on an industrial basis, they generally follow the usual practice in the mass-production industries, that is, they exclude foremen from agreements which cover production and maintenance employees. The point at which the break is made, between minor supervisors who are covered and supervisors who are excluded, depends upon local conditions.

MARITIME INDUSTRY

The general practice in the maritime industry is for the unlicensed seamen to make up one unit, and for officers to be separately organized and to constitute separate bargaining units. The National Organization of Masters, Mates and Pilots (A. F. of L.), United Licensed Officers (independent), and National Marine Engineers' Beneficial Association (C. I. O.) are all unions of supervisory groups which bargain separately. Practice is not uniform, however, and there are cases where agreements of the above officers' organizations cover unlicensed personnel. For example, an agreement of the Marine Division, International Longshoremen's Association, covering tugboats in the Port of New York, covers all personnel from captain to deckhand.

RAILROAD INDUSTRY

There is extensive organization of supervisory personnel in the railroad industry. The practice varies, however, as to type of organization. Some foremen and supervisors are organized into unions of their own; in some crafts they belong to the same unions as the men whom they supervise. The National Mediation Board has not considered this a problem. It normally accepts the "class" or "craft" as a bargaining unit with whatever inclusions or exclusions have become the general practice in the industry or by agreement of the contesting unions.

In engine service the engineers and firemen are usually, but not always, in separate unions. The engineers, of course, are in a supervisory position to the firemen; likewise, the conductors are in a supervisory position to brakemen. They are in separate bargaining units although not always in separate unions.

In yard service some of the yardmasters belong to the yardmasters' unions, although others are members of the train-service and the switchmen's unions. The yard foremen, together with the helpers

and switch tenders, are normally affiliated with either the trainmen's or switchmen's union.

The agreements of the railway clerks, telegraphers, and signalmen cover both the supervisors and the men under them, although these agreements (like others on the railroads) often have a supplementary list of "excepted positions" including higher supervisory jobs. In the maintenance-of-way service, foremen are included in the same union and bargaining unit as the laborers. These latter agreements, however, exclude supervisors in the track department and general foremen in the bridge and building department.

The seven craft unions in railroad shops include "leader men" as well as stationary engineers who act in part as supervisors. The foremen in the railroad shops are organizing in increasing numbers into a union of their own—the American Railway Supervisors' Association. Some supervisors and mechanics belong to a separate unit under the A. F. of L. Railway Employees' Department.

Foremen and Supervisors in British Trade-Unions

Recent information received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics contains the following statement as to the situation of foremen and supervisors in British trade-unions: [4]

The organization of supervisory grades of workers in ordinary unions has increased in recent years. The Trades Union Congress recognizes nonmanual workers as a separate group among its affiliates and gives them separate representation on the General Council. The group comprises 12 unions, with a total membership of 140,000 workers in banking and insurance, clerks', actors', film artists', musicians', and theatrical workers' unions, and includes medical practitioners, cinetechnicians, and scientific workers.

Unions in other groups of the T. U. C. cater for supervisory grades, swelling the total numbers. The mining group includes union colliery deputies (foremen underground). Superintendents and administrative workers are free to join the railway unions, and many do. The transport group, besides the railways, includes the Navigators and Engineer Officers Union, and the Radio Officers Union, while the transport workers have an administrative section. The engineering group includes the Electrical Power Engineers, the Association of Engineering and Shipbuilding Draughtsmen, the Engineer Surveyors Association, and the Association of Supervisory Staffs and Engineering Technicians. Other craft unions admit foremen as members, union members sometimes declining to work under nonunion foremen. In printing and composing, room heads, correctors, etc., are embraced by the unions. The Journalists Union is open to editors but not to owners. Many craft unions in other industries include foremen and supervisory grades.

The Association of Supervisory Staffs and Engineering Technicians was formerly a small association of foremen, but changed its title and broadened its basis last year. Its membership has since quadrupled and is now 10,000. It covers supervisory grades, technicians, planning and production engineers, and personnel managers in engineering, shipbuilding, and transport. It maintains that these are workers and not owners, and have the same right to unionize as the employees they supervise; and it has won recognition from varied types of employers. It feels that a new drive is needed to unionize managers in mass industry who have hitherto not been very "union conscious," as well as artisan foremen and semiprofessional technicians.

[4] Copy of a letter dated March 25, 1943, from British Information Services (an agency of the British Government), Information Division.

EARNINGS IN AIRCRAFT-PARTS PLANTS, NOVEMBER 1942 [1]

Summary

THE straight-time average hourly earnings of day-shift workers, who constituted 55 percent of the labor force of 149 aircraft-parts plants studied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, amounted to 91.1 cents per hour in November 1942. Women, who comprised nearly one-fifth of the workers studied in detail, earned an average of 68.9 cents per hour as compared with 96.1 cents for men. Plants in the North Central States showed the highest straight-time earnings. Wide ranges were found in the average rates paid by different plants for similar work. There appeared to be no marked relationship between earnings and size of plant, and incentive systems of wage payment were not common. Estimated straight-time average hourly earnings in a group of 94 plants for which comparable data were available rose from 78.7 to 98.3 cents per hour between January 1941 and November 1942.

Nature of the Industry

The aircraft-parts industry is made up of numerous establishments acting primarily as subcontractors for the producers of military planes. These aircraft-parts establishments vary greatly with respect to size and productive processes, and the parts they manufacture range from minute fittings to major subassemblies. Although most of the plants manufacture many different kinds of parts, a few are highly specialized and produce only one or a small number of items.

The industry has developed largely as a result of the expanded aircraft-production program since the outbreak of the war. In 1939, the number of establishments engaged exclusively in the production of parts for aircraft was relatively small. The rapid growth of the industry since early 1940 may be attributed mainly to two factors: (1) The heavy demand upon the aircraft manufacturers to meet ever-increasing production schedules necessitated the subcontracting to outside plants of much of the work on small parts and subassemblies in order to release critical floor space in the airplane assembly factories. (2) Thousands of manufacturers in other industries, whose usual lines of production had been curtailed because of shortages of materials, were forced to turn to defense production or shut down their plants; many of them consequently converted all or part of their plant facilities to the production of aircraft parts, thereby utilizing valuable machine tools and skilled labor forces in an essential war industry.

Of the 149 plants included in the present survey of wages in the aircraft-parts industry, more than half have either converted from other industries or have been established for the production of aircraft parts since 1940. Many of these plants are still manufacturing other products in addition to aircraft parts. This is especially notice-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Edith M. Olsen under the supervision of H. M. Douty.

able in the North Central States where nearly all of the plants included in this study have converted from the manufacture of other products. Also, many of the plants in this region are comparatively large and have contracts for the manufacture of other types of war products. Consequently, some of the plants in the North Central area employ appreciable numbers of workers for these other operations despite the fact that their principal products are aircraft parts. However, at the time of the Bureau's survey, in October and November of 1942, more than 85 percent of all the workers employed in the 149 plants studied were actually engaged in the production of aircraft parts.

Although the establishments are widely scattered geographically, there are marked concentrations of parts plants around the centers of greatest importance in the airframe-assembly industry. In the Los Angeles area, for instance, the spectacular growth of the airframe industry has been accompanied by the development of a subsidiary parts industry. In the East, where the aircraft industry was first established, there has been a similar development; however, parts plants in this area are more widely distributed geographically than in California, as the eastern airframe industry is scattered from Maryland to Connecticut.

Scope and Method of Survey

This report on wages in the aircraft-parts industry is one of a series of studies of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Earlier reports analyzed the earnings of workers employed in the airframe, engine, and propeller branches of the industry, and a separate article on the aircraft-parts industry in California was recently published.[2]

In order to insure comparability of the wage data obtained, it was obviously necessary to limit the scope of the survey to plants performing the same general types of operations. Therefore, only those establishments engaged primarily in metalworking operations were included. Despite a general similarity in the types of operations performed in these plants, however, there is a very great diversity in the types of aircraft parts they produce. Some of the typical products which are currently being manufactured in the plants studied are wing, tail, and fuselage parts, hydraulic assemblies, undercarriage parts, struts, wheels, cowlings, fuel tanks, and innumerable smaller parts. Excluded from the scope of the present study are plants engaged primarily in the manufacture of aircraft parts in the following categories: Electrical equipment and accessories, aircraft armor plate, engine and flight instruments, and parts made entirely of rubber, wood or plastics.

Because of the heterogeneous nature of this branch of the aircraft industry, even within the limits described above, it is unusually difficult to select any group of establishments to represent adequately the entire parts industry. Nevertheless, the 149 plants included are believed to constitute a representative sample of the aircraft-parts

[2] Reports on various branches of the aircraft industry now available are Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletins No. 704 (Wage Rates in the California Airframe Industry, 1941) and No. 728 (Wage Rates in the Eastern and Midwestern Airframe Industry, 1942). An article, Earnings in Aircraft-Engine Plants, May 1942, appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for December 1942 and is available separately as Serial No. R. 1505. The Monthly Labor Review for April 1943 contained two articles on airplane manufacture—Wages in the Aircraft-Propeller Industry, October 1942, and Earnings in California Aircraft-Parts Plants, November 1942.

industry as it has been defined for the purpose of this study. The factors of location, size of plant, unionization, and corporate affiliation, as well as type of product, were taken into account in selecting the sample.

As noted above, most of the plants manufacture several different kinds of parts; as a result the wage data cannot be analyzed according to type of product. In spite of the variation in products manufactured, however, all of the plants studied were found to have very similar occupational patterns. Standard job descriptions were used by the field representatives of the Bureau in order to assure the greatest possible uniformity in the classification of occupations in the various plants.

The 149 plants covered by the survey are scattered from the East to the West Coast, although, as already noted, there is a concentration of plants in certain sections of the country. The distribution of the plants and workers studied, by region and State, is indicated in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Aircraft-Parts Plants and Percent of Workers Covered by Survey, by Region, November 1942*

Region	Number of plants	Percent of—	
		Plants	Workers
All regions	149	100.0	100.0
Eastern States [1]	36	24.2	16.4
North Central States [2]	57	38.2	57.1
California [3]	41	27.5	20.0
Southwestern States [4]	15	10.1	6.5

[1] Plants distributed as follows: Connecticut, 3; Maryland, 2; Massachusetts, 3; New Jersey, 5; New York, 19; Pennsylvania, 4.
[2] Plants distributed as follows: Illinois, 6 (5 in Chicago); Indiana, 6; Michigan, 19 (13 in Detroit); Minnesota, 4; Ohio, 18; Wisconsin, 4.
[3] Plants distributed as follows: Los Angeles area, 35; San Diego, 5; San Francisco, 1.
[4] Plants distributed as follows: Kansas, 4; Colorado, 2; Missouri, 2; Oklahoma, 4; Texas, 3.

Nearly three-fifths (57.1 percent) of the workers for whom detailed occupational wage data were compiled were employed in the 57 plants in the North Central States. California accounted for 41 plants, the greatest number in any one State, and for 20 percent of all the workers. The Eastern region was represented by 36 plants employing 16.4 percent of the workers. The remaining 15 plants were scattered throughout Kansas, Colorado, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Texas, and employed only 6.5 percent of the workers.

Detailed occupational data were obtained in the 149 plants for all first- or daylight-shift workers engaged in the production of aircraft parts at the time of the survey. These first-shift workers constituted over 55 percent of the total number of aircraft employees in the plants studied. Separate occupational data were obtained for male and female workers. Various kinds of general plant information, such as overtime-payment policies, shift differentials, entrance rates, recent wage-rate changes, and unionization, were obtained for each plant in order to facilitate the analysis of the wage data. The information for the present survey was collected by experienced field representatives of the Bureau from pay-roll and other plant records. Most of the wage data relate to representative pay-roll periods in November 1942. In some plants, however, wage data were obtained for a representative week shortly before or shortly after November.

Characteristics of the Labor Force

There was considerable variation, among the plants studied, in the proportions of skilled workers employed. In some of the larger plants, where many of the operations have been divided into relatively routine tasks, a large percentage of the workers were doing simple machine and assembly work. In some of the smaller plants, on the other hand, the labor force was made up almost entirely of highly skilled mechanics.

Women were employed in production work by 113 of the 149 plants included in the survey. These women constituted 20.7 percent of the total working force employed on aircraft-parts production, and 18.3 percent of all the first-shift workers for whom occupational wage rates were obtained. Over 19 percent of the workers studied in California as well as in the North Central States were women; in the Eastern area, they accounted for 16.2 percent of the workers and in the remaining States for only 12.4 percent. Women were employed in a great number of different occupations, as table 4 will indicate, although relatively few were working in the highly skilled occupations.

Negroes were employed in 57 of the 149 plants, but comprised only 2.6 percent of the total labor force engaged in the production of aircraft parts. Most of the Negroes were working as janitors, helpers, laborers, and truck drivers, but a considerable number were employed as assemblers, anodizers, and machine operators. With minor exceptions, the few Negro women found in these plants were engaged as janitresses.

Forty-eight of the 149 plants studied were operating under agreements with nationally affiliated labor unions. In 24 cases the unions were affiliated with the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and in an equal number with the American Federation of Labor. In two other plants, both in California, negotiations with nationally affiliated unions were in progress at the time of the survey. Fourteen companies reported agreements with independent unions, and the remaining 85 plants reported no union agreements.

The extent to which the aircraft-parts industry was organized by labor unions varied greatly in the different sections of the country. Union agreements were in effect in 35 of the 57 plants in the North Central region. Nineteen of these 35 plants were organized by C. I. O. unions, 9 by A. F. of L. organizations, and the remaining 7 by unaffiliated unions. Ten of the 19 Michigan plants, most of which had been converted to aircraft-parts production from the automobile industry, were organized by the United Automobile Workers, Congress of Industrial Organizations. In the East, 12 of the 24 plants studied were organized by labor unions—6 by A. F. of L., 4 by C. I. O., and 2 by unaffiliated unions. Five of the 9 labor unions found in the California plants were affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, and the other 4 were independent. In the Southwestern States, only 6 of the 15 plants were organized—4 by A. F. of L., 1 by C. I. O., and 1 by an independent union.

Most of the companies were training some new and inexperienced workers in the plants. Approximately 9 percent of all the first-shift workers covered were classified as trainees in various occupations. Slightly more than half of these trainees were women, most of whom were learning to be assemblers, inspectors, or machine operators.

Nearly 50 percent of the male trainees were employed as machine operators. The plants in California and in the North Central States employed a much larger percentage of trainees than did those in the other areas.

Wage-Payment Practices

Employees in all of the plants studied were paid time and a half for all work above 40 hours a week, and 108 of the plants also applied the overtime rate to all work above 8 hours a day. One plant paid time and a half for all work after 7½ hours a day, and another paid double time for all work after 11 hours in 1 day. Twenty-six plants paid time and a half and 111 paid double time for work on the seventh consecutive day. Holiday work was compensated for at the rate of time and a half in 94 plants and at double time in 12 plants.

Fifty-six of the 149 plants were operating on a 3-shift basis, but only 16.6 percent of all the aircraft-parts employees were working on the third shift. Nearly 19 percent of the workers employed in the plants in the North Central region were on the third shift, whereas in the California plants third-shift workers constituted only 7.9 percent of the labor force. Sixty-nine plants were operating 2 shifts; 28 percent of all workers were employed on the second shift. The remaining 24 plants had only 1 shift. Somewhat more than half (55.4 percent) of the total working force employed on aircraft-parts production was scheduled on the first shift.

Among the 125 plants operating more than one shift, there was little uniformity with respect to the payment of wage differentials to workers on evening and/or night shifts. In 29 of these plants, no differential was paid to second-shift workers, and in 17 plants no differential was paid for work on either the second or third shifts (table 2). Although many of the companies paid a higher premium, the most common rate, an additional 5 cents per hour above the base rate, was paid to second-shift workers in 43 plants. Twenty-two of the companies operating three shifts paid greater differentials to workers on the third or night shift than to those on the second or evening shift.

Nineteen of the companies reported no established uniform hiring rates for new workers. Among the companies which reported standard entrance-rate schedules, new workers were most commonly paid starting rates between 50 and 60 cents an hour. In several cases the entrance rates for new female employees were lower than those for men. There was no uniformity among the plants in the provisions made for automatic increases in rates after specified periods of service. In many of the plants, workers were granted wage increases only on the basis of individual merit. In the plants where automatic raises based on length of service were reported, the usual amount of the increase was 5 cents an hour, at intervals ranging from 4 to 6 weeks until basic job rates were attained.

TABLE 2.—*Wage Differentials for Second and Third Shifts in 149 Aircraft-Parts Plants, November 1942*

Number of shifts worked	Number of plants	Differentials paid for—	
		Second shift	Third shift
Plants with 1 shift only	24		
Plants with 2 shifts	17	No differential	
	2	3 cents per hour	
	25	5 cents per hour	
	4	6 cents per hour	
	1	8 cents per hour	
	3	10 cents per hour	
	1	10 cents per hour, plus pay for 20-minute lunch period.	
	2	10 hours' pay for 9.5 hours' work	
	2	5 percent over base rate	
	1	5 percent of weekly wage	
	1	5 percent of gross earnings	
	2	10 percent over daily rate	
	5	10 percent over weekly rate	
	1	15 percent over base rate	
	1	Paid for 30-minute lunch period	
	1	9.5 hours' pay for 9 hours' work	
Plants with 3 shifts	7	No differential	No differential.
	1	do	5 cents per hour.
	1	do	10 percent of hourly rate.
	1	do	8 hours' pay for 7 hours' work.
	1	do	8 hours' pay for 7.5 hours' work.
	1	do	14.5 percent over base rate.
	2	2.5 cents per hour	5 cents per hour.
	1	3.5 cents per hour	3.5 cents per hour.
	1	4 cents per hour	4 cents per hour.
	11	5 cents per hour	5 cents per hour.
	1	do	7 cents per hour.
	3	do	10 cents per hour.
	2	do	8 hours' pay for 6 hours' work.
	1	do	8 hours' pay for 6.5 hours' work.
	1	5.5 cents per hour plus 8 hours' pay for 7.5 hours' work.	11 cents per hour, plus 8 hours' pay for 7 hours' work.
	1	6 cents per hour	6 cents per hour.
	2	do	6 cents per hour, plus 8 hours' pay for 6.5 hours' work.
	1	6.5 cents per hour	6.5 cents per hour.
	1	7.5 cents per hour	7.5 cents per hour.
	1	8 cents per hour	8 cents per hour.
	1	do	12 cents per hour.
	1	10 cents per hour	10 cents per hour.
	1	One-fifteenth of first-shift rate	One-seventh of first-shift rate.
	4	5 percent over base rate	5 percent over base rate.
	1	do	7.5 percent over base rate.
	1	do	10 percent over base rate.
	3	10 percent over base rate	Do.
	1	10 percent over weekly rate	10 percent over weekly rate.
	1	50 cents per day	50 cents per day.
	1	8 hours' pay for 7 hours' work	8 hours' pay for 7.5 hours' work.

Incentive methods of wage payment were not typical in these aircraft-parts plants in November 1942. Virtually nine-tenths (88.7 percent) of all the workers for whom occupational wage rates were compiled were paid on a time basis. Piece-work or production-bonus systems were in effect in only 26 of the 149 plants studied, and approximately 42 percent of the workers in these 26 plants were paid under such systems. Eighteen of the 26 plants making use of incentive systems are in the North Central States, 7 in the East, and 1 in California. Incentive wage systems are not confined to the larger plants in the industry; over half of the companies operating such systems employed fewer workers than the average for the 149 establishments included in the survey.

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Hours and Earnings, 1941–42

For the purpose of showing the general trend in the level of earnings of the plants currently producing aircraft parts, data on average hours and earnings, including premium pay for overtime work and shift-differential payments, were obtained for all wage earners employed in the plants for pay-roll periods in January 1941, May 1942, and for the November 1942 pay-roll period on which the occupational wage data are based. These hours and earnings data are shown by region in table 3. It must be emphasized that this material relates to the total employment of the plants in the respective regions and that these workers include some who were employed on products other than aircraft parts. As was indicated earlier, a larger percentage of the workers in the North Central States was employed on other products than was the case in any of the other regions. The number of workers employed on other operations in each region was, of course, greater for the two earlier periods than for November, since prior to that time many of the companies had not completed the conversion of their facilities to aircraft-parts production. It will be recalled that during November 1942, more than 85 percent of all the workers in the 149 plants studied were employed on aircraft-parts manufacture.

In each of the regions, these data were not available for some of the plants during the January 1941 and the May 1942 pay-roll periods; in the North Central region, information on 1 of the 57 plants was not available for November 1942. For all the States combined, comparable data were reported for 94 plants during the January 1941 pay-roll period, and for 131 plants during the May 1942 period. During the week shown for November 1942, wage earners in the 148 plants represented worked an average of 47.1 hours and received an average of $50.06. Gross average hourly earnings thus amounted to $1.063.

Average hours and earnings for a group of 94 identical plants for which the data were available during all three of the periods under consideration are also shown in table 3. In these 94 plants, gross average hourly earnings increased from 81.9 cents in January 1941 to $1.07 in November 1942, or a rise of 25.1 cents an hour. Gross average weekly earnings increased from $33.93 to $50.46 during the same period. This change in the gross earnings, however, was accompanied by a rise of 5.8 hours in the average workweek, an increase which resulted in greater premium overtime payments. It is estimated that elimination of these extra overtime payments would reduce the increase in average hourly rates between January 1941 and November 1942 from 25.1 to 19.6 cents.

At least one general wage increase since January 1941 was reported by approximately one-third of the 149 plants studied, and several companies reported two or three such raises. Most of these general wage changes were from 5 to 10 cents per hour, although in a few cases the increase was much greater. In most of the plants which reported no general wage changes, increases in hourly rates had been granted to individual workers.

These over-all earnings data are presented only to indicate very general trends. Changes in the composition of the labor force in many of the plants, and the increase in late-shift premiums have undoubtedly combined to emphasize the apparent rise in earnings between January

1941 and November 1942. In making regional comparisons on the basis of these data, it should be remembered that variations in the number of employees receiving premium payments for work on late shifts tend to obscure the amount of the regional wage differences.

TABLE 3.—*Average Hours and Earnings of Workers in Aircraft-Parts Plants, by Region, for Specified Periods, 1941–42*

Year and month	Number of plants	Average weekly earnings [1]	Average weekly hours	Average hourly earnings [1]	Estimated average hourly earnings, excluding premium overtime payments [2]
All States:					
All plants:					
January 1941	94	$33.93	41.4	$0.819	$0.787
May 1942	131	48.13	47.8	1.006	.920
November 1942	[3] 148	50.06	47.1	1.063	.977
Identical plants:					
January 1941	94	33.93	41.4	.819	.787
May 1942	94	48.71	48.2	1.011	.922
November 1942	94	50.46	47.2	1.070	.983
Eastern States:					
January 1941	24	29.94	42.9	.698	.662
May 1942	33	42.94	49.1	.875	.793
November 1942	36	44.83	48.8	.919	.835
North Central States:[4]					
January 1941	43	34.26	40.7	.841	.814
May 1942	52	49.58	47.2	1.051	.966
November 1942	56	51.69	46.6	1.110	1.025
California:					
January 1941	23	37.69	45.3	.832	.774
May 1942	35	49.44	49.4	1.001	.905
November 1942	41	50.92	48.1	1.059	.967
Southwestern States:[5]					
January 1941	4	27.62	39.0	.708	.694
May 1942	11	40.75	47.9	.851	.778
November 1942	15	41.80	46.2	.904	.836

[1] Including overtime premium pay and shift-differential payments.
[2] Includes shift-differential payments.
[3] Data for 1 plant not available.
[4] Data for 1 large plant used with reduced weight in order to avoid overrepresentation of this plant.
[5] Includes the 2 plants in Colorado.

Variations in Plant Average Hourly Earnings

In November 1942, average hourly earnings, including premium overtime and shift-differential payments for the workers employed on aircraft-parts production, amounted to $1.045 as compared with the gross average of $1.063 shown above for total plant employment during the same pay-roll period. This slight difference in earnings (1.8 cents an hour) is presumably due, at least in part, to the fact that most of the trainees in these plants were employed on aircraft parts.

A distribution of the plants, according to the gross average hourly earnings of workers making aircraft parts in November 1942, and the percentage of workers employed by the plants in each earnings interval appear in table 4. Twenty of the establishments studied showed plant average hourly earnings of $1.20 or more an hour, and employed 22 percent of the workers; 15 of these establishments were in the North Central States, and 5 in California. The 58 plants with averages between 90 cents and $1.05 an hour employed 47 percent of all the aircraft workers in the 148 plants for which plant averages were available.

TABLE 4.—*Distribution of Aircraft-Parts Plants and Workers, by Plant Average Hourly Earnings,*[1] *November 1942*

Plant average hourly earnings [2]	Number of plants	Percent of workers
Under 80 cents	23	5.2
80 and under 85 cents	10	7.0
85 and under 90 cents	17	5.7
90 and under 95 cents	20	10.0
95 cents and under $1	20	15.6
$1 and under $1.05	18	21.2
$1.05 and under $1.10	7	4.0
$1.10 and under $1.20	13	9.3
$1.20 and under $1.30	8	12.8
$1.30 and over	12	9.2
Total	[3] 148	100.0
Average for all plants		$1.045

[1] Includes only workers employed on aircraft-parts production.
[2] Earnings shown include overtime premium pay and shift-differential payments.
[3] Wage data not available for 1 plant.

Differences in the levels of earnings among these plants reflect several factors in addition to differences in basic wage rates. Included are regional differentials, variations in the amounts of extra payments for work on late shifts, and differences in the length of the average workweek and, therefore, in the relative amounts of premium pay for overtime. There was no uniform relationship between earnings levels and size of plant. Plants with 100 workers or less, as well as plants with over 900 workers, were found in each interval shown in table 4.

Earnings by Occupation, November 1942

The occupational wage data given in table 5 are based on the earnings of virtually all first- or daylight-shift workers engaged in aircraft-parts production.[3] It will be recalled that more than 55 percent of the total number of aircraft employees in the 149 plants studied were working on the first shift. The occupational earnings data are shown separately for male and female workers. Although many of the female occupations contained too few workers to justify the computation of average earnings for all regions, the occupations were included in the table to give a complete picture of the range of occupations in which women were employed at the time of the survey.

As a group, the first-shift wage earners in the 149 plants surveyed received average straight-time earnings of 91.1 cents an hour in November 1942. The difference between this average and the gross average of $1.045 shown above for aircraft workers reflects the effect upon earnings of premium overtime rates and shift-differential payments. It is estimated that elimination of overtime premium payments alone would reduce gross earnings from $1.045 to 95.8 cents an hour. First-shift male workers were paid an average hourly rate of 96.1 cents, or 5 cents more than the combined average of 91.1 cents for all workers. Women, who constituted 18.3 percent of all first-shift wage earners, received an average of 68.9 cents an hour.

Straight-time average hourly earnings for all plants combined ranged from $1.622 an hour for class A male drop-hammer operators,

[3] A few first-shift occupations have been omitted because they were represented in too few plants or by too few workers. Data for one large plant were used with reduced weight in order to avoid overrepresentation of this plant.

to 54.1 cents an hour for female journeymen's helpers. Nearly one-third of the employees were in occupations in which the average wage was $1.00 or more an hour. Workers in 25 of the occupational groups, excluding trainees and apprentices, showed average earnings of less than 70 cents an hour; 8 percent of the workers were employed in these groups.

Among male workers, 42 occupational groups showed straight-time averages of $1.00 or more an hour and included 37.8 percent of the male workers for whom detailed wage data were compiled; slightly more than 5 percent of the male workers were classified in the 6 occupational groups in which earnings averaged $1.25 or more an hour. Approximately 15 percent of the male employees, excluding trainees and apprentices, were classified in the 17 occupational groups in which the combined averages for all plants were 80 cents an hour or less. Class B bench assemblers, who constituted the largest male group, averaged 90.5 cents an hour and represented 3.3 percent of the total number of first-shift workers.

More than two-thirds of the female workers, excluding trainees and apprentices, were employed in the 46 occupational groups having average hourly earnings of 80 cents or less, and well over one-half of this number averaged 70 cents or less. In only one occupation, class A welders, were female workers paid over $1.00 an hour. Inspectors, class C (female), the largest single occupational group, accounted for 2.1 percent of all workers and averaged 63.4 cents an hour.

TABLE 5.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *of First-Shift Workers in Aircraft-Parts Plants, by Occupation, Sex, and Region, November 1942*

Occupation and class	All States		Eastern States		North Central States		California		Southwestern States	
	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
All workers	100.0	$0.911	100.0	$0.819	100.0	$0.948	100.0	$0.914	100.0	$0.811
Males	81.7	.961	83.8	.858	80.7	1.008	80.8	.962	87.6	.828
Females	18.3	.689	16.2	.617	19.3	.698	19.2	.711	12.4	.695
Males										
Acetylene-burner operators	(2)	.992			(2)	1.050			(2)	(3)
Acid dippers	.4	.814	.5	.901	.3	.819	.5	.729	.3	.772
Anodizers, class A	.1	1.032			.1	1.010	.1	1.082	(2)	(3)
Anodizers, class B	.1	.812			.1	.829			(2)	(3)
Apprentices	.5	.748	.6	.901	.5	.712	.4	.750	.4	.573
Assemblers, bench, class A	1.2	1.019	1.3	.865	1.0	1.029	2.3	1.077		
Assemblers, bench, class B	3.3	.905	3.9	.715	3.4	.991	3.4	.879	2.5	.783
Assemblers, bench, class C	1.4	.748	1.6	.654	1.5	.795	1.1	.755	2.0	.617
Assemblers, floor, class A	2.3	1.226	1.3	.698	3.5	1.297	.5	.973	.1	(3)
Assemblers, floor, class B	1.4	.840	.9	.542	1.7	.897	1.6	.803		
Assemblers, floor, class C	.2	.737	.1	.700	.2	.783	.3	.678	.1	(3)
Blacksmiths	(2)	1.071	.1	(3)	(2)	1.141				
Boring-mill operators, class A	.3	1.219	.1	(3)	.4	1.252	.2	1.086		
Boring-mill operators, class B	.1	.948	.1	.908	.1	.978	.1	(3)	.1	(3)
Broaching-machine operators	.1	.958	.1	.674	.1	1.075	(2)	(3)		
Buffers	.9	.963	2.0	.909	.7	1.075	.6	.800	.4	.764
Burrers, class B	1.2	.931	1.6	.823	1.2	1.027	1.3	.797	.1	(3)
Burrers, class C	.6	.714	.8	.649	.3	.745	1.3	.732	.4	.633
Carpenters, maintenance, class A	.3	1.069	.3	.857	.2	1.113	.5	1.123	.1	(3)
Carpenters, maintenance, class B	.3	.882	.4	.710	.3	.964	.3	.871	.2	.792
Clerks, production	.4	.842			.4	.820	.7	.880		
Clerks, shipping and receiving	.8	.828			.9	.830	1.2	.841	.6	.717
Clerks, stocks and stores	2.9	.826	3.0	.735	2.9	.873	3.4	.801	2.7	.739
Craters, class A	.1	1.020			.1	1.017	.1	1.075	(2)	(3)
Craters, class B	.1	.826	(2)	(3)	.1	.834	(2)	(3)	.1	(3)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *of First-Shift Workers in Aircraft-Parts Plants, by Occupation, Sex, and Region, November 1942*—Continued

Occupation and class	All States		Eastern States		North Central States		California		Southwestern States	
	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
Males—Continued										
Die setters	0.2	$0.962	(2)	(3)	0.3	$0.958	0.1	$0.996		
Drill-press operators, class A	1.4	1.069	0.5	$1.005	2.0	1.095	1.2	.962		
Drill-press operators, class B	1.3	.896	1.8	.785	1.2	.965	1.8	.858	0.1	(3)
Drill-press operators, class C	1.0	.740	1.6	.627	.7	.807	1.6	.758	.4	$0.622
Drop-hammer operators, class A	.5	1.622	1.8	1.664	.3	1.829	.2	1.110	.4	.926
Drop-hammer operators, class B	.4	1.041	1.2	1.214	.1	.940	.3	.885	1.1	.784
Electricians, class A	.4	1.162	.1	.953	.4	1.204	.4	1.151	.4	1.017
Electricians, class B	.2	.969	.1	.915	.2	.994	.1	.986	.3	.833
Electricians, class C	.1	.846	(2)	(3)	.1	.886	(2)	(3)	.1	(3)
Expediters	.2	.937			.1	1.050	.2	.881	.8	.815
Firemen, stationary boiler	.2	.838	.3	.762	.2	.871	(2)	(3)		
Foremen, working, class A	1.8	1.303	1.0	1.204	1.5	1.311	3.4	1.318	1.2	1.287
Foremen, working, class B	1.4	1.035	.9	.902	1.4	1.054	1.6	1.042	2.8	1.051
Foremen, working, class C	.2	.860	(2)	(3)	.1	.811	.4	.918	1.4	.857
Gear cutters, class B	(2)	.911			(2)	.911				
Grinding-machine operators, class A	1.0	1.160	1.1	1.057	1.2	1.209	.9	1.113	.4	(3)
Grinding-machine operators, class B	.7	.953	.9	.801	.7	1.032	.5	.909	.3	.821
Grinding-machine operators, class C	.1	.856	.1	(3)	.1	.941	.1	.840	.4	.667
Heat treaters, class A	.2	1.135	.1	.966	.2	1.178	.2	1.078	.1	(3)
Heat treaters, class B	.3	.875	.4	.772	.3	.940	.1	.802	.8	.811
Helpers, journeymen's	.8	.844	1.9	.985	.4	.765	.8	.830	2.1	.669
Helpers, machine operators'	.9	.767	1.3	.691	.6	.861	.7	.747	2.5	.668
Helpers, other	.5	.801	(2)	(3)	.5	.911	.8	.716	1.4	.621
Inspectors, class A	2.1	1.106	1.1	.979	2.3	1.105	2.9	1.160	.7	.977
Inspectors, class B	2.6	.925	3.9	.789	2.6	.984	1.8	.959	1.7	.818
Inspectors, class C	1.2	.819	1.1	.686	1.1	.873	1.1	.858	1.9	.663
Inspectors, receiving	.1	.836			(2)	(3)	.3	.854	(2)	(3)
Janitors	1.5	.729	1.7	.635	1.5	.773	1.5	.730	1.3	.572
Job setters	1.2	1.167	1.1	1.032	1.6	1.207	.5	1.126	.4	.851
Laborers	1.8	.732	2.1	.681	2.0	.772	1.2	.638	.7	.631
Lathe operators, engine, class A	.9	1.205	.8	1.084	.6	1.281	2.0	1.197	.6	1.017
Lathe operators, engine, class B	.7	.986	.8	.823	.6	1.047	1.0	1.017	.5	.809
Lathe operators, engine, class C	.2	.809	.1	(3)	.2	.816	.4	.848	.1	(3)
Lathe operators, turret, class A	1.9	1.190	1.7	1.061	2.0	1.225	2.0	1.231	1.6	.996
Lathe operators, turret, class B	1.2	.973	1.8	.834	1.2	1.033	1.3	.976		
Lathe operators, turret, class C	.3	.908	.2	(3)	.3	1.025	.4	.788	.2	.710
Lay-out men, class A	.1	1.273	.1	(3)	.1	1.347	.1	1.143	(2)	(3)
Lay-out men, class B	(2)	.947	(2)	(3)	(2)	1.083			(2)	(3)
Loaders and unloaders; racks and conveyors	.3	.701			.4	.721	.1	.763	.6	.563
Machine operators, all-round, class A	.7	1.015	3.2	1.006	.2	1.084	.2	.993	.4	.906
Machine operators, all-round, class B	.8	.728	3.1	.670	.1	.866	.3	.866	2.3	.801
Machinists, general	1.0	1.080	.9	1.096	.5	1.162	.8	1.178	6.0	.970
Maintenance men, general	.2	.867	.2	.778	.2	.911			.8	.805
Metal-saw operators	.3	.841	.3	.634	.3	.916	.2	.824	.4	.761
Milling-machine operators, class A	.9	1.175	.4	1.046	.9	1.210	1.7	1.147	(2)	(3)
Milling-machine operators, class B	1.1	.972	1.4	.748	1.1	1.062	1.1	.960	.8	.891
Milling-machine operators, class C	.2	.836	(2)	(3)	.2	.907	.5	.802	.1	(3)
Millwrights, class A	.3	1.118	.4	1.001	.4	1.142	.1	1.191		
Millwrights, class B	.4	.871	.8	.771	.4	.920	(2)	(3)		
Oilers, maintenance	.2	.836	(2)	(3)	.2	.862	.1	.817	.3	.719
Packers	.4	.829	.7	.745	.4	.872	(2)	(3)	(2)	(2)
Painters, production	.7	.955	.6	.747	.7	1.033	.6	.893	.7	.839
Painters, maintenance	(2)	.961			(2)	.955	(2)	(3)		
Patternmakers, wood	.2	1.272			.2	1.247	.1	1.431		
Pipefitters, maintenance	.3	1.061	.2	8.55	.4	1.091	(2)	(3)		
Planer operators	(2)	1.046	(2)	(3)	(2)	1.124	(2)	(3)		
Platers	.3	.972	.4	.918	.3	.989	.2	1.030	.3	.883
Power-brake operators, class A	(2)	1.000					.1	1.000		
Power-shear operators	.2	.930	.1	.842	.3	.971	.2	.829	.2	.860
Punch-press operators, class A	.2	.993			.1	.998	.3	1.020	.3	.883
Punch-press operators, class B	1.0	.887	.8	.861	1.2	.906	.6	.825	.2	(3)
Punch-press operators, class C	.3	.721	.1	.696	.5	.721	(2)	(3)	(2)	(3)
Repairmen, machine	.8	1.031	.8	.942	.7	1.136	.9	1.072	.4	.850
Repairmen, product	.3	1.083	.2	.786	.5	1.120				
Riveters, pneumatic	1.2	.990	.3	.624	2.0	1.012	(2)	(3)	.2	.580
Riveting-machine operators	.3	.973	.1	.664	.1	.830	(2)	(3)	4.1	.794
Router operators	.1	.850			.1	.859	.1	(3)		
Salvagers	.1	.933			.2	.912	.2	.995		

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings* [1] *of First-Shift Workers in Aircraft-Parts Plants, by Occupation, Sex, and Region, November 1942*—Continued

Occupation and class	All States		Eastern States		North Central States		California		Southwestern States	
	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
Males—Continued										
Sandblast operators	0.3	$0.882	0.3	$0.775	0.2	$1.002	$.2	$.873	1.0	$.753
Screw-machine operators, class A	.7	1.212	.5	.967	.9	1.255	.5	1.192		
Screw-machine operators, class B	.5	1.037	.2	.781	.8	1.069	.3	.956		
Screw-machine operators, class C	.4	.862	.2	.682	.6	.879	.1	.831		
Shaper operators	.2	.977	.3	.923	.1	1.195	(2)	(3)	1.0	.778
Sheet-metal workers, class A	.7	1.119	.7	1.180	.7	1.132	.6	1.117	.8	(3)
Sheet-metal workers, class B	.7	.820	1.8	.815	.3	.887	.6	.823	1.7	.709
Solderers, class B	.1	1.106			.1	1.101	.5	(3)		
Solderers, class C	(2)	.840			(2)	.906			.1	(3)
Straighteners	.1	.910	.1	.700	(2)	1.103	.2	.880	.2	(3)
Template makers, class A	.1	1.251	(2)	(3)	.1	1.253	(2)	(3)	(2)	(3)
Template makers, class B	.1	.954			.1	.960			.1	(3)
Template makers, class C	.1	.756			.2	.764			.2	(3)
Testers, class A	.1	1.059	.2	.886	.1	1.174	.1	1.106	.2	.940
Testers, class B	.2	.853	.5	.842	.2	.848	.2	.912	.2	(3)
Testers, class C	.3	.773	.2	.703	.3	.845	.4	.715	.6	.646
Thread-milling-machine operators	.2	1.085	.2	.862	.3	1.150	.2	.950		
Timekeepers	.3	.839	.4	.717	.3	.915	.2	.838	.7	.734
Toggle-press operators	(2)	.900			(2)	(3)	.1	1.042		
Tool and die makers, class A	2.5	1.346	3.3	1.320	2.3	1.376	3.1	1.330	1.0	1.113
Tool and die makers, class B	.9	1.030	.1	1.010	1.0	1.035	1.1	1.050	1.3	.948
Tool and die makers, class C	.2	.833			.1	.833	.3	.960	.9	.713
Tool-crib attendants, class A	.3	.924	(2)	(3)	.3	.930	.4	.955	.7	.841
Tool-crib attendants, class B	.2	.707			.1	.690	.5	.731	.8	.691
Tool grinders	.6	1.072	.4	.947	.7	1.071	.7	1.135		
Trainees, journeyman	.3	.814	.3	.752	.3	.826	.3	.835		
Trainees, machine operators	1.5	.700	2.0	.628	1.0	.744	2.9	.706	.4	.469
Trainees, other	2.5	.700	.6	.615	3.5	.716	1.9	.703	1.3	.448
Truck drivers	.4	.838	.4	.733	.3	.955	.6	.787	.7	.695
Truckers, hand	.8	.771	1.1	.755	.9	.781	.4	.755	(2)	(2)
Truckers, power, inside	.2	.940			.3	.940				
Tube benders, class A	(2)	1.066			(2)	1.185	(2)	(3)	.2	(3)
Tube benders, class B	(2)	.912			.1	.962	(2)	(3)	.1	(3)
Watchmen	1.2	.733	1.8	.657	.9	.764	1.2	.797	2.1	.662
Welders, hand, class A	2.2	1.171	1.3	.946	1.8	1.186	1.8	1.407	8.7	1.079
Welders, hand, class B	.8	.939	1.3	.942	.3	.973	.4	1.013	5.1	.902
Welders, hand, class C	.3	.732	.1	(3)	(2)	.775	.4	.815	2.1	.694
Welders, machine	.3	.903	.2	.773	.2	.919	.4	.988	.5	.755
Females										
Assemblers, bench, class A	.2	.773			.2	.707	.2	.919		
Assemblers, bench, class B	1.1	.837	1.3	.747	1.3	.865	1.1	.838	.1	(3)
Assemblers, bench, class C	1.7	.678	3.8	.648	1.4	.690	1.2	.712		
Assemblers, floor, class A	(2)	.855			(2)	.855				
Assemblers, floor, class B	.2	.800			.3	.803	.2	.785		
Assemblers, floor, class C	.2	.656			(2)	.741	1.1	.647		
Buffers	.1	.592	.2	.568	(2)	.640	.1	(3)	(2)	(3)
Burrers, class B	.2	.729	.3	.637	.2	.819	.5	.693	(2)	(3)
Burrers, class C	1.0	.679	.8	.524	.6	.769	2.9	.662	(2)	(3)
Clerks, production	.2	.689			.2	.647	.3	.755		
Clerks, shipping and receiving	.1	.623			.1	.545	.1	.744	(2)	(3)
Clerks, stocks and stores	.5	.672	.4	.647	.5	.649	.7	.717	.6	.731
Drill-press operators, class A	.1	.756			.1	.756				
Drill-press operators, class B	.3	.725	.4	.783	.3	.656	.3	.871	.1	(3)
Drill-press operators, class C	1.1	.736	.3	.558	1.4	.790	1.0	.660	1.4	.496
Forewomen, working, class C	(2)	.817			(2)	(3)	.1	.811	.1	(3)
Grinding-machine operators, class B	(2)	.769	.1	.730	(2)	(3)				
Grinding-machine operators, class C	(2)	.691			(2)	.695	(2)	(3)		
Helpers, journeymen's	.1	.541			.1	.499	(2)	(3)	.4	.617
Helpers, machine operators'	.1	.606	.1	(3)	(2)	(3)	.1	.675	.6	.600
Helpers, other	.1	.654	.1	(3)	(2)	(3)	.4	.696	(2)	(3)
Inspectors, class A	.3	.792	(2)	(3)	.4	.791	(2)	(3)		
Inspectors, class B	.5	.713	1.1	.713	.4	.670	.3	.843	.2	(3)
Inspectors, class C	2.1	.634	2.5	.564	2.5	.626	1.4	.773	.9	.661
Janitresses	.2	.639	.1	(3)	.2	.635	.1	.752	.1	(3)
Laborers	(2)	.613	.1	(3)	(2)	(3)	.1	.683		
Lathe operators, engine, class B	(2)	.844	(2)	(3)	(2)	.843				
Lathe operators, engine, class C	(2)	.613			(2)	.650			.1	(3)
Lathe operators, turret, class B	(2)	.844	.1	.850	(2)	(3)				

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 5.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings*[1] *of First-Shift Workers in Aircraft-Parts Plants, by Occupation, Sex, and Region, November 1942*—Continued

Occupation and class	All States		Eastern States		North Central States		California		Southwestern States	
	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
Females—Continued										
Lathe operators, turret, class C	(2)	$0.712	(2)	(3)	----	----	0.2	$0.761	0.1	(3)
Loaders and unloaders; racks and conveyors	0.2	.562	----	----	0.3	$0.556	.1	(3)	----	----
Metal-saw operators	(2)	.716	----	----	(2)	.741	(2)	(3)	.2	(3)
Milling-machine operators, class B	.1	.790	0.1	$0.698	.1	.838	(2)	(3)	----	----
Milling-machine operators, class C	.1	.768	----	----	.1	.772	(2)	(3)	----	----
Packers	.4	.605	1.1	.597	.4	.603	.1	.740	----	----
Painters	.2	.592	.2	.544	.2	.604	----	----	----	----
Punch-press operators, class B	(2)	.786	----	----	(2)	.790	.1	.781	----	----
Punch-press operators, class C	.4	.633	.1	.550	.6	.625	.2	.763	.1	(3)
Riveters, pneumatic	.4	.726	----	----	.6	.726	----	----	----	----
Riveting-machine operators	.4	.710	----	----	.2	.543	(2)	(3)	3.9	$0.796
Salvagers	.1	.602	----	----	.1	.602	----	----	----	----
Screw-machine operators, class C	(2)	.652	----	----	.1	.649	(2)	(3)	----	----
Sheet-metal workers, class B	.1	.720	----	----	.1	.777	(2)	(3)	1.1	.665
Solderers, class C	(2)	.721	----	----	(2)	.721	----	----	----	----
Straighteners	(2)	.790	----	----	.1	.790	----	----	----	----
Testers, class C	.1	.581	.2	.554	(2)	.616	(2)	(3)	----	----
Timekeepers	.1	.612	.1	.611	.1	.586	.1	.636	.1	(3)
Tool-crib attendants, class B	.1	.647	----	----	.1	.600	.2	.697	----	----
Tool grinders	.1	.565	----	----	.1	.565	----	----	----	----
Trainees, machine operators	.9	.601	1.0	.545	.4	.559	2.4	.641	.1	(3)
Trainees, other	3.9	.695	1.5	.509	5.4	.710	3.0	.697	.2	.470
Welders, hand, class A	(2)	1.180	----	----	----	----	.1	1.180	----	----
Welders, hand, class B	.1	.808	.1	(3)	----	----	----	----	.8	.819
Welders, hand, class C	.1	.701	----	----	(2)	(3)	.1	.741	1.2	.691
Welders, machine	.1	.702	.1	(3)	.1	.619	.4	.753	----	----

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

[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent. These occupations are included in the table to indicate fully the nature of the occupational pattern in the industry. Although average earnings by occupation are not shown for these workers, their earnings have been included in the average earnings for all workers, and for male and female workers separately.

[3] Too few workers and/or plants to warrant computation of an average.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES

The magnitude of regional wage differentials is apparent from the weighted averages, shown in table 5, for each geographical region. The highest straight-time average hourly rate for all workers was found in the North Central region; the average for this region was 94.8 cents an hour, or nearly 4 cents an hour more than the combined average for the four regions. The average for California was 91.4 cents an hour, while averages of 81.9 and 81.1 cents are shown for the Eastern States and the Southwestern States, respectively. In most of the occupations for which regional comparisons are possible, the highest hourly averages are found in the North Central region. There is substantial evidence to indicate that earnings in the Michigan plants studied tended to be somewhat above those in the other five States in the North Central region. The proportion of Michigan plants studied, however, is not adequate to warrant the presentation of separate data for that State.

SIZE OF PLANT

A tabulation of occupational earnings by size of plant, in terms of numbers of wage earners employed, yielded no conclusive evidence that workers in large plants received higher earnings generally than those in small plants. In many of the occupations, the average earnings for workers in the smaller plants exceeded the averages for workers employed for similar work in the large plants.

METHOD OF WAGE PAYMENT

The effect of incentive methods of wage payment upon average hourly earnings in the industry appears to be significant, although the numbers of workers paid under such systems are not adequate to permit a detailed analysis of this factor. The averages for plants in which workers were paid under a production-bonus or piece-work system were consistently higher than the average rates paid to time workers in the same occupations. As stated earlier, incentive systems were found to a greater extent in the North Central area than in the plants in any other region; this was one factor contributing to the comparatively higher average rates for this region. The apparent inconsistency in the averages for some occupations is due entirely to the fact that some of the workers were paid under incentive systems. Class B female bench assemblers, for instance, showed an average of 83.7 cents an hour, whereas the class A workers in the same occupation averaged only 77.3 cents an hour; the average for the class B workers was raised by incentive payments in some plants, whereas virtually all of the class A assemblers were paid on a straight hourly basis. A similar situation is found in the case of female drill-press operators, where the class C operators averaged 73.6 cents an hour as compared with 72.5 cents an hour for class B operators.

PLANT RANGES IN OCCUPATIONAL EARNINGS

For most of the occupations studied there was a very wide range in earnings between the highest and the lowest averages for individual plants. The occupations for which individual plant ranges are shown in table 6 were selected for their numerical importance in terms of the numbers of workers included. This tabulation has been confined to plants in the North Central States in order to eliminate, as far as possible, any regional wage difference. The occupations included represent approximately 77 percent of all the first-shift employees studied in the North Central States.

The greatest spread in average straight-time earnings was found for class A working foremen who averaged $2.25 in the plant with the highest rate for this occupation and $1.095 in the plant with the lowest average. The range for class A welders was from 81.3 cents to $1.867 an hour. These ranges are limited in their significance because they show the extremes in plant earnings by occupation and do not indicate the range for individual workers. They do, however, reveal the extent of the variations from the general averages for all plants combined. for each occupation.

TABLE 6.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of First-Shift Workers in Selected Occupations in Aircraft-Parts Plants, North Central States, November 1942*

Occupation and class	Number of plants	Average hourly earnings	Individual plant averages	
			High	Low
Male workers:				
Assemblers, bench, class A	21	$1.029	$1.250	$0.743
Assemblers, bench, class B	33	.991	1.323	.675
Assemblers, bench, class C	20	.795	1.260	.500
Assemblers, floor, class A	9	1.297	1.426	.780
Assemblers, floor, class B	8	.897	1.296	.586
Buffers	25	1.075	1.531	.500
Burrers, class B	15	1.027	1.250	.717
Clerks, shipping and receiving	29	.830	1.150	.618
Clerks, stocks and stores	42	.873	1.213	.578
Drill-press operators, class A	19	1.095	1.326	.775
Drill-press operators, class B	27	.965	1.150	.705
Drill-press operators, class C	20	.807	1.100	.542
Foremen, working, class A	34	1.311	2.250	1.095
Foremen, working, class B	23	1.054	1.387	.887
Grinding-machine operators, class A	23	1.209	1.415	.700
Grinding-machine operators, class B	23	1.032	1.292	.500
Helpers, machine operators	15	.861	1.220	.650
Inspectors, class A	33	1.105	1.400	.900
Inspectors, class B	36	.984	1.450	.714
Inspectors, class C	18	.873	.954	.600
Janitors	45	.773	1.000	.500
Job setters	22	1.207	1.675	.683
Laborers	26	.772	1.016	.500
Lathe operators, engine, class A	19	1.281	1.775	.900
Lathe operators, engine, class B	17	1.047	1.375	.838
Lathe operators, turret, class A	20	1.225	1.450	.800
Lathe operators, turret, class B	15	1.033	1.174	.692
Milling-machine operators, class A	16	1.210	1.950	.983
Milling-machine operators class B	21	1.062	1.200	.550
Painters	29	1.033	1.650	.700
Punch-press operators, class A	23	.906	1.219	.875
Repairmen, machine	25	1.136	1.650	.725
Riveters, pneumatic	6	1.012	1.119	.844
Screw-machine operators, class A	19	1.255	1.503	.950
Screw-machine operators, class B	20	1.069	1.300	.670
Screw-machine operators, class C	12	.879	1.078	.600
Sheet-metal workers, class A	12	1.132	1.599	.850
Tool and die makers, class A	42	1.376	2.014	1.103
Tool and die makers, class B	21	1.035	1.350	.914
Tool grinders	18	1.071	1.500	.600
Trainees, machine operators	19	.744	1.000	.500
Trainees, other	12	.716	1.000	.450
Truckers, hand	19	.781	.952	.530
Watchmen	29	.764	.975	.500
Welders, hand, class A	26	1.186	1.867	.813
Female workers:				
Assemblers, bench, class B	9	.865	1.117	.650
Assemblers, bench, class C	18	.690	.830	.480
Burrers, class C	8	.769	.890	.480
Drill-press operators, class C	12	.790	.890	.500
Inspectors, class C	23	.626	.837	.387
Punch-press operators, class C	12	.625	.890	.482
Riveters, pneumatic	2	.726	.825	.686
Trainees, machine operators	9	.559	.750	.400
Trainees, other	12	.710	1.000	.400

LABOR CONDITIONS IN HUNGARY[a]

INCREASED industrialization in Hungary was an outgrowth of the Treaty of Trianon, signed in 1920 after the country's defeat in the war of 1914–18. Although nearly one-fourth of the working population was engaged in industry at the time of the 1930 census, Hungary's economy remained essentially agricultural. The predominance of a low-wage, underemployed agricultural labor force acted as a brake on the industrial wage level. Skilled crafts were the single exception and, owing to scarcity of trained workers, the skilled workers in Hungary have even been paid at higher rates than employees of comparable skill in certain neighboring countries.

Military defeat cost the country approximately two-thirds of its pre-war territory. The land area was reduced from 325,411 square kilometers[1] in 1910 to 93,073 square kilometers. As a result of the boundary settlement, the population declined to 7,990,000 in 1920 from 20,890,000 in 1910. The population density was 86 per square kilometer in 1920 as compared with 65 in 1910, and by 1930 had reached 93 per square kilometer. Losses in resources were also considerable, and included productive farm land, forests, and minerals, such as salt, gold, silver, copper, zinc, antimony, manganese, and iron ore, but commercially valuable bauxite deposits and coal mines were retained. Rich agricultural land also remained within the new boundaries, and a variety of grains and fruits, including grapes for the important winemaking industry, continued in production. However, with the agricultural resources left to Hungary, it would have been difficult to maintain the population by agriculture alone.

There remained in post-war Hungary a homogeneous population predominantly of Magyar speech and origin. Classified by mother tongue, the people were 92.1 percent Magyar, 5.5 percent German, 1.2 percent Slovak, and 1.2 percent other nationalities; 98 percent of the total knew the native Hungarian or Magyar language.

Hungary did not become an active belligerent in the present war until mid-1941, but from the time of the Munich settlement in the autumn of 1938, from which she benefited in the partition of Czechoslovakia, it was apparent that her allegiance was to the Axis Powers. Like other countries—especially those of Europe—her internal economy was affected by the war from its start in September 1939. In addition to the land acquired from Czechoslovakia under the Vienna award (November 1938), Sub-Carpathia was reincorporated into Hungary in March 1939, and when, on November 20, 1940, Hungary signed a pact to unite with Germany, Italy, and Japan in bringing about the "new order," she annexed half of Rumania's Transylvanian territory. Thus, the present Hungary has much the same boundaries as before 1920.

Employment and Unemployment

The geography of Hungary has had an effect on the types of employment. The country is landlocked between the Alps and Carpathian Mountains in Central Europe and is cut into two contrasting regions by the Danube River. Budapest, the political and cultural

[a] Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Margaret H. Schoenfeld.
[1] Square kilometer=0.3861 square mile.

center, lies on the Danube. In Transdanubia, which is west of the river, conditions have long been stabilized, and a prosperous agriculture exists. On the great plains to the east of the Danube periodic invasions retarded development of intensive agriculture, and both customs and costumes retain much of their earlier stamp.

Transdanubia has three regions: Kisalföld, a denuded plain with an advanced agriculture, of which the chief crops are wheat, rye, and cattle fodder; the central highland belt, including the Lake Balaton district, where forestry, fishing, mining, and tourist traffic are supplemented by intensive agriculture; and the Danube-Drava angle which resembles the central region but has more advanced mining and agricultural activities. Village life predominates in all three regions. On the Nagy-Alföld (great plain on the east) there are two regions, known as the Danube-Tisa and the Tisa, consisting of cereal-growing land and pastures. Large groups of people, mainly agricultural, have stayed in settlements which are the result of earlier grouping for defense. These settlements are gradually developing the characteristics of urban centers. Workers raise their crops and live a seminomadic life miles away on the plain, where they herd their cattle. Housing erected for use in the agricultural season has gradually been put to all-year use. Both regions in the east sweep up to rich vine-clad and forested slopes and northern highlands where there are mines and tourist traffic.

Before the partition of Hungary, the large estates had a disproportionate amount of land. Four thousand proprietors owned nearly one-third of the land area and 2,400,000 small holders lived on little more than one-half of it. After the Treaty of Trianon, less than 47 percent of the land belonged to small holders and 36 percent was in large estates. Arable land belonging to small holders declined from 69 percent before the war of 1914–18 to 59 percent afterwards; independent farmers dropped from 35 to 25 percent of the population in the same period, and the dependent laborers and servants rose from 37 to 46 percent of the total.

Land reform therefore became a necessity, and in 1920 a measure for this purpose was introduced. The plan was amplified and extended several times. The State was empowered to expropriate in precisely defined cases, and some 575,000 hectares [2] were distributed to new owners. Previous owners were compensated. Able-bodied but propertyless agricultural workers dropped from 754,000 in 1920 to 562,528 in 1930; in the same period, the land in small holdings rose from 4,420,000 to 4,800,000 hectares between 1920 and 1935, and that in large estates decreased from 3,340,000 to 2,767,000 hectares. So-called "dwarf" holdings of 1 or 1½ hectares were created in the process, and their existence necessitated further reforms. Progress was made in 1936 by the laws regarding entailed estates, the promotion of land settlement, and the establishment of a National Land Credit Institute. In recent years the Government has announced the policy of creating new small holdings on 700,000 hectares of land belonging to the large estates.

When the latest census was taken (1930), the concentration of the population was greatest on the Great Plain which accounted for 4,866,934 persons, or over half of the 8,688,319 inhabitants. Budapest the only large city (and which is included in the Great Plain) had

[2] 100 hectares=1 square kilometer.

1,006,184 residents. Transdanubia had a population of 2,685,509 and the North 1,135,876. Population density in Budapest was 4,860.8 persons per square kilometer. One area in the north had a density of 1,161.5 and two dense areas in Transdanubia averaged 942.2 and 868.5, respectively. Independent and other cities accounted for 2,881,251 persons, or one-third of the total. As of January 31, 1941, Budapest had 1,162,800 of the total (13,643,600) inhabitants in Hungary. The two next largest cities of Szeged and Debrecen had fewer than 150,000 inhabitants each, according to the latest estimates.

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT

Of Hungary's 8,688,319 inhabitants in 1930, 44.1 percent were gainfully employed; 66.7 percent of the males and 22.4 percent of the females were classed in the gainful population.

Employment in mining, industry, transportation, and commerce declined steadily from an index of 100 in 1929 to 81.2 in 1933, the lowest index for any year during the depression. Beginning in 1934 the index of employment rose and by 1937 it was 104. The index increased steadily from that time and for 1940 was 125.6. Employment in agriculture is not measured in a regular statistical series.

Both agricultural and industrial production began to decline in 1929 Agriculture suffered acutely in the following years, owing to short crops and the inferior quality of the grain in some parts of the country. Because of the exceptionally good 1933 crops, the outlook was better in 1934; prices were also higher and the export market improved. In 1935, the situation was less favorable. Crop yields improved in 1936 but the agricultural workers were not appreciably better off, as world agricultural markets had fallen and domestic consumption was hampered by the low wage level. Political developments in 1938, namely the Anschluss with Germany and Austria, gave Hungary a continuing "market" for her products and since then she has been drained of her produce by her allies.

Once Hungary was drawn into the Axis camp by a series of concessions of land, instead of through force, her agricultural and industrial population were working to capacity for Germany. Imports lagged and therefore this economic collaboration favored industrialization in Hungary. According to recent information, a number of new factories came into operation during 1942 but the crops in that year were far below expectations.

OCCUPATIONS OF LABOR FORCE

After the Treaty of Trianon (1920), industrial production was about 40 percent of the pre-war total. Less-close trade relations with other countries and internal currency difficulties led to an increase in domestically produced goods. Industrialization was approved by the League of Nations and had for its purpose reduction in the adverse trade balance. As a result of this increased industrialization, the economic life of Hungary was altered and the proportion of industrial workers increased. Before the present war, nearly one-fourth of the total population, comprising workers and their families, secured their living from industrial production, including small trades. Of the goods sold, 52 percent by value represented industrially produced

articles. Industry, handicrafts, and building construction accounted for 34 percent of the national income, and 30 percent of the tax burden was borne by industry.

Although the part of the population attached to agriculture declined from 64.5 percent in 1910 for Greater Hungary (56 percent for the portion left after 1920) to 55.7 percent in 1920 and to 51.8 percent in 1930, agriculture was still the main pursuit. The flow away from the land no doubt continued after 1930. In that year, however, 4.5 million persons were still classified as agricultural as compared with 2.8 million in industry, trade, and transportation—a 60-percent excess in favor of agriculture. Administration, the professions, and other occupations accounted for the remaining 1.4 million persons in the population.

Distribution of that part of the population classified as gainful workers in the 1930 census is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1—*Distribution of Gainful Workers in Hungary, by Industrial or Occupational Group, 1930*

Group	Number of—				Total
	Employers and independent workers	Salaried employees	Wage earners	Unpaid family workers	
Total gainful workers	1,055,953	253,035	1,965,793	554,971	3,829,752
Agriculture, forestry	700,466	5,611	788,386	536,988	2,031,451
Mines and blast furnaces	30	1,165	33,987		35,182
Industry	216,516	43,372	619,214	7,574	886,676
Commerce, banking	83,995	57,865	74,391	9,832	226,083
Transport and communication	9,335	21,124	82,262	568	113,289
Public administration, national defense, professional services	19,735	123,603	93,496		236,834
Domestic service			176,987		176,987
Day laborers			61,046		61,046
Other occupations	25,876	295	36,024	9	62,204

SKILLS OF THE LABOR FORCE

The chief occupational skills of the people are, of course, agricultural and horticultural. Of 2,031,451 persons in these pursuits in 1930, general agriculture employed 2,004,948. The clothing trades accounted for 206,228 of the 874,005 persons in industry; iron and metallurgy, for 103,170; machinery, for 98,112; food and drink trades, for 96,993; and textiles, for 53,242. Home industries employed 11,322 persons. Development of the preparation of foodstuffs and provisions was natural in an agricultural country. Development of other types of manufacture, particularly of textiles, was fostered by Government subsidy.

SPECIAL GROUPS OF WORKERS

A special problem, that of refugees, was brought on by the present war. In spite of Hungary's link with the Axis before her active belligerency, she gave protection to refugees from the Nazis. The Poles were in a special category, as they sought only a temporary haven and wanted to return to Poland eventually. Maintenance of the refugees was a considerable problem for both governmental and private relief agencies.

Seasonal migration is common in agricultural countries, and in Hungary there is normally a movement of labor to industry, during seasons that farm work is slack, and back again to the land during the crop-year. In addition, during the peacetime years, 1935–38, it was estimated that 40,000 residents of agricultural districts moved each summer from the densely populated rural districts of eastern and southern Hungary to other regions of the country in search of work.

A special type of migration has developed since the present war began and even before, resulting from Germany's attempts to obtain labor from Hungary. In the case of the conquered countries such importations into Germany were forced, but in the case of the satellite countries (including Hungary) were reputedly under voluntary agreement. An order of June 27, 1939, prohibited placement of Hungarian industrial workers in employment in foreign countries, except through public employment agencies.

UNEMPLOYMENT

Work applications, made at the public employment offices and the non-fee-charging private agencies, increased from 43,592 in 1930 to 66,235 in 1932. Registrants began to decline in number in 1933 and reached a low of 43,684 in 1940. After Hungary entered the war on June 27, 1941, registration rose (averaging 48,892 for the year), owing either to dislocations resulting from warfare or to a greater eagerness to work. By June 1942, registration had dropped to 38,443.

Both the Social Democratic and Christian trade-unions aided their unemployed members. Statistics of union unemployment showed increases in the number unemployed in the early 1930's, a recovery, and then a recession before the war (which recession extended into 1940 for the Social Democratic affiliates).

A study of conditions in agriculture, covering the period 1935–38, disclosed more acute unemployment for women and children than for men. Surplus agricultural labor was found chiefly in certain densely populated eastern and southern districts. The percentage unemployed varied from 1.8 to 30.8 percent in the different districts. Among over 700,000 workers covered in the survey, including laborers and domestic farm servants but excluding small landholders, the percent unemployed declined from 22.4 in 1935 to 12.5 in 1938. This reduction was attributed to emigration to Germany and transfers from agriculture to other work.

Governmental measures to lessen the suffering entailed by the economic crisis that began in 1929 were directed primarily toward alleviating the condition of the agricultural population, on whose prosperity Hungarian welfare so largely depends. Between 1932 and 1934 numerous orders were promulgated whereby the farmers' debt burden was reduced, either by forgiveness or postponement of payments. Aid to nonagricultural labor was afforded on a limited scale by means of public works and subsidy to the union unemployment-relief funds.

Legislation of 1938 had for its purpose insuring greater stability in social and economic life, and combating unemployment among salaried employees. Provision was made for establishing trade chambers for the press, theater, and cinema industries. The chambers were to include all persons in these trades and to regulate Jewish

employment in these and other professions. Only Hungarian nationals could belong to the chambers; the Jewish membership was to be limited to 20 percent of the total, excluding war veterans and other special classes. Likewise the number of Jews employed in the press, professions, etc., was to be limited to 20 percent.

LABOR REQUISITIONING

In 1938, in order to insure that the requirements of the army would be met, provision was made for requisitioning labor for agriculture if there was no other way of insuring continuity of employment. The following year the liability to requisitioning was declared applicable to the general population between the ages of 14 and 70 years, not only in case of war or impending war constituting an immediate danger to the country but also in time of peace. Corporate bodies as well as individuals were subject to the order. Even inmates of prisons could be requisitioned, with the authorization of the Minister of Justice.

In requisitioning workers their physical fitness was to be taken into account; men were to be called before women; young persons before old persons; and unmarried before married persons.

As regards women, voluntary enrollment was to be depended upon in the first instance. In time of peace the minimum age of liability for women was 16 years. Pregnant women caring for children aged 12 and under and for old people, etc., were exempted except in their regular employment on work that could be performed at home. They were not liable for work 6 weeks before and after childbirth. Women were to be placed near their homes, if possible; children were to be so placed in all cases.

Work might take varied forms. For example, a person might stay on the job in which he was already engaged, might enroll in training, do collective and temporary work, or be assigned to industrial work. The person assigned to industrial work was to have the same conditions of employment and rate of remuneration that were customary for similar work. He would also be subject to the same penalties, social-insurance contributions, etc. Special provision was made for the State to bear the expenses of travel incurred by requisitioned persons to and from work more than 15 kilometers away from their homes; for allowances to members of families of those called; and for relief in cases of invalidity or death resulting from requisitioned labor for national defense.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions

TREND OF WAGES 1929–40

In spite of the growing industrialization in Hungary since the first World War, the wage level has remained relatively low. Persistent underemployment kept the pay of agricultural labor at a bare subsistence level and since there was always more than enough idle labor to man industrial enterprises, impetus was lacking to force up the scale of pay. A measure of the short-time employment afforded to the agricultural working force is given in an International Labor Office study which stated that in the middle 1930's agricultural

workers in Hungary were fortunate if they obtained an average of 180 days of work a year, as compared with an earlier average of 220 days.

Such instances of rising wages as occurred were in scattered localities where the demand temporarily exceeded the labor supply. Generally, the pay scale was higher in Budapest than in other parts of the country, and urban workers had higher earnings than rural labor. With the exception of the skilled trades, however, wages were low, regardless of locality. Skilled workers were scarce and for this reason employers paid extra wages to obtain their services.

Industrial wages.—Hourly earnings in industry declined between 1929 and 1935 from an average of 0.57 pengö to 0.44 pengö.[3] The daily averages were 5.15 and 3.89 pengös, respectively. Wages commenced to increase in 1936, and by 1940 the hourly average was 0.58 pengö; the daily earnings were only 4.79 pengös, no doubt as a result of shorter working hours than in 1929. Although money earnings declined beginning in 1930, real wages exceeded those of 1929 between 1930 and 1934, as the prices of items entering into the cost of living dropped more than wages. In 1940, real hourly earnings were higher than in 1929 but real daily earnings were lower. Table 2 gives the hourly and daily earnings of industrial workers, as well as index numbers of money and real wages, for the years 1929 through 1940.

TABLE 2.—*Hourly and Daily Earnings of Industrial Workers in Hungary, 1929–40*

Year	Hourly earnings			Daily earnings		
	Amount	Indexes (1929=100) of—		Amount	Indexes (1929=100) of—	
		Money wages	Real wages [1]		Money wages	Real wages [1]
	Pengös			*Pengös*		
1929	0.57	100	100	5.15	100	100
1930	.52	91	101	5.02	97	108
1931	.55	96	112	4.71	91	106
1932	.51	89	107	4.34	84	101
1933	.48	84	108	4.13	80	103
1934	.46	81	106	4.03	78	103
1935	.44	77	99	3.89	76	97
1936	.45	79	.96	3.90	76	92
1937	.46	81	92	3.97	77	88
1938	.49	86	98	4.27	83	94
1939	[2] .53	[2] 93	[2] 107	[2] 4.38	[2] 85	[2] 98
1940	[3] .58	[3] 102	[3] 108	[3] 4.79	[3] 93	[3] 99

[1] Computed by International Labor Office on basis of a restricted sample.
[2] Including the northern territories and Sub-Carpathian Russia.
[3] Excluding eastern territories and Transylvania.

Earnings have varied considerably among the industries. The textile industry has had the lowest wages; the average hourly earnings in that industry amounted to 0.47 pengö in 1929 and 0.51 pengö in 1940. In the printing trades, the outstanding example of a skilled and high-wage industry, average hourly earnings were 1.18 pengös in 1929 and 1.08 pengös in 1940.

Agricultural wages.—Agricultural wages dropped considerably in the 1930's. Payment in cash usually forms only about 12 to 15 per-

[3] In 1929 the pengö was worth 17.5 cents in United States currency. Although its value on the international exchange has varied considerably since then, the pengö was worth 19.8 cents in the first 6 months of 1941.

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cent of the total farm laborer's income, and the rest consists of payments in kind. A first-class laborer in County Vas, in the crop season of 1935, received 12 pengös in cash, 75 kilograms each of wheat and rye, 50 kilograms each of barley and flour, 15 kilograms of potatoes, 6 kilograms of other vegetables, 1 liter of vinegar, and 1.5 kilograms each of fat and meat. These payments in kind were valued at 60.67 pengös; in addition, free lodging and fuel for heating were furnished by the employer.

Daily agricultural wages rose between 1933 and 1939, as follows:

	1933 (pengös)	*1939 (pengös)*
Men, per day	1. 36	1. 96
Women, do	1. 01	1. 45
Children, do	. 72	1. 02

FACTORS AFFECTING WAGES

Cost of living.—The costs of clothing, food, fuel, shelter, and the other commodities entering into the worker's cost of living are the chief determinants as to whether a given wage is adequate. Living costs in Hungary remained below the 1929 level from 1930 through 1940, but in 1941 the index (based on 1929 as 100) was 111. Food costs showed a similar movement, reaching an index of 106 in 1941. A further substantial increase occurred in 1942, when the cost-of-living index rose from 124 in January to 134 in December and the food index increased from 118 in January to 130 in October, in spite of attempts at price control instituted in 1939.

Family allowances.—An addition to earnings was made in the form of family allowances to workers engaged in industry, commerce, and mining by law of 1938, effective on January 1, 1939. Employers having over 20 workers were required to meet the costs of family allowances and administration, except those costs incurred for the administration of the central fund. Contributions were to be fixed annually in sufficient amount to cover expenses and to maintain a reserve. The annual rates were 48 pengös for males and 32 for females, during the first year, and organization and administrative costs were limited to 5 percent of the income resulting from the assessment on employers.

Legitimate, adopted, or recognized illegitimate children under 14 years of age who were dependent on a manual worker were eligible for family allowances. The benefit was 5 pengös a month, and in case the worker died the family allowance was continued for 6 months. If he was unemployed, sick, injured in an accident, or was called for military service, the benefit was payable for 3 months.

The first system of family allowances for agricultural workers was established by the National Union of Agricultural Employers in the County of Fejér. Each employer contributed 5 pengös a year for each family in his employ, the sum collected being divided, at the end of the year, among the families having children under 12 years of age. The family-allowance system became compulsory in 1939 and at the end of that year each large family received an allowance of 70 to 80 pengös.

Vacations with pay.—By a law of 1937, wage earners in industry, commerce, and mines became entitled to vacations with pay, ranging from 6 days after 1 year of service to 12 days after 17 years of service

for wage earners; for overseers and salaried employees in commerce the range was from 12 days after 5 years of service to 18 days after 17 years; and for office workers, from 12 days after 3 years to 24 days after 15 years of service. When the present war started, provision was made for extra pay in lieu of the vacation period, if the time off could not be granted within the allotted time, but the restriction as to time limits was later removed.

Social-insurance benefits.—Contributions for social-insurance systems are discussed in a later section of this article. Under most of the schemes the workers help to pay the cost of such plans but their benefits in time of sickness and old age more than compensate for the charge against wages.

WAGE LAWS AND REGULATIONS

Both before the present war and since it started the Hungarian Government has made some provision to prevent the payment of unduly low wages in either agriculture or industry.

Agriculture.—Free agreement between employers and agricultural workers was sanctioned as a means of establishing wages in cash and kind for agricultural workers under an order of 1921. Where necessary the chief local government authority was empowered to regulate wages for the current year, after hearing both parties. His decisions were final and penalties were established for infringement.

In May 1940, provision was made for fixing minimum wages of agricultural workers, taking into account living conditions, cost of production, and market possibilities. An agricultural wages board was to be established in the chief town of each county, and a national board was to hear appeals.

In February 1941, a formula was devised for fixing maximum wages as well. The minimum daily wages of day laborers and seasonal workers before March 20, 1941, were deemed to be the maximum unless declared otherwise by the national board. For workers whose output was above the average, the employer might grant a bonus of 10 percent. Payment of wages above the maximum was deemed to be an offense for which a fine was provided. In June 1941, agricultural employers were permitted to pay a bonus of 20 percent, in addition to the authorized maximum wage, to any agricultural worker whose output exceeded the average.

Refusal of estate owners to make the required food allowances (under agreement) to permanent employees led to employee complaints. The workers held that money in lieu of food was of no use, as food supplies were not available for purchase. Therefore, the Government determined that the food allowances should be made as long as the work lasted. If the allowance was greater than the food ration to which a worker and his family were entitled, he was required to offer the surplus for sale.

On December 5, 1941, the same minimum and maximum limits on wages of agricultural workers were ordered continued for 1942. If maximum rates had not been established, the 1941 minimum was applicable.

Industry, commerce, and home work.—Pending a permanent law regulating wages in industry generally, an order was issued in 1935 empowering the Minister of Commerce to fix minimum wage standards. Wage boards were to hear cases and determine the rates of pay

in pursuits where wages were unduly low, either for a whole industry or a branch, in the whole country or in a single region.

When the Conditions of Employment Act was passed, on July 29, 1937, it provided a continuing plan for protecting the wages of manual or intellectual workers chiefly in industry, commerce, and mining. Rates could be fixed for an entire industry, a branch, or for home work, throughout the country or regionally, if rates of pay were unduly low. Suitable machinery was to be established. The wage committees formed for this purpose were to take into account wages paid for work of the same kind, the general wage level, and other pertinent factors.

When determined, the minimum-wage rates became binding on both parties. Appeals against decisions could be made to the competent authority within 8 days. The Minister could approve or disapprove the decision or refer it back to the committee.

The order providing for the requisitioning of labor for national defense, in 1939, stated that persons requisitioned for industrial and home work should be paid at the ordinary rate for work of a similar nature.

Because of mounting living costs, wage increases totaling 15 percent were authorized in a series of orders during 1940 and 1941, covering both wage earners and salaried workers. At first, a 7-percent advance was granted for the respective groups and the 8-percent increase was added later. The amount of increase in wages was just about sufficient to offset the rise in food costs only, as it was the Government's policy that civilian workers should make a sacrifice, by doing without certain other items entering into the cost of living, in order to share in the creation of a modern army for Hungary. Decreased consumption was also necessitated by the shortage of goods.

At the end of 1941, wages in nonagricultural employments (industry, commerce, mines, and blast furnaces) were ordered stabilized at the minimum rates paid on October 5, 1940, or fixed in the collective agreements in force. Employers were required to pay special supplements of 30 percent of wages (15 percent for piece workers). Similar provisions were made for governing salaries. The maximum supplement was 30 percent of the annual salary in the lowest salary class, with smaller percentage supplements for the higher salaries.

GENERAL TREND OF HOURS, 1929–40

The average workday in Hungarian industry was nearly 9 hours in 1929. By 1939 it had dropped to 8.24 hours, but rose slightly to 8.33 in 1940. In the latter year the average hours worked were as follows for the chief industrial groups:

	Average daily hours
Textiles	8. 16
Clothing	8. 00
Leather, hair, feathers	8. 00
Chemicals	8. 42
Food	8. 65
Electricity, public service	8. 80

REGULATION OF HOURS

Powers granted to the Minister of Commerce in 1935 authorized to fix working hours for commerce and industry, subject to a 48-

hour weekly maximum. Tolerances were provided in issuing the orders to cover industries, or branches of industry, as for example, to permit maintenance men to work longer hours and to meet cases of necessity. Under the 1937 legislation on conditions of employment, the 8-hour day and 48-hour week were given statutory recognition as the ordinary standards. Restrictions were to be placed on the hours worked in different pursuits, by means of ministerial orders issued after consultation with representatives of employer and employee organizations and taking into account the national interest and the economic conditions of the branch of industry or occupation.

Between 1937 and the outbreak of war considerable progress was made in introducing the shorter workday and workweek. However, in September 1939, wartime necessity led to suspension of the various maximum-hours orders that had been promulgated. In October 1940, the Government temporarily restored the 8-hour day, but the order was rescinded again in April 1941.

OVERTIME HOURS AND RATES OF PAY

From the time that hours were regulated under Government order (in 1935) time and a quarter was fixed as the overtime rate, and this remained unchanged even after the Government waived the limitations on regular hours of work.

Labor and Employer Organization

In general, the Hungarian Government authorities have discouraged and hampered the development of trade-unions, but have encouraged the growth of trade association by employers.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

Freedom of association, assembly, and combination by workers was limited during the war of 1914–18. Provision was made for stricter supervision of the activities of labor organizations than had existed earlier and the founding of new bodies was prohibited. Once the war ended, political changes drastically affected the rights of trade-unionists. From a monarchy the country passed, in rapid succession, to a democratic form of Government, to a Communist régime, and then to a monarchy under a regent appointed for life. Legislation enacted in 1919 under the republic gave legal recognition to the complete freedom of organization by workers. To acquire legal personality the union had to submit its rules to the Government for approval, elect a committee, and register the association. No legal change was made when the Communist Government came into power, later in 1919; although workers were then required to join the unions, their activities were restricted and subject to direction.

With the restoration of the monarchy, which took place in 1919, but was given formal status the following year when the permanent regent was named, the liberalized legislation governing trade-unions was repealed and the wartime regulations were restored by official order. The effect was to permit continued existence of associations with regularly approved rules, but those which had not yet obtained such approval had to submit their rules to the Minister of Interior for

approval within 30 days and to suspend activities pending his action. Endorsement of the associations was optional with the Minister, and to the extent to which he acted favorably the trade-unions were in a better position than they had been during the war period, when new associations could not be formed under any circumstances. In 1922, the Minister consolidated the regulations and made the statement that he would permit trade-union organization only in cases deserving special consideration in the public interest. The chief municipal authorities were instructed not to allow the establishment of branches of duly authorized associations, except where it appeared to be in the public interest.

The growing discontent of the laboring classes and the enlistment of public support to their cause brought about some improvement in the situation. In 1923, the Minister provided that branch unions could be established unless there was reason to withhold the right of association. Even after the regulations were liberalized to this extent, the trade-union movement was considerably hampered. For example, a trade-union meeting could not be held unless it was announced to the police 3 days in advance. The authorities could forbid the meeting, attend it, or dissolve it, and not even educational lectures were held without police attendance.

In the comparatively peaceful interval preceding the present war there was nothing notable in the controls placed on labor unions. However, on September 1, 1939, the Government ordered that until further notice no new organization of the nature of an association could be created and that those already carrying on their activities under Government-approved rules would be subject to stricter supervision by the police authorities. If the occasion arose, the police authorities could recommend to the Minister of the Interior that the activities of the union should be restricted or suspended.

The trade-unionists had two chief confederations—the Central Federation of Hungarian Trade Unions (Social Democratic in tendency) and the National Federation of Hungarian National Christian Social Unions. The membership of the Social Democratic federation rose to 1,422,400 in the second quarter of 1919 and dropped to 212,400 in the last quarter of that year, owing to the political changes involving loss in trade-union rights. The Christian federation had fewer than 200,000 members in 1920.

As industrial development has been highly concentrated in Budapest, labor organization was naturally stronger there than in other parts of the country. Statistics covering 1928 show that three-fourths of the members of Social Democratic unions were in Budapest alone and the rest were scattered through the country. On January 1, 1940, the Hungarian Social Democratic membership affiliated with the International Federation of Trade Unions in Paris was little more than 110,000.

EMPLOYER ORGANIZATIONS

While labor struggled to maintain its rights of association that were originally granted in the nineteenth century, employers organized freely. In fact, by law of 1868 they were required to form chambers of commerce and industry on a regional basis and to establish industrial corporations in cities, communes, and other local subdivisions in which there were at least 100 artisans and in which two-thirds of them demanded such action (by law of 1884).

Development of the industrial-guild system was the purpose of legislation enacted on June 10, 1932. The law required that within 5 years every qualified occupier of an industrial establishment should belong to a guild. If no suitable organization existed, the Minister of Commerce was to decide where and in what fields guilds were to be formed. Among the duties of the guilds were the improvement of economic, educational, and humanitarian interests; and the maintenance of industrial peace, while at the same time enforcing a wholesome employment relation, acting as conciliator in disputes between members of the guild and their employees arising out of the employment relation, and settling such disputes in accordance with existing provisions.

ORGANIZATIONS IN AGRICULTURE

Joint employer-employee bodies operated in agricultural pursuits. Legislation of 1920, dealing with representation of agricultural interests, provided for the formation of communal agricultural committees in communes; district agricultural committees in districts and towns with magistrates; county agricultural committees in counties and municipalities; agricultural chambers for groups of counties; and, finally, a national agricultural chamber for the entire country.

Industrial Relations

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

Arrangement of working conditions under collective agreements between management and labor was common before and during the first World War. The first industries to settle disputed questions by agreement of employer associations and trade-unions were the metal, leather, printing, and flour-exporting industries. On account of the pressure brought by labor and its strong bargaining position, before the close of the war, working conditions of almost all Hungarian industry were subject to joint control. A radical change in this situation occurred in the early years of the regency, when the Government was in fear of a resurgence of Communist strength. In place of employer-employee arrangement of wages, hours, and working conditions, the employers by joint action determined the standards to be observed and imposed them on the labor force. The workers were powerless to protest, not only because of the restrictions on their right to organize but also because of the fear of dismissal if they expressed dissatisfaction. Loss of their current jobs meant unemployment, as the economic situation was critical.

In spite of the abandonment of collective bargaining by employers, certain of their number freely admitted that the renewal of the previous system of collective agreements was inevitable. The return to an orderly method of arranging conditions of employment was foreshadowed in a Government order of February 24, 1921, which dealt with the establishment of agricultural workers' wages and endorsed the negotiation of collective agreements.

When a public conciliation system was provided for by order of September 3, 1923, to settle industrial disputes, certain industries had already resumed collective bargaining and had provided for conciliation machinery under the terms of their collective agreements.

Such progress had been made by the time the Conditions of Employment Act (governing the establishment of minimum wages, maximum hours, vacations with pay, etc.) was passed in 1937, that the new law gave employers and workers equal rights in the bodies to be organized in connection with the administration of that law.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Statistics of industrial disputes are available for the years 1929 through 1938 and are given in table 3. In that period the number of days of idleness resulting from disputes varied from 32,914 in 1932—the lowest annual average of the depression—to 232,622 in 1936. During the following 2 years the trend was downward, and in 1938 the days of idleness totaled less than half of those in 1936.

TABLE 3.—*Industrial Disputes in Hungary, 1929–38*

Year	Number of disputes	Number of workers involved	Number of man-days of idleness
1929	63	15,065	149,204
1930	35	5,770	79,596
1931	38	11,195	189,781
1932	20	4,925	32,914
1933	31	10,367	125,178
1934	49	12,762	92,156
1935	50	16,674	110,967
1936	122	20,747	232,622
1937	89	25,853	160,554
1938	64	9,392	104,645

CONCILIATION MACHINERY

Under the order of September 3, 1923, machinery was to be established for the peaceful settlement of industrial wage disputes. Power was granted to the Minister of Commerce to nominate three conciliators for the chief industrial inspector, and also for every industrial inspector, Budapest excepted. If conciliation was necessary, that is, in cases of a serious character endangering the peaceful continuance of work, employers and workers were entitled to nominate not over five representatives each, who were to form a conciliation committee, with the Government conciliator as chairman. Proceedings could be instituted if one of the parties to the dispute notified the competent industrial inspector (chief inspector) and demanded conciliation.

As a peaceful settlement was the purpose of the negotiations, any agreement reached became binding on both parties. Failing an agreement, a record of the fact was required to be made and the minutes of the committee were to be kept. Final judgment as to whether a dispute in an establishment, an institution, etc., was covered by the order was left to the minister concerned, but the order did not apply in wage disputes arising in State, municipal, or communal public utilities, on railways, and in navigation where machine power was utilized and the facilities were intended for purposes of public transport.

In addition to the public conciliation machinery, some such provision was included in the collective agreements in almost all industries with such agreements. In some cases the joint bodies were of

temporary tenure and in others they were permanent. Appeal to the committee was compulsory in all cases. Generally, a decision by a simple majority was sufficient to settle a dispute. A complex unofficial system for settling disputes developed because by 1930 public machinery had been provided only in Budapest.

Cooperative Movement

Consumers' cooperation was strongly developed in Hungary before the present war and almost every commune had a society. In a country where the scale of wages was so low, the savings possible through cooperative activities naturally had a wide appeal. Besides, the Government encouraged the movement. Of the 4,502 societies on which information was collected in 1935 by the Statistical Office of Budapest, 1,800 were consumers' cooperative societies, 1,402 cooperative credit associations, 806 agricultural marketing, productive, and purchasing societies, and the remaining 494 were of other types, including housing.

More than three-fourths of the associations were federated into central associations in their particular field, and most of these central bodies were members of the Union of Hungarian Cooperative Societies. Several of the chief cooperative organizations were formed in the nineteenth century and all but one before 1931. The main cooperative organizations had 3,444 affiliated associations, with 1,318,689 members. Their business before the present war aggregated 375,522,000 pengös a year, of which 39,372,000 pengös represented their own production. It is estimated that before hostilities 15 percent of the population were cooperative society members and probably twice as many persons were served by the societies.

Politically, the movement was neutral, except for a small section of the consumers' cooperatives which were connected with the Social-Democratic Party. In Hungary, as in Bulgaria, the Government assumed considerable power over the cooperatives, assisting the movement in various ways, making use of its services, and sometimes intervening in its internal affairs—a situation which was responsible to a great extent for the high degree of centralization in the movement. Control was more or less from the top down, whereas in a really democratic organization the retail associations are in control, and the wholesale bodies serve them.

In 1920, the Hungarian Government advanced funds for the central organization and was assuming a good deal of control over its policies. A law was passed in that year requiring new local credit associations to affiliate with the Central Institute of Cooperative Credit Societies. In 1935, the Government forced a reorganization of the consumers' cooperative movement, dividing the country into rural and urban classes for this purpose. Although the result of the reorganization was to decrease the number of affiliated associations, the total cooperative business more than doubled from 1934 to 1937.

By 1937 Hangya (the largest wholesale federation) was doing one-eighth of the trade of the country; in 1941 its total volume of business was 359,500,000 pengös of which 28,600,000 pengös represented the value of its own production. The territorial losses of Hungary in 1920 involved a serious loss to the consumers' cooperative movement. On the other hand, when certain parts of Czechoslovakia were re-

gained in 1938, nearly 300 new cooperatives were added to Hangya's membership and 7 new wholesale warehouses were opened to supply these associations. With the accession of additional territory in 1939, Hangya established a new retail association with 50 stores in the newly acquired territory.

Social Insurance

Compulsory sickness insurance for all wage-earning employees of registered commercial and industrial enterprises, railway, postal, and telegraph services, and shipping and forwarding companies was first introduced in 1891. Workmen's compensation was added in 1907. Legislation in 1927 served to centralize the social-insurance organization of Hungary and at the same time the scope of sickness and accident insurance was widened, the benefit situation was improved, and all funds were merged under the National Workers' Insurance Institute (later changed to Hungarian National Social Insurance Institute). Under a 1928 law, effective on January 1, 1929, the compulsory insurance system was supplemented by invalidity, old-age, and death insurance for all employed persons, irrespective of age, sex, or nationality. Private sickness, accident, and invalidity and old-age insurance was permitted in certain branches of industry, provided the benefit payments were at least equal to those under the Government system. The accident, and invalidity and old age branches of social insurance were incorporated in one unit under the Hungarian National Social Insurance Institute, but funds received from wage earners and salaried workers were to be kept separate and managed independently. The basic laws governing social insurance have been amended from time to time and special legislation has dealt with insurance of special classes of labor, such as those in the coal-mining industry, and seamen.

In 1938, the compulsorily insured persons totaled 930,465 wage earners in industry and commerce and 55,423 miners, covered by workmen's compensation; 702,512 wage earners in industry and commerce and 147,927 domestic servants, covered by the sickness and maternity insurance plan; and 612,025 wage earners in industry and commerce and 52,934 miners, insured for invalidity, old-age, and survivorship claims.

Hungary has not adopted an unemployment-insurance plan. Pressure brought by labor in the past to have such protection was unsuccessful, as the authorities maintained that the cost could not be supported from public funds. However, certain trade-unions have maintained systems of unemployment relief, which the Government has subsidized in periods of extreme need.

SICKNESS AND MATERNITY

General system.—Compulsory sickness (and accident) insurance applied to persons engaged in industry (including mining), commerce, and to domestic servants. Persons were covered regardless of sex, age, or nationality, if they earned less than 3,600 pengös a year or 300 pengös a month, but the Minister of Social Welfare and Labor could fix different wage limits. Certain other groups, including persons engaged in home industry, could insure voluntarily.

Equal employer and employee contributions were to be made to cover sickness insurance, and the total amount contributed might not

exceed 7 percent of the insured person's pay when the contribution was made on actual earnings and 6 percent of the average daily wage where the employee was paid according to daily wage classes. For domestic employees the contributions were 3.5 and 3.0, respectively, for these groups.

An insured person who was sick was entitled to medical attendance for not over 1 year from the first day of sickness and for any further period for which pecuniary sick benefit was due. He received medicines, therapeutic appliances, and treatments for the same period or periods, and hospital treatment where necessary. For incapacity lasting over 3 days, sick benefits were received from the fourth day, not to exceed 60 percent of pay reckoned from the first day and continuing to the end of incapacity but not to exceed 1 year. Members of the insured person's family were entitled to medical attention, medicines, therapeutic appliances, and treatments for not over 1 year from the first day of sickness.

Maternity benefits included necessary services, cash benefits before and after childbirth, and nursing benefits. The rates of benefit payment were higher for an insured woman than for the wife of an insured person and were increased substantially in 1938.

If the insured person died, a funeral benefit was paid at the rate of 30 times the daily earnings or daily wage.

Seamen's system.—The Seamen's Code of 1934 provided for compulsory sickness (and accident) insurance for seamen. Coverage extended to every crew member employed by Hungarian shipowners. All costs were to be borne by the employers.

For sickness occurring during the seaman's contract, the employer was responsible for medical attendance and care on board ship or treatment in a hospital ashore, if needed. The normal rate of wages was payable during sickness aboard ship and for not over 6 weeks ashore, if the employee was under treatment. Limits on the period of medical attendance and care were not over 1 month if the sickness began after a work agreement was signed but before work commenced, and 4 months if the person had entered on such duties.

INVALIDITY, OLD AGE, AND DEATH

General system.—Coverage of the compulsory invalidity, old-age, and death insurance system was the same as for sickness insurance, but covered as well certain other classes, including home workers and salaried workers who were paid less than 500 pengös a month and 6,000 pengös a year. The Ministry of Social Welfare and Labor could extend the occupational coverage to include those exempted from sickness insurance, unless specifically excepted by the terms of the law.

Equal contributions were made by employers and employed, not to exceed 4 percent of actual wages or 5 percent of actual salaries, or 3.5 and 4.3 percent, respectively, of daily pay. Such contributions were payable in a lump sum with the sickness-insurance contributions, and were suspended during sickness disability (provided full wages were not being paid to the insured). Governmental subsidies were made to the fund also. Important changes in the procedure for fixing contributions and for the remission of contributions in arrears were made by decree in 1935.

The age for old-age benefits was 65 years. Invalidity was deemed to exist when earning capacity was reduced to less than one-third of normal for wage earners and one-half for salaried persons. After 400 weekly contributions the insured was eligible for old-age benefit; 200 contributions were necessary for invalidity or widow's or orphan's annuities. Benefits were payable if an average of 10 weekly contributions a year had been made, under a decree issued in 1935.

Cash benefits consisted of the basic benefit of 120 pengös a year and a supplement in proportion to the additional weekly payments made by the insured, not to exceed 19 percent for salaried employees and 24 percent for wage earners of the accrued annual payments. For each dependent child 5 percent of the basic and supplementary benefits was authorized up to 20 percent of the total.

A widow (of a salaried employee or wage earner) over 65 years old or permanently disabled received one-half of the benefit of the deceased. An orphan received 15 percent of the deceased person's benefit. Limits on benefits were 50 percent of the deceased person's benefit for widows, 15 percent for orphans with one parent dead, and 30 percent for orphans with both parents dead.

Miners.—Compulsory invalidity, old-age, and death benefits for wage-earning employees and subordinate officials in enterprises covered by the mining laws were established under a law of 1925 and an order in the following year—in other words, before the general system. In 1942, the compulsory scheme was codified and amended.

At age 65 years after 400 contributions (formerly 10 years) or at age 60 years after 2,000 contribution weeks, or at age 60 years after 1,250 contributions in underground work, the worker was entitled to old-age benefits. To qualify for invalidity and survivors' pensions 200 weekly contributions were required.

By the 1942 order, the benefit was to consist of a basic sum amounting to 120 pengös a year, a supplement of 30 pengös, and an increment proportionate to the number of weekly contributions. The widow's pension was one-half of the amount to which the insured would have been entitled if he had lived. A new allowance amounting to 10 percent of the pension was provided for each dependent child or grandchild.

Salaried employees in agriculture.—A system of compulsory invalidity, old-age, and death insurance for salaried employees in agriculture was established in 1936.

Contributions were fixed for 9 salary classes, including those employees earning not over 1,500 pengös a year. The range of annual contributions was from 72 to 360 pengös. Except in the first and last salary class the rate of contribution was 6 percent of salary and was paid in equal parts by the employer and the insured.

To receive benefits the insured must have made 20 half-yearly contributions. At age 65 years the old-age and invalidity pension was 120 pengös, plus amounts varying according to contributions up to 19 percent of the total, and supplements for children. The minimum yearly pension was 393.60 to 1,488 pengös, according to wage class. An insured person with three or more dependent children received an extra allowance of 5 percent of the pension for each child. The widow was entitled to one-half of the deceased husband's pension, plus an allowance for each child under 18 years of age equal to 30 percent of the widow's own pension. The total pension of the widow

could not exceed the original pension of the deceased. Each orphan under age 18, having neither parent, was entitled to 60 percent of the pension the widow would have received, but the sum of the orphans' pensions could not exceed twice that of the widow.

Wage earners in agriculture.—The compulsory old-age, invalidity, and death insurance plan for wage earners in agriculture was based on legislation of 1938 and 1939. About 625,000 farm workers and farm servants were covered. The pensionable age was 65 years in general and 63 years for those who had served in the armed forces.

Workers' contributions amounted to 0.20 pengö a week for both insured men and women. Such contributions were collected by the National Agricultural Insurance Institute, as were the levies against landed proprietors in the form of additional land taxes to help cover the cost of the insurance. In addition, a subsidy was granted by the Government amounting to 5,375,000 pengös annually.

No information is available as to the scale of benefits payable to the insured agricultural wage earner. The widow's pension at age 60 years equaled one-half of the insured person's benefit, but in no case could be less than 60 pengös a year, if the husband had completed the qualifying period of 15 years and had complied with the conditions necessary to qualify under the transitional scheme.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

General system.—As stated under the section on compulsory sickness insurance, the compulsory accident-insurance plan covered the same groups. The list of compensable industrial diseases has been extended periodically. Voluntary insurance was permissible.

Employers paid the entire cost of accident insurance. The annual premium was calculated by multiplying the total assessable pay for the year by the coefficient of risk and the premium unit fixed for the year. In making the calculation, the pay of any insured individual in excess of 3,600 pengös a year was excluded. Domestic employers and others not having over 5 employees were required to make weekly contributions for workmen's compensation.

Medical and related benefits in case of accident were the same as under the sickness-insurance plan. The monetary benefit was the same also during the first 10 weeks (60 percent of pay); after that time the benefit for sickness caused by accident was to be raised to 75 percent of the daily average earnings or daily wage. Between the time when pecuniary sick benefit lapsed and the end of the incapacity for work, or the decreased incapacity for work, a pension was payable up to a maximum of two-thirds of the assessable benefit for total incapacity. If a person was made helpless by the accident an amount up to the assessable remuneration might be paid. The assessable remuneration was defined as the earnings of the injured person during the 52 weeks before the accident.

If the insured died, death benefits were payable at the same rate as for death from sickness. The widow received an annual pension of 20 percent of the assessable remuneration of her husband up to her death or remarriage. A like sum was payable to a widower with dependent children. Dependent children of the deceased, whether legitimate, illegitimate, stepchildren, or grandchildren, were granted 15 percent of the assessable remuneration up to the age of 16 years. The percentage was doubled, if the child had neither parent.

Dependent parents and grandparents of the deceased could receive a joint pension equal to 20 percent of the assessable remuneration of the deceased. The joint family pension was limited to two-thirds of the deceased person's assessable remuneration and the claims of wife or husband and children were to be met before those of parents and grandparents.

Seamen.—Every shipowner of a seagoing vessel was liable for workmen's compensation by the terms of the Seamen's Code (1934). The shipowner paid all the costs; and the benefits were the same as under the compulsory sickness-insurance system for seamen. In addition, cash benefits for invalidity or death resulting from accident to the crew member were to be insured with either a Hungarian or foreign company (1935 order). The cash benefits ranged from 2,000 pengös for an apprentice to 16,000 pengös for a master of a vessel and chief engineer. No liability existed for damages beyond these amounts compulsorily insured by the shipowner.

Wartime Policies

ESTABLISHMENT OF OFFICE OF WAR MOBILIZATION[1]

THE President, in an order of May 28, 1943, created an Office of War Mobilization. In this body, the President established the War Mobilization Committee whose chairman is to be the Director of the new office. In addition to the Director, the Committee is composed of the Secretaries of War and of the Navy, the Chairmen of the Munitions Assignments Board and of the War Production Board, and the Economic Stabilization Director.

The purpose of the Office of War Mobilization is to unify more clearly the work of the war agencies concerned with the production, procurement, transportation, and distribution of military and civilian supplies, materials, and products.

Under the chairmanship of the Director of War Mobilization, the Committee of War Mobilization will lay down unified policies and develop integrated programs and will see that the policies established and programs developed are expedited.

The text of the President's order establishing the new office follows:

By virtue of the authority vested in me by the Constitution and the statutes of the United States, particularly by the First War Powers Act, 1941, as President of the United States and as Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy, and in order to provide for the more effective coordination of the mobilization of the Nation for war, it is hereby ordered as follows:

I.

There is established in the Office for Emergency Management of the Executive Office of the President an Office of War Mobilization which shall be unde. the direction of a Director of War Mobilization (hereinafter referred to as Director), to be appointed by the President.

II.

There is established in the Office of War Mobilization the War Mobilization Committee (hereinafter referred to as the Committee), of which the Director shall be the Chairman and with which he shall advise and consult. The Committee shall consist, in addition to the Director, of the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Chairman of the Munitions Assignments Board, the Chairman of the War Production Board, and the Director of Economic Stabilization. The Chairman shall request the heads of other agencies or departments to participate in the deliberations of the Committee whenever matters specially affecting such agencies or departments are under consideration. It shall be the duty of the heads of the agencies and departments to supply necessary data to the Director and the Committee.

III.

It shall be the function of the Office of War Mobilization, acting in consultation with the Committee and subject to the direction and control of the President:

[1] Federal Register, June 1, 1943.

(a) To develop unified programs and to establish policies for the maximum use of the Nation's natural and industrial resources for military and civilian needs, for the effective use of the national manpower not in the armed forces, for the maintenance and stabilization of the civilian economy, and for the adjustment of such economy to war needs and conditions;

(b) To unify the activities of Federal agencies and departments engaged in or concerned with production, procurement, distribution or transportation of military or civilian supplies, materials and products, and to resolve and determine controversies between such agencies or departments, except those to be resolved by the Director of Economic Stabilization under section 3, Title IV of Executive Order 9250; and

(c) To issue such directives on policy or operations to the Federal agencies and departments as may be necessary to carry out the programs developed, the policies established, and the decisions made under this order. It shall be the duty of all such agencies and departments to execute these directives, and to make to the Office of War Mobilization such progress reports as may be required.

IV.

The Office of War Mobilization may perform the functions, exercise the powers, authority, and discretion conferred on it by this order through such officials and such agencies and in such manner, as the Director, subject to the provisions of this order, may determine. The Director shall receive such compensation as the President shall provide, and within the limits of funds which may be made available, may employ necessary personnel and make provision for supplies, facilities, and services necessary to discharge his responsibilities.

All prior executive orders insofar as they are in conflict herewith are amended accordingly.

STABILIZATION OF WAGES AND PRICES

THE stabilization order of April 8, 1943 (Executive Order No. 9328), was supplemented by a directive issued on May 12, 1943, by the Economic Stabilization Director.[1] The original order of April 8 limited the discretionary power of the War Labor Board in making wage and salary adjustments and contained no provision for wage increases to overcome "gross inequities and inequalities." [2] The War Labor Board was authorized, however, to make increases in wages or salaries to correct substandards of living and to make wage and salary readjustments to compensate for the 15-percent rise in cost of living between January 1, 1941, and May 1, 1942, as provided by the "Little Steel" formula.

Statistics released by the Board show that during the period October 3, 1942–March 19, 1943, more than half of the wage increases were granted on the basis of "gross inequities and inequalities." Of the total of 8,971 increases, 5,572 or 62 percent, were granted to eliminate or reduce inequalities, 18 percent were granted to compensate for the rise in cost of living, and less than 1 percent to raise substandard wages.[3]

As soon as the Executive order was issued, the War Labor Board notified all regional war labor boards to authorize no further increases except those in accordance with the "Little Steel" formula, and to correct substandards of living. In its instructions, the Board stated that decisions made by the boards prior to 7:30 p. m. on April 8,

[1] Federal Register, May 18, 1943.
[2] Idem, April 10, 1943.
[3] National War Labor Board, Report of Activity on Applications for Voluntary Wage or Salary Rate Adjustments, week ending March 19, 1943 (table 8). Washington, 1943. (Mimeographed.)

when the order was made public, could be issued and made effective.[4] At the same time the Board requested the return of part of its former power to grant wage increases for the correction of inequalities. On May 12, 1943, the Economic Stabilization Director returned to the War Labor Board most of the authority which it had lost through the issuance of the Executive order. In addition, the Stabilization Director's order reaffirmed the "Little Steel" formula. The new directive did not, however, restore the authority which the Board held, prior to April 1, to make wage adjustments for "inequalities."

The text of the directive order follows:

Executive Order No. 9328, dated April 8, 1943, is hereby supplemented under section 5 as follows:

1. In order to provide clear-cut guides and definite limits as a basis for correcting substandards of living, and as a basis for permitting the Board to make within the existing price structure and within existing levels of production costs, minimum and noninflationary adjustments which are deemed necessary to "aid in the effective prosecution of the war or to correct gross inequities" within the meaning of section 1 of the act of Oct. 2, 1942, the Board is authorized to establish as rapidly as possible, by occupational groups and labor-market areas, the wage-rate brackets embracing all those various rates found to be sound and tested going rates.

All the rates within these brackets are to be regarded as stabilized rates, not subject to change save as permitted by the Little Steel formula.

Except in rare and unusual cases in which the critical needs of war production require the setting of a wage at some point above the minimum of the going wage bracket, the minimum of the going rates within the brackets will be the point beyond which the adjustments mentioned above may not be made.

The careful application of these wage-rate brackets to concrete cases within the informed judgment of the War Labor Board will strengthen and reinforce the stabilization line to be held.

Maladjustments between wages and the cost of living will be considered by the Board only for the purpose of correcting substandard conditions of living or determining adjustments within the 15-percent limit of the Little Steel formula.

In connection with the approval of wage adjustments necessary to eliminate substandards of living or to give effect to the Little Steel formula or in connection with the adoption of a longer workweek, the Board may approve wage or salary adjustments for workers in immediately interrelated job classifications to the extent required to keep the minimum differentials between immediately interrelated job classifications necessary for the maintenance of productive efficiency.

2. All wage adjustments made by the Board which may furnish the basis either to increase price ceilings or to resist otherwise justifiable reductions in price ceilings, or if no price ceilings are involved which may increase the production costs above the level prevailing in comparable plants or establishments, shall become effective only if also approved by the Economic Stabilization Director.

The Board shall cooperate with the Office of Price Administration or such other agency as the Economic Stabilization Director may designate with a view to supplying the Economic Stabilization Director with the data necessary to judge the effect of any proposed wage adjustment on price ceilings and the levels of production costs.

First Decision Under Executive Order

In its first wage decision under the order of April 8, 1943, the War Labor Board held that many inequalities and inequities still existed in the American wage structure, but that under the order it had no authority to correct them, since according to the Executive order, only the Director of Economic Stabilization has such power. The case referred to involved workers employed by the Atlas Cement Co., whose employees had requested an increase of 5½ cents per hour be-

[4] Wage and Hour Reporter, Washington, April 12, 1943; The United States Law Week, Washington, April 20, 1943.

cause a similar raise had been granted to workers in two other units of the company. A report filed by a Board referee, before April 8, recommended that the increase be granted, although under the "Little Steel" 15-percent rule the employees were entitled to a raise of only 1.8 cents per hour. Staying within the limits of the order, the Board allowed an increase of 1.8 cents and an additional 0.2 cent for costs of bookkeeping.[5]

MEASURES FOR MAINTAINING EMPLOYMENT IN ESSENTIAL ACTIVITIES

ON APRIL 17, 1943, the War Manpower Commission issued a revised list of 35 essential industries and activities. It differs from the original list of December 9, 1942, in only four particulars: In the later edition the subject of agriculture has been divided into agriculture, and agricultural services and commercial fishing; the classification "production of chemicals and allied products" has been expanded by adding the words "and essential derivatives thereof"; the term "heating, power, and illuminating services" has been expanded to "heating, power, water supply, and illuminating services;" and the fourth change has deleted the parenthetical phrase "other than Federal" after "Governmental services."

This list is one part of a 4-part plan by which the War Manpower Commission intends to keep disruption of vital production at a minimum.[1] The other parts are—

1. Manning tables which offer a method of evaluating the personnel and production problems of each plant and the best method of meeting them. These tables provide an inventory of the personnel and job classifications in each plant in which at least 75 percent of the activities are production for war or the performance of essential services. From such tables the employer can determine the number of employees subject to induction.

2. Lists of essential jobs within each of the 35 essential activities or services. The jobs so designated are (1) those requiring a training period of at least 6 months before an untrained worker can attain reasonable efficiency, (2) those essential to the industry, (3) and those in which the worker is irreplaceable.

3. The preparation of withdrawal and replacement schedules based upon information compiled in the manning tables. These schedules may be used, pending the completion of the manning tables, in plants which are facing a critical manpower situation requiring immediate attention. When such a schedule has been approved by the State Selective Service Director, it shall, unless revised, continue in operation for 6 months.

In addition to enabling the employers to have necessary information about their manpower problems, the list of essential activities also provides the basis for restricting the transfer of workers. On April 16, 1943, the War Manpower Commission prescribed regulations relating to the transfer of workers. These regulations state that—

1. Any employer engaged in an essential activity may hire for work in such activity any new employee who for the preceding 30 days was not engaged in an essential activity.

[5] Wage and Hour Reporter, Washington, April 19, 1943.
[1] War Manpower Commission, press releases of December 9, 1942, and April 17, 1943.

2. No employer shall hire for work in a nonessential activity any new employee who, during the preceding 30-day period, was engaged in an essential activity, if the wage or salary rate to be paid would exceed the rate most recently earned.

3. No employer shall hire for work in an essential activity any new employee who, during the preceding 30-day period, was engaged in an essential activity, if the wage or salary rate to be paid would exceed the rate most recently received, except as such hiring is "subject to, and permitted under an employment-stabilization program approved by the War Manpower Commission."

"Essential activity" is defined as any activity in the following list, or any activity approved by a regional manpower director as a locally needed activity.

The following is the revised list of essential industries and occupations as of April 17, 1943.[2]

1. Production of aircraft and parts.
2. Production of ships, boats, and parts.
3. Production of ordnance and accessories.
4. Production of ammunition.
5. Agriculture and commercial fishing:
   a. Agriculture.
   b. Agricultural services and commercial fishing.
6. Processing of food.
7. Forestry, logging, and lumbering.
8. Construction.
9. Coal mining.
10. Metal mining.
11. Nonmetallic mining and processing and quarrying.
12. Smelting, refining, and rolling of metal.
13. Production of metal shapes and forgings.
14. Finishing of metal products.
15. Production of industrial and agricultural equipment.
16. Production of machinery.
17. Production of chemicals and allied products and essential derivatives thereof.
18. Production of rubber products.
19. Production of leather products.
20. Production of textiles.
21. Production of apparel.
22. Production of stone, clay, and glass products.
23. Production of petroleum, natural gas, and petroleum and coal products.
24. Production of finished lumber products.
25. Production of transportation equipment.
26. Transportation services.
27. Production of materials for packing and shipping products.
28. Production of communication equipment.
29. Communication services.
30. Heating, power, water supply, and illuminating services.
31. Repair services.
32. Health and welfare services.
33. Educational services.
34. Governmental services.
35. Technical, scientific, and management services.

GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF COAL MINES[3]

THE Secretary of the Interior was ordered by the President, on May 1, 1943,[4] to take immediate possession of all coal mines in which a strike or stoppage had occurred or was threatened. The Secretary

[2] Federal Register, April 20, 1943.

[3] Data are from Federal Register, May 4, 1943; and United States Department of the Interior, press release, May 4, 1943.

[4] Executive Order No. 9340.

was authorized to operate such properties for the successful prosecution of the war and "to do all things necessary for or incidental to the production, sale, and distribution of coal." The President stated that the action was taken because "widespread stoppages have occurred in the coal industry and strikes are threatened which will obstruct the effective prosecution of the war by curtailing vitally needed production in the coal mines directly affecting the countless war industries and transportation systems dependent upon such mines."

Employment was to be provided for all employees who returned to work. Upon the request of the Secretary of the Interior, the Secretary of War was authorized to take suitable action to provide protection for workers and mines.

The Secretary of the Interior was directed to maintain customary working conditions in the mines and customary procedure for the adjustment of workers' grievances, and to recognize the right of the workers to continue their union membership, to bargain collectively, and to engage in concerted action for mutual aid or protection, "provided that such concerted activities do not interfere with the operations of the mines." Provision was made for the termination of Government operation of any mine at the discretion of the Secretary.

Following the issuance of the Executive order, the Secretary of the Interior took possession of those mines in which a strike or stoppage had occurred or was threatened, and directed mine officials and employees to perform their usual functions subject to his supervision. The president of each company, or its chief executive officer, was designated "operating manager for the United States" for the mine thus operated under Federal supervision. On May 4, 1943, the Secretary ordered the establishment of the 6-day week in all mines under his control.

The authority vested in the Secretary of the Interior by the Executive order was delegated by him to the Solid Fuels Administrator for War and to the Deputy Solid Fuels Administrator for War, created by Executive order of April 19, 1943.

CREATION OF SOLID FUELS ADMINISTRATION FOR WAR

EXECUTIVE Order No. 9332 of April 19, 1943, established within the Department of the Interior a Solid Fuels Administration for War.[1] This agency replaced the Office of the Solid Fuels Coordinator for National Defense, which had been established November 5, 1941.[2] Order No. 9332 designated the Secretary of the Interior to serve, ex officio, as the head of the agency, with the title of Solid Fuels Administrator.

The President defined the duties of the Administrator. That official is called upon to establish the policies, plans, and programs which will "assure for the prosecution of the war the conservation and most effective development and utilization of solid fuels in the United States and its Territories and possessions." These policies and programs are to regulate the operation of all branches of the solid-fuels

[1] Federal Register, Washington, D. C., April 24, 1943.
[2] Idem, March 10, 1943.

industries in order to meet military requirements as well as the requirements of essential industries and civilians. To make certain that these policies are carried out, the Administrator is authorized to issue all necessary directives to those engaged in the solid-fuels industries, and to appoint such general, regional, local, or functional solid-fuels industries committees or councils as he finds necessary.

COMPULSORY TRANSFER OF MANPOWER IN CANADA [1]

UNDER measures adopted by the Canadian Government during April 1943, men called for military service and found unfit may be directed into other employment, and others may be directed from less-essential to more-essential work. This is the first time that the compulsory powers for the wartime utilization of manpower have been invoked except for the military services, and the Government's action is regarded in Canada as an important stage in the movement toward more drastic regulation of manpower. The exercise of the compulsory powers is being looked to as a means of alleviating the labor shortages in essential industries, such as agriculture, base-metal mining, coal mining, and lumbering and logging. Experience will show the effectiveness of the measures; but it is believed necessary to try this method of manning the essential industries, which has operated successfully in Great Britain.

Transfer Between Civilian Employments

The Minister of Labor reported that it was expedient to simplify the procedure for directing employees of designated age classes to more-essential employment. On April 2, 1943, the Governor General in council authorized (by P. C. 2665) the Minister of Labor to forbid any employer or group or class of employers to retain in employment, without a permit, persons or groups or classes of persons to whom the Selective Service Mobilization Regulations apply and who are in an age class designated for the purpose of the regulations. A date is to be specified beyond which the affected employees may not be retained. Not only may the employer be required to obtain from a selective service officer a permit to retain an employee, but he may be obliged to terminate the employment of an employee in such manner as the officer may specify.

A selective service officer is empowered to carry out the instructions of the Minister of Labor by directing (in writing) any person covered to apply at once for specified employment which, in the officer's opinion, is suitable. The person must accept the work if it is offered to him and enter the employment at once. However, an officer may not direct a person to apply for employment that is available owing to a stoppage of work caused by a labor dispute.

[1] Data are from orders-in-council P. C. 2665 and 2907, and Winnipeg Free Press for April 28, 1943.

Assignment to Essential Work in Place of Military Service

In the judgment of the Minister of Labor it was expedient to provide for designating employees of military age to alternate (essential) employment and therefore P. C. 2907 was adopted on April 12. The order amends the National Selective Service Civilian Regulations. Employees subject to the Selective Service Mobilization Regulations may be required to perform alternate rather than military service in the event that they refuse to transfer to more-essential employment when required to do so under the existing regulations. If any person refuses to comply with an order of a selective service officer to transfer to essential work, the officer is required to send his name and address to the alternative service officer and such person will then be deemed to be one for whom alternate essential work may be prescribed.

POOL OF ENGINEERS FOR BRITISH MILITARY USE

CERTAIN types of engineers in Great Britain, between the ages of 20 and 45 years, were required to register with the employment exchanges late in March 1943, in order that a pool of technical officers might be available to the military services on short notice.[1] The Ministry of Labor foresaw the possibility that, at a certain stage in the war, the Government might find it expedient to provide substantial reinforcements of men qualified to become technical officers, with the full knowledge that the effect upon production would be serious. A situation might arise in which the servicing and repair of the machines already in use for war purposes would be of more immediate importance than the production of additional equipment.

The main groups covered by the special registration of persons having engineering skills were those who had had a general apprenticeship in mechanical or electrical engineering; those who had served an apprenticeship in a particular engineering craft, if they held an executive position above the rank of foreman or were employed in one of a number of specialized jobs; and members of the professional institutions and holders of the higher national certificate.

[1]Data are from report prepared by E. Mabel Hodgkinson, United States Embassy, London (No. 221).

Employment and Labor Conditions

MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN LARGE CITIES, 1929–38 [1]

Summary

MUNICIPAL employment in 84 cities with populations of 100,000 or more in 1930 was 6½ percent higher in 1938 than in 1929, and pay rolls were about 8 percent higher. The population of these cities rose 4½ percent from 1930 to 1940. The upward trend in employment and pay rolls was to a great extent caused by increases in New York City.

In 1938, educational work required from about 30 percent of all municipal employment in some cities to 55 percent or more in others. Protection of the public accounted for the next largest group. These two functions absorbed a somewhat larger share of all pay-roll expenditures than of employment, as the rates of pay for teachers, policemen, and firemen were higher than for most other city employees.

Per capita monthly pay-roll expenditures were generally highest in the largest cities, but there were some striking exceptions. The per capita average of $4.48 per month for New York City in 1938 was exceeded by that of Yonkers, N. Y. (a city of less than 143,000) and was nearly equaled by Boston, Mass. In contrast the Philadelphia per capita pay rolls were only about half, and those for Chicago less than two-thirds, as high as for New York. The range in per capita pay-roll expenditures was from $1.29 for Memphis, Tenn., to $4.58 for Yonkers. The variation reflects differences both in the extent of services rendered and in levels of pay. Memphis had 139 municipal employees per 10,000 inhabitants and Yonkers had 244; the average monthly payments per employee were $93 and $188, respectively.

Changes in per capita pay-roll expenditures from 1929 to 1938 were generally small. New York City showed an increase from $3.78 to $4.48; decreases were more common, however, particularly in areas in which population increased rapidly and staff and salary adjustments did not keep pace with population growth.

Scope of Study

This article summarizes information on municipal employment and pay rolls from 1929 through 1938 in cities with populations of 100,000 or more in 1930. Data were obtained from the State, County, and Municipal Survey conducted by the Division of Construction and

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

Public Employment of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Work Projects Administration.[2]

Data were obtained directly from the pay-roll records of the municipalities, and cover both full-time and part-time workers.[3] The figures presented do not include the value of any payments in kind, such as food, housing, and uniforms. Where city and county governments were combined and it was impossible to obtain city and county data separately, employment and pay rolls for the entire governmental unit were included in the tables.

Factors Affecting Employment and Pay Rolls

The contraction and expansion of services rendered by municipal governments, and therefore the volume of employment and pay-roll expenditures, are affected by a number of factors. The effects of some are Nation-wide, as, for example, changes attributable to the present war or to the dislocations of economic and social relationships which occurred between 1929 and the middle thirties.

The effect of such disturbances, however, varies with local factors, some of which are the city's size and rate of population growth, the industrial characteristics of the city and its tributary area, local custom and tradition, and constitutional and statutory provisions. Illustrations of the last are the combined city-county governments in 10 of the cities studied, and other differences in the distribution of functions among State, county, and city governments which will be noted later.

Trends in 84 Cities

For the group of 84 cities for which a 10-year comparison could be made, there was an upward trend in both municipal employment and pay rolls from 1929 to 1931, followed by a decrease through 1934 and a gradual recovery to a little above the 1931 level in 1938. Since retrenchments in the early thirties more commonly were made by cutting salaries and putting employees on part time rather than dispensing with their services altogether, downward adjustments in salaries were more severe than those in personnel. In 1934 employment was only 9 percent below the 1938 peak, but the difference in pay roll levels was 18 percent. The extent of the changes in both differed from city to city.

In 1938, a monthly average of more than 683,000 persons was employed in the 84 cities and monthly pay rolls averaged over $110,000,000. Almost 48 percent of the employment and 54 percent of the pay rolls were attributable to the 5 cities with populations of over 1,000,000 in 1930, which are shown separately in table 1.

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[2] The survey covered all State governments, all cities with populations of 50,000 or more in 1930, the related counties, and a sample of smaller cities and counties, townships, and special districts. Usable data were obtained for each of the 93 cities with populations of 100,000 or more except Washington, D. C., and Flint, Mich., but information complete enough for trend analysis of all years from 1929 through 1938 was available for only 84 cities.

More detailed information for individual cities is available in a series of separate publications. For a brief account of the purposes and methods of the survey, see Employment and Pay Rolls of the City of Scranton and Lackawanna County, Pennsylvania, 1929 through 1938 (U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics), SCM-1 revised.,

[3] Employees and pay rolls of municipal corporations and of school districts and other special-purpose governmental agencies serving the cities are included. For purposes of this intercity comparison, school employment was adjusted to show regular teachers as employed on a 12-month basis regardless of the length of the school year in individual cities.

TABLE 1.—*Trends of Municipal Employment and Pay Rolls in 84 Cities With Populations of 100,000 or More, 1929–38* [1]

Item	Average monthly employment or pay rolls in 1938	Index numbers [1938=100]									
		1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
Total, 84 cities: [2]											
Employment	683,102	94	96	99	95	91	91	92	96	98	100
Pay rolls	$110,531,746	93	97	99	91	83	82	86	91	95	100
Cities with populations of 1,000,000 or more: [2]											
Employment	325,374	91	92	96	91	88	87	89	95	98	100
Pay rolls	$59,850,657	88	92	94	86	80	80	83	90	94	100
City-county units: [3]											
New York:											
Employment	172,577	80	82	86	86	84	81	83	92	97	100
Pay rolls	$33,365,890	79	85	89	90	82	78	82	88	94	100
Philadelphia:											
Employment	32,177	116	119	120	110	104	104	103	105	100	100
Pay rolls	$4,913,766	108	114	114	99	91	98	98	104	100	100
City units:											
Chicago:											
Employment	50,820	97	96	100	94	92	91	94	98	97	100
Pay rolls	$9,771,103	97	97	97	79	74	76	80	86	88	100
Detroit:											
Employment	34,619	112	115	106	92	87	90	93	96	100	100
Pay rolls	$5,968,897	109	110	99	74	69	79	83	92	99	100
Los Angeles: [2]											
Employment	35,181	90	89	106	88	87	90	92	98	99	100
Pay rolls	$5,831,001	87	90	96	82	76	80	84	92	98	100
Cities with populations of 500,000 to 1,000,000:											
Employment	101,472	99	102	107	104	98	96	97	98	99	100
Pay rolls	$15,614,714	97	102	106	99	89	88	93	95	98	100
City-county units (4 cities): [3]											
Employment	67,191	96	100	105	103	96	94	95	96	98	100
Pay rolls	$10,097,027	96	101	105	99	89	88	93	95	98	100
City units (3 cities):											
Employment	34,281	104	106	110	106	101	98	100	101	100	100
Pay rolls	$5,517,687	99	104	107	99	89	89	93	95	98	100
Cities with populations of 100,000 to 500,000: [2]											
Employment	256,256	96	99	101	97	93	93	95	97	98	100
Pay rolls	$35,066,375	99	102	104	95	85	84	87	91	96	100
City-county units (4 cities): [3]											
Employment	21,211	96	99	98	95	93	92	93	98	99	100
Pay rolls	$2,644,182	100	103	103	96	87	83	85	92	97	100
City units (68 cities): [2]											
Employment	235,045	96	99	101	97	93	93	95	97	98	100
Pay rolls	$32,422,193	98	102	104	95	84	84	87	91	96	100

[1] Covers all cities with populations of 100,000 or more in 1930 except Akron, Cleveland, and Toledo, Ohio; Flint, Mich.; Houston, Tex.; Knoxville, Tenn.; Oklahoma City, Okla.; Peoria, Ill.; and Washington, D. C. Satisfactory data were not obtained for Flint and Washington; for the other 7 cities listed, figures were incomplete.

[2] Education data have been estimated for Hartford, Conn., 1929–33; for Louisville, Ky., 1929–30 and part of 1931; for Los Angeles, Calif., 1929–33; and for Reading, Pa., 1929–31. For information on minor omissions and data estimated, see published releases for individual cities. Employment data for schools have been adjusted to show regular teachers as employed in all 12 months, regardless of the length of the school year.

[3] 10 of the 84 cities are city-county units in which the city corporation exercises functions ordinarily performed by county governments. They are: New York and Philadelphia (over 1,000,000 population); Baltimore, St. Louis, Boston, and San Francisco (500,000 to 1,000,000 population); New Orleans, Denver, Richmond, and Norfolk (100,000 to 500,000 population).

Smaller cities in which the municipal corporations exercise county as well as city functions have been segregated in table 1 from those which perform only municipal functions. For cities in the population class 100,000 to 500,000, there were only minor differences in the indexes for the city-county units and the city units. Both had slightly higher employment indexes in 1938 than in 1929. In the group with populations of 500,000 to 1,000,000 the city units had fewer employees in 1938 than at the beginning of the period while city-county units had more. Neither type of governmental unit, however, had as high employment or pay rolls in 1938 as at the peak in 1931.

Employment and pay rolls for the five largest cities showed divergent trends over the decade: New York City and Los Angeles had sizable increases and there was a slight upward tendency in Chicago, but declines occurred in Philadelphia and Detroit. Since New York City had larger employment and pay rolls in 1938 than the other four cities combined and also showed the greatest increases over 1929, it dominated the comparison for the five cities.

Specific local conditions in large part determined the year-to-year changes for individual cities. Several such factors contributed to the increases in New York City, one of which was the city's population growth. During 1938 the fire department was changed from a 2-platoon to a 3-platoon system of rotating tours of duty, thereby shortening hours of work of the majority of the firemen and increasing the force. Furthermore, the municipal government of New York City performed county as well as city functions and a large part of the increase was in typically county functions such as public assistance and health.

Los Angeles had a greater increase in population between 1930 and 1940 than any other city with over a million inhabitants, with the attendant need for expansion of municipal services. An additional factor in the growth of employment and pay rolls in Los Angeles between 1929 and 1938 was the purchase by the city of a gas and electric system formerly operated by a private corporation. The city of Los Angeles expanded its health and welfare activities little during the decade, as such work was primarily a function of the Los Angeles County government.

Chicago's population was about the same in 1940 as in 1930, and municipal employment fluctuated comparatively little between 1929 and 1938 although there was a slight rise during the decade. Pay rolls followed the same general trend as employment, but fluctuated more because of pay cuts. The sharp rise in pay rolls from 1937 to 1938 resulted from general pay increases, coupled with higher employment in most departments. The most important salary adjustments covered teachers and policemen. Summer-school sessions were also held for the first time in several years.

Although county and city activities were combined in Philadelphia, employment and pay rolls were lower in 1938 than in 1929. This decline was in part attributable to a shift of population into surrounding areas, but was caused more by financial conditions unfavorable to replacement of personnel. Restoration of salary rates in effect at the beginning of the decade was also delayed, especially in the case of school teachers.

Municipal employment and pay rolls in Detroit were lower in 1938 than in 1929, despite a slight increase in population from 1930 to 1940. The contraction occurred chiefly in municipally operated public services, sanitation, and public works, including street maintenance. The number employed in the city's health and welfare activities increased from 1929 to 1938.

The relative importance of the major governmental functions in these five largest cities, and the intercity differences in 1938, are shown in some detail in table 2.[4]

[4] For similar information for each of the 91 cities, see Serial No. R 1540.

TABLE 2.—*Municipal Employment and Pay Rolls of 5 Largest Cities, by Function, 1938*[1]

Functional division	New York [2]	Chicago [3]	Philadelphia [4]	Detroit [4]	Los Angeles [5]
1940 population	7,455,000	3,397,000	1,931,000	1,623,000	1,504,000
Employment					
Number of employees, all divisions	[2] 172,577	50,820	32,177	34,619	35,181
Education	[6] 52,164	19,680	11,945	11,697	15,358
Public-service enterprises	[2] 10,564	1,479	808	6,319	7,069
Other divisions	109,849	29,661	19,424	16,603	12,754
Percentage distribution					
All divisions	[2] 100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education	[6] 30.2	38.7	37.1	33.8	43.7
Public-service enterprises	[7] 6.1	[8] 2.9	2.5	18.2	20.1
Other divisions	63.7	58.4	60.4	48.0	36.2
All divisions, except education and public-service enterprises	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
General government	[7] 10.1	8.4	[9] 15.4	6.7	6.5
Protection	28.2	36.3	[9] 40.3	36.7	39.4
Public works and sanitation	[7] 21.2	[8] 33.3	20.3	23.0	35.2
Health	19.6	6.3	14.6	14.6	4.0
Services and inspections	2.4	2.4	3.5	4.8	2.7
Hospitals	17.2	3.9	11.1	[10] 9.8	1.3
Welfare	12.4	[8] 1.0	2.0	[10] 8.3	.1
Recreation	6.4	[8] 10.9	4.8	6.7	8.5
Libraries	1.6	3.1	2.6	3.9	5.9
All other	.5	.7	----	.1	.4
Pay rolls					
All divisions	[2] $33,366,000	$9,771,000	$4,914,000	$5,969,000	$5,831,000
Education	12,371,000	3,686,000	2,040,000	2,122,000	2,580,000
Public-service enterprises	[2] 1,806,000	320,000	95,000	996,000	1,121,000
Other divisions	19,189,000	5,765,000	2,779,000	2,851,000	2,130,000
Percentage distribution					
All divisions	[2] 100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education	37.1	37.7	41.5	35.5	44.2
Public-service enterprises	[7] 5.4	[8] 3.3	1.9	16.7	19.2
Other divisions	57.5	59.0	56.6	47.8	36.6
All divisions, except education and public-service enterprises	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
General government	[7] 13.3	9.7	[9] 19.1	8.2	6.5
Protection	38.9	40.2	[9] 50.4	47.1	47.1
Public works and sanitation	[7] 22.1	[8] 33.2	15.5	18.2	33.4
Health	9.8	5.2	8.4	10.7	3.8
Services and inspections	2.1	2.6	3.2	4.6	2.5
Hospitals	7.7	2.6	5.2	[10] 6.1	1.3
Welfare	9.2	[8] .9	2.1	[10] 7.4	.1
Recreation	5.0	[8] 8.1	2.9	5.2	5.6
Libraries	1.1	1.8	1.6	3.1	3.1
All other	.6	.9	----	.1	.4

[1] Includes schools and colleges; employment data adjusted to show regular teachers as employed in all 12 months regardless of length of school year.
[2] Housing authority not included.
[3] Includes housing authority and park district.
[4] Includes housing authority.
[5] Includes housing authority and junior college district.
[6] Number of evening-school teachers not also employed as day-school teachers estimated.
[7] Part of public-service enterprises included with general government and part with public works and sanitation.
[8] Docks and terminals included with public works and sanitation; airport and some public works construction included with recreation and some with welfare.
[9] Some general-government-building maintenance included with protection.
[10] Part of hospitals included with welfare.

Regional Variations in Trends and Functions

In all geographic divisions, municipal employment in cities with populations of 100,000 to 500,000 was greater in 1938 than in 1929 (table 3).[5] However, the course of employment in the intervening years varied in different parts of the country. In cities in the New England, Middle Atlantic, and Pacific divisions, municipal employment was higher in 1930 or 1931 than in 1938, whereas in the other divisions shown in table 3 the peak occurred in 1938. In all but one division the lowest point in the employment indexes was reached in 1933 or 1934. Failure of municipal employment in New England and Middle Atlantic cities to recover to the level of the early thirties may be attributed in part to the slight decrease in population in these cities from 1930 to 1940. In all areas fluctuations in pay rolls were much wider than in employment because of pay cuts and part-time work, but indexes for both followed about the same timing patterns.

Regional comparisons of the distribution of employment and pay rolls in these cities among three major functional groups [6] are given in table 4 (p. 1104). Education accounted for approximately half of the municipal employees and a slightly higher proportion of the pay rolls in some sections of the country and in all sections for at least 35 percent of the respective totals. In general, the relative size of employment and pay rolls for this function was maintained or increased throughout the decade.

Employment on public-service enterprises (e. g., the operation of waterworks, transit systems, housing authorities, and so forth) varied from approximately 4 percent of total municipal employment in New England to 16 or 18 percent in the Pacific States. However, both employment and pay rolls for public-service enterprises in Pacific cities were lower in 1938 than in 1929, chiefly because of reductions in employees of the Port of Portland Commission and in those of the waterworks and street-railway system of Seattle. In the East and West North Central and East South Central cities there was a definite upward trend in employment and pay rolls for public-service enterprises.

[5] Excluding city-county units. See footnotes to table 3.

[6] Education, public-service enterprises, and other divisions (i. e., general city activities). The latter include the specific functions of general government, protection, etc. (See table 2.)

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Municipal Employment and Pay Rolls in Cities With Populations of 100,000 to 500,000 by Geographic Division, 1929–38* [1]

[Monthly average for 1938=100]

Year	12 New England cities		14 Middle Atlantic cities		11 East North Central cities [2]		8 West North Central cities		5 South Atlantic cities (I) [3]	
	Employment	Pay rolls	Employment	Pay rolls	Employment	Pay rolls	Employment	Pay rolls	Employment	Pay rolls
1929	99	99	96	97	96	100	93	98	96	95
1930	101	102	99	102	98	104	96	101	95	95
1931	106	105	104	107	99	104	97	101	95	94
1932	100	96	99	99	95	93	96	95	92	82
1933	96	87	95	90	93	84	91	80	91	78
1934	98	88	95	88	92	83	92	82	91	81
1935	98	92	97	90	93	85	93	86	97	84
1936	100	94	98	93	93	87	96	91	97	89
1937	97	95	99	97	98	94	97	93	99	94
1938	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	5 South Atlantic cities (II) [4]		5 East South Central cities [5]		5 West South Central cities [6]		1 Mountain city [7]		7 Pacific cities	
1929	92	92	92	98	90	99	95	95	99	101
1930	91	92	97	103	96	106	96	97	102	104
1931	92	92	98	102	98	107	100	99	101	103
1932	90	81	95	92	90	88	96	90	96	93
1933	88	74	93	84	87	75	96	85	92	81
1934	90	78	92	84	86	77	96	85	91	78
1935	95	83	94	88	92	87	95	88	92	81
1936	96	89	96	92	96	92	94	90	96	88
1937	98	94	99	98	99	98	98	96	100	96
1938	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

[1] Covers 68 of the 80 cities having populations between 100,000 and 500,000 in 1930; 4 were excluded because they had combined city-county governments, 6 because of incompleteness of data in one or more years, and 2 because satisfactory data were not obtained. For information on minor omissions and on data estimated, see published releases for individual cities. Employment data for schools have been adjusted to show regular teachers as employed in all 12 months, regardless of length of school year.

[2] Data not included for Akron or Toledo, Ohio; Peoria, Ill.; or Flint, Mich.

[3] Data not included for city-county governments of Richmond and Norfolk, Va., or for Washington, D. C. No data for education are included for Miami, Jacksonville, and Tampa, Fla., which have county-operated schools.

[4] Data are not included for city-county governments of Richmond and Norfolk, Va., or for Washington, D. C. Estimated data for education in Miami, Jacksonville, and Tampa are included here for comparability with other regions.

[5] Data not included for Knoxville, Tenn.

[6] Data not included for the combined government of New Orleans and Orleans Parish, La.; or for Oklahoma City, Okla., and Houston, Tex.

[7] Salt Lake City; data not included for city-county government of Denver.

TABLE 4.—*Functional Distribution of Municipal Employment and Pay Rolls in Cities With Populations of 100,000 to 500,000, by Geographic Division, 1929–38* [1]

Geographic division and year	Monthly average for all functions		Percent of monthly average for all functions					
			Employment			Pay rolls		
	Employment	Pay rolls	Education	Public-service enterprises	All other	Education	Public-service enterprises	All other
New England (12 cities):								
1929	35,798	$5,106,772	38.7	4.2	57.1	40.6	4.2	55.2
1930	36,623	5,271,285	38.5	4.3	57.2	40.7	4.2	55.1
1931	38,395	5,396,209	37.1	4.1	58.8	40.3	4.1	55.6
1932	36,283	4,960,706	38.6	4.1	57.3	41.5	4.0	54.5
1933	34,739	4,488,334	39.4	3.9	56.7	42.5	3.9	53.6
1934	35,561	4,509,336	37.9	3.9	58.2	39.6	3.9	56.5
1935	35,326	4,722,147	38.3	4.2	57.5	41.7	4.1	54.2
1936	36,015	4,834,939	38.1	4.7	57.2	41.6	4.1	54.3
1937	35,032	4,901,292	38.6	4.1	57.3	42.0	4.1	53.9
1938	36,167	5,147,213	37.2	4.3	58.5	41.0	4.0	55.0
Middle Atlantic (14 cities):								
1929	49,289	7,766,690	42.7	5.5	51.8	44.8	5.3	49.9
1930	50,827	8,188,857	42.7	5.6	51.7	44.9	5.3	49.8
1931	53,363	8,590,669	41.6	5.6	52.8	44.8	5.2	50.0
1932	50,590	7,967,259	43.3	5.4	51.3	46.5	4.8	48.7
1933	48,678	7,254,517	43.6	5.5	50.9	47.5	4.6	47.9
1934	48,387	7,068,414	43.7	5.4	50.9	46.7	4.7	48.6
1935	49,452	7,221,776	43.2	5.4	51.4	46.4	4.8	48.8
1936	50,224	7,470,357	43.0	5.4	51.6	46.0	4.9	49.1
1937	50,779	7,821,877	42.7	5.2	52.1	45.7	4.8	49.5
1938	51,157	8,035,221	42.8	5.5	51.7	45.9	4.9	49.2
East North Central (11 cities): [2]								
1929	34,457	4,957,768	48.4	6.6	45.0	52.9	5.9	41.2
1930	35,368	5,125,026	48.4	7.0	44.6	53.2	6.1	40.7
1931	35,710	5,109,330	48.0	7.1	44.9	52.8	6.2	41.0
1932	34,256	4,587,475	47.7	6.5	45.8	53.0	5.6	41.4
1933	33,522	4,162,572	47.1	6.7	46.2	52.6	5.9	41.5
1934	33,000	4,090,980	47.9	6.5	45.6	52.6	6.0	41.4
1935	33,294	4,188,713	47.7	7.3	45.0	52.5	6.7	40.8
1936	33,421	4,296,228	48.4	8.8	42.8	52.4	7.9	39.7
1937	35,138	4,646,289	48.6	8.8	42.6	51.5	8.2	40.3
1938	35,919	4,934,078	46.8	8.8	44.4	50.5	8.0	41.5
West North Central (8 cities):								
1929	31,916	4,342,489	46.1	8.1	45.8	48.9	7.7	43.4
1930	32,946	4,515,882	45.3	8.4	46.3	48.3	7.9	43.8
1931	33,242	4,516,022	45.3	8.9	45.8	48.9	8.2	42.9
1932	33,008	4,232,382	45.3	9.4	45.3	49.7	8.7	41.6
1933	30,989	3,560,946	46.2	9.8	44.0	50.1	9.0	40.9
1934	31,599	3,657,876	45.4	10.1	44.5	48.8	9.4	41.8
1935	31,915	3,835,748	45.7	9.4	44.9	48.9	9.1	42.0
1936	32,836	4,052,151	45.1	9.4	45.5	48.2	9.2	42.6
1937	33,079	4,130,427	44.9	9.6	45.5	48.2	9.2	42.6
1938	34,192	4,454,290	45.3	9.4	45.3	46.0	9.3	44.7
South Atlantic (I) (5 cities): [3]								
1929	11,274	1,356,410	21.3	13.1	65.6	25.0	11.8	63.2
1930	11,154	1,352,516	22.1	13.3	64.6	25.9	12.2	61.9
1931	11,117	1,339,163	23.4	12.9	63.7	26.4	12.2	61.4
1932	10,825	1,176,200	24.0	12.2	63.8	28.1	12.0	59.9
1933	10,665	1,112,489	24.4	12.2	63.4	29.0	11.4	59.6
1934	10,686	1,155,003	25.2	12.0	62.8	27.6	11.5	60.9
1935	11,365	1,202,327	24.4	12.4	63.2	26.5	11.8	61.7
1936	11,368	1,274,857	24.8	12.2	63.0	26.5	11.7	61.8
1937	11,554	1,347,812	24.4	12.3	63.3	26.7	11.7	61.6
1938	11,698	1,429,937	24.4	12.2	63.4	27.8	11.4	60.8
South Atlantic (II) (5 cities): [4]								
1929	13,642	1,579,443	35.0	10.8	54.2	35.6	10.1	54.3
1930	13,549	1,581,402	35.9	10.9	53.2	36.7	10.4	52.9
1931	13,619	1,579,173	37.5	10.5	52.0	37.6	10.3	52.1
1932	13,352	1,404,706	38.4	9.9	51.7	39.8	10.0	50.2
1933	13,069	1,279,138	38.4	9.9	51.7	38.2	9.9	51.9
1934	13,268	1,347,040	39.8	9.7	50.5	38.0	9.8	52.2
1935	14,108	1,428,242	39.1	10.0	50.9	38.1	10.0	51.9
1936	14,311	1,530,968	40.3	9.7	50.0	38.8	9.8	51.4
1937	14,606	1,628,905	40.2	9.7	50.1	39.4	9.7	50.9
1938	14,829	1,726,164	40.4	9.6	50.0	40.2	9.5	50.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Functional Distribution of Municipal Employment and Pay Rolls in Cities With Populations of 100,000 to 500,000, by Geographic Division, 1929–38* [1]—Con.

Geographic division and year	Monthly average for all functions		Percent of monthly average for all functions					
			Employment			Pay rolls		
	Employment	Pay rolls	Education	Public-service enterprises	All other	Education	Public-service enterprises	All other
East South Central (5 cities): [5]								
1929	16,293	$1,806,055	43.6	4.8	51.6	44.1	4.8	51.1
1930	17,092	1,901,173	44.0	5.4	50.6	44.5	5.2	50.3
1931	17,291	1,878,705	44.4	5.0	50.6	44.9	5.1	50.0
1932	16,726	1,702,417	44.3	5.4	50.3	44.6	5.4	50.0
1933	16,414	1,555,718	44.3	5.4	50.3	45.9	5.6	48.5
1934	16,296	1,555,570	44.3	5.4	50.3	45.2	5.7	49.1
1935	16,676	1,621,081	44.6	5.7	49.7	44.4	6.0	49.6
1936	16,955	1,694,442	44.2	5.6	50.2	44.0	5.9	50.1
1937	17,504	1,815,756	43.4	5.5	51.1	44.1	5.7	50.2
1938	17,681	1,847,492	43.3	6.0	50.7	43.9	6.4	49.7
West South Central (5 cities): [6]								
1929	14,192	1,733,602	47.4	7.6	45.0	49.4	6.7	43.9
1930	15,144	1,851,378	46.4	7.1	46.5	48.9	6.6	44.5
1931	15,450	1,874,122	47.0	6.7	46.3	49.3	6.3	44.4
1932	14,219	1,555,235	51.0	6.8	42.2	53.0	6.1	40.9
1933	13,615	1,311,319	52.7	6.3	41.0	51.4	6.6	42.0
1934	13,510	1,343,886	53.0	6.1	40.9	53.6	6.0	40.4
1935	14,482	1,515,401	52.3	5.8	41.9	54.4	5.5	40.1
1936	15,132	1,609,781	52.3	5.6	42.1	53.9	5.4	40.7
1937	15,489	1,705,107	51.1	5.8	43.1	52.6	5.5	41.9
1938	15,711	1,747,619	50.8	6.1	43.1	51.5	5.9	42.6
Mountain (1 city): [7]								
1929	2,454	302,210	50.3	6.3	43.4	52.4	5.6	42.0
1930	2,474	306,404	50.3	6.3	43.4	52.8	5.8	41.4
1931	2,579	315,549	49.4	6.6	44.0	52.0	6.0	42.0
1932	2,474	284,717	53.1	6.6	40.3	57.4	5.2	37.4
1933	2,459	269,142	52.4	6.0	41.6	55.1	5.0	39.9
1934	2,466	268,597	51.6	7.1	41.3	52.7	6.3	41.0
1935	2,441	279,388	51.7	6.2	42.1	52.1	5.7	42.2
1936	2,423	286,339	52.4	6.1	41.5	52.3	5.9	41.8
1937	2,529	306,167	50.0	6.5	43.5	50.4	6.2	43.4
1938	2,575	317,309	50.6	6.3	43.1	51.3	6.1	42.6
Pacific (7 cities):								
1929	29,754	4,551,382	41.9	18.7	39.4	42.4	17.3	40.3
1930	30,600	4,709,593	42.5	18.3	39.2	42.8	17.3	39.9
1931	30,323	4,658,768	43.3	17.4	39.3	43.5	16.5	40.0
1932	28,857	4,183,713	43.7	16.8	39.5	45.1	14.7	40.2
1933	27,424	3,641,234	45.3	15.9	38.8	46.3	15.1	38.6
1934	27,277	3,538,249	46.1	16.1	37.8	45.9	15.9	38.2
1935	27,706	3,671,303	47.2	16.2	36.6	46.6	15.9	37.5
1936	28,833	3,958,673	47.0	16.6	36.4	46.8	16.2	37.0
1937	29,971	4,339,651	46.3	16.8	36.9	45.3	16.7	38.0
1938	29,945	4,509,034	46.8	16.1	37.1	46.4	16.0	37.6

[1] Covers 68 of the 80 cities having populations between 100,000 and 500,000 in 1930; 4 were excluded because they had combined city-county governments, 6 because of incompleteness of data in one or more years, and 2 because satisfactory data were not obtained. For information on minor omissions and on data estimated, see published releases for individual cities. Employment data for schools have been adjusted to show regular teachers as employed in all 12 months, regardless of length of school year.

[2] Data not included for Akron or Toledo, Ohio; Peoria, Ill.; or Flint, Mich.

[3] Data not included for city-county governments of Richmond and Norfolk, Va., or for Washington, D. C. No data for education are included for Miami, Jacksonville, and Tampa, Fla., which have county-operated schools.

[4] Data not included for city-county governments of Richmond and Norfolk, Va., or for Washington, D. C. Estimated data for education in Miami, Jacksonville, and Tampa, Fla., are included here for comparability with other regions.

[5] Data not included for Knoxville, Tenn.

[6] Data not included for the combined government of New Orleans and Orleans Parish, La.; or for Oklahoma City, Okla., and Houston, Tex.

[7] Salt Lake City; data not included for city-county government of Denver.

Employees in the remaining municipal functions were combined in table 4. In most cities police and fire protection and public works and sanitation were the largest of the specific functions grouped under "other divisions," but health activities accounted for a substantial proportion of the employees in cities maintaining hospitals. The pro-

portion of employees engaged on all such functions varied from a little less than two-fifths of the total in the Pacific Division to almost three-fifths in New England. Although the corresponding proportions of total pay rolls were slightly lower, pay rolls were high in relation to employment for several types of work in this broad group, e. g., for general government[7] and police and fire protection. The ratio of pay rolls to employment was low for public works and sanitation, on which a large proportion of relatively unskilled labor is used, and for health and welfare activities, in which some of the workers receive complete or partial subsistence in addition to their salaries or wages.

Cities with combined city-county activities were excluded from the geographic comparison, but the pattern of municipal activities in the remaining cities was affected to some extent by other differences in the governmental framework. In New England, for example, it is customary for cities to provide institutional care and perform welfare work which elsewhere are more commonly functions of the county or State. This accounts for the disproportionately large fraction of municipal employees in New England engaged on functions other than education and public-service enterprises. However, the relative importance of health and welfare activities varied considerably among New England cities, accounting in 1938 for more than a third of all employment other than that for education and public service in Fall River and Worcester, Mass., and a fourth in Hartford, Conn., but only 10 percent in Lynn, Mass.

The South Atlantic Division contained the least homogeneous group of cities with respect to governmental organization. Education is a county function in Florida and the inclusion of Jacksonville, Miami, and Tampa in the South Atlantic comparison resulted in this division's having a smaller proportion of municipal employees engaged in educational activities than any other section of the country. However, when the figures were adjusted for county school personnel employed in these three Florida cities (see tables 3 and 4), the South Atlantic cities as a group had about the same proportion of their employees engaged in educational activities as the New England cities.

Employment and Pay Rolls in Relation to Population

To facilitate intercity comparisons of the size of the staffs and pay rolls required for municipal services, the employment and pay-roll series are shown in table 5 in terms of the population served. Because it was impossible to separate county from municipal services in 6 of the 13 cities with populations of half a million or more, data for the remaining 7 were made roughly comparable by adding to the per capita figures for ordinary municipal purposes the corresponding per capita figures for the counties in which the cities are situated.

Per capita pay-roll expenditures tended to be highest in the large cities, but there were exceptions to this generalization—notably Philadelphia and Baltimore. The comparatively small expenditures in Baltimore and Philadelphia reflected both low ratios of municipal employees to population and low monthly payments per employee. Chicago's per capita expenditures were small, despite a high salary level, because of the comparatively small number of employees.

[7] The function of general government included a variety of divisions such as legislative, judicial, executive, finance, purchasing, recording, and building maintenance.

TABLE 5.—*Municipal Employment and Pay Rolls in Relation to Population, 1929 and 1938* [1]

City or city group	Population, 1940		Average monthly employment per 10,000 of population [2]		Average monthly pay-roll expenditure per capita [2]		Average monthly payment per employee	
	Number	Percent of increase from 1930	1929	1938	1929	1938	1929	1938
	City and county activities combined							
Population over 1,000,000	15,910,866	5.6	207	218	$3.66	$3.95	$177	$181
New York	7,454,995	7.6	200	231	3.78	4.48	189	194
Chicago [3]	3,396,808	.6	165	172	3.14	3.26	190	190
Philadelphia	1,931,334	[4] 1.0	191	167	2.73	2.54	143	152
Detroit [3]	1,623,452	3.5	266	237	4.46	4.06	168	171
Los Angeles [3]	1,504,277	21.5	309	298	4.79	4.63	155	155
Population 500,000 and under 1,000,000 [5]	4,915,532	1.1	215	222	3.23	3.38	150	152
Cleveland [3]	878,336	[4] 2.5	(6)	231	(6)	3.47	(6)	150
Baltimore	859,100	6.7	180	191	2.34	2.43	130	127
St. Louis	816,048	[4] .7	198	201	2.89	2.92	146	145
Boston	770,816	[4] 1.3	259	270	4.06	4.28	157	159
Pittsburgh [3]	671,659	.3	208	202	3.21	3.30	154	163
San Francisco	634,536	(7)	215	214	3.49	3.66	162	171
Milwaukee [3]	587,472	1.6	217	244	3.15	3.68	145	151
Buffalo [3]	575,901	.5	237	243	3.68	3.73	155	153
Population 250,000 and under 500,000	816,949	9.4	194	185	2.54	2.34	131	127
New Orleans	494,537	7.8	184	177	2.31	2.14	126	121
Denver	322,412	12.0	209	198	2.92	2.66	140	134
Population 100,000 and under 250,000	337,374	7.9	186	180	2.36	2.16	127	120
Richmond	193,042	5.5	188	194	2.44	2.47	130	127
Norfolk	144,332	11.3	184	161	2.26	1.74	123	108
	City activities only [8]							
Population over 1,000,000	6,524,537	5.5	194	185	$3.40	$3.31	$175	$179
Chicago	3,396,808	.6	146	150	2.80	2.88	192	192
Detroit	1,623,452	3.5	248	213	4.15	3.68	167	173
Los Angeles	1,504,277	21.5	254	234	4.11	3.88	162	166
Population 500,000 and under 1,000,000 [5]	1,835,032	.8	195	187	2.99	3.01	153	161
Cleveland	878,336	[4] 2.5	(6)	207	(6)	3.12	(6)	151
Pittsburgh	671,659	.3	180	168	2.76	2.79	153	166
Milwaukee	587,472	1.6	189	188	2.82	2.97	149	158
Buffalo	575,901	.5	219	207	3.43	3.30	157	159
Population 250,000 and under 500,000 [1]	6,089,848	3.5	183	187	2.63	2.61	144	140
Population 100,000 and under 250,000 [9]	6,976,843	4.5	180	178	2.49	2.41	138	135
Population 100,000 and under 500,000 [1]	13,066,691	4.0	181	182	2.56	2.50	141	137
New England	1,709,082	[4] .6	208	212	2.97	3.01	143	142
Middle Atlantic	2,495,296	[4] 1.2	195	205	3.07	3.22	157	157
East North Central [1]	2,228,259	2.6	159	161	2.28	2.21	144	138
West North Central	1,900,436	4.0	175	180	2.38	2.34	136	130
South Atlantic [10]	868,420	20.9	190	171	2.20	1.99	116	116
East South Central [1]	1,175,167	7.4	149	150	1.65	1.57	111	105
West South Central [1]	965,217	7.3	158	163	1.93	1.81	122	111
Mountain	149,934	6.9	175	172	2.15	2.12	123	123
Pacific	1,574,880	7.6	203	190	3.11	2.86	153	151

[1] Covers all except 8 of the 93 cities with populations of 100,000 or more in 1930. Data are not included for the following because figures for 1929 were incomplete: cities of 250,000 to 500,000—Toledo and Houston; 100,000 to 250,000—Akron, Peoria, Knoxville, and Oklahoma City. Satisfactory data were not obtained for Washington, D. C., or Flint. For notes on estimated figures and additional data on individual cities see table 1, appendix table B, of Serial No. R. 1540 and published releases.

[2] Figures for 1929 and 1938 are computed on the basis of the population censuses of 1930 and 1940, respectively.

[3] Per capita figures for the related county have been added to the city figures to make them comparable with data for cities in which city and county functions are not separable.

[4] Decrease.

[5] Cleveland not included in any totals or averages for this group.

[6] Data incomplete.

[7] Increase less than a tenth of 1 percent.

[8] Excluding cities in which data for city and county are not separable.

[9] See footnote 1. Estimated data for the schools of Jacksonville, Miami, and Tampa have been included although the schools are actually county operated. See table 4.

[10] Estimated data for the schools of Jacksonville, Miami, and Tampa have been included, although the schools are actually county operated. See table 4.

A regional comparison of city units with populations of 100,000 to 500,000 in 1930 [8] shows that per capita expenditures for municipal activities were noticeably higher in cities in the Middle Atlantic, New England, and Pacific States than in other parts of the country in 1938. These three sections also had the greatest number of municipal employees per 10,000 of population and the highest average payments per employee. Population declined slightly in the New England and Middle Atlantic cities during the thirties, and municipal employment and pay rolls increased in relation to population. In the Pacific cities, however, employment and pay rolls increased less than population, reflecting a tendency for the expansion of such municipal functions as education and protection to lag somewhat behind population changes. Municipal pay-roll levels in 1938 were lower in Southern cities than in other sections and per capita pay-roll expenditures also were lowest in the South.

INDUSTRIAL CANTEENS IN GREAT BRITAIN

AN ORDER of the British Ministry of Labor and National Service of April 7, 1943,[9] provided that the occupier of any factory in which more than 250 workers are employed in the performance of services or engaged in services or operations which are essential for the defense of the realm or the efficient prosecution of the war, or are engaged in dangerous or injurious occupations must, if directed in writing by the Chief Inspector of Factories, provide suitable canteen facilities where hot meals may be purchased by the workers. The order, effective April 19, 1943, revoked a previous order of November 11, 1940,[10] which provided that employers engaged in munitions work or work on behalf of the Crown might be required to provide such facilities.

The new order stipulates that the canteen must be in or in the immediate vicinity of a factory or a group of factories. Regardless of whether or not the canteen was established in accordance with this order, if the canteen arrangements are not satisfactory as regards construction, size, equipment, meals supplied, services rendered, etc., the factory inspector may serve notice upon the occupier of the factory, whose duty it shall be to make arrangements to remedy such defects. The revocation of the previous order did not affect anything which had been done or any direction which had been given under the original order.

Since early in 1940 the Government has actively promoted the establishment of communal feeding centers both for the general population and for workers in factories. The progress made, up to the spring of 1942, was indicated in a statement by the Minister of Labor and National Service in a House of Commons debate on factory welfare in July 1942.[11] He reported that, of the factories engaged on Government work and employing more than 250 people each, 3,540 had established canteens by April 1942, and 803 additional canteens were in course of being established at that time. This number, which did not include factories with mess rooms only, represented 96 percent

[8] For per capita figures for each of the 91 cities, see Serial No. R. 1540.

[9] Great Britain, Statutory Rules and Orders 1943, No. 573, Emergency Powers (Defense), Factories (Canteens) Order, 1943, made by the Minister of Labor and National Service, under Regulation 60 of the Defense (General) Regulations, 1939.

[10] See Monthly Labor Review, December 1941 (p. 1401).

[11] Industrial Welfare and Personnel Management (London), September–October 1942.

of the factories engaged in war work which employed more than 250 persons. Of the smaller factories, 3,000 had canteens. A recent report (April 1943) from the United States Embassy at London[4] gives the total number of canteens as about 7,500; and it points out that the Chief Inspector of Factories, in his 1941 report, stated that the canteens in which workers are themselves associated with the management are more successful than those run by outside caterers.

The provision of nourishing food for persons doing heavy work (steel workers, dock workers, miners, etc.) has required special attention, particularly in view of the limitations imposed by food shortages. One of the industries presenting the greatest difficulties in the provision of hot meals is coal mining. The necessity for providing miners with nourishing food if they are to be able to produce the coal required has been the subject of several debates in the House of Commons.[5] The progress which has been made in providing full-meal canteens for mines is shown by the fact that in the fall of 1941 only 751 mines had communal feeding arrangements of any kind and of these only 16 were providing hot meals, whereas on March 1, 1943, there were 239 which had full-meal canteens in operation. Because of the difficulty of serving hot meals to miners while at work, since the men may be employed in narrow workings and often at considerable distances from the pit bottom, the canteens for the miners have had to be placed at the pit heads, where the men have the opportunity to wash up and have a hot meal after leaving work. The canteens in service and in process of construction or preparation on February 1, 1943, are shown in the accompanying table.

Full-Meal Colliery Canteens in Great Britain and Number of Men Catered for, January 1942 to February 1943

Date	Full-meal canteens					
	In operation		Under construction		In preparation	
	Number of collieries	Number of men catered for	Number of collieries	Number of men to be catered for	Number of collieries	Number of men to be catered for
Jan. 1, 1942	49	55,396	69	72,532	243	222,021
Apr. 1, 1942	61	69,611	108	104,839	235	203,253
July 1, 1942	90	102,099	154	137,919	187	163,766
Oct. 1, 1942	132	135,312	176	145,657	144	137,107
Jan. 1, 1943	207	195,157	155	128,553	121	112,877
Feb. 1, 1943	226	215,205	151	124,601	107	99,009

[4] Report No. 290 from E. Mabel Hodgkinson, American Embassy, London.
[5] Great Britain, House of Commons, Parliamentary Debates, October 2, 1941, February 23, and March 16, 1943.

PRODUCTION INQUIRY BY BRITISH ENGINEERING UNION

A REPORT analyzing the factors contributing to improvement in production and those impeding it, made by the British Amalgamated Engineering Union, shows very definite improvements in output in a number of factories and reveals a greatly increased interest in production among the British workers as a whole.[1] This is the third such report made by the union and covers the period from April to September 1942. Data were collected from 1,000 establishments, representing 1,268,010 workers in 881 firms. Information was obtained only from shop stewards and trade-unionists, but although employer opinions are not included, the report is well documented and the union points out that nothing was included which cannot be substantiated. Bad workshop organization was the most frequent complaint, but there were other criticisms, such as shortage of equipment, misuse of manpower, idle machines, shortage of raw material, and uneven flow of orders. Most of the deficiencies were claimed to be caused by lack of organization and lack of coordination at the top, which individual managements and workshops were not in a position to set right. The same defects and drawbacks in the organization of production were found at the time of the latest union survey as existed when the previous studies were made.

Nearly half of the establishments for which information was received showed higher production at the time of the April–September 1942 study. In a few cases the increase was 300 to 400 percent, and only 4 percent of the total showed actual decreases. There was a rise in the percentage of firms having joint production committees, from 21 percent of the firms in March 1941 to 55 percent in the latest period surveyed. Only 2 percent of the committees formed had broken down. In the opinion of the A. E. U., the chief reason for improved production was the establishment of better employer-worker relations. For 67 percent of the firms with production committees, "improved cooperation" was named by the union representatives as the main reason for increased production. The reasons given for increased production are shown in table 1, in the order of importance, expressed in percentages of the total number of establishments covered in each case. Greater production was reported by 55 percent of those with joint production committees and by 42 percent without such committees. Improved cooperation and adoption of workers' suggestions had less weight in establishments without production committees than in the others.

[1] Data are from The Economist (London), issue of April 17, 1943 (pp. 501, 507).

TABLE 1.—*Reasons for Increased Production in British Engineering Plants, April–September, 1942*

Cause	Establishments with production committees	Establishments without production committees	Total
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*
Better cooperation between management and workers	67.7	37.6	52.6
Workers' suggestions adopted	58.1	30.0	44.0
Improved timekeeping and less avoidable absenteeism	53.1	38.8	45.9
Better workshop organization	51.1	28.8	40.0
Better use of equipment	50.0	32.3	41.2
Improved production methods	48.5	37.6	43.0
Better use of female labor	47.4	42.3	44.8
Guaranteed piece rates or output bonus	41.8	25.3	33.5
Better use of production time	40.3	23.5	31.9
Better welfare conditions	31.5	15.2	23.3
Better use of skilled labor	30.7	20.0	25.3
Propaganda for more output	28.1	14.1	21.1
Better flow of contracts and deliveries	28.1	23.5	25.8
Less fine limits and high finish	22.2	18.2	20.2
Improved canteen facilities	17.0	8.2	12.6
Increased standardization of units	16.3	13.5	14.9
Improved transport facilities	13.0	1.1	7.0
Improved housing facilities	1.8	.6	1.2

Factors that retarded production are listed in table 2, in the order of their importance, expressed in percentages of the total number of establishments with or without the committees, that reported decreased production. The returns, of course, reflect the attitudes of the workers, which cannot be measured with precision by statistics.

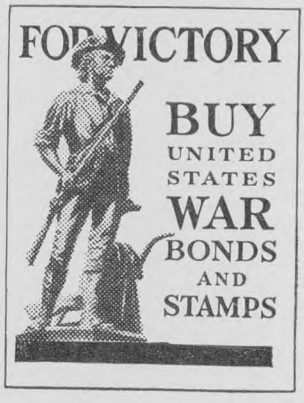
TABLE 2.—*Factors Retarding Production in British Engineering Plants, April–September 1942*

Cause	Establishments with joint production committees	Establishments without joint production committees	Total	Previous inquiry (total)
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Bad workshop organization	43.6	39.0	41.3	16.7
Shortage of, or obsolete, equipment	41.8	31.75	36.75	38.3
Lack or misuse of manpower	36.5	32.5	34.5	26.4
Idle machines	31.0	28.75	29.9	17.0
Raw-material shortages	29.8	21.5	25.6	18.7
Uneven flow of orders	28.2	13.75	21.0	9.2
Component shortages	27.8	15.0	21.4	11.6
Obstructive management	19.2	27.25	23.25	26.6
Too fine limits and high finish	2.4	2.75	2.5	5.8
Shortage of work	32.6	16.75	24.75	15.8
Bad welfare conditions	12.0	14.5	13.2	4.6
Bad canteen facilities	9.8	5.5	7.6	3.2
Grievances about earnings	9.4	12.5	11.0	10.6
Bad transport facilities	7.0	3.0	5.0	4.6
Bad timekeeping and avoidable absenteeism	9.2	3.75	4.0	6.4

The production committees which the Amalgamated Engineering Union found to be so important in forming a basis for management-labor cooperation are exclusively concerned with matters directly relating to production.[2] They deal with the use of machinery,

[2] For a discussion of these committees, see the Monthly Labor Review for May 1942 (p. 1088) and May 1943 (p. 900).

machine-tool capacity, the organization of supplies, the shift system, progress, and inspection. A great deal of the committees' time is also devoted to canteens, transportation, ventilation, lighting, and related matters contributing to the welfare of labor and thus to productivity. Agreements for organizing joint production committees in engineering and Royal ordnance factories were signed between the engineering employers and unions and the Ministry of Supply more than a year ago. On February 17, 1943, the Minister of Production stated that 2,096 factories, employing 150 or more workers each, had established production committees, and that these had "on the whole been a success."



UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, 1942 [1]

UP TO the end of 1942 the sum of $2,032,335,476 had been paid out in compensation to unemployed workers in the United States, under the system established by the Social Security Act of 1935.

During 1942 a weekly average of nearly 544,000 persons received unemployment allowances, which totaled for the year more than $345,500,000. As compared with 1941, these figures represented a drop of over 12 percent in beneficiaries and a slight (0.06 percent) reduction in benefits.

Plant conversions to war production, after the attack on Pearl Harbor, caused widespread unemployment and a sharp rise in initial claims for benefit in January 1942. Demands for workers, however, resulted in an abrupt decline in these claims as early as February. This decline continued (with two minor interruptions in April and June) through the summer and fall and to the end of November, falling to a point far below the lowest reached at any time in 1941. The month of December showed a slight seasonal upturn, resulting from reductions of force in such seasonal industries as construction, garment manufacture, etc.

About the same general trend occurred during the year in continued claims, persons receiving benefit, and amounts disbursed in benefits. All of these showed a practically continuous decline from May through November. The high point in benefits paid was reached in March, in which month the sums disbursed aggregated $43,034,821, or 9.6 percent above the 1941 peak of $39,270,163 (January). The decline in benefits paid, that began in April, continued precipitously, as more and more demands for workers drew off the available labor supply. This tightening labor market and the elimination of the usual seasonal lay-offs in many industries were responsible for a decline in benefits from September to October, characterized by the Bureau of Employment Security as the "sharpest on record."

The factors that contributed to the increase in benefit payments in December 1941—conversions to war production, shortages resulting from priorities, and curtailment of certain civilian goods (notably automobiles)—had become relatively unimportant by the end of 1942. The increase in continued claims that occurred in December 1942 was due entirely to a sharp increase in waiting-period claims filed by newly unemployed, largely in seasonal industries; compensable claims decreased 2.5 percent in that month. As a result, the amount of benefits paid out in December reached the all-time low of $11,539,000.[2]

[1] Based on data compiled from reports of the Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.
[2] Excludes $19,000 paid during December in Oregon, resulting from a review of 1938–41 seasonal claims.

The steeply falling curves of unemployment benefits and of average number of persons drawing benefit reflected the greatly reduced number of unemployed and the unusual and increasing demand for all kinds of labor. As the accompanying table shows, there were drastic reductions in unemployment-compensation operations in the last half of the year, as compared with the first half. Compensable claims and gross benefits paid fell nearly 45 percent, and the number of weeks for which compensation was paid, as well as the average weekly number of persons receiving allowances, was cut nearly in half.

Summary of Unemployment-Compensation Operations, 1941 and 1942

Item	1942			1941
	First 6 months	Last 6 months	Entire year	
Initial claims (local office)	4,304,614	2,018,767	6,323,381	8,526,993
Continued claims	22,204,836	11,556,926	33,761,762	42,341,845
Waiting-period claims	3,644,676	1,479,121	5,123,797	8,853,569
Compensable claims	18,560,160	10,077,805	28,637,965	33,488,276
Weeks compensated	18,276,581	9,881,149	28,157,730	32,295,377
Total unemployment	16,779,330	9,103,197	25,882,527	29,359,117
Part-total unemployment	539,656	228,994	[1] 768,650	[2]
Partial unemployment	942,740	529,030	[1] 1,471,770	[2] 2,936,260
Gross benefits paid	$222,215,652	$123,299,257	$345,514,909	$345,707,731
Average weekly number of beneficiaries	711,351	377,537	544,444	618,867

[1] Excludes New York and Rhode Island (data not reported) and Montana and Pennsylvania which have no provision for partial and part-total unemployment.
[2] Data for part-total unemployment included with data for partial.

Unemployment has largely been concentrated in a few of the large industrial States. Illinois and New York have been particularly hard hit, reporting unemployment even above the level of 1941. Consequently the number of beneficiaries and amounts paid in benefits in such States have both been high. In December one-fourth of all the weeks of unemployment for which compensation was paid were in New York. This State, together with California, Illinois, Michigan, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, accounted for 58 percent of the total, whereas these States contained only 44 percent of all workers with wage credits.

INCREASED DEPENDENTS' ALLOWANCES FOR CANADA'S ARMED FORCES

ON January 1, 1943, various improvements in the provisions for dependents' allowances to Canadian men and women in active military service became effective. Among these revisions were increases in the allowance rate and additional grants for large families.[1]

Coverage.—Allowances are granted to the following dependents of men and women on active duty in Dominion Armed forces, irrespective of rank.

(*a*) A wife, or, in her absence, a woman relative who has the care of his dependent children;

(*b*) A dependent son under 16 or daughter under 17; the age limits are raised to 19 if the child is undergoing approved instruction, and are waived altogether if the child is infirm;

[1] International Labor Review (Montreal), March 1943.

(*c*) Other dependent relatives, including the following: Widowed mother, incapacitated father, brother under 16, or sister under 17, if the service man is the relative's sole or partial support, and divorced wife if the service man is liable for her support; no dependent may receive more than one allowance.

A maximum of 3 dependents may receive allowances except that in case the dependents include more than 2 children, allowances may be paid for as many as 6 children (previously 4) and also to a wife. In general only "one other dependent relative" is eligible for an allowance even when there is no wife or child to be provided for.

The cost of these grants for the maintenance of dependents is met in part by the Government and in part by assignments from pay.

Amount of Allowance

Assigned pay.—It is provided that soldiers (including warrant and noncommissioned officers) shall assign part of their pay to their dependents receiving allowances. The assignment of pay by officers is voluntary. Married officers are eligible for marriage allowances as well as allowances for dependents. Fifteen days' pay is the minimum assignment, even if a grant is made for one dependent only.

In case allowance is paid for a wife or child or both, and also to another relative, 5 days' pay must also be assigned to the latter. The maximum assignment is 20 days' pay. A private's pay is $1.30 per day and his minimum assignment is $20 per month. Effective February 1, 1943, the pay of a private who has been in the service for 6 months and is efficient is increased to $1.50, and his minimum monthly assignment is raised to $23.

Basic allowance rates.—The basic rates for children's allowances are the same for all rates of service men, but the grants for wives and other relatives vary according to the service men's rank.

Up to December 31, 1942, the monthly allowances were for 4 children only and amounted to $12, $12, $9 and $6 for the first, second, third and fourth children respectively. From the beginning of 1943, as many as 6 children have been made eligible for allowances, the respective monthly rate for the third being raised to $10, and $8 each being allowed for the fourth, the fifth, and the sixth children.

The allowance rates per month for wives and for dependent relatives other than children are:

	Wife	*Other dependent relative*
Officer above rank of major	$60	$30
Major	55	25
Captain	50	25
Lieutenant	45	25
Warrant officer, class I	40	20
All other ranks	35	20

In case the "other dependent relative" is a noncommissioned service man's mother, the allowance is $25 instead of $20.

All grants to "other dependent relatives" are subject to a means test. Up to December 31, 1942, the dependent's total income (excluding a son's assigned pay) could not be more than double the basic allowance rate. From the beginning of 1943 such relative may earn as much as $40 a month without necessitating a decrease of his or her allowance.

Cost-of-living bonus.—From the beginning of 1943, the allowances for wives and children and the assigned pay are supplemented by a cost-of-living bonus. For childless wives the bonus is in proportion to the rise in the cost of living after October 1941. For wives and children the bonus is 25 cents for each 1 percent rise.

The total payments per month, including assigned pay, dependents' allowances and cost-of-living bonuses, as of the time the report was prepared, are given below:

Wife only	$59. 40	Wife and 4 children	$102. 60
Wife and 1 child	72. 60	Wife and 5 children	110. 60
Wife and 2 children	84. 60	Wife and 6 children	118. 60
Wife and 3 children	94. 60	Mother only	48. 00

Administration

The Dependents' Allowance Board administers the allowance system. This agency has 7 members—two each from the Army and Air Force, one each from the Navy and the Treasury, and a civilian chairman appointed by the Minister of National Defense.

Written applications for allowances must be submitted to the Board; and for all dependents with the exception of wives and children, the Board's decisions on claims are also based on the reports of district investigators. No appeal may be made from the Board's decisions, but district interviewers are charged with the responsibility of hearing grievances and, when it is thought advisable, reporting them to the Board.

In January 1942, the Dependents' Board of Trustees was established by the Government to afford additional aid out of a special fund in certain pressing cases in which the regular dependents' allowances seem insufficient. This body is assisted by regional advisory committees, and is studying the possibility of helping the families of service men to move from high-rent to low-rent sections.

RETIREMENT BENEFITS FOR DOMESTIC SERVANTS IN URUGUAY [1]

DOMESTIC servants of both sexes, 14 years of age or over, were brought within the coverage of the Retirement Fund for Industry, Commerce, and Public Services of Uruguay [2] by a decree law of July 22, 1942. The classes of domestic employees specified are servants janitors, cooks, caretakers, cleaners, nurses, and others who perform this kind of work; doorkeepers of apartment houses are included, also. Those covered by this law are given 1 year in which to make the appropriate affiliation.

The system is to be financed through the payment of contributions by employers and domestic servants. The employer is to contribute 10 percent of the wages guaranteed to his employees, and those who employ more than one servant pay an additional 1 peso monthly for each. The worker makes a contribution of 5 percent of his wage.

For the purpose of calculating the benefit, the minimum monthly wage is fixed at 25 pesos.

[1] Data are from Diario Oficial (Montevideo), July 27, 1942.
[2] This system had previously been extended and readjusted by a law of January 11, 1934.

Benefits provided for under the law are payable after completion of a qualifying period of 5 years. Exceptions to this provision are that the benefit for permanent total disability, and the survivors' pension, in either instance amounting to 10 pesos a month, may be claimed after payment of contributions for 1 year.

Domestic servants are not eligible to dismissal benefit under existing legislation. They are to be covered however, by an unemployment insurance, which the Retirement Fund will administer, and which will provide a maximum of 6 months' benefit after contributions have been made for at least 5 years.

PLACEMENT WORK OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, 1942 [1]

MORE than 10¼ million placements in gainful employment were made by the United States Employment Service in 1942. This was more than a third larger than the number placed in the previous year. In 1942 about 68 percent of the placements were in nonagricultural pursuits, as against about 73 percent in 1941.

With the exception of a slight recession in February, the number of jobs filled rose continuously during the first 7 months of the year, decreased slightly in August, and then rose steeply in September and October. The 1½ million placements made in October were the highest for any month since 1933. Both agricultural and nonagricultural placements increased, the latter attaining the highest number of any month since 1935. Seasonal declines in demand for workers resulted in considerably smaller numbers of placements in November and December. Nevertheless total placements in December were almost half again as large in December 1942 as in the same month of the previous year.

Agricultural and nonagricultural placements followed trends similar to that of total placements, but the fluctuations were less pronounced in the case of nonagricultural workers than as regards farm workers. Whereas the number of farm jobs filled in July was 10 times as great as in January, nonagricultural placements in the same time had increased about 62 percent. However, nonagricultural placements, which usually decline in July, in 1942 continued to increase in that month. Both types of placements declined slightly more than 2 percent in August, after which agricultural placements rose sharply in September and October, reaching a point 143 percent above the July level. Nonagricultural jobs filled showed an increase of about 1.5 percent in September as compared with August, most of which occurred in the manufacturing industries; a further increase of 5.0 percent occurred between September and October. The nonagricultural placements made in September were 22 percent above the number in the same month of 1941. The last 2 months of the year showed the usual precipitate decline in farm jobs filled, the December number being only about one-ninth of the number filled in October (which was the peak month). Nonagricultural placements, on the other hand, though they fell slightly more than 10 percent from October to November, rose contraseasonally by 1.4 percent in December.

Placements of women in the last quarter of 1942 were at a higher rate than those of men. Whereas, during the 3-month period, total

[1] This article is based on data supplied by the Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board and Bureau of Program Planning and Review, War Manpower Commission.

placements declined 1.5 percent, those of women showed an increase of 14.4 percent. Women accounted for almost a third of all placements in the quarter, for more than two-thirds of the clerical and sales jobs filled, and for almost two-thirds of the service placements.

Beginning with July, applications for work, which had fluctuated during the period January–June, fell more or less steadily (with the exception of a slight rise in October) through November. Job applications usually fall from August to September, but in 1942 the drop during this period was unusually sharp. A slight seasonal upturn was noted in December.

Even as early as June, labor turn-over had become "a major problem" of the nonagricultural labor market, being accentuated by "shopping" for jobs and pirating of workers. By the fall of 1942 the Federal Government had begun to take steps to check excessive turnover, stabilize employment, and obtain the full utilization of existing labor forces. The fact that growing labor stringencies and a high rate of placements were reported month after month in war production areas at the same time that other, often adjacent, areas were reporting large reservoirs of unemployed, indicated the problem of maldistribution of needed workers. In New York, for example, in the single month of June, the gain (44,000) in the active file of job applicants was almost double the increase for the Nation as a whole.

The active file of applicants had fallen without break during the first 5 months of the year, rising somewhat in June. Thereafter a new policy was adopted under which a registration for work is valid only for 60 days. The mid-September figure of 2,400,417 was therefore not strictly comparable with the figure of 3,254,798 as of the end of July. About one-third of all the active registrations in September were in the three States of Illinois, New York and Pennsylvania. By mid-November the number in the active file had fallen to 1,895,371.

The accompanying table shows the monthly trend in placements in 1941, as well as in applications for work and in the active file of registrants.

Summary of Placement Activities, 1941 and 1942, by Months

Period	Placements			Applications, new and renewed	Active file, end of month [1]
	Total	Agricultural	Nonagricultural		
1941	7,451,472	2,024,395	5,427,077	18,640,168	4,412,628
1942	10,251,068	3,311,448	6,939,620	17,867,908	
January	438,604	32,040	406,564	1,956,371	4,898,675
February	426,881	23,164	403,717	1,531,757	4,888,000
March	511,001	35,639	475,362	1,567,194	4,559,135
April	606,281	50,787	555,494	1,575,685	4,397,651
May	783,910	182,049	601,861	1,564,988	4,253,573
June	924,847	280,411	644,436	1,840,854	4,279,825
July	1,005,882	349,065	656,817	1,655,500	3,254,798
August	981,567	341,817	639,750	1,403,168	
September	1,397,617	747,962	649,655	1,212,714	[2] 2,400,417
October	1,530,522	848,593	681,929	1,266,553	
November	931,445	323,753	607,692	1,139,224	[3] 1,895,371
December	712,511	96,168	616,343	1,153,900	

[1] Beginning September 1942, data represent persons who indicated availability for work within 60 days before date to which data relate. Through July 1942, clearance of inactive applications from file varied among and within States, and related to end of month.

[2] As of September 12.

[3] As of November 14.

STANDARDS FOR WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT IN WARTIME

ESSENTIAL work standards for the protection of woman wage earners are being alarmingly disregarded in some quarters, according to the Chief of the U. S. Women's Bureau, and in others the overriding of these necessary provisions is being advocated. At a conference on Employment of Women in Wartime, called by the Secretary of Labor and held in Washington, March 11 and 12, 1943, these facts were pointed out. This conference adopted two resolutions pointing out the danger of the situation and emphasizing the standards that should be observed. The first resolution dealt with women's work under wartime conditions, as follows:

WHEREAS millions of women are being employed in industry today and millions more must be employed in the coming year if adequate materials to meet the needs of our armed forces are to be produced; and

WHEREAS the maximum output of women workers depends upon the maintenance of their efficiency and health; and

WHEREAS statistics show that sickness rates are much higher for women workers than for men; and

WHEREAS experience has proved that long hours and unwholesome working conditions constitute the main cause of sickness and absenteeism; and

WHEREAS this conference of commissioners and officials of State labor departments and the District of Columbia meeting together in Washington for two days, March 11 and 12, 1943, has considered means by which the employment in war and civilian industries may most effectively be utilized; and

WHEREAS representatives of the War and Navy Departments attending these meetings have testified to the necessity of maintaining reasonable hour standards incorporated in existing State legislation and have asked only that exceptions be made in emergencies created by the urgency of the war effort; Therefore be it

Resolved, That this conference go on record as continuing to endorse the standards of hours of employment which have been consistently adopted by conferences during the past year between State labor commissioners and representatives of the U. S. Departments of Labor, War, Navy, and other Federal agencies, namely: The State laws and regulations embracing the following basic principles should be preserved except where modification may be necessary during the war period to insure maximum production:

1. A maximum 48-hour week.
2. An 8-hour day.
3. One day of rest in seven.
4. Adequate rest and meal periods.
5. Adaptation of hours of work and working conditions to the age and sex of the worker, except that there must be no relaxation or modification of standards governing the employment of minors under 16.
6. Proper safeguards for health and safety.
7. The same wage rates for women as for men.

The second resolution related to civilian-goods industries only:

WHEREAS the health and well-being of women employed in civilian industries is as essential to our National wartime economy as is that of workers engaged in war industries; and

WHEREAS long hours and poor working conditions in civilian industries lead to sickness and absenteeism: Therefore be it

Resolved, That peacetime standards of hours and conditions of work be not relaxed in these industries in order to provide conveniences, goods, and services for war workers and civilians which in peacetime may be desirable but in time of war are not truly necessary to our well-being; and be it

Resolved further, That if, in order to provide for the basic subsistence needs of war workers and civilians, a relaxation of State labor laws may be necessary such relaxation be granted only in those areas in which critical labor shortages exist; moreover, be it

Resolved further, That in such areas of extreme labor shortages relaxations be permitted only for the production of goods and services necessary to provide for the basic minimum subsistence needs of war workers and the civilian population, and that definite standards be established for determining the need for such relaxation.

WOMEN'S WAGES IN LAUNDRIES IN NEW YORK STATE, 1942 [1]

THE average woman working in a laundry in New York State was earning $3.56 more a week in 1942 than she did in 1937, before the laundry minimum-wage order went into effect. In 1937, the median wage for women and minors in laundries was $14.30; in 1942 the median weekly wage was $17.86. Every year the wages have been better, but the increase from 1941 to 1942 was greatest, when the median wage rose 13.4 percent, or $2.11, per week. These figures are revealed in the fifth annual analysis of sworn pay rolls in the laundry industry made by the Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage of the New York State Labor Department.

As in the four preceding analyses, the fifth report shows that wages, both by the hour and by the week, have gone up for all types of workers and in all parts of the State. The number of women and minors getting $20.00 or more a week was 2½ times as great in 1942 as in 1941. There was also an increase in the proportion earning between $15.00 and $20.00 a week, while the number of workers receiving between $12.00 and $15.00 weekly dropped from 26.7 percent in 1941 to 10.3 percent in 1942. Prior to the establishment of a minimum wage, less than two-fifths of the women and minors in the laundry industry in the State earned as much as $15.00 a week; in 1942 more than four-fifths of them were receiving $15.00 or more.

The same upward movement was shown by hourly earnings. Nearly four-fifths of the women and minors were receiving 40 cents or more an hour in 1942, whereas a year before only one-third and in 1937 less than one-fifth of the workers were in that category.

The average number of hours worked per week increased a little in 1942, the average workweek being 42.4 hours as against 41.7 in the previous year. The proportion of employees working 45 hours or more rose considerably, more than one-fourth working these hours in 1942 as compared with less than 16 percent a year before.

Two percent of the laundries paid less than the minimum rates to one or more of their women and to male minor employees. In laundries where the guaranteed weekly wage of $14.00 for 40 hours or less is not required, and where the minimum hourly rate is only 30 cents, there were 423 women and minors earning less than 35 cents an hour. In the State as a whole, 91 percent were paid above the minimum rates in 1942, whereas in 1941 only 77 percent were in that class.

[1] Data are from New York, State Department of Labor, press release, May 11, 1943.

CONCLUSIONS BASED ON 5,000 JOB PLACEMENTS OF MAINE YOUTH

THE following conclusions were reached after a study of 5,000 job placements of Maine boys and girls in 1940 and 1941.[1]

1. Opportunities for education and the selective process accompanying additional education often determine the occupation a young person will enter. This fact is in line with the finding of the American Youth Commission that additional education too frequently depends on family income and not on the intelligence or ambition of the individual young person concerned.

2. Work experience is imperative in the education of boys and girls and in their adjustment to life. School classes, particularly in which articles are produced for actual use, give highly important work experience, as do also NYA projects or resident centers, part-time employment or summer jobs, and work about the family shop, store, or farm. Such experience helps youth to explore different kinds of work, to develop constructive and cooperative habits, and to earn money for possible additional training.

3. The statistics on domestic employment seem to contradict the reiterated statement that young persons are not willing to enter such service. Only 5 out of the 13 employment offices reported on such placements, but the study shows that 662 youth, among them a few young men, went into some kind of domestic work. Among high-school graduates, 45 girls entered this reportedly unpopular employment, at a period when commercial and factory jobs were increasing.

4. At the time the study was made, the tourist business seemed to be well worth considering from the viewpoint of vocational guidance. Work which normally brings into Maine $100,000,000 undoubtedly demands attention. In 1940, personal service ranked first in the 5,242 employment opportunities for young persons in the State. Not all of these jobs stemmed from recreation- and vacation-business activities. However, the NYA for several years thought it useful to carry on waitress-training classes in cooperation with the Maine Hotel Association. Among the jobs in which placements were made were those in hotels and cafes, at lake and shore resorts, at lobster pounds, and at summer camps, in repairing summer homes and hotels, in gardening, food raising, transportation, beauty shops, dentists' offices, overnight camps, and roadside stands.

5. A study of the kind here reviewed gives emphasis to the importance of accurate data concerning occupations in general and job prospects in particular. Such information is of great value to all agencies

[1] Where 5,000 Maine Boys and Girls Found Jobs, by Clarence C. Robinson. Quoddy Village, Maine: State Department of Education, Vocational division, and National Youth Administration of Maine, 1942

interested in the placement of boys and girls, but also should be made available to the young people themselves through parent-teacher associations and career conferences.

6. The boys and the girls and also their grown-up counselors should be well informed regarding the trends in occupations in Maine and in New England. For example, trends of a seasonal character like those in pulp peeling and lumber work; geographical trends like those in the summer-vacation business, influencing Portland in one way and Bar Harbor in another. In Aroostook the demand for labor may be heavy in May and September, but young people might find it difficult to find jobs there from November to April. Strictly industrial trends also show great variations—textile mills at one time may be running 2 or 3 shifts when inventories are low but later may be shut down when the markets are glutted with their products. As an illustration of climatic trends, road building in Maine is cited as a 6-month activity.

7. Studies of the type under review should be made constantly in order that the vocational guidance of youth may be efficient both in and out of the schools. These investigations, if they are properly conducted, will disclose what industrial-arts courses and what specific vocational courses should be given.

Careful study should determine the kinds of cooperation requisite between Federal and State agencies, and also the part the local communities should play to insure the advantageous utilization of young workers.

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Labor Laws and Court Decisions

RECENT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR [1]

Applicability of Fair Labor Standards Act

DEDUCTIONS from wages under the Fair Labor Standards Act.—An opinion of considerable interest was handed down by the United States District Court of the Western District of Louisiana in *Walling* v. *Peavy-Wilson Lumber Co., Inc.*, on April 13, 1943.[2] The Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division sought to enjoin a lumber manufacturer from further violations of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Most of the employees lived in company-owned tenant houses, traded at a large company-owned store, subscribed to medical services furnished by the company, etc. The company made numerous deductions from the wages of employees including deductions for scrip or coupons, store purchases, rents, medical attention, tools, loans, milk and ice, and water coolers. The injunction suit concerned the validity of all of these deductions, as well as the question whether the time spent by the wood employees in traveling on a company train from the village to the woods at the place of work constituted "hours worked" for which compensation was due under the act. The company questioned the validity and constitutionality of the Administrator's interpretation in Part 531 of his regulations relating to section 3 (m) of the act.[3]

In a lengthy opinion, the Court sustained the validity of the Administrator's regulations and ruled in the Administrator's favor on most of the factual issues. The Court, among other things, ruled as follows:

1. Deductions from the wages prescribed by sections 6 and 7 of the act are permissible only upon the conditions imposed by section 3 (m) of the act.

2. The "actual cost" test prescribed by the Administrator's regulations is valid, as against the company's contention that it is entitled to fix prices based upon "fair value."

3. The restrictions of section 3 (m) of the Administrator's regulations are applicable irrespective of whether the deductions from wages are voluntary on the part of the employee. A voluntary agreement to permit excessive deductions is no more valid than a direct agreement by the employee to accept less than the wages required to be paid by statute.

[1] Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. 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 existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

[2] 6 Wage-Hour Rept. 416.

[3] Section 3 (m) provides as follows: " 'Wage' paid to any employee includes the reasonable cost, as determined by the Administrator, to the employer of furnishing such employee with board, lodging, or other facilities, if such board, lodging, or other facilities are customarily furnished by such employer to his employees."

4. The company violated the minimum-wage provisions of the act by discounting at less than face value coupons issued in lieu of wages, and by discounting such coupons through a third party under an arrangement whereby the company shared the profits and benefits.

5. Previous to the discontinuance of the issuance of scrip, the company violated the act by making deductions from employees' wages for merchandise, groceries, and other goods sold to the employees by the company store in return for scrip, which "articles were not furnished at the actual cost to the defendant within the meaning of section 3 (m) of the act and the Administrator's Regulations, Part 531."

6. The company violated the act by requiring employees to furnish and pay for their own tools. The fact that it was a custom of the trade for log cutters to furnish their tools "may not prevail against nor supersede the requirements of regulatory law." The regulation of the Administrator stating that the cost of furnishing tools of trade and other materials and services [required of the employee] incidental to carrying on the employer's business will not be recognized as reasonable, is a valid regulation.

7. The company violated the act by making deductions for the payment of loans made to employees by an association of persons affiliated with it, by making deductions for milk and ice purchased by employees from third parties through transactions from which the company secured profits and benefits, and by making charges and deductions from wages for ice and mechanical water coolers used by employees while at work.

The Court held against the Administrator on the issue of deductions for rent and medical services, holding that the evidence was not sufficient to prove that the company made a profit on the rental of houses to its employees nor the furnishing of medical services to them.

The Court also held that the time spent in traveling on the company-owned train from the village into the woods was not working time for which compensation was due under the Fair Labor Standards Act. The statement on this issue is of particular interest in view of the contrary holding of the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals in *Tennessee Coal, Iron & R. R. Co.* v. *Muscoda Local 123*,[4] based upon facts which the District Judge believed distinguishable. The Court in the present case stated that the lumber employees "had a definite work place, well known to all of them, situated at or near the point where timber was being felled."

> * * * They were and are required to report for work at that place, and at no other. * * * The means of travel to and from the timberlands are entirely optional with the employees. They may use such means of conveyance they elect. At times some of them have traveled to and from work by means of their automobiles. * * * The train is operated by the defendant as an accommodation and convenience to the employees. * * * The defendant did not and does not require any employee to use the conveyance; they may use any other conveyance or means of travel they choose. * * * No supervision whatever is exercised over them, nor do the employees of the company do any work before reaching the place of taking up their actual labor or after the cessation of work at the point of actual labor.

The District Court also held that an injunction should be issued, notwithstanding the discontinuance by the company of some of the violations prior to suit and of others prior to trial.[5]

[4] Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, May 1943 (p. 944).

[5] Compare *Walling* v. *Shenandoah-Dives Mining Co.*, 134 Fed. (2d) 395 (C. C. A. 10), and *Walling* v. *T. Buettner & Co.*, 133 Fed. (2d) 306 (C. C. A. 7), discussed in Monthly Labor Review April 1943 (p. 727). Certiorari has since been granted by the Supreme Court in the Buettner case.

Employees entitled to benefits of both Federal 8-hour law and Fair Labor Standards Act.—The Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division sought an injunction restraining further violations of the Fair Labor Standards Act by an employer in respect of its employees who were constructing and repairing dikes and revetments in the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers. The company pointed out that it was subject to the 8-hour law amendment of 1940 [6] and was obliged to pay the employees time and a half for work performed in excess of 8 hours in a day. It was urged that Congress never intended subjecting a Government contractor to the necessity of paying daily and hourly overtime and that it was subject only to the daily overtime called for by the later law.

The Circuit Court of Appeals for the Sixth Circuit in *Walling* v. *Patton Tully Transp. Co.*[7] found no difficulty in reconciling the two statutes nor in requiring compliance with both. Repeals by implication are not favored by the law, it was observed, unless the two laws are plainly repugnant to each other, which was not true in the case before it.

It was also held, on the basis of previous cases [8] that the work of the employees above described was within the scope and coverage of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Employer may not compel arbitration of controversy involving overtime compensation.—A coal company, sued by its employees under section 16 (b) of the Fair Labor Standards Act, sought an order of the United States District Court for the Middle District of Pennsylvania staying the action and compelling arbitration of the controversy involving overtime compensation (*In re Susquehanna Collieries Co.*[9]). The court noted that the collective contract provided for arbitration of disputes, but held that, inasmuch as the contract did not evidence "a transaction involving commerce" within the meaning of section 2 of the United States Arbitration Act, the employer was not entitled to an order compelling arbitration.

Maritime Employment

In *Pedro Aguilar* v. *Standard Oil Co. of New Jersey* and *Waterman Steamship Corporation* v. *Jones* [10] the Supreme Court for the first time recognized the liability of a shipowner for wages, maintenance, and cure to a seaman injured during authorized shore leave. In each case the seaman was traversing the only available route between the moored ship and a public street.

The Court pointed out that the obligation of maintenance and cure of seamen who became ill or were injured during the period of their service has long been recognized as an implied provision in contracts of maritime employment. This liability was based upon the fact that unique occupational hazards attend maritime employment, that such employment involves unusual restrictions and limitations which require special compensation and treatment, and that the public

[6] Section 303 of the Second Defense Appropriation Act of 1941, enacted September 9, 1940.
[7] — Fed. (2d) — (Apr. 8, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.
[8] *Overstreet* v. *North Shore Corp.*, 63 Sup. Ct. 494, and *Pederson* v. *J. F. Fitzgerald Const. Co.*, 63 Sup. Ct. 558.
[9] — Fed. Supp. — (Apr. 13, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.
[10] 63 Sup. Ct. 930 (Apr. 19, 1943).

policy of encouraging maritime commerce justifies special consideration of the health and well-being of seamen. It was observed that the liability for maintenance and cure, unlike that for indemnity or that created by the Jones Act, is not predicated upon the fault or negligence of the shipowner, but it is a normal incident of the marine employer-employee relationship. Conceptions of contributory negligence, the fellow-servant doctrine, and assumption of risk are not defenses to an action to enforce the liability; the only defenses are willful misconduct by a seaman or the commission of a deliberate act of indiscretion.

The Court stated that the employer's responsibility is broader than that under modern workmen's compensation acts, as it extends beyond injuries sustained because of, or while engaged in, activities required by the employment. In view of the necessity of affording seamen relaxation from the unusually confining nature of their employment, the court denied that shore leave is "exclusively personal" to the seaman and has no relation to the vessel's business. "No master would take a crew to sea if he could not grant shore leave, and no crew would be taken if it could never obtain it." By separating the seaman from normal life and "his usual places of association" the shipowner, in the Court's opinion, assumes the obligation of maintenance and cure when injuries are suffered by a seaman, regardless of fault, in the course of shore leave, which is so essential to the smooth and efficient operation of the ship.

Antitrust Laws

In *United States* v. *Bay Area Painters & Decorators Joint Committee*[11] it was charged that representatives of various painters' unions and contractors' associations had agreed to restrict the use of painting by spray equipment, and that the agreement and the activities of the parties were intended to and had the effect of substantially affecting, restraining and diminishing interstate commerce in spray equipment, paints and painting materials in violation of the Sherman Act. However, in its decision, the United States District Court for the Northern District of California sustained demurrers to the indictment and dismissed it as to all defendants.

The Court pointed out that the restriction agreed to by the parties related to the use of equipment and paints by themselves, and that although this would reduce the sales of such equipment and reduce the amount shipped into the State, the effect upon commerce was indirect and remote, and therefore, not unlawful unless it was the clear intent and purpose of the agreement to bring about such a result. The Court found that there were two "legitimate purposes" underlying the action of the unions, namely, the effort to eliminate the hazard to health involved in the use of spray equipment and the unemployment resulting from its use. Two previous cases[12] were referred to by the Court as permitting combinations of laborers to seek and obtain more employment through demands against the use of labor-saving devices where the restraint of trade or commerce resulting from their action is only indirect and incidental.

[11] — Fed. Supp. — (Apr. 19, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.,

[12] *United States* v. *American Federation of Musicians* 48 Fed. Supp. 304 (affirmed by the Supreme Court without opinion, Feb. 15, 1943), and *United States* v. *Carrozzo*, 37 Fed. Supp. 191, 196 (affirmed, *United States* v. *International Hod Carriers*, etc., 313 U. S. 539).

The Court refused to accept the Government's theory that the conspiracy was within the prohibition of the antitrust laws because participated in by both labor and nonlabor groups, taking the position that if the demands of the labor groups, separately considered, were lawful and their acts not within the ban of the statute, an acceptance thereof by the employers and their embodiment in an agreement should not change their status.

Applicability of National Labor Relations Act

National Labor Relations Act applicable to retail department stores.—The National Labor Relations Act was held by the Sixth Circuit Court of Appeals in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *J. L. Hudson* [13] to apply to a large department store selling goods at retail. It appeared that the company was a Michigan corporation, with its store in Detroit, and was not licensed to do business elsewhere. Over 80 percent of the merchandise it purchased was shipped to the store from points outside the State, but only 1.6 percent of its total sales were to customers in other States.

The Court held that the status of the company as a retailer does not establish its exemption from the scope of the National Labor Relations Act, as strife with its employees, causing cessation or curtailment of its operations, could burden or obstruct interstate commerce as clearly as could industrial strife in enterprises repeatedly held subject to the National Labor Relations Act.

Employees not affected by delay in filing pay complaint where charges were filed promptly.—The Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals in a case in which it upheld, as supported by substantial evidence, findings by the National Relations Board that the employer was guilty of unfair labor practices, refused to accept the employer's argument that the Board's back-pay order should be effective from the time the complaint was filed, and not from the time the charges were filed.

The Court pointed out in *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Williams Davies Co., Inc.*[14] that the employer did not complain that the employees or the union had failed to file the charges promptly. The delay in filing the complaint, if any, was that of the Board, and it was held that the employees should not be penalized therefor.[15]

State Maximum-Hour Law

Act No. 49 of Puerto Rico, approved August 7, 1935, provides in section 1, that "no person shall be employed or shall be permitted to work in industrial or other establishments more than 8 hours in a day except in cases of emergency declared by the Governor of Puerto Rico on recommendation of the Commissioner of Labor," provided that the 8-hour limit "may be extended to a period that shall not exceed nine (9) hours during any natural day, on condition that every person so employed for wages, by the day, or otherwise, for more than eight (8) hours during any natural day, shall be paid for the work that he does during such extra time at a rate double that of the wages being paid him by the hour for the preceding work." Section 8 of the act

[13] — Fed. (2d) — (Apr. 15, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.
[14] — Fed. (2d) — (Apr. 21, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.
[15] Compare *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Electric Cleaner Co.*, 315 U. S. 685, 698; *National Labor Relations Board* v. *Mall Tool Co.*, 119 Fed. (2d) 700.

provides that employers violating its provisions shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and punished by fine, imprisonment, or both.

The plaintiff in *Domenech* v. *Pan American Standard Brands, Inc.*,[16] alleged that he worked in excess of 8 hours per day during various periods from November 7, 1935, to September 30, 1942, and sued to recover overtime compensation therefor at the rate of double time under Act No. 49.

The District Court Judge held for the defendant, sustaining its demurrer which alleged that the complaint did not state a cause of action. In his opinion he took the position that Act No. 49 is a regulation of hours and not of overtime wages, the provision for double-time payments for the ninth hour worked in a day being "merely a means of enforcing the hour limitation"; that the act is a police measure intended to benefit the public through a "flat prohibition" of work beyond the ninth hour, and that the double-time provision is an "appropriate means of discouraging work of more than 8 hours in any one day."[17] The District Court Judge further held, quoting from the Martinez case, that the statute could not have been violated without the employee's cooperation and to permit him to recover under such circumstances would allow him "to take advantage of her [his] own wrong in encouraging a crime which tended to thwart a benevolent legislative design."

It was also decided that a contract to pay for the extra hours over 8 in a day at a specified rate would be void and unenforceable as against public policy, and that the law of the Territory does not permit recovery for services on an implied-contract or quantum meruit basis as at the common law.

Applicability of Social Security Act

The owner of a dance hall in the State of California paid, under protest, the taxes levied by section 901 of the Social Security Act, and sued for their recovery. The taxes paid were based on wages paid to so-called "taxi-dancers" in his establishment. The District Court held for the Collector of Internal Revenue, and the Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed that decision in *Matcovich* v. *Anglim, as Collector, etc.*[18]

The dance hall was operated under permit or license required by city ordinance. All female dancers were required to have the approval of the city police. The dance-hall operator and the dancers subscribed to a form contract which provided that the dancers were "licensees," that they should not become employees of the operator nor subject to his control, and that the licensees agreed to abide by all regulations established by the operator. Dancers were compensated by payment of a specified amount per dance, upon surrendering tickets collected from male patrons of the establishment, and were also paid commissions on refreshments purchased by such patrons. There was testimony that some dancers were regulated as to the kind of clothes they might wear. The hours of work were controlled by police regulation. The operator clearly had the power to hire dancers (subject to police approval) and to terminate the relationship at will.

[16] — Fed. Supp. — (District Court of the United States for the District of Puerto Rico, Mar. 22, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.

[17] Compare, *Martinez* v. *Johnson*, 119 Pac. (2d) 880 (Nev. Sup. Ct., 1941); *Lewis* v. *Ferrari*, 34 Calif. App. (2d) 767, 90 Pac. (2d) 384; *Short* v. *Bullion-Beck Co.*, 20 Utah 20, 57 Pac. 720.

[18] — Fed. (2d) — (Mar. 30, 1943). Citation not available as this issue went to press.

The operator contended that the dancers were licensees and not employees.[19]

The Court of Appeals held that the question as to whether an individual is an employee is to be determined by "the familiar principles of the common law." Notwithstanding that a State court had held that the operator was not an employer within the meaning of the California Unemployment Reserves Act, the Court held that the facts above set forth contained sufficient elements of the employer-employee relation to warrant the conclusion that the dancers were in "employment." It observed that all of the usual controls of that relationship could be exercised through the licensing arrangement. It refused to consider the characterization of the relationship in the contract as conclusive, and quoted the following pertinent passage from *Griffiths* v. *Commissioner*, 308 U. S. 355, 358, on the meaning of such legislative words as "employment":

* * * Legislative words are not inert and derive vitality from the obvious purposes at which they are aimed. * * * Taxes cannot be escaped "by anticipatory arrangements and contracts, however skillfully devised * * * by which fruits are attributed to a different tree from that on which they grew! *Lucas* v. *Earl*, 281 U. S. 111, 115.

[19] "Employment is defined in section 907 of the Social Security Act, as amended, as "any service of what ever nature, performed within the United States by an employee for his employer."

Cooperation

COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN GERMANY[1]

THE consumers' cooperative movement in Germany had become such an integral part of the lives of the workers that, in spite of Nazi antagonism, it was not until 1942—about 9 years after the advent of the Hitler régime—that the latter was able entirely to destroy it.

The cooperative movement in Germany started in 1849, when Hermann Schulze, a local judge in the town of Delitzsch, started an association to purchase raw materials for a group of joiners. It was not until 1867, however, that legal status was achieved by the cooperatives in Prussia, with the passage of a cooperative law for that State. In the succeeding years similar laws were passed in other parts of Germany, and finally, in 1873, a national statute was enacted. With that encouragement all forms of cooperative associations developed, until by the time of the first World War the German cooperative movement was one of the most successful in Europe. Although a working-class movement whose members had little margin of economic safety, its inherent soundness enabled it to withstand not only the hardships of World War I but also the series of crises that occurred in the next 15 years—depression, inflation, deflation, and then partial recovery toward the end of the twenties. The great depression beginning in 1929, the bank shut-down, and the prevailing unemployment (with drastically decreased purchasing power of its members) presented almost insuperable difficulties. Nevertheless, the movement had not only survived but was showing unmistakable signs of recovery when the Nazis came to power.

The consumers' cooperatives immediately felt the weight of the oppressor. As champions of the small private retailers, the Nazis quickly took steps for the control and eventually the extinction of the cooperative distributive movement. However, its very great hold upon the masses of the people who looked upon it not only as a source of supply but as a creation of their own, built upon their hard-won savings, forced the National Socialists to slow their rate of advance upon it. Therefore, over 8 years went by before they were able to achieve their goal of final suppression, under the decree of February 28, 1941. Even then more than a year was required before the movement was finally absorbed into the Labor Front.

The German cooperative movement appears to have appealed particularly to three sections of the population: (1) The farmers, who organized credit associations as well as marketing and processing associations; (2) workmen, who started not only store associations to supply their household needs but various kinds of productive associations; and (3) businessmen, who saw in joint undertakings of a cooperative character an opportunity to pool their buying power

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Florence E. Parker.

and therefore organized associations for the purchase of their stock in trade as well as those to manufacture articles needed in their business. Enterprises of private business are not usually regarded as part of the cooperative movement of a country, but in Germany the official statistics have always included them. These numbered about 1,300.

Among the genuinely cooperative types were some 20,000 savings and loan associations (table 1), many of which carried on purchasing of supplies for members, between 3,500 and 4,000 cooperative building associations, about 1,600 retail store associations, less than 200 workers' productive and labor associations and about 1,600 supply associations buying raw materials and doing warehousing and marketing for associations of workers (journeymen). Among the crafts in which such cooperatives existed at the beginning of 1932 were bakers, confectioners, millers, tailors, weavers, furriers, locksmiths, plumbers, pipefitters, gunsmiths, ropemakers, saddlers, shoemakers, upholsterers, bookbinders, butchers, workers in hides and skins, painters, cabinetmakers, wood turners and other woodworkers, building-trades workers, hairdressers, basketmakers, potters, glaziers, stove fitters, roof tilers, and gardeners.

The "miscellaneous" group of associations contained probably as varied a lot of associations as could be found in the cooperative movement of any country. In one year alone new societies were formed to carry on the following functions: Water supply, breeding of fur-bearing animals, radio supply and operation, assistance to the blind, cultivation of medicinal herbs, house repair, road construction, sale of German books and writings, giving of apprentice training for the metal industry, operation of sanatoriums, convalescent homes, and old people's homes, motor transportation of goods, publishing, silkworm culture, hiring out of beach chairs, theatrical production, and provision of information on matters related to "transportation, amusement, and intellectual life."

The number of associations of each type, as shown by official statistics, for specified years prior to the National-Socialist régime, is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Cooperatives* [1] *in Germany in Specified Years, by Type*

Type of association	Number of associations, January 1—			
	1922	1923	1932	1933
All types	46,615	49,052	52,328	51,795
Credit (savings and loan), urban and rural	20,566	20,931	21,880	21,607
Consumers' retail associations	2,411	2,475	1,695	1,674
Housing (building) associations	3,064	3,265	3,939	3,813
Supply, etc., cooperatives of craft groups	3,503	3,493	1,726	1,670
Labor cooperatives	317	296	164	158
Farmers' marketing, processing, etc., associations	14,818	16,580	18,800	18,821
Private dealers' purchasing associations [2]	1,333	1,424	1,296	1,295
Joint productive enterprises of private business [2]	603	588	558	559
Miscellaneous	(3)	(3)	2,270	2,198

[1] Includes types not usually regarded as cooperative.
[2] Not usually regarded as part of the cooperative movement.
[3] No data.

Cooperative Housing (Building) Associations

There appear to be very little data regarding the housing associations. In 1914 these associations had a combined membership of 292,389. By 1928, the 2,706 associations affiliated to the Union of Housing Federations had 633,629 members. Eight years later 3,490 associations were members of the Union and had 673,285 members.

That these associations formed an important source of housing in Germany is indicated by the fact that in 1927, of 281,090 dwellings constructed, 78,426 (27.9 percent) were erected by the cooperatives, 60.3 percent by private builders, and 11.8 percent by the public authorities. Tabulation of the proportions built by cooperatives in that year, by size of community, indicated that these organizations were relatively most important in the cities, having built over half of the total housing in large cities. In Berlin, 68.3 percent of the dwellings erected in 1927 were built by cooperatives.

Population of—	*Cooperative construction as percent of total dwellings*
Less than 2,000	5. 1
2,000 and under 5,000	12. 7
5,000 and under 10,000	18. 0
10,000 and under 20,000	26. 4
20,000 and under 50,000	33. 8
50,000 and under 100,000	34. 4
100,000 and over	51. 1
All groups	27. 9

In 1929 cooperative housing associations constructed 109,121 dwellings—18,300 more than in 1928. No later data on this point are available.

Credit and Agricultural Associations

Germany has the distinction of being the initiator of cooperative credit. Hermann Schulze, who had been the first person to organize a purchasing association, was also the first to start a credit cooperative in 1853. The subsequent spread of this type of association in Germany was largely the result of his unremitting advocacy through brochures, speeches, and organizing ability.

The Schulze-Delitzsch credit cooperatives were intended mainly for artisans and small tradesmen in the urban districts, but larger businesses also found them useful. An adaptation of the Schulze-Delitzsch idea was worked out a few years later for the benefit of rural and farm classes of the population, by Friederich Wilhelm Raiffeisen, burgomaster of a small town in a poor farming region. The associations promoted by Raiffeisen were combinations of lending of money and purchasing of farm supplies. The Raiffeisen associations spread much more quickly than the Schulze associations and by the end of the century outnumbered the latter by 3 or 4 to 1. By 1932, of 21,880 credit cooperatives, 19,910 (about 91 percent) were farmers' organizations of the Raiffeisen type.

Most of the urban credit associations are members of the German Cooperative Union (*Deutscher Genossenschaftsverband*). The Raiffeisen associations were, until 1930, affiliated to the General Raiffeisen Union. In that year, however, this organization merged with the

union of agricultural cooperatives to form the National Union of Agricultural-Raiffeisen Cooperatives.

Agricultural producing, processing, and marketing associations have always formed one of the largest groups of cooperatives in Germany. The credit associations have long led in numbers but, as noted, most of these were farmers' organizations. In 1932, counting the rural credit associations, the agricultural cooperatives formed about 75 percent of all the cooperative associations in Germany.

The farmers' cooperatives have taken varied forms. In 1932 the largest group of agricultural cooperatives (aside from the savings and loan associations) consisted of 6,677 organizations specializing in the sale of one or more farm commodities. Electricity associations, numbering 5,863, comprised the next largest group.

Nearly 90 percent of these agricultural cooperatives were members of the National Union of Agricultural-Raiffeisen Cooperatives. At the end of 1931 the associations belonging to the National Union had a combined membership of 3,800,000.

The farmers' cooperatives had had a good deal of Government assistance in the form of credits. In June 1931, just before the banking crisis, loans to agricultural cooperatives formed 82 percent of all outstanding loans of the Preussen-Kasse.[1] The general economic situation of the country was reflected in the condition of the farmers' cooperatives, their credit associations being particularly affected. Nevertheless, in spite of the fact that in the last 6 months of 1931 these small credit associations had withdrawals amounting to 10.5 percent of their total deposits, they suffered less in this respect than did the savings-deposit departments of the consumers' cooperatives.

A small percentage of the agricultural credit cooperatives were unable to meet these withdrawals and had to close their doors, but the vast majority weathered the storm. Their success in meeting the situation was due mainly to the fact that the banking crisis occurred just at the time the crops were being sold and the borrowers were repaying their loans.

The farmers' purchase and supply associations also suffered severely, for they had made the mistake of allowing considerable credit. When many of the accounts could not be paid, the associations also had no money with which to pay the wholesale for their own supplies.

In spite of these difficulties most of the agricultural cooperatives were able to continue and the cooperative marketing associations in 1931 handled about 7 percent of all the wheat, rye, oats, and barley; in certain States, however, the proportion was much greater (over 50 percent in Saxony, 60 percent in East Prussia, and 70 percent in Pomerania). In 1929, about 30 percent of the slaughtering of cattle in 38 cattle markets was handled by cooperative slaughterhouses. In 1930, more than a quarter of the total German production of butter came from cooperative dairies. The egg-marketing associations handled 12½ percent of all the eggs marketed at wholesale, and in the first 5 months of 1931 this proportion rose to between 35 and 40 percent.

The associations affiliated to the National Union of Agricultural Cooperatives had 27 regional wholesales which marketed their members' products and purchased their farm and household needs for them.

[1] A bank controlled by the Federal Government and the State of Prussia.

In 1931 their purchases of supplies amounted to 448,389,996 reichsmarks and their sales of farm products to 327,088,460 reichsmarks.

Distributive Cooperatives

Before World War I, German distributive cooperatives were prohibited by the law of 1889 from selling to nonmembers, and Government employees and officials were liable to dismissal if they joined cooperatives (nevertheless, numbers of employees' associations were in operation as joint-stock enterprises). In recognition of the associations' maintenance of food prices during the war-period food panic, the Government lifted the restriction on public-employee membership. This resulted in a considerable increase in the total cooperative membership, but most of these new members joined separate new associations formed by Government workers.

According to a report to the United States Secretary of State, in 1920, from the United States Commissioner at Berlin, cooperative associations were "one form of economic activity that stood the great test and even increased" during the period 1913–20. He noted that, of all types of cooperative organizations, the consumers' cooperatives were the only ones that showed any increase in membership from 1915 to 1917.

By the beginning of 1923 there were 2,475 retail cooperative associations, about 65 percent of which (including practically all of the larger ones) were affiliated to one or the other of two central organizations—the Central Union of Consumers' Cooperatives (*Zentralverband deutscher Konsumvereine*) and the National Union of Consumers' Cooperatives (*Reichsverband deutscher Konsumvereine*).

Reports from United States consuls in Germany, written at that time, commented that the consumers' cooperative movement had "thoroughly established itself as a permanent and substantial element in the national economy" and that the associations had successfully survived the "business crises" of the post-war years. They had, however, lost the controlling influence on prices which they had possessed before the war.

One of these reports pointed out that, because of the depreciation of the currency, "a business enterprise [in Germany] can be maintained at a given level only by constant enlargement of its nominal capital." To meet this situation cooperative associations were doing their utmost to attract additional funds. They issued bonds, increased the amount of shares required from each member, and urged the members to deposit their savings with the cooperative associations.

However, the economic and monetary situation rapidly went from bad to worse. Money had less and less value. Before ordered goods could be delivered, the amount of money required for its purchase would be multiplied many times. Cooperatives, like other businesses, suffered greatly from these conditions. A report by the International Labor Office pointed out that by the beginning of 1924, "after 10 years of war and inflation, the distributive societies were practically in ruins," although externally the movement was still "imposing."

The currency was stabilized in November 1923. The effect was that the amount of money outstanding was reduced from 1,955,001,736,412,000 (paper) marks in October 1923 to 589,841 (gold) reichsmarks in November.

The cooperative associations were among the first to revalue their accounts. Savings deposits of members were revalued at a rate very favorable to the members, but of course this increased the difficulties of the associations, for it made their burden of liabilities heavier. As a result of the inflation and the subsequent revalorization their working capital was practically destroyed and reserves were wiped out almost completely. "Indeed," the International Labor Office commented, "when stabilization was introduced the distributive movement had to be built up again from the beginning."

Since 1903 the German consumers' cooperatives had had savings departments and had relied upon them to a large extent for the financing of the business enterprises. Savings deposited with the associations affiliated to the Zentralverband amounted to 80,200,000 marks in 1913 and rose to 146,694,000 marks at the end of 1918. The loss incident to the inflation and subsequent revaluation is indicated by the fact that the savings deposits (in terms of the new gold currency) amounted to only 49,500,000 reichsmarks in 1924. So successful were the associations in attracting new loan capital, however, that by 1926 the amount had increased to 138,000,000 reichsmarks and by 1928 to 292,500,000 reichsmarks.

During this whole difficult period the consumers' cooperatives pursued a policy designed to strengthen and stabilize the movement. Nonpurchasing members were removed from the roster, small associations were merged into larger and sounder organizations, and a policy of "scientific management," or "rationalization," was introduced which resulted in improved efficiency and reduction of operating expenses. These measures were largely responsible for the survival of the movement, although a great many local associations (as also an even greater number of private businesses) went into bankruptcy or voluntary dissolution.

The remarkable recuperative powers of the consumers' cooperatives and the loyalty of their members were demonstrated by the fact that by 1928 this branch of the cooperative movement had reached and exceeded its pre-war level.

By 1930 the savings deposits in the consumers' cooperatives reached the sum of 446,900,000 reichsmarks, 95.5 percent of which was deposited in the larger associations with memberships exceeding 400. These funds, as one of the German cooperative papers pointed out, represented the savings of the least-prosperous classes of the population. The total savings deposits in all types of cooperatives in 1930 formed about 23 percent of all savings deposits in Germany.

However, forces were at work that were beyond the control of the cooperators and their leaders. Shortly after the stabilization of the currency in 1923, a downward trend in business activity and employment set in which continued, with increasing velocity, through 1931 and came to a head in a number of economic disturbances not the least of which was the shut-down of all the banks in Germany from July 13 to August 4, 1931. The number of unemployed during the winter of 1931–32 exceeded 6,000,000 in a population of about 65,300,000.

Various attempts were made by the Government to deal with the situation. With a view to raising funds for relief, and at the same time favoring the small retailer, on January 1, 1932, it levied a turn-over tax of 2–2½ percent on all retail trade; in addition many States and municipalities levied special trade taxes on the cooperatives. This

naturally reduced the cooperative earnings (and consequently their patronage refunds), and this in turn reduced the purchasing power of the members.

Conditions in Germany grew so bad that the director of one of the cooperative wholesales (GEG) remarked, prophetically:

> Economic conditions in Germany have reached such a low level that any further deterioration is likely to shake the whole political and economic life of the country to its very foundations. In view of this fact it is necessary that means should be devised, not only in Germany but throughout the whole world economy, of which Germany is an integral part, to effect a return of confidence in international credit and thereby initiate a better trade outlook.

The extreme need of the workers who, as noted, formed the greater part of the cooperative membership forced them to withdraw their savings, in order to tide themselves over, and in 1931 the savings deposits of the associations affiliated to the Zentralverband decreased from 406,000,000 reichsmarks to 319,000,000 reichsmarks.

In September emergency decrees were issued which provided Government credit for business organizations, in an attempt to bolster the economic structure of the country. Only a very small part of this was earmarked for cooperatives and that on such onerous terms that only a part of the credit was ever applied for by the associations.

In an attempt to assist its local associations and enable them to tide over, the Zentralverband in 1931 established an "aid society," capitalized at 14,000,000 reichsmarks, and with supplementary capital guaranteed by the Union. In spite of this the number of affiliated associations fell from 988 to 985 during the year. The number of individual members of the local associations fell by about 60,000, but to some extent this was caused by striking from the roster the names of nonpurchasing members. (In the 8 years ending with 1931 more than 1,600,000 names had been removed for this reason.)

Condition of Consumers' Cooperatives Immediately Preceding National-Socialist Régime

As already noted, most of the consumers' cooperatives were federated into two central organizations—the Zentralverband and the Reichsverband. The Zentralverband was overwhelmingly a working-class organization, over 70 percent of its membership being workers either on farms or in industry, and it was strongly supported by the trade-unions. In the Reichsverband (the more conservative of the two federations), professional people and Government officials and employees formed 31 percent of the membership. The farm and industrial workers (slightly less than 50 percent of the total) were largely connected with the Christian trade-unions.

The following statement shows the occupational distribution of the membership of the associations affiliated to the two federations in 1931:

	Zentral-verband (percent)	*Reichs-verband (percent)*
Workers and employees in industry	69. 2	49. 7
Farm workers	2. 4	. 7
Professional men and Government employees and officials	9. 3	31. 0
Independent businessmen	4. 8	5. 0
Independent farmers	2. 5	3. 2
Retired and other persons without occupation	12. 0	10. 4

Each of the federations had its own wholesale association, to supply goods to the local associations. These were known, from the initials of their names as "GEG" (Zentralverband) and "GEPAG" (Reichsverband).

Table 2 shows the development of the Zentralverband from 1903 (the year of its formation) through 1932. The table also shows such data as are available for the Reichsverband. It will be noted that even during the depression, which reached its lowest point in 1932, both GEG and the local associations affiliated to the Zentralverband made substantial earnings, although a continuous decrease in both earnings and the money volume of sales occurred from 1930 to 1932.

TABLE 2.—*Membership and Business of Two Main German Consumers' Cooperative Federations and Their Members in Specified Years*

ZENTRALVERBAND

Year	Number of member associations	Their members	Their sales	GEG (wholesale)		
				Amount of business	Net earnings	Value of own production
			Rm [1]	*Rm* [1]	*Rm* [1]	*Rm* [1]
1903	666	573,000	131,786,107	26,445,889	115,816	
1914	1,109	1,718,000	486,419,059	157,524,041	2,174,358	10,493,615
1920	1,291	2,714,000	[2]	91,549,934	253,761	11,720,857
1922	1,350	3,161,000	[2]	99,118,624	136,841	9,635,572
1925	1,110	3,382,011	616,188,362	228,169,471	2,460,583	35,339,389
1928	1,024	2,803,232	1,045,962,404	444,371,664	4,361,350	104,720,506
1929	988	2,859,516	1,176,294,809	501,378,122	4,946,369	123,879,470
1930	974	2,940,308	1,240,327,868	495,257,404	4,360,812	137,619,670
1931	968	2,979,210	1,160,156,341	428,419,904	2,232,468	145,326,693
1932	949	2,895,985	944,198,074	339,831,261	1,095,448	129,428,293

REICHSVERBAND

Year	Number of member associations	Their members	Their sales	GEPAG (wholesale)		
				Amount of business	Net earnings	Value of own production
			Rm [1]	*Rm* [1]	*Rm* [1]	*Rm* [1]
1928	276	786,758	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
1929	[2]	764,960	195,500,000	[2]	[2]	[2]
1930	277	792,551	204,600,000	74,000,000	[2]	11,000,000
1931	263	786,709	180,384,179	70,323,220	[2]	10,000,000

[1] Reichsmark at par=40.3 cents.
[2] No data.

In 1931 (as shown by table 2) the two national federations of consumers' cooperatives had in affiliation 1,231 local associations with a combined membership of 3,765,919 persons, or about 6 percent of the total population. Counting their families, the movement was therefore serving about 24 percent of the German people. However, because their business was largely restricted to groceries, meat, and certain household supplies, the cooperative associations accounted for only about 5 percent of the retail trade of Germany. They employed 65,310 persons in 13,575 retail stores.

GEG was a large importer of foreign goods, mostly purchased from cooperative sources. Its imports in 1931 amounted to 11,200,000 reichsmarks, and represented commodities from 22 European countries and Asia.

In 1932, GEG was producing about 40 percent of the goods it sold to the retail associations. Its productive departments included 2 fish canneries, 8 meat-products plants, 4 flour mills, 2 macaroni factories, 2 mills making malt coffee, 7 tobacco factories, 2 soap factories, 2 match factories, 2 clothing factories (and was part owner of a third), and one plant each making vegetable and fruit preserves, cocoa and chocolate, chemicals, cheese, textiles, and lumber. In addition it operated a large farm, a weaving and dyeing shed for cloth, and a stationery and printing plant. It started construction of a margarine factory in 1931 but the depression and subsequent events prevented its completion.

In the same year GEPAG, the wholesale of the Reichsverband, was operating a printing plant, a coffee-roasting plant, and one establishment each making sausages, macaroni, soap, and cigars.

The local associations were also substantial producers, mainly of perishable commodities. In 1931 the retail associations of the Zentralverband group produced goods valued at 317,559,105 reichsmarks. The greater part of these goods consisted of meat products (such as sausage) and bakery goods. In 1930, Reichsverband associations manufactured goods valued at 28,000,000 reichsmarks. Here again, bakery and meat products were the most important items, but the output also included such commodities as macaroni, coffee, sauerkraut, chocolate, distilled liquors, carbonated water, flour, and clothing.

In 1930 and 1931 the Zentralverband associations had net earnings on their business, amounting to 120,900,000 reichsmarks. Of this sum 12,340,604 reichsmarks were returned to members in patronage refunds on their purchases, 56,014 reichsmarks were paid to members in interest on their shares, and 99,035,915 were paid in rebates payable in merchandise. Thus, even in that 2-year depression period the members of these associations directly benefited by the operations of their cooperatives to the amount of 111,432,533 reichsmarks ($4,907,311).

In 1931 a special Committee of Inquiry was appointed by the Government to investigate "conditions of production and sale" in German industry. In the course of its study this Committee examined the consumers' cooperative movement. It found that although rates of pay were often lower in cooperatives than in private business, special allowances (such as commissions on sales, wage bonuses out of associations' earnings), paid vacations, etc., combined to make the actual earnings of rank-and-file workers 10–15 percent above those in private establishments. However, as has been typically the case in all countries, the remuneration of managers and directors of cooperatives was "nowhere on a level" with those of similar officials in private business.

Noting that a large proportion of the cooperatives' net earnings was returned in patronage refunds, the Committee called attention to the fact that the associations affiliated to the Zentralverband had created a pension fund to which association and employees contributed equally and that most of the consumers' cooperatives devoted part of their surplus to welfare purposes (burial funds, convalescent and holiday homes, unemployment relief, etc.). As early as 1918 the Cooperative Association of Hamburg had purchased a mansion on the shores of the Baltic Sea, in which 100 children could be accom-

modated at a time. The home was maintained from a special fund of the cooperative association and each child enjoyed a 4-week stay, free of charge. In 1929 the wholesale GEG paid 1,000,000 reichsmarks for a large holiday home in the Thüringer Wald, with accommodations for 110 vacationers at a time. At Jena there was a special cooperative association, whose duty was the operation of vacation resorts. It had 5,043 members in 1929 and was running 12 holiday homes. This association received support not only from the cooperatives and trade-unions, but also from several of the States and municipalities and sickness-insurance funds. At its 1929 meeting the association voted to organize a central body (in collaboration with all of the supporting organizations) for operating holiday homes.

Cooperatives Under the Nazis

The National Socialists, under Adolf Hitler, came to power in 1933. Table 3 shows the number of associations of each type in each of the 5 years thereafter. For comparative purposes the number at the beginning of 1933 is also shown.

TABLE 3.—*Number of Cooperatives [1] in Germany, 1933 to 1938, by Type*

Type of association	Number of associations, January 1—					
	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938
All types	51,795	51,820	53,631	53,499	52,878	51,988
Credit (savings and loan), urban and rural	21,607	21,323	20,866	20,552	20,283	20,005
Consumers' retail associations	1,674	1,606	1,634	1,582	1,512	1,488
Housing (building) associations	3,813	3,698	3,616	3,507	3,452	3,372
Supply, etc., cooperatives of craft groups	1,670	1,667	1,751	1,890	1,948	1,917
Labor cooperatives	158	153	147	144		
Farmers' marketing, processing, etc., associations	18,821	19,518	22,001	22,429	22,403	22,239
Private dealers' purchasing associations [2]	1,295	1,293	1,315	1,284	1,241	1,201
Joint productive enterprises of private business [2]	559	557	554	550	542	533
Miscellaneous	2,198	2,005	1,747	1,561	1,497	1,233

[1] Includes types not usually considered as cooperative.
[2] Not usually regarded as part of the cooperative movement.

It is apparent that craft and agricultural cooperatives increased in number during the period covered in table 3. The increase in the latter case appears to have been caused by the formation of a large number of dairy cooperatives. In the case of all other types of associations, there was a diminution in number during the 6-year period, and the associations of workers contracting their labor disappeared altogether. In most cases the decrease represented not a contraction of cooperative activity but an actual strengthening of the movement by amalgamations of small associations. Such was not the case, however, in respect to the consumers' cooperatives. The decline of these associations from 1,582 in 1936 to 1,488 in 1938 represented the loss of the largest cooperatives in this branch of the movement. That branch of the movement appears to have been singled out, among all types of cooperatives, for the adverse attention of the Nazis because of the determination of the latter to destroy all forms of business competing with the small private retailers. Accordingly, the large privately owned department stores and chain systems also came under their displeasure, but most especially the consumers' cooperatives

which had large organizations in all the cities and a network of smaller ones throughout Germany.

AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVES

The Review of International Cooperation for November 1938 carried an article summarizing the condition of the agricultural cooperatives after about 4½ years under the National-Socialist government. The following is summarized from that account.

The German agricultural associations had confined their activities strictly to the economic sphere. They regarded themselves as part of the capitalist system and, although they had business competitors, "they had no real opponents." The agricultural associations showed no opposition to the "adjustments" made by the Nazis and the latter apparently had no fundamental objections to the associations. The farmers' cooperatives were incorporated into the Nazi Agricultural Estate and the important administrative posts in the associations were filled by members of the National-Socialist Party.

Comparative data on the distribution of the agricultural cooperatives at the beginning of 1933 (just before the Nazis came into power) and at the beginning of 1938 are shown in the accompanying statement:

	Number of associations	
	1933	*1938*
Savings and loan (credit) associations	19, 565	17, 890
Purchasing and marketing associations	4, 142	3, 251
Specialized marketing associations	6, 944	10, 904
Service associations:		
Electricity associations	5, 743	4, 802
Other	1, 806	2, 805
Miscellaneous associations	2, 025	701
Total	40, 225	40, 353

The total number of agricultural credit associations had shrunk, but this was due to the merger of small associations with larger and more stable ones; the total membership of the credit associations had remained practically unchanged at about 2,000,000. The improved purchasing power in agriculture, "effected largely at the expense of other sections of the population," resulted in increasing the deposits of the credit associations from 1,723,700,000 reichsmarks at the beginning of 1932 to 2,599,900,000 reichsmarks at the beginning of 1938. Most of these associations also did purchasing of farm supplies; their purchasing business had increased from 275,000,000 Rm. in 1932 to 408,500,000 Rm. in 1935.

The marketing and purchasing associations, although they had only "very limited freedom of action," as the delivery of grain, milk, etc., by farmers was very strictly regulated, nevertheless increased their business and sales. About 45 percent of the cereal crops and about 70 percent of the milk was handled by cooperative marketing associations.

In 1935 the cooperative electricity associations formed about one-third of all organizations supplying electric power. A law of 1935 placed all electric-power organizations under the Ministry of Economy and provided for the merger of all enterprises in a given region into one. It also provided that an enterprise might be dissolved if it was unable to supply the needs of the region. As the electricity coopera-

tives were generally small, a number of them "which for many years had done pioneer work in the villages" were dissolved under this provision.

On the whole it can be said that the agricultural cooperative societies, unlike the consumers' societies, have, with a few exceptions, developed favorably from the purely economic point of view since 1933.

As regards freedom of activity and action, all cooperative societies, through their incorporation in the "Reichsnährstand," have been restricted to such an extent that they today form more or less a part of the machinery for the direction of National-Socialist economy.

CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVES

Among the first acts of the National Socialists was the merger (in August 1933) of five central consumers' cooperative organizations—the Zentralverband, the Reichsverband, their two wholesales (GEG at Hamburg and GEPAG at Cologne), and the Printing Association of the Zentralverband. All of the five organizations were dissolved and a new organization, Reichsbund der deutschen Verbrauchergenossenschaften, was formed. Although the authorities stated that they had not seized these central organizations, but had merely taken them into "protective custody," they abolished the right of membership voting, placed the management in the hands of Government appointees, and gave orders to incorporate the whole consumers' cooperative system into the Labor Front. Cooperatives were even forbidden to receive the Review of International Cooperation, published by the International Cooperative Alliance of which the German cooperative movement was a member.

At the same time, the whole consumers' cooperative movement was divided into 11 regional unions, each headed by a commissioner who was given the authority to sit with the board of directors of the cooperative associations and to "direct decisions." Cooperative sources stated that many of these commissioners were drawn from the ranks of the private traders, and that some of them later obtained full-time jobs as directors of cooperative enterprises which they then proceeded to run like private businesses.

Less than a year after the merger that formed the Reichsbund, the organization was again divided, the Reichsbund retaining only propaganda functions and a new German Wholesale Society (without even the name "cooperative") being formed for purely trading purposes. The latter immediately issued a statement that it would operate as a "private economic enterprise," and that its services would not be restricted to cooperatives but it would sell to anybody.

During the next few years the attitude of the State public authorities toward the consumers' cooperative movement varied from the almost cordial (as in Württemburg) to extreme suppression (as in Gau). The measures taken by the central Government showed the same vacillation.

The fact that the cooperative movement represented such a large section of the population and was so intimately bound up with German economic life made it only prudent for the Government to move upon it slowly. Realizing that the consumers' cooperatives were "made up of the most substantial elements among the working classes" whom the Nazis desired to bring into their fold, the Government resisted the demands of the retailers for the immediate extinc-

tion of the cooperative movement. The Nazi director of consumers' cooperatives (Karl Meuller) stated in November 1933 that he was endeavoring to "solve the consumer cooperative problem in the interests of the entire people."

Shortly thereafter Dr. Ley, Leader of the Labor Front, proposed a plan whereby all the cooperative stores would be turned into independent private retail stores. This was impractical and also was opposed by the existing retailers who feared that it would result in an additional source of competition. Reichswirtschaft-Minister Schmitt pointed out that the cooperatives had become "purified" by incorporation in the Labor Front, and that no measure should be taken which would cause a run upon or endanger the savings of the workers deposited with the cooperatives. He was of the opinion that the "unfortunate situation" of those cooperatives which needed help had arisen out of the struggle with the private dealers. He pointed out that—

> Consumers' cooperatives as such have proven themselves to be financially and economically sound and have demonstrated strong powers of resistance to the crisis. * * * Fundamentally the consumers' cooperatives as well as the private retailers have as their prime object the serving of the interests of the people as a whole and it is the function of both to make it possible for the consumers, especially those with the least purchasing power, to satisfy their purchases of the necessaries of life at reasonable and bearable prices. In fulfilling this function it is precisely the consumers' cooperatives which have earned great merit in the distribution of goods. They have, furthermore, proven to be a necessary price regulating factor in the business world, which in the future cannot be dispensed with.

He enjoined the officials of the various States to be on the watch to prevent attacks on cooperatives. About the same time Director Meuller issued a circular to his 11 regional cooperative commissioners calling attention to Dr. Schmitt's statement of policy and recommending that they issue a similar statement for their district.

Workers' incomes and employment had improved in 1935, largely as a result of the rapid development of armaments, but this improvement in buying power found no reflection in the consumers' cooperative movement whose total business continued to decline and whose share of the total retail trade fell to 2 percent in 1935. The Wholesale Society, no longer depending upon business with cooperatives only, fared better than the retail associations.

For nearly 2 years, during which the wavering Party policy resulted in a do-nothing attitude, the cooperatives were able to continue, although under strict supervision. However, both membership and business dwindled steadily, largely as a result of the panic induced by the early Nazi acts.

Then, ostensibly to protect the movement, a law regulating cooperatives was passed on May 21, 1935. The purpose of this law (which was signed by Hitler, Dr. Schacht, and Graf von Krosigk) was to bring about the extinction of the consumers' cooperative movement—painlessly if possible. Under the law no new cooperatives could be formed without express permission of the Federal Minister of Economy—a provision which effectively prevented any expansion. As an inducement to voluntary liquidation by the Associations, the law made an appropriation of 60,000,000 reichsmarks to be used as a guaranty to the savings depositors of the assotions, if dissolution was undertaken within a specified time. The

usual provision of cooperative bylaws, requiring a three-fourths vote by a special meeting of the membership before an association could be dissolved was changed to allow an association to be terminated by unanimous vote of the directors or a simple majority vote at a membership meeting, convened at the request of one-tenth of the members "or their representatives." No cooperative association was allowed, after the passage of the law, to accept any additional deposits and all savings departments were to be closed by December 31, 1940. (This, of course, prevented the workers from investing in their own enterprises and wiped out what had always been one of the main sources of capital for the movement, besides placing a very great burden upon the associations, which had the greater part of the funds tied up in plant, stocks, equipment, etc. To refund all these savings meant the liquidation of a large part of cooperative holdings.) Finally, the law placed all the remaining cooperatives under the "strict regulation" of the Federal Minister of Economy. This, according to a report of the United States vice consul at Berlin, "will enable it [the Government] legally to do what it wishes with the cooperatives, and eventually call for their final dissolution if it so desires."

The law was expressly limited to the member associations of the Reichsbund, but this organization contained practically all the consumers' cooperatives in Germany.

The International Cooperative Alliance pointed out that "nothing is more typical of the lack of freedom of the German cooperative movement than the fact that the German consumers' cooperative press does not dare to offer one word of serious criticism of this bill!" (The Alliance had, early in 1934, deprived the German cooperative movement of its membership in the Alliance on the ground that it was no longer free.) It noted that "propaganda for the ideals" of consumers' cooperation had been forbidden for some time and vision as to the "final goal of cooperation has long since disappeared from the German consumers' movement."

A Nazi professor named Ruth had previously delivered the opinion that no cooperative association should be larger than 200 members. He expressed himself as being concerned with the lack of democracy in large associations. The same view as to the undesirability of large cooperatives "as aberrations, even from the cooperative point of view," was later voiced by the Nazi head of the Reichsbund. In view of the express purpose of this 1935 law to induce the liquidation of the consumers' cooperatives as fast as possible, it is significant that the 82 cooperatives (of about 1,200 affiliated to the Reichsbund) that were singled out as being "unsound" financially [2] included all the largest associations in Germany, which together accounted for 60 percent of the total capital of the movement and about half of the business. The two Berlin associations alone had 284,000 members.

Some of the larger associations were closed, others were turned over to former managers as private enterprises. The latter was the situation with regard to the larger of the two Berlin associations. In October 1935, Ministerialrat Dr. Zee-Heraeus, reporting on the process of liquidation of the cooperative associations, remarked that "in trying to broaden the scope of the independent retailer the

[2] The International Cooperative Review of August 1935 remarked: "The alleged financial instability of the German consumers' societies is a charge which carries no conviction to anyone who has known the German cooperative movement during the last quarter of a century."

Government is trying to transfer cooperative premises to independent traders." He noted that of the 72 associations all or partially liquidated, 10 percent of their 3,000 stores had been closed, 35 percent had been turned over to independent dealers, and 55 percent had been or would shortly be transferred to private companies. The so-called "privatization" method resulted in a hybrid that was neither private nor cooperative. Some of the organizations were under individual management and some were managed as subsidiaries by the wholesale society.

The severity of reduction in the movement varied greatly from region to region. The International Cooperative Alliance, reviewing the situation as it existed at the end of 1936, stated:

> The effects of the Decree of 21st May, 1935, in the various districts are clearly shown in the annual reports of the auditing unions. The Auditing Union for East Germany has suffered most, as a result of the liquidation of the Berlin society. In its present sphere of activity there remain 65 societies with 118,000 members, apart from 12 societies with 295,000 members which are to be liquidated. The strongly cooperatively organized Rhineland was only able to save 237,000 members out of the 525,000 members which it had before the liquidation of societies. The industrial district of Saxony has lost nearly half of its members, and out of 305,000 members before the liquidations there only remain 171,000. Northwest Germany has also suffered very severely, the membership being reduced from 349,000 to 208,000, while the largest society in the district, with over 80,000 members, is still in danger. In Württemberg, on the other hand, where the cooperative societies have always worked on a rather broad social basis, the movement has suffered least and this auditing union is, in reality, the only one which has not suffered directly from the effects of the decree.

Altogether the consumers' cooperative movement lost about 1½ million members as a direct result of the law of May 1935. At the beginning of 1938 not quite two-thirds (1,294,000) of the members were wage earners, 221,000 were public employees, 91,000 were independent traders and artisans, 64,000 were farmers, and 283,000 were persons without stated occupation.

In addition to the contraction incident to the dissolution of the individual associations, with the consequent loss to the movement of their membership and facilities, the central organizations had had losses of productive plant. Under a law passed on January 10, 1936, the two match factories belonging to the former GEG were turned over to the Match Monopoly (a private cartel), with the proviso that their earnings were to be handed over to the Government. Some of the other productive departments were either closed or liquidated.

The year 1937 was marked by what, in comparison with preceding years, might be regarded as a certain degree of tranquillity. Cooperative business showed a slight improvement, the rate of membership decrease slackened, and interference by the Nazis was not so great.

The total number of workers employed had declined to 39,411, of whom 9,084 were employed by the wholesale and 30,327 by the retail associations. (In 1932 more than 65,000 had been employed in the associations affiliated to the two national federations alone.)

Data showing the effects of all the foregoing events upon the membership and business of the local and central organizations are shown in table 4. It gives the combined data for the Zentralverband and Reichsverband for 1932 and 1933 and for the Reichsbund (formed in 1933) for 1934–37, the latest year for which data are available.

TABLE 4.—*Membership and Business of Reichsbund,*[1] *in Specified Years*

Year	Number of member associations	Their members	Their sales	Wholesale	
				Amount of business	Value of own production
			Rm [2]	*Rm* [2]	*Rm* [2]
1932 [3]	1,208	3,654,402	1,095,095,769	339,831,261	137,000,000
1933 [3]	1,154	3,334,400	818,488,609	279,940,844	108,000,000
1934	(4)	3,210,000	660,100,000	295,266,000	(4)
1935	1,113	2,130,000	502,000,000	289,419,000	(4)
1936	(4)	2,094,500	510,000,000	309,999,304	(4)
1937	1,162	2,010,900	532,069,098	330,009,321	120,608,663

[1] Formed in 1933 by merger of Zentralverband and Reichsverband and their wholesales.
[2] Reichsmark at par=40.3 cents.
[3] Data represent combined figures for Zentralverband and Reichsverband.
[4] No data.

The war broke out in 1939, after which time no statistical data regarding the German consumers' cooperative movement were obtainable. Evidently, however, the cooperatives continued to operate in some fashion until early in 1941. Then on February 28, Dr. Walter Funk, Federal Minister of Economy, issued a decree putting an end to the consumers' cooperative movement not only in Germany proper but also in the former Austria and the Sudetenland. This decree provided for the transfer to the Labor Front of all property and funds of both wholesale and retail associations in all these territories, with the proviso that all the retail associations were to be "converted into model retail shops and turned over to private ownership." However, this latter transformation will, apparently, have to be postponed until after the war, for it is intended that the shops shall be given to veterans who fought at the front, as a reward for their services. It remains to be seen how this can be done and at the same time fulfill the Nazis' promise to refund to the cooperative members their equity in deposits, shares, and social capital, so that they "will not suffer any material loss."

In announcing the new decree, Dr. Ley, head of the Labor Front, made the following comments:

> Consumers' cooperative societies have always been one of our strongest opponents. * * * It may be readily understood that the problem of the cooperatives was difficult for National Socialism to solve when it came into power. The worker saw in the cooperative movement something he had created and in which he had invested many millions of capital, as well as millions of savings. For this reason, we could not have liquidated the cooperatives without causing great disquiet among the broad masses. Besides, we saw that important industrial centers, and even entire regions, were dependent on the cooperative distributive system. The industrial regions of the Rhineland, and particularly of Ostmark [Austria], could not be provided with food and other household goods without the distributive machinery of consumers' cooperatives. Moreover, there were a great number of productive units which could not be suppressed without causing serious economic disturbance. On the other hand, to let them continue meant undeniable political danger, for their ten million members were all enemies of National Socialism and elements of the Centre party (Catholic) and Marxism.

At the same time he stated that the taking over of the cooperative associations would enable the Government to use cooperative personnel to man the machinery for retail distribution in the newly acquired territories in the East and to operate the businesses seized from the Polish and Jewish communities there.

Under the reorganization the separate branches of the movement—wholesaling, productive, and retailing—were to be made subsidiary enterprises of the Public Works Management (the operating machinery of the Labor Front). The announcement of the decree was accompanied by an appeal to the cooperative employees to do their utmost to "explain away and eliminate any cause for unrest among the members."

By the middle of 1942, the "reorganization" had been to a large extent completed. Although the size of the individual cooperatives had been one of the main points of criticism by the Nazis, under the reorganization a large-scale regional concentration was effected, far beyond that ever achieved by the cooperatives. At the same time the capital of the organizations was much enlarged—a circumstance that led the International Cooperative Alliance to wonder whether this might not represent another manifestation of the expansionist tendencies of the Labor Front, whose Labor Bank is now one of the largest in Germany and which has practically taken control of the banking machinery in the conquered territories.

The cooperative press (which had long ago lost its freedom of expression) ceased publication on January 1, 1942. In view of the other developments, this was a logical step, since (in the words of the International Cooperative Alliance) "it had no longer a cause to defend nor a public to serve."

Thus, after 9 years under Nazi rule, the German consumers' cooperative movement came to an end. However, there still remain thousands of workers—cooperators—and their families to whom the cooperative is a tradition and a necessary way of life and it is upon them that the task of rebuilding the movement after the close of the war will depend.

SOURCES: This section is based on data from the following publications: Report from United States Commissioner at Berlin, August 11, 1920; United States consular reports, July 1922; February 21, May 25, and June 14, 1923 (No. 335); November 20, 1924 (No. 34); September 28, 1925 (No. 424); May 24 (No. 724) and December 20, 1926; January 4, 1927; June 30 (No. 516) and October 11, 1932 (No. 605); June 13 (No. 897) and November 13, 1933 (No. 1033); August 1, 1935 (No. 274); and August 4, 1941 (No. 2882); Cooperative Information (International Labor Office), 114/A, No. 62, 1927, Nos. 4 and 19, 1928, Nos. 2, 4, 7, and 10, 1929, Nos. 3, 4, and 13, 1930, Nos. 11 and 14, 1931, No. 5, 1932, No. 2, 1933, No. 2, 1934, No. 5, 1935, No. 3, 1936, No. 3, 1937, Nos. 3 and 11, 1938, and No. 4, 1941; Review of International Cooperation (International Cooperative Alliance, London), issues of February, May, September, and December 1932, February 1933, February 1934, July and August 1935, February, September, and December 1936, July 1937, August 1938, June and July 1941, and June 1942; People's Yearbooks (English Cooperative Wholesale, Manchester, England), for 1933, 1934, and 1935; International Directory of Cooperative Organizations (International Labor Office), 1929, 1933, and 1939; Cooperative News Service (Cooperative League, New York), March 25, 1927; Consumers' Cooperation (Cooperative League, New York) July 1933; Cooperative Builder (Central Cooperative Wholesale, Superior, Wis.), August 15, 1936; Fascism (International Federation of Trade Unions, Amsterdam), June 29, 1933; and August 22, 1936; Konsumgenossenschaftliche Rundschau (Hamburg), April 21, 1923; Wirtschaftdienst (Hamburg), October 2, 1925; and Jahrbuch des Zentralverbandes deutscher Konsumvereine (Hamburg), 1933.

OPERATIONS OF COOPERATIVES IN NORTH DAKOTA, 1941–42

SOME 500 cooperative associations of various types, out of a total of about 700 in North Dakota, reported a combined business of $57,121,413 for 1941–42. On this business they made net earnings amounting to $2,554,057, and returned to members on their patronage the sum of $1,854,347. These associations had a combined membership of 70,469, but more than twice that number of persons (183,293) were using their services. The above findings are the result of a

study made by the Division of Cooperatives of the North Dakota Department of Agriculture and Labor.[1]

Operations of Cooperatives in North Dakota, 1941–42 [1]

Type of association	Number of associations reporting	Number of members	Number of patrons	Share capital	Total assets	Amount of business	Net earnings	Patronage refunds
All types	502	70,469	183,293	$4,339,992	$19,000,714	$57,121,413	$2,554,057	$1,854,347
Store associations	10	866	4,016	28,068	93,661	278,641	12,245	7,803
Exchange associations	7	1,640	2,750	234,525	616,614	1,700,036	165,499	142,291
Petroleum associations	100	20,500	40,136	1,017,183	2,287,695	6,500,502	548,239	445,429
Creamery associations	27	8,939	17,718	309,423	980,663	5,195,608	185,275	146,248
Grain-elevator associations	190	24,502	40,488	2,254,644	10,974,878	31,877,040	1,522,131	1,076,805
Cream-shipping associations	11	1,404	1,965	10,503	28,399	444,227	16,560	10,431
Livestock-shipping associations	56	992	7,904	6,737	69,668	1,789,656	8,804	2,284
Credit unions	54	5,183	[2] 7,890	327,305	362,348	389,810	14,985	9,476
Insurance associations	29	.....	[3] 47,547	.....	686,842	8,101,774	45,013	.....
Miscellaneous associations	18	6,443	12,879	151,604	2,899,946	844,119	35,306	13,580

[1] Data are for fiscal year of each association, ending some time within 1941–42.
[2] Number of loans made.
[3] Policyholders.

Data for the different kinds of associations, taken from the report, are shown in the accompanying table. The "exchange" associations shown are associations which not only market grain for their members but also carry on a distributive business; generally they handle petroleum products and some farm supplies, but at least one of them handles groceries as well. Of the rest of the grain-elevator associations, many (as their reports to the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics show) handle coal, or petroleum products, or farm supplies, or all of these. A few of the creameries have a cold-storage department which rents locker space to members for meats and other provisions. The "miscellaneous" associations shown in the table include 13 consumers' cooperatives of various kinds (4 electricity associations, 4 telephone associations, 2 cold-storage associations, 1 cooperative wholesale, 1 newspaper, and 1 association operating a cafe) as well as a trucking association and 4 associations doing marketing or processing of agricultural products. It is evident, therefore, that a substantial part of the business, even of the marketing associations, was in consumer goods or services.

[1] Bulletin No. 42: Cooperative Statistics. Bismarck, North Dakota Department of Agriculture and Labor, Division of Cooperatives, 1943.

Housing Conditions

NEW DWELLING UNITS IN NONFARM AREAS, FIRST QUARTER OF 1943 [1]

Summary

THE continued downward trend in private building reduced to 114,700 the number of nonfarm family dwelling units on which construction was begun during the first 3 months of 1943. During the same period in the previous year 138,300 units were started. Less than 30 percent of the units started in the first quarter of 1943 were privately financed, as compared with over 80 percent during the same months of 1942 before construction not absolutely essential to the war effort was halted.

Publicly financed housing projects put under construction during the first quarter of 1943 will contain 80,523 family dwelling units. This total was exceeded only during the second quarter of 1942, when 85,420 units were put under contract, and was almost 3 times the 27,388 units started during the first quarter of 1942. (Since the summer of 1942 practically all of the public units started have been temporary structures and have been reserved for families of war workers or military personnel.) During the first quarter of 1943, construction was also begun on public projects containing dormitory accommodations for 8,733 persons and utilities for 12,086 trailers.

Units in one- and two-family houses declined 20 and 63 percent, respectively, from the totals for the first 3 months of 1942, as compared to an increase of 16 percent in the number of multifamily units. One-family dwellings comprised approximately 78 percent of all new units started during the first 3 months of 1943; 2-family units accounted for 2 percent; and multifamily units, for 20 percent. The corresponding distribution during the first quarter of 1942 was as follows: 1-family, 81 percent; 2-family, 5 percent; and multifamily, 14 percent.

Scope of Report

These estimates cover the construction of all new family-dwelling units in the "nonfarm area" of the United States, which consists of all urban and rural nonfarm places. The urban designation is applied to all incorporated places with a population of 2,500 or more in 1940, and, by special rule, to a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. Rural nonfarm construction includes all construction for nonagricultural use in unincorporated areas and incorporated places of less than 2,500 population. Hence, urban construction is classified by location, whereas rural nonfarm construction is classified according to the intended use of individual buildings.

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment by George Schumm.

Building-permit reports collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics have provided the basic information for current estimates of residential construction. The Bureau began the regular collection of these data in 1920, at first including only the larger cities. Since that time coverage has been steadily expanded until it now includes more than 2,400 cities and 1,000 rural incorporated places. In addition, since 1939 a small number of counties have reported building permits issued for their unincorporated areas. Valuable supplementary data, particularly with respect to rural construction, were made available for the period January 1940 through August 1942 by the Defense Housing Survey, a joint enterprise of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the National Housing Agency, and the Work Projects Administration.

Since building permits are issued when construction work is about to start, estimates derived from permits represent the future dwelling-unit capacity of buildings upon which construction was started in the period specified. No attempt is made here to estimate the number of family accommodations gained by alterations and conversions or those lost by demolitions.

Volume of New Residential Construction

Building permits issued in nonfarm areas and contracts awarded for public housing projects indicate that construction was started on approximately 114,700 new nonfarm family-dwelling units during the first 3 months of 1943, or 17 percent less than during the first quarter of 1942. Of these new units, 34,177 were privately financed and 80,523 were in publicly financed housing projects.

Privately financed housing activity, which has been declining since the summer of 1941 when shortages of materials first began to appear, continued to diminish in the first 3 months of 1943. The 34,177 privately financed units started were 69 percent less than were started a year earlier and 23 percent less than during the last quarter of 1942. On the basis of the National Housing Agency's war housing program, some additional curtailment of private residential construction may be expected. However, after making allowance for seasonal factors, it seems probable that private activity will remain at approximately its present level for the remainder of 1943.

Between September 1941 andMarch 1943 applications for priorities covering 391,347 new dwelling units were approved by WPB field offices, including 40,000 started before September 1941, which required priorities assistance for completion. Of these units, 203,772 had been completed by the end of March 1943, and 74,686 more were under construction. In addition, priorities were approved for the conversion of existing structures, to provide accommodations for 42,856 families.

According to the Federal Housing Administration, 30,735 privately financed units were started with priorities assistance during the first quarter of 1943. Since the FHA reports cover only dwelling units actually started with priorities assistance, these data are not strictly comparable with estimates based on building permits issued, and care should be taken when making comparisons.

In marked contrast to the decline in privately financed housing, the 80,523 publicly financed dwelling units put under construction contract during the first 3 months of 1943 were almost 3 times as great as the corresponding 1942 volume and over 40 percent of the total for the

entire year 1942. The Federally financed war housing program, however, is now devoted almost exclusively to the construction of temporary-type units, while private builders supply those units for which there appears to be a permanent need. In addition to the family dwelling units, Federal contracts were awarded for the construction of dormitories to accommodate 8,733 persons and trailer parks to contain 12,086 trailers.

Comparison by Population Groups

The number of rural nonfarm dwelling units started during the first 3 months of 1943 increased 14 percent over the corresponding total for 1942, but this offsets only partially the 34-percent decrease in the number of new units in urban areas. This shift reflects the increasing proportion of Federally financed units being located in rural nonfarm areas, partly to serve isolated war activities and partly because of insufficient suitable sites within urban areas.

Units started in cities having populations of 500,000 and over declined 61 percent—the largest percentage decline from the corresponding total for the first quarter of 1942 for any city-size group. Cities having 10,000 to 25,000 population declined the least of all urban-size groups—8 percent. The privately financed units fell off sharply in all groups, the decreases ranging from 62 percent for cities of 100,000 to 500,000 population to 77 percent for cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population. All groups of cities shared in the increased volume of publicly financed units except those of over 500,000 population, where the number of such new units declined 27 percent. Details are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 3 Months of 1942 and 1943, by Population Group and Source of Funds*

Population group (1940 census)	Total		Source of funds			
			Private		Public	
	First 3 months of—					
	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942
Total nonfarm areas	114,700	138,300	34,177	110,912	80,523	27,388
Percent of change	−17.1		−69.2		+194.0	
Urban areas, all population groups	59,200	89,800	21,305	67,565	37,895	22,235
500,000 population and over	9,200	23,500	3,933	16,320	5,267	7,180
100,000 to 500,000 population	15,700	18,800	5,831	15,267	9,869	3,533
50,000 to 100,000 population	10,900	14,400	1,735	7,452	9,165	6,948
25,000 to 50,000 population	4,500	8,300	1,791	6,096	2,709	2,204
10,000 to 25,000 population	10,800	11,800	3,821	10,412	6,979	1,388
5,000 to 10,000 population	4,700	8,100	2,494	7,268	2,206	832
2,500 to 5,000 population	3,400	4,900	1,700	4,750	1,700	150
Rural nonfarm areas	55,500	48,500	12,872	43,347	42,628	5,153

One-family dwellings comprised 78 percent of all units started during the first 3 months of 1943; 2-family dwellings, 2 percent; and multifamily units, 20 percent. During the same period of 1942, 81 percent of the units were of the single family type; 5 percent were in 2-family houses; and 14 percent were in multifamily structures. The increased

proportion of multifamily units was the result principally of the increase from 8,430 to 17,903 in Federally financed units of this type. Restrictions on building materials were primarily responsible for the fact that 2-family and multifamily units increased from 15 percent of all privately financed units started during the first 3 months of 1942 to 21 percent during the same period in 1943. Details on the distribution of the new dwelling units by type and population group are given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First 3 Months of 1942 and 1943, by Population Group and Type of Dwelling*

Population group (1940 census)	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings [1]		Multifamily dwellings [2]	
	First 3 months of—							
	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942
Total nonfarm areas	114,700	138,300	89,600	111,800	2,700	7,200	22,400	19,300
Percent of change	−17.1		−19.8		−63.0		+16.1	
Urban areas, all population groups	59,200	89,800	43,600	64,500	2,600	6,500	13,000	18,800
500,000 population and over	9,200	23,500	7,000	10,700	500	2,000	1,700	10,800
100,000 to 500,000 population	15,700	18,800	11,800	14,900	900	2,100	3,000	1,800
50,000 to 100,000 population	10,900	14,400	7,400	9,000	200	700	3,300	4,700
25,000 to 50,000 population	4,500	8,300	2,800	7,300	200	600	1,500	400
10,000 to 25,000 population	10,800	11,800	8,100	10,700	500	500	2,200	600
5,000 to 10,000 population	4,700	8,100	3,700	7,300	300	400	700	400
2,500 to 5,000 population	3,400	4,900	2,800	4,600	0	200	600	100
Rural nonfarm areas	55,500	48,500	46,000	47,300	100	700	9,400	500

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison by Geographic Division

The increased concentration of both privately and publicly financed residential construction in areas of greatly expanded industrial and other war activity is shown in table 3. New units in the Mountain States increased 81 percent over the number started during the first quarter of 1942, whereas there was little change in the number started in the Pacific and South Atlantic States. On the other hand, the units started in the Middle Atlantic, West North Central, and East South Central States showed declines of 43, 38, and 56 percent, respectively, from the corresponding total for 1942. Over half of the increase during the fourth quarter of 1942 was concentrated in the South Atlantic States, although all regions except the New England and East South Central States shared in the increase.

Privately financed housing activity, when compared to the first quarter of 1942, declined in all regions, the decreases in number of new units ranging from 59 percent for the South Atlantic States to 78 percent for the East South Central States. More privately financed units were started in the South Atlantic States during the first 3 months of 1943 than in any other region. This region was also the only one showing a substantial increase in this type of construction as compared with the fourth quarter of 1942.

All geographic divisions shared in the greatly expanded public war housing program, although in varying degrees. The number of new units in the Middle Atlantic and East South Central States increased

far less, proportionately, than did the totals for regions of greater war expansion such as the East North Central, Mountain, and Pacific States.

TABLE 3.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First and Fourth Quarters of 1942 and First Quarter of 1943, by Geographic Division and Source of Funds*

Geographic division	Total units			New dwelling units financed by—					
				Private funds			Public funds		
	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942
All divisions	114,700	89,200	138,300	34,177	44,198	110,912	80,523	45,002	27,388
New England	4,300	4,600	5,300	1,150	2,089	3,877	3,150	2,511	1,423
Middle Atlantic	11,600	9,200	20,200	3,698	6,395	15,270	7,902	2,805	4,930
East North Central	16,900	16,300	21,800	6,084	10,596	20,109	10,816	5,704	1,691
West North Central	4,500	2,700	7,300	1,981	1,950	7,100	2,519	750	200
South Atlantic	26,200	12,800	27,100	8,035	6,906	19,442	18,165	5,894	7,658
East South Central	4,600	6,800	10,400	1,760	1,491	8,028	2,840	5,309	2,372
West South Central	11,500	9,400	15,500	4,077	4,802	13,572	7,423	4,598	1,928
Mountain	8,700	2,700	4,800	1,143	975	3,238	7,557	1,725	1,562
Pacific	26,400	24,700	25,900	6,249	8,994	20,276	20,151	15,706	5,624

TABLE 4.—*New Dwelling Units in Nonfarm Areas, First and Fourth Quarters of 1942 and First Quarter of 1943, by Geographic Division and Type of Dwelling*

Geographic division	All types			1-family		
	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942
All divisions	114,700	89,200	138,300	89,600	66,200	111,700
New England	4,300	4,600	5,300	3,100	2,900	4,800
Middle Atlantic	11,600	9,200	20,200	9,700	6,900	15,000
East North Central	16,900	16,300	21,800	14,300	14,100	19,800
West North Central	4,500	2,700	7,300	3,400	2,400	6,400
South Atlantic	26,200	12,800	27,100	18,200	8,700	18,700
East South Central	4,600	6,800	10,400	4,000	2,400	8,800
West South Central	11,500	9,400	15,500	9,100	8,700	14,300
Mountain	8,700	2,700	4,800	5,800	2,500	4,400
Pacific	26,400	24,700	25,900	22,000	17,600	19,500

Geographic division	2-family [1]			Multifamily [2]		
	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942	First quarter 1943	Fourth quarter 1942	First quarter 1942
All divisions	2,700	3,700	7,300	22,400	19,300	19,300
New England	0	0	300	1,200	1,700	200
Middle Atlantic	700	1,300	1,400	1,200	1,000	3,800
East North Central	600	1,100	1,200	2,000	1,100	800
West North Central	400	100	200	700	200	700
South Atlantic	400	300	1,000	7,600	3,800	7,400
East South Central	100	0	1,300	500	4,400	300
West South Central	100	600	700	2,300	100	500
Mountain	200	100	200	2,700	100	200
Pacific	200	200	1,000	4,200	6,900	5,400

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Multifamily units continued to be concentrated largely in the South Atlantic and Pacific States. The number of such units put under construction in the Middle Atlantic States in the first quarter of 1943 was less than a third of the corresponding total for 1942, thus showing a continuation of a downward trend which has been evident since 1940. All other regions except the East South Central had substantial increases in the volume of this type of unit, principally as a result of the large number of such units in war housing projects. The number of 2-family units decreased in all regions except the West North Central and Mountain States.

Estimated Permit Valuation

The permit valuations of the 114,700 new nonfarm family dwelling units started during the first 3 months of 1943 were estimated to aggregate $263,594,000, a decrease of 53 percent from the $464,047,000 estimated total for the same period in 1942. This disproportionate decrease in valuations when compared to the 17-percent decrease in the number of dwelling units is due in part to the increased proportion of publicly financed units and in part to substantially lower average valuations of both publicly and privately financed units. The 17-percent drop that occurred in the average permit valuation of privately financed units was caused primarily by construction-cost limitations, imposed by WPB's Conservation Order L–41 on April 9, 1942. The shift in the Federal war housing program from permanent- to temporary-type units is reflected in the 43-percent decrease in the average cost of these units. Care should be exercised when comparing the public and private aggregates shown in table 5, since the figures for public housing are construction-contract values rather than permit valuations (which latter understate construction costs by about 15.5 percent). When allowance is made for this understatement of privately financed housing costs, it is estimated that construction of the units started during the first quarter of 1943 will involve expenditures of approximately $280,000,000.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Permit Valuation of New Dwellings in Nonfarm Areas, First 3 Months of 1942 and 1943, by Geographic Division and Source of Funds*

[In thousands of dollars]

Geographic division	Total		Private		Public [1]	
	First 3 months of —					
	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942
All divisions	263, 594	464, 047	96, 290	364, 916	167, 304	99, 131
New England	10, 239	21, 485	4, 465	16, 326	5, 774	5, 159
Middle Atlantic	30, 827	79, 130	11, 918	60, 379	18, 909	18, 751
East North Central	47, 951	90, 266	23, 214	83, 577	24, 737	6, 689
West North Central	9, 287	22, 291	4, 693	21, 991	4, 594	300
South Atlantic	60, 403	85, 401	21, 065	54, 461	39, 338	30, 940
East South Central	7, 517	26, 946	2, 964	17, 841	4, 553	9, 105
West South Central	21, 483	41, 402	7, 790	36, 849	13, 693	4, 553
Mountain	20, 094	15, 124	2, 895	9, 295	17, 199	5, 829
Pacific	55, 793	82, 002	17, 286	64, 197	38, 507	17, 805

[1] Contract values.

POSITION OF BRITISH BUILDING SOCIETIES IN 1942

THE financial position of British building societies showed an improvement in 1942 for the first time since the outset of the present war. In an article published in the Federal Home Loan Bank Review,[1] it is stated that 3 years of operation under a policy of "prudent retrenchment" appear to have brought the societies—which are counterparts of building and loan associations in the United States and are important to the wage earner in financing low-cost housing—through the worst of the difficulties created by the war. As the rate of air-raid damage has remained low in recent months, the article here reviewed states, the low point in the financial strain on building societies may have been passed.

In 1941, assets declined, fractionally, owing to heavy mortgage repayment, curtailed lending opportunities, and substantial but not serious withdrawals of share capital and deposits. A few institutions in the North of England were able to improve their position in 1941, but in the South, particularly in and near London, where air-raid damage was heavy, share accounts and assets contracted considerably. However, the 1942 reports for a roughly similar group of institutions show that assets of the greater number of them increased in that year for the first time since war was declared. Withdrawals were at a 3-year low level; new investments and deposits were received in large volume; and many institutions made a substantial number of new loans. The improvement appeared to be general, affecting institutions in sections as widely separated as Scotland and the South of England.

Changes in Assets

At the end of 1939, the assets of 950 operating building societies in Great Britain were at a peak of $3,093,000,000,[2] and they declined at the rates of 2 and 1 percent, respectively, in the following 2 years. From these statistics it is obvious that the basic resources of the societies were never seriously impaired by the damage done in the Battle of Britain. The gains which appear to have taken place in 1942 probably brought total assets above the $3,000,000,000 mark again.

Withdrawals of share capital dropped to a wartime low in 1942. One institution reported that the aggregate withdrawals were $4,000,000 below those of 1941. Others reported that share repurchases were smaller than at any time in the past decade. The societies were more concerned over stemming the flow of funds into the societies than over the withdrawals. Almost without exception, the records showed a substantial volume of new investments and deposits; and nearly every institution had a net increase in share investments during 1942. In the earlier war years, deposit accounts tended to contract more rapidly than shares. Last year, the trends in the movement of deposit accounts varied as between societies. Such decreases as occurred were the result of restrictions placed on new deposits and of planned retirement of accounts accepted on special terms.

Mortgage repayments during 1942 were equal to or greater than those of previous war years. Some records were established in mort-

[1] Federal Home Loan Bank Review (Washington, D. C.), April 1943 (pp. 201–203).
[2] The pound was converted to United States currency at the rate of $4.

gage repayments as, for example, in one society in which payments in full on mortgage accounts rose by 40 percent. New loans have offset repayments in varying degree. Some societies adopted the policy of making loans only where necessary to refinance existing obligations; others made a substantial number of loans for the purchase of existing housing. From the facts available, the Federal Home Loan Bank Board article concludes that the total mortgage holdings of the British building societies registered another substantial percentage decline in 1942. Since these assets were 10 percent below pre-war levels at the end of 1941, they were probably as much as one-eighth below the 1939 level, at the end of 1942.

Liquidity of Funds

Liquid resources gained in 1942 as a result of the reduction in mortgage assets, the gain in share capital, and the heavy mortgage repayments. Cash holdings increased moderately, but the Government-investment account grew at a more rapid rate. Deposits in postal savings were also large. The liquidity ratios of four representative societies, showing the gain in liquidity over the past 3 years, are presented in the following table. These societies have combined assets of several hundred million dollars.

Liquidity Position of Four British Building Societies

Institution	Cash and investments [1]			Ratio of cash and investments to total assets		
	1942	1941	1940	1942	1941	1940
Burnley	$13,878,000	$10,577,000	$6,597,000	22.0	17.1	10.8
Leeds Permanent	28,170,000	17,788,000	10,580,000	17.0	10.9	6.5
National	11,109,000	7,082,000	4,105,000	8.0	5.4	3.0
Woolwich Equitable	19,000,000	14,059,000	11,229,000	13.0	9.4	7.3

[1] Converted at the rate of $4 to £1.

Earnings and Dividends

The recent shift in the composition of assets, and the larger proportion of investments yielding a smaller return, have combined to reduce the earnings still more. Operating costs, particularly for income taxes, amounted in some instances to as much as 1.5 percent of total share capital and deposits. No reduction is foreseen in such costs and they may be greater in coming years. Another heavy drain on earnings is the cost of compulsory war-damage insurance. Although such insurance payments are in the nature of a capital tax, some societies have preferred to meet them out of reserves built from current income.

Dividend rates were generally reduced in 1942 to a tax-free return of 2.5 percent for share accounts and 2.25 percent for deposits. Further reductions were made during 1942 in some instances. When the president of one society announced the reduction of dividends to 2.25 percent on share accounts and to from 1.75 to 2 percent on deposits, he stated that the change was in line with action taken by many other institutions. Even after the dividends were lowered, he pointed out, they were higher than could be obtained from other types

of investment. In some societies older shareholders were rewarded, as for example, by payment of a bonus on old-series shares which were no longer open to new investment, or by making the dividend rate on recent investments and deposits lower than on long-standing accounts.

Resumption of Mortgage Lending

The danger of lending when prices are high was recognized in 1942 as well as in 1941. Some buildings were priced 40 to 50 percent higher than in 1939. Since the war began the societies have been reluctant to enter into new mortgage commitments, and some still take the position that existing conditions do not warrant resumption of mortgage lending. Among this group are certain smaller societies which made no loans during 1942. However, other societies, including the larger ones, resumed "normal mortgage business on a moderate scale." A single organization made 1,000 loans totaling over $2,000,000. To some extent the new lending involved the rewriting of existing contracts, but some societies financed a considerable number of home purchases.

Legal Aid

LEGAL-AID WORK IN THE UNITED STATES, 1941 [1]

IN 1941 there were 143 legal-aid organizations of the service type in the United States. This figure does not include 11 law-school clinics which render legal aid by help extended to local legal-aid organizations. In addition there were 18 State bar-association committees and 102 local bar-association committees, whose functions, as far as was known by the secretary of the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations, did not cover the actual representation of clients; nor did the total of 143 include the State and regional aid associations developed for case referrals.

The 143 service organizations included the following: Independent legal-aid societies, 32; departments of public or private social agencies, 16; bar-association committees with offices and paid staff, 8; public bureaus, 4; volunteer committees, 51; law-school clinics, 8; public defenders, 18; and voluntary defenders, 6. Although these figures are considered encouraging, the secretary of the association reported to the 1942 conference of the organization that of 91 cities in the United States, each of which had a population of more than 100,000, there were 24 with no legal-aid facilities of any type,[2] 19 had the services of a volunteer committee only, and 1 other had only the help of a public defender.

The reported legal-aid work in the United States in the year 1941 included in round numbers the handling of 295,200 new and reopened cases and the collection of $339,000 for clients.[3] The gross cost of operation was approximately $698,000 and the fees and commissions received amounted to about $36,800.

[1] Data are from committee reports and proceedings of National Association of Legal Aid Organizations, 1942 (mimeographed), Rochester, 25 Exchange Street, [1942?].

[2] Akron, Ohio; Birmingham, Ala.; Charlotte, N. C.; Chattanooga, Tenn.; Duluth, Minn.; Elizabeth, N. J.; Fall River, Mass.; Fort Wayne, Ind.; Fort Worth, Tex.; Gary, Ind.; Houston, Tex.; Jersey City, N. J.; Lowell, Mass.; Memphis, Tenn.; Norfolk, Va.; Paterson, N. J.; Somerville, Mass.; Spokane, Wash.; Syracuse, N. Y.; Tacoma, Wash.; Trenton, N. J.; Utica, N. Y.; Wichita, Kans.; and Wilmington, Del.

[3] Includes only collections passing through books of organizations. (See footnote 2 to table 1.)

TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Legal-Aid Work in the United States in 1941*

City	Year association established	Population served	New cases handled [1]	Collected for clients [2]	Gross cost of operation [3]	Fees and commissions [4]
Reporting members of National Association						
Albany, N. Y.	1923	135,000	830	$4,361	$3,774	$426
Atlanta, Ga.	1924	302,000	3,044	6,753	8,733	
Baltimore, Md.	1929	1,000,000	4,780	4,929	18,550	523
Boston, Mass.	1900	2,000,000	9,311	4,744	45,737	9,819
Bridgeport, Conn.	1918	146,716	1,178	2,891	2,820	
Buffalo, N. Y.	1912	719,195	4,965	3,218	31,015	884
Cambridge, Mass.	1914	200,000	730	270	1,546	144
Chicago, Ill.[5]	1886	4,853,363	14,295	57,652	52,167	1,145
Chicago, Ill.[6]	1895	300,000	1,005	3,235	(7)	
Cincinnati, Ohio	1908	789,309	6,362	3,244	9,809	1,348
Cleveland, Ohio	1905	1,250,000	5,666	5,239	13,769	903
Columbus, Ohio	1935	300,000	416	(8)	(9)	
Dallas, Tex.	1915	360,212	1,544	1,623	1,544	
Denver, Colo.	1925	320,000	2,552		6,183	
Des Moines, Iowa	1935	190,000	257		500	
Detroit, Mich.	1909	2,000,000	20,320	51,374	36,779	1,840
Durham, N. C.	1931	80,244	399		(9)	
Erie, Pa.	1939	175,000	309		1,248	
Grand Rapids, Mich.	1921	209,873	1,290	5,055	5,000	298
Harrisburg, Pa.	1940	165,000	75	12	557	
Hartford, Conn.	1927	177,348	966	(8)	2,704	
Indianapolis, Ind.	1941	456,669	660	1,957	4,195	
Jacksonville, Fla.	1931	210,000	694	216	3,524	
Kansas City, Mo.	1910	500,000	6,976	2,021	8,279	
Los Angeles, Calif.	1929	2,000,000	3,792		9,496	
Louisville, Ky.	1921	385,000	9,561	(8)	11,100	37
Madison, Wis.	1931	130,660	298	75	786	
Milwaukee, Wis.	1916	766,885	2,896	4,935	7,257	
Minneapolis, Minn.	1912	485,000	2,068	3,174	8,779	85
New Bedford, Mass.	1923	110,000	(10)			
New Haven, Conn.	1927	168,000	2,954	1,357	2,480	
New Orleans, La.	1932	523,000	398	1,178		
New York, N. Y.[11]	1876	6,054,000	28,637	58,318	121,924	13,876
New York, N. Y.[12]	1910	(13)	1,733		22,589	
Oakland, Calif.	1929	446,000	2,233		4,844	
Philadelphia, Pa.	1901	2,000,000	9,598	48,493	26,747	3,387
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1901	1,411,539	4,420	5,431	10,900	
Portland, Oreg.	1935	350,000	1,239	6,623	(10)	
Providence, R. I.	1921	300,000	851	972	7,405	296
Richmond, Va.	1935	247,000	81		1,432	
Rochester, N. Y.	1910	350,000	3,206	11,971	13,829	328
Salt Lake City, Utah	1921	150,000	483	120	1,400	
San Francisco, Calif.	1916	575,000	3,210	4,418	12,500	
Springfield, Mass.	1925	149,554	3,251	(8)	6,592	308
St. Louis, Mo.	1912	900,000	1,147	5,770	8,105	
St. Paul, Minn.	1913	288,737	684	(8)	6,621	
Tampa, Fla.	1938	181,000	19			
Washington, D. C.	1932	1,000,000	2,165	11,632	6,305	
Yonkers, N. Y.	1916	142,642	89	(8)	(7)	
Reporting nonmembers						
Austin, Tex.	1940	100,000	118		(9)	
Bay City, Mich.	1940	70,000	6			
Bay Shore, N. Y.	1940	10,000	67	540	[14] 40	
Camden, N. J.	1940	255,700	40	(8)		
Carlisle, Pa.	1936	75,000	20			
Decatur, Ill.		75,000	35			
Greensboro, N. C.	1938	60,000	15			
Greenville, S. C.	1939	74,767	34		(7)	
Hackensack, N. J.	1941	400,000	88			
Hartford, Conn.	1938	20,000	14		(9)	
Ithaca, N. Y.	1940	(15)	50	(8)		
Lansing, Mich.	1940	100,000	96	129	720	3
Long Beach, Calif.	1930	250,000	380			
Nashville, Tenn.	1921	257,411	125	63	750	
Newark, N. J.	1920	600,000	3,731	915	4,151	1,001
Norristown, Pa.	1937	290,000	30		[14] 15	1
Pasadena, Calif.	1935	80,000	39			
Perth Amboy, N. J.	1939	90,000	16			

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Statistics of Legal-Aid Work in the United States in 1941*—Continued

City	Year association established	Population served	New cases handled [1]	Collected for clients [2]	Gross cost of operation [3]	Fees and commissions [4]
Reporting nonmembers—Con.						
Plainfield, N. J	1940	70,000	4			
San Antonio, Tex	1917	306,225	551	$2,515	$2,093	$142
Schenectady, N. Y	1938	122,000	27			
South Bend, Ind	1940	105,000	4			
Toledo, Ohio	1925	500,000	14			
Tulsa, Okla	1939	142,000	29			
Washington, D. C		([13])	951	([8])	1,300	
Waukegan, Ill	1938	104,000	212	([8])		
Wellsboro, Pa	1930	10,000	28			
Williamsport, Pa	1941	100,000	28			
Worcester, Mass	1941	193,402	32			

[1] Includes cases rejected at first interview and cases rejected after an investigation as to means.
[2] Where no amount is reported and no note reference given, no collections were shown on the books of the organization. The sums reported include only moneys collected at the office and passing through the books of the organizations. Not included are moneys reported to have been paid direct to clients as a result of the service, as follows:

Austin, Tex	$2,741.93	Philadelphia, Pa	$55,924.74
Baltimore, Md	42,292.11	Providence, R. I	1,000.00
Buffalo, N. Y	129,797.61	Rochester, N. Y	3,503.64
Chicago, Ill	25,376.61	Washington, D. C	10,188.36
Cleveland, Ohio	1,378.00		
Erie, Pa	469.67	Total	274,096.44
Jacksonville, Fla	1,423.77		

[3] Where no amount is reported and no note reference given the staff is entirely voluntary.
[4] Where no amount is reported and no note reference given no fee or commission was paid.
[5] Legal Aid Bureau.
[6] Jewish Social Service Bureau.
[7] Cost cannot be computed as legal aid is one of several services.
[8] No record.
[9] Law school clinic—applicable cost cannot be computed.
[10] Not reported.
[11] Legal Aid Society.
[12] National Desertion Bureau.
[13] Serves Jewish population of the United States.
[14] Staff entirely voluntary.
[15] Bar Association committee giving legal-aid service supplementary to member organization previously listed.

The statistics shown in table 1 represent only a partial coverage—that furnished by reporting organizations (48 out of 49 member organizations in the United States, 29 out of 98 nonmember organizations, and 14 out of 24 public and voluntary defenders).

TABLE 2.—*Work of Public and Voluntary Defenders, 1941*

City	Year agency was established	Type of agency	Population served	New cases handled	Gross cost of operation
Boston, Mass	1935	Voluntary	2,000,000	466	$5.789
Cincinnati, Ohio [1]	1928	do.[2]	789,309	1,026	1,500
Columbus, Ohio	1914	Public	306,087	4,152	4,787
Fairfield County, Conn	1917	do	400,000	107	2,448
Hartford, Conn	1917	do	450,000	115	([3])
Los Angeles, Calif. (city)	1915	do	1,625,000	96,276	37,766
New Orleans, La [4]	1940	Voluntary [2]	523,000	640	4,589
New York, N. Y. [5]	1917	do.[2]	1,639,000	3,999	30.476
Oakland, Calif	1926	Public	506,190	582	14,266
Omaha, Nebr	1913	do	250,000	2,750	7,000
Pittsburgh, Pa. [1]	1901	Voluntary [2]	1,411,539	767	8,000
Philadelphia, Pa	1934	Voluntary	2,000,000	2,157	21,083
San Francisco, Calif	1921	Public	700,000	[6] 1,433	
Tulsa, Okla	1937	do	222,000	360	1,800

[1] Legal Aid Society.
[2] Department of Legal Aid Society.
[3] Not reported.
[4] Legal Aid Bureau.
[5] Criminal courts defender.
[6] Staff entirely voluntary.

Health and Industrial Accidents

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES, FEBRUARY 1943

REPORTS from 8,952 manufacturing plants listed a total of 18,083 disabling injuries as having occurred during February 1943. The reporting plants employed 4,740,492 workers, or about 30 percent of the number estimated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as being employed in manufacturing in that month. The total number of disabling injuries suffered by workers in all manufacturing plants of the United States during February may reasonably be estimated therefore, as about 60,000, or approximately the same as in the previous month.

Serious injuries, however, were considerably more prevalent in February than in January. Proportionately, the number of fatal cases doubled, rising from 0.3 percent of all reported injuries in January to 0.6 percent in February. The proportionate number of cases resulting in permanent physical impairment also rose substantially, although less spectacularly. In February 5.2 percent of all reported injuries produced some permanent impairment, in comparison with 3.3 percent in January. Correspondingly, the proportion of cases resulting in lost time but not causing any permanent impairments, fell from 96.4 percent in January to 94.2 percent in February.

Comparative injury-frequency rates representing the combined experience of the plants reporting in each industry classification for which a representative sample was obtained, are shown in table 1. As would be expected, there were wide variations between the January and February frequency rates for many of the industry groups. In 8 of the 54 listed industries these variations resulted in an increase of more than 5 points in the frequency rate, as compared with the previous month. On the other hand, 6 industries had February frequency rates that were more than 5 points lower than the corresponding rates for January.

Fluctuations of this type in the monthly frequency rates are largely due to the comparatively small number of injuries and employee-hours used in the computation of the rates. A relatively small change either in the actual number of injuries or in the number of employee-hours worked will produce a large difference in the frequency rate when the period covered by the rate is short. Greater stability is achieved in the cumulative frequency rates, which absorb and distribute the chance fluctuations of particular months and reflect average conditions over a longer period. Monthly frequency rates and the month-to-month changes in those rates are of considerable value, however, as indicators of the current volume of accidents and of the immediate trend in accident occurrence. The evaluation of a rate for any month should be made only with due consideration of the general level maintained in the rates for previous months.

The highest industry frequency rate for the 2-month period of January and February was in the slaughtering and meat-packing plants, which had an average of 43.7 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked during the period. The group of foundry plants, however, had an only slightly lower (43.6) cumulative frequency rate for the 2-month period. At the other end of the scale there were seven industry groups which had cumulative frequency rates of less than 10. It is particularly interesting to note that three of the seven industries in the low-frequency-rate range are composed of plants directly engaged in producing ordnance material. The comparatively low frequency rates for the aircraft industry, the manufacture of sighting and fire-control equipment, and the small-arms industry, serve to indicate that safety can be practiced even under extreme pressure for production.

Industrial Injury-Frequency [1] Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, January and February 1943, With Cumulative Rates

Industry [2]	February		January frequency rate [3]	January–February cumulative frequency rate
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate [3]		
Agricultural machinery and tractors	38	15.2	12.2	13.7
Aircraft	38	9.4	9.5	9.5
Aircraft parts	80	17.8	14.2	16.4
Ammunition, except small arms	216	30.1	29.3	29.7
Boots and shoes, other than rubber	292	12.6	12.9	12.7
Canning and preserving	33	20.1	20.8	20.5
Carpets and rugs	11	24.7	13.3	17.8
Cement	90	12.3	8.8	10.5
Chemicals, industrial	101	13.3	12.2	12.7
Clothing, men's	450	6.6	9.5	8.1
Clothing, women's	342	5.4	5.1	5.2
Construction and mining machinery	71	26.8	30.3	28.5
Corrugated boxes	84	43.8	32.3	37.1
Cotton goods	96	14.1	13.7	13.8
Cutlery and edge tools	18	12.3	21.7	18.4
Druggist preparations	41	19.6	13.0	16.8
Dyeing and finishing	33	23.1	15.8	19.1
Electrical equipment and supplies	445	12.3	12.0	12.1
Fabricated structural steel	87	27.5	35.6	31.2
Fiber boxes	30	27.1	29.4	28.4
Forgings, iron and steel	115	33.5	38.1	35.9
Foundries, iron and steel	534	46.9	40.7	43.6
Furniture, except metal	44	23.8	26.5	25.2
General industrial machinery	612	25.1	23.0	23.9
Glass	19	14.1	14.2	14.1
Guns and related equipment	92	18.9	17.1	18.1
Hardware	35	16.2	24.3	20.1
Iron and steel	258	11.4	11.0	11.2
Knit goods	51	12.0	13.2	12.5
Metal-working machinery	485	20.3	20.2	20.2
Motor vehicles	102	17.8	18.7	18.3
Motor-vehicle parts	39	26.7	22.7	24.7
Nonferrous-metal products	289	22.9	26.1	24.6
Paper	216	32.9	28.9	30.7
Paper and pulp (integrated)	67	23.0	23.7	23.4
Radios and phonographs	123	8.8	9.0	8.9
Railroad equipment	29	25.3	17.9	20.3
Rayon and allied products	9	9.5	3.8	6.8
Rubber tires	25	12.6	12.9	12.8
Set-up boxes	253	16.5	13.5	14.9
Shipbuilding	123	29.1	29.3	29.2
Sighting and fire-control equipment	24	9.3	9.9	9.5
Slaughtering and meat packing	170	45.6	42.1	43.7
Small arms	31	10.5	7.9	9.2
Smelting and refining (nonferrous metals)	131	25.1	27.9	26.6

See footnotes at end of table.

Industrial Injury-Frequency [1] Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, January and February 1943, With Cumulative Rates—Continued

Industry [2]	February		January frequency rate [3]	January–February cumulative frequency rate
	Number of establishments	Frequency rate [3]		
Stamped and pressed metal products	253	39.6	31.7	35.3
Steam fitting and apparatus	76	33.4	31.1	32.1
Stoves and furnaces, not electric	48	35.7	32.1	34.2
Tanks, military	21	5.1	19.5	10.4
Tank parts, military	32	17.5	18.1	17.8
Tin cans and other tinware	36	15.8	20.7	17.9
Tools, except edge tools	40	21.9	23.1	22.4
Wire and wire products	117	20.2	24.8	22.3
Woolen goods	127	17.9	17.8	17.8

[1] The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.
[2] A few industries included in the Bureau's survey have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 2,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.
[3] Computed from all reports received for each month. Not based upon identical plants in the 2 months.

INDUSTRIAL HEALTH AND HOURS OF WORK IN GREAT BRITAIN

IN Great Britain the effect of long working hours on the health and efficiency of the workers has been a matter of concern to the Government since the period after the fall of France, when excessive hours were worked in the effort to make up the loss of material suffered in the withdrawal of the Expeditionary Force from France and the losses resulting from the systematic bombing of England. Although much has been accomplished in reducing excessive working hours, the Chief Inspector of Factories stated in his latest annual report that a good deal of time had been spent by his department in trying to convince even the supply departments that overlong hours of work lead to decreased output.

A recent report issued by the British Association for Labor Legislation [1] emphasizes the effect of long hours on sickness and absenteeism rates and on efficiency of production, with particular reference to woman workers. In the introduction to the report it is pointed out that there is a persistent delusion that long hours result in increased production. Although women are usually employed on lighter work than men, and work shorter hours, evidence presented in the report shows that they are more easily fatigued than men. Aside from the weaker physique of women, their duties outside factory hours are much heavier in wartime than in peacetime. Far more time has to be spent shopping and in travel between home and factory; in addition, overcrowded and uncomfortable lodgings may prevent their getting proper rest at night. An increasing number of women being drafted into industry are married women, who for patriotic reasons have taken up war work, though they may have the care of one or more children. In different factories engaged on the same type of work the ratio of women in the total employed varies greatly, but in royal ordnance factories women now constitute no less than 60 percent of the total

[1] Hours of work and their influence on health and efficiency, by H. M. Vernon, with introduction by Megan Lloyd George. London, British Association for Labor Legislation, 1943.

force. In spite of the increased demands on women, those women between the ages of 20 and 45 are now required to do fireguard duty if they do not work for 55 hours a week. The author of the report under review considers that the fatigue arising from the long hours combined with fireguard duty, if continued over long periods, is likely to reduce efficiency, increase liability to sickness, and induce absenteeism. In the interests of production he considers that the provisions of the Factories Act, which in general fix a 48-hour week for women, should be followed, with a temporary 54-hour week in times of special need. Young women of 16 and 17 years of age should seldom be called on to work more than 48 hours a week, and young men of the same ages not more than 54 hours. Boys and girls of 14 and 15 should be limited to 44 hours a week as a rule and only very exceptionally work 48 hours. For men a working week in excess of 60 hours, it is said, does not lead to an increase in production, and for heavy work shorter hours are advisable.

UNION AGREEMENTS WITH MUNICIPALITIES [1]

THE phraseology and matters covered in union agreements with municipalities are very similar to those in agreements with private employers. All of such agreements are bilateral and signed by the public party and the union representatives. All cover such employment relationship issues as union recognition, seniority rules, wages, and grievance adjustments.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has 32 agreements in its files which have been negotiated with municipalities by either the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (A. F. of L.) or the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C. I. O.). In addition, there are a number of unilateral statements and memoranda affecting the labor relations of municipalities. There are also agreements with municipalities which have been negotiated by unions (Teamsters' Union, Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, and the Street and Electric Railway Employees, etc.) whose jurisdiction only incidentally takes in municipalities. Agreements with unions have been entered into by other governmental units, such as counties, States, Tennessee Valley Authority, etc.; this analysis, however, is confined to municipal agreements with the two unions of government employees, mentioned above, whose jurisdiction is limited to public employees not in the service of the Federal Government.

In some cases, an agreement with a municipality has been formally adopted by the city council which has authorized the mayor and the city clerk to affix their signatures. Where a department or municipal board enters into an agreement, the signatures of the department head or of the board members and board chairman are affixed. An agreement covering employees in all or several departments of the city government may bear the signatures of the mayor, the department heads, the city attorney, the comptroller, the city clerk, and the president of the board of estimate or equivalent appropriations-making body.

Introductory or preamble statements in the agreements with municipalities commonly touch on the desirability of improving employment relations through the operation of the agreement. One agreement contains the statement: "The employees of our city suffer from the same economic ills as do workers in private industries and are therefore entitled to a measure of protection that a labor union agreement may afford." In some cases there is a qualifying statement to the effect that local ordinances or the city charter shall be the controlling factor in the event of conflict over any terms of the agreement. A considerable number of the agreements specifically state that em-

[1] Prepared in the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division by Jonas Silver.

ployees shall not be discriminated against because of union membership; in one the nondiscrimination provision includes the clause, "of race, religion, because of membership in or activity in any group or organization, except membership in any organization which is detrimental to our form of government."

With the exception of Philadelphia, the cities which have reached bilateral signed union agreements through collective bargaining with these two unions, are places of 100,000 population or less. Most of these cities are in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Pennsylvania. Generally the workers covered by these agreements are mechanics, street cleaners, janitors, laborers, truck drivers, attendants, etc., but white-collar groups (clerks, stenographers, teachers) and superintendents and foremen are included in some agreements.

Union Organizations Involved

As noted, the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (A. F. of L.) and the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C. I. O.) include within their jurisdictions only government workers other than those employed by the Federal Government. Elective and appointive officials, police, and firemen are generally regarded as ineligible for membership. Neither of these two unions imposes any restrictions on membership because of color, race, or creed.

The A. F. of L. union was chartered in October 1936 as the successor to several federal labor unions that had existed from some years prior to that date. The C. I. O. union received its charter in July 1937. Both organizations seek to improve the wages, hours, and working conditions of public employees, to promote efficiency in public service, and to extend the merit and civil-service systems.

Provisions of Standard Union Agreements

UNION RECOGNITION

Some municipal agreements include clauses to the effect that, "in accordance with the law," hiring is the sole responsibility of the public party. However, 11 of the 32 agreements provide for the union shop, i. e., that all persons employed in the department concerned must be or become members of the union within a period of 30 or 60 days after employment and remain members in good standing thereafter. A few of these union-shop agreements specifically state that an employee is to be discharged upon failure to remain a member in good standing. Three agreements provide a modified union shop, by specifying that all new employees shall become union members, but make no reference to the obligation of present employees to join the union. If all employees were members of the union when the agreement was signed, the modified union-shop plan naturally produces the same result as the ordinary union-shop arrangement.

In one case the municipality has encouraged union membership by a specific statement in the agreement to that effect. Nine agreements provide for recognition of the union as sole bargaining representative of the employees covered, but make no statement concerning the requirement and desirability that the employees shall become

union members. In some instances, where the union has a sole-bargaining status or has attained more complete recognition, the public party agrees to permit a union representative to visit the department to investigate working conditions and to adjust disputes. The remaining agreements merely state that the city "treats and recognizes" the union or that the union is recognized as the agent of its members only. Several agreements provide for periodic conferences between a committee of the union and the heads of municipal departments for the purpose of establishing "just" working rules, or discussion of other matters of mutual interest.

CHECK-OFF OF UNION DUES

Six of the 32 agreements provide for the check-off of union dues upon individual authorization of the members. One agreement makes the check-off of union dues compulsory. Most of these also permit deductions of initiation fees and other union assessments.

ADJUSTMENT OF DISPUTES

Five agreements make no mention of grievance or arbitration procedures. Nine of the 32 agreements provide procedures for the adjustment of grievances beginning with discussions between the union representative and the complaining employee's immediate superior and extending to the highest law-making authority of the city, but without referral to arbitration. Among the matters which might be considered as causes for grievances are reduction of pay or position, suspension, lay-off, promotions, and dismissals. The majority of the agreements require a written notice of discharge or demotion, accompanied by a statement of the reasons therefor. This step is to be followed by a hearing within a specified time to ascertain whether or not the discharge or demotion was for "just cause." Cases involving dismissals, demotions, and changes in job classification are quite often allowed to go directly to the highest representatives of both the union and the municipal agency concerned, and then, in some instances, to arbitration.

Arbitration.—Eighteen of the 32 agreements provide for the final settlement of disputes by impartial arbitration, either initially or following unsuccessful use of grievance procedures. Most of them specifiy an arbitration board composed of members appointed by the union and the highest lawmaking authority of the city, these two to appoint a third impartial chairman. Six of the agreements provide that the U. S. Department of Labor or the State labor agency shall select the neutral member if the partisan members are unable to agree on a third. Some of these agreements qualify the jurisdiction of the board of arbitration by a clause prohibiting it from infringing upon civil-service or other State and local laws.

STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS

In 8 of the 32 agreements, strikes and lock-outs are expressly forbidden either by a direct statement to that effect or by an affirmation of the union's no-strike policy. The other agreements contain no reference to strikes and lock-outs, leaving the question an open one

between the parties, except insofar as the constitutions of the unions themselves may renounce the strike weapon.

The constitution of the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C. I. O.) states: "It shall not be the policy of this organization to engage in strikes as a means of achieving its objectives." When a local union contemplates strike action, it must first advise the national officers of its intention and then "be guided by the advice and decisions of the national officers." The constitution of the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (A. F. of L.) states: "The methods of obtaining the objects of this federation shall be by petitioning, by creating and fostering sentiment favorable to proposed reforms, by cooperating with the State and local officials, by promoting legislation, and by other lawful means."

WAGES AND HOURS

Wage provisions contained in union agreements with municipalities vary from those which provide detailed job classifications and rates to those which state that the union may make suggestions to the head of the department when the latter is preparing his budget estimate. Where wage-rate classifications are stipulated, they usually cover such occupations as mechanics, attendants, truck drivers, park helpers, street cleaners, and common laborers. Eleven agreements simply refer to wage changes as a subject for negotiation between the immediate parties, as for example, the department head or board chairman and the union representatives. Several other agreements state flatly that "all wages will be the wage rate as provided by the budget."

Length of workweek and workday and overtime rates are set forth in all the agreements studied. The hours range from 40 to 48 hours per week, 8 hours per day. Time and a half is provided for overtime. Some agreements specifically deny overtime premium pay to monthly or salaried employees.

SENIORITY

The principle of seniority, generally on a department-wide basis, is recognized to a varying degree in all of the agreements studied. Most commonly, seniority does not begin until after a probationary period of from 2 to 6 months' service, when it is made retroactive to the date of hiring. Agreements which recognize length of continuous service or seniority sometimes add that ability, previous record, and family status shall be given equal consideration in determining promotion and increase and decrease in the number of employees. However, problems of lay-off, rehiring, and transfer are generally treated on a straight seniority basis. Seniority is not broken by temporary lay-off or sick leave. Quite often the agreements contain a clause permitting the union to request a seniority roster. Provision is usually made for return of the worker to his job following military service or similar war work without loss of seniority.[2]

PAID VACATIONS, HOLIDAYS, AND SICK LEAVE

Of the 32 agreements, 26 specifically grant vacations with pay. The most common arrangement is a maximum of 2 weeks' vacation

[2] See Monthly Labor Review, December 1942 (p. 1147).

after 12 months of service and a minimum of 1 week's vacation after 6 months of service. Some agreements provide for 1 week's vacation with pay after 1 year of service.

Provisions for paid holidays (numbering from 6 to 12, exclusive of Sundays) are contained in 7 of the 32 agreements. Some provide compensatory time off for work done on holidays. Six agreements allow time and a half and five allow double time for work performed on holidays and Sundays.

Provision for paid sick leave is found in 14 of the 32 agreements. The usual period of leave is 10 days, sometimes cumulative to 30 days over a 3-year period.

MISCELLANEOUS PROVISIONS

Among the other subjects mentioned in these agreements are call pay (at least 2 hours' pay when called in to work and then sent home), rules on emergency work (at least 2 hours' straight-time pay, with some agreements requiring union-employer consultation on occasion of unusual work demands), safety equipment, physical examinations, and the use of bulletin boards. An expression of the intention of the parties to work out a civil service or retirement system or both is sometimes set forth in the agreement.

DURATION OF AGREEMENTS

The majority of the agreements run for 1 year or for an indefinite period, with the possibility of termination at any time by written notice of such intention from either party at least 30 days in advance. A few provide year-to-year terms, subject to 30 or 60 days' written notice from either party of intention to terminate or modify the contract.

Statements Concerning Labor Relations of Municipalities Other Than Standard Union Agreements

There are varied methods of effectuating some sort of understanding between a municipality and a union other than the formal collective-bargaining agreement. In the absence of the signature of the union representative, the statements of a municipality relating to labor relations may be distinguished on the basis of presence or absence of reference to the union. The union may be referred to as an interested party in the opening paragraphs or in the body of the statement, thereby reflecting a degree of recognition. On the other hand, some statements on the labor relations of municipalities make no reference to a union, yet may have been issued following discussions or exchange of letters with the union representatives of city employees.

The Bureau has in its files 15 statements concerning the labor relations of municipalities, in a form other than that of a standard union agreement. This number does not include those statements on file that are regarded as agreements by unions other than the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees of America (A. F. of L.) and the State, County and Municipal Workers of America (C. I. O.) Among the cities having such statements in effect in January 1943 were Detroit, Bay City, and Dearborn, Mich., and Canton, Ohio.

TYPES OF STATEMENTS

A resolution by the lawmaking body of the city or competent governmental subdivision, containing the substance of a union agreement and recognizing the union "as the exclusive bargaining agency for all its employees in all departments of the city government" approximates the customary union agreement, even though the union is not a signatory. There are local ordinances, on the other hand, which usually do not contain provisions other than those relating to seniority, minimum work crew, paid vacations, sick leave, etc., which have been presented by the union in the form of a petition or as the result of an exchange of letters or discussions. They may or may not contain reference to the union.

City officials may issue a statement of policy on labor relations without either an expressed or an implied recognition of the union, even though the latter may regard the statement as a form of bilateral understanding. Some statements are in the form of unsigned memoranda of oral understandings by the parties, containing a reference to the union in the heading. There are a few which take the form of a report of a special committee of the union to the membership, following communication with the municipality. Rules and regulations of personnel policy and procedure adopted by competent municipal authorities are in certain instances regarded by unions as the direct outcome of their negotiations.

NATIONAL CONCILIATION MACHINERY FOR BRITISH COAL-MINING INDUSTRY [1]

NATIONAL collective bargaining to establish wages and other conditions of employment for coal-mine labor in Great Britain became operative on May 1, 1943, thus settling a controversy as to local versus national collective bargaining that has existed in the coal-mining industry for a quarter of a century. The plan for national conciliation in fixing working standards in the industry was submitted to the Minister of Labor and National Service and the Minister of Fuel and Power by the Board of Investigation into Wages and Machinery for Determining Wages and Conditions of Employment in the Coal-Mining Industry,[2] of which Lord Greene is chairman. The so-called Greene Tribunal (Board of Investigation) had previously provided for a national minimum wage for coal-mine employees (report of June 18, 1942) and for a bonus scheme to stimulate output in the various coal districts (report of August 28, 1942).[3] When the Greene Tribunal was appointed on June 5, 1942, its terms of reference were (1) to consider and to report in the first instance upon the immediate wage issue in the coal industry; and (2) to inquire into the existing machinery and methods of determining wages and conditions of employment in the industry, and to submit recommendations for the establishment of a procedure and permanent machinery for

[1] Information is from report of E. Mabel Hodgkinson, Commercial Section, United States Embassy, London (No. 283).
[2] Report No. 3 of March 15, 1943.
[3] For a summary of earlier activities of the Greene Tribunal, see the Monthly Labor Review, issue of November 1942 (pp. 941–951).

dealing with questions of wages and conditions of employment in the industry.

Before presenting its conclusions in its third report, dated March 15, 1943, dealing with determination of wages and conditions of employment in the coal-mining industry, the Greene Tribunal took into account the special characteristics of the industry and studied the development of the existing arrangements. For comparative purposes, procedure adopted in other industries was also examined. Both the Mining Association of Great Britain and the Mineworkers' Federation of Great Britain submitted statements and gave oral evidence. In view of all the circumstances, the Tribunal saw an urgent need for establishing comprehensive conciliation machinery to provide for prompt consideration of all questions arising as to wages and conditions of employment. Owing to the special features of organization in the coal-mining industry, none of the types of conciliation machinery used in other industries was suitable, and a scheme was devised to meet the particular needs of this industry. Unanimous approval of the scheme was given by the national associations of employers and employees mentioned above, their constituent district associations, and the Government.

Summary of Plan

Provision for national conciliation machinery for the coal-mining industry is in no sense an emergency measure, according to the report under review. It was designed to become a permanent institution and the Tribunal hoped it would prove an effective method of dealing with questions arising in the industry for which no satisfactory machinery had existed previously. Briefly, the plan provides a comprehensive method of settling all questions of a national character. It leaves purely district questions to be dealt with by district conciliation machinery, thus avoiding interference with the principle of district autonomy, which under present circumstances is a fundamental element in the structure of the industry. Provision is made for the transfer, from the district conciliation machinery to the newly established national machinery, of any district question having such importance as to make the transfer desirable. For the settlement of district questions, in turn, provision is made for the immediate establishment of proper local machinery where it is not already in existence.

Procedure is not fixed for settling questions arising at individual pits, except when they reach the stage of discussion under district conciliation agreements. Although the Tribunal recognized that difficulties often develop owing to the absence of suitable arrangements for conciliation at the pits, it was considered undesirable by the members to attempt to lay down any procedure for universal application in dealing with pit disputes that are essentially a matter for arrangement by the industry itself. An obligation is placed on both the national and district organizations of management and labor (under the scheme) to introduce improved methods for dealing with pit disputes as soon as possible.

The conciliation scheme was framed to deal with questions raised by the Mining Association and the Mineworkers' Federation or their constituent or affiliated bodies. Workers employed in and about the

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industry who are not members of the bodies covered are not affected by the scheme, except insofar as their wages and conditions of employment may be regulated by agreement or practice in accordance with those of members of the miners' unions. These workers can be covered by the machinery only under subsequent arrangement with the two national mining associations of employers and employees.

Some 5 percent of the total output of the country is produced by "nonfederated" employers, that is, those who do not belong to district associations. To bring such employers under the scheme would have entailed delay and alterations. Therefore, a simple method was provided whereby such nonfederated employers may adopt the scheme voluntarily.

The Greene Tribunal expressed its desire to assist the industry in establishing suitable conciliation machinery in the districts and at the pits. No formal reference was suggested, but the Tribunal stated that its services would be available to the industry for the purpose of discussing any difficulties that might arise. To assist in establishing local machinery, a model draft of a district conciliation agreement was included in the report under review, which, however, might not prove acceptable in all districts. As it follows the pattern of the national conciliation scheme, the Tribunal submitted it for adoption in those districts where no special reason existed for using a different type of agreement.

National Conciliation Machinery

Under the conciliation scheme, a National Conciliation Board was to be established, consisting of a Joint National Negotiating Committee and a National Reference Tribunal. Membership in the Negotiating Committee is to consist of 22 persons, of whom one-half are employer (Mining Association) nominees and the other half employee (Mineworkers' Federation) nominees; each side is to act by a simple majority vote, and in case of a tie the chairman of each side (or his substitute) will be given a second or casting vote. The National Tribunal is to have three permanent members, none of whom is engaged in the coal-mining industry or is a member of either house of Parliament (with the exception of a member of the House of Lords who holds or has held high judicial office); they are to be appointed by the Master of the Rolls or a Lord Justice of Appeal nominated by him.

Jurisdiction.—Jurisdiction of the National Board extends to the following questions, which are to be dealt with as required under the terms of the scheme:

(1) Any question raised by either or both of the two national associations and either—

(*a*) accepted by resolution of the Negotiating Committee as being a question of a national character; or, failing such acceptance,

(*b*) decided by the National Tribunal to be a question of a national character upon an application made for the purpose either by the employers' side or by the workers' side.

(2) Any question relating to the interpretation of—

(*a*) a settlement reached by the Negotiating Committee under this scheme;

(*b*) an agreement made between the two national associations previously to the establishment of the National Board insofar as such agreement may for the time being remain in force.

(3) Any district question transferred to the National Board under and subject to the provisions of Part III of this scheme.
(4) Any question referred by the Minister to the National Board for decision or report.

Questions relating to the interpretation of the scheme, an award or decision of the National Tribunal, and an award or decision relating to a question of a national character are within the exclusive jurisdiction of the National Tribunal, as are any questions referred to the National Tribunal by the Minister of Fuel and Power. However, before making a decision or reporting on any such question, the National Tribunal must consult the Negotiating Committee and consider its views. If the two sides of the Negotiating Committee are not in agreement on the question, the views of both sides must be taken into account.

Procedure.—National questions are to be discussed by the Negotiating Committee with a view to settlement. Failing a settlement the question is to be referred to the National Tribunal. When the Negotiating Committee accepts a national question, the National Tribunal must be notified in writing and the case must be handled with speed. If the Negotiating Committee fails to reach a settlement in 5 weeks or such extended period as is allowed, the facts of the case must be transmitted to the National Tribunal. The reference to the National Tribunal may be made sooner, however, and, in its discretion, the National Tribunal may refer the case back to the Negotiating Committee. Whenever the latter body reaches a settlement, the National Tribunal is to be notified. In questions referred by the Minister of Fuel and Power to the National Conciliation Board or exclusively to the National Tribunal, the procedure is to be established by the president of the National Tribunal.

Assessors will assist the National Tribunal in national questions. Four persons are to be chosen from the Negotiating Committee for this purpose, of whom two shall represent the employers' side and the other two the workers' side. The assessors will take part in hearings and discussions but may not vote upon or otherwise be parties to the award or decision of the National Tribunal.

Rules for the regulation of procedure may be made by the National Tribunal. Hearings may be public or private, in the National Tribunal's discretion. In case of a tie vote, the presiding officer is to have a second or casting vote. If there is not a majority vote in favor of a proposed award or decision, the opinion of the presiding official is to be final and shall be signed as an award or decision of the National Tribunal. The Minister of Fuel and Power may appear before the National Tribunal on his own initiative or on invitation of the National Tribunal itself. Every settlement reached by the Negotiating Committee and every award and decision given by the National Tribunal on a national question shall be binding upon the national and district employer and employee associations and the members covered by the scheme. In a case involving a question referred to the National Board or the National Tribunal by the Minister of Fuel and Power, the consent of the Negotiating Committee is required to make the award or decision binding. Each of the bodies to which the scheme applies is to undertake to use its influence to insure that the terms of a decision or award will be observed by all employers and by all workers in the coal-mining industry—whether or not they are members

of any district association. Provision is made under the scheme for altering decisions to take into account changed conditions.

District Conciliation System

Every district question is to be dealt with in accordance with the district conciliation agreement in force in the district concerned. A question ceases to be a district question when it is transferred to the National Conciliation Board (1) by agreement between employer and employee representatives and the district conciliation board, (2) on the initiative of the Negotiating Committee or at the request of one or both of the district associations (employer and employee), or (3) when the National Tribunal decides (after reference to it by either side of the Negotiating Committee) that the question is likely to extend to any other district or to assume national importance. Awards and decisions in such cases are also binding.

Within 1 month of the date when the scheme came into operation, district conciliation agreements were to be in force. However, the Negotiating Committee could extend the period. Under the agreements district conciliation boards must be established, consisting of representatives of district employer and employee associations which are parties to the agreement. The national associations of employers and employees are to try to bring about a reasonable measure of uniformity in the district agreements and procedure. In making provision for district conciliation the object as stated in the agreement is to insure that there shall be suitable machinery to settle district questions and that it shall operate in such a way as to make effective the provisions of the conciliation scheme that relate to district questions and their transfer to the National Board.

Industrial Disputes

STRIKES IN APRIL 1943

THERE were 395 new strikes, involving 200,000 workers and 675,000 man-days of idleness, during April 1943, according to preliminary estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These figures indicate a much higher level of strike activity than in the preceding month or in April a year ago.

The substantial increase in strike activity over the preceding months was due largely to unrest among bituminous-coal miners working under a 30-day extension of the union contracts which expired throughout the industry on March 31. There were strikes at several mines in the Appalachian field at various times during the month, and at the end of April approximately 90,000 workers were idle in Pennsylvania, Kentucky, West Virginia, Ohio, Alabama, and Virginia. About half of the total workers involved and half of the strike idleness during April resulted from these bituminous-coal strikes.

Strike idleness during April is estimated to be 0.08 percent of the time worked in industry.

Strikes During the First 4 Months of 1943 [1]

Month	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle during month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
January	195	90,000	450,000	0.06
February	210	42,000	170,000	.02
March	260	72,000	230,000	.03
April	395	200,000	675,000	.08

[1] Figures in this table are not final but subject to change as later information is received.

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, APRIL 1943

THE United States Conciliation Service, during April disposed of 1,696 situations involving 1,541,779 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations 192 were strikes and lock-outs involving 67,987 workers; 900 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 321,753 workers. Altogether, 273 disputes were certified during the month to the National War Labor Board, and in 80 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 251 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

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

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled	[1] 1,696	[1] 1,541,779
Disputes	1,092	389,740
Strikes	189	67,778
Threatened strikes	135	96,396
Lock-outs	3	209
Controversies	765	225,357
Other situations	251	36,496
Investigations	54	6,047
Technical services	14	3,699
Arbitrations	90	23,977
Requests to conduct consent elections	5	396
Requests for information	5	85
Consultations	51	138
Special services of Commissioners	23	2,140
Complaints	9	14
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations	353	1,115,543
To National War Labor Board	273	1,036,908
To National Labor Relations Board	47	71,950
To other Federal agencies	10	2,193
To Wage Adjustment Board	6	2,022
To non-governmental agencies	8	1,220
To State agencies	9	1,250

[1] During the month, 121 cases involving 64,182 workers were adjusted, subject to arbitration or approval of the wage provisions by the National War Labor Board.

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

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries	1,445	1,505,283	251	36,496	1,696	1,541,779
Agriculture	9	16,899			9	16,899
Building trades	70	22,620	10	255	80	22,875
Chemicals	55	14,385	16	6,296	71	20,681
Communications	8	14,113	3	223	11	14,336
Domestic and personal	62	3,894	7	650	69	4,544
Electrical equipment	40	102,140	3	1,017	43	103,157
Food	142	36,353	18	388	160	36,741
Furniture and finished lumber	50	10,365	7	1,824	57	12,189
Iron and steel	198	116,055	38	4,318	236	120,373
Leather	32	16,405	15	965	47	17,370
Lumber	39	9,926	5	87	44	10,013
Machinery	68	44,836	12	12,794	80	57,630
Maritime	6	2,671			6	2,671
Mining	22	534,589			22	534,589
Motion pictures	1	100	1	100	2	200
Nonferrous metals	44	42,764	6	264	50	43,028
Paper	18	3,474	5	385	23	3,859
Petroleum	24	10,478	9	622	33	11,100
Printing	43	6,476	4	107	47	6,583
Professional	6	6,742	1	4	7	6,746
Rubber	19	25,939	4	591	23	26,530
Stone, clay, and glass	47	26,220	12	693	59	26,913
Textile	76	23,554	12	1,047	88	24,601
Tobacco	4	8,519	1	1	5	8,520
Trade	87	10,532	13	472	100	11,004
Transportation	75	17,480	9	260	84	17,740
Transportation equipment	104	350,625	15	958	119	351,583
Utilities	19	2,088	5	138	24	2,226
Unclassified	77	25,041	20	2,037	97	27,078

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 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, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico (table 3).

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

States	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States	1,445	1,505,283	251	36,496	1,696	1,541,779
Alabama	24	17,283	5	158	29	17,441
Arizona	9	642	1	3	10	645
Arkansas	3	1,180			3	1,180
California	112	40,178	12	415	124	40,593
Colorado	22	2,179			22	2,179
Connecticut	16	39,159	1	120	17	39,279
Delaware			1	4	1	4
District of Columbia	9	1,022	3	336	12	1,358
Florida	24	18,164	5	349	29	18,513
Georgia	6	265	2	450	8	715
Idaho	5	81			5	81
Illinois	107	49,066	22	13,944	129	63,010
Indiana	41	21,848	5	581	46	22,429
Iowa	18	7,868			18	7,868
Kansas	14	3,960			14	3,960
Kentucky	16	16,075	1	4	17	16,079
Louisiana	13	2,410	3	407	16	2,817
Maine	6	28,336	1	2	7	28,338
Maryland	20	64,989	1	1	21	64,990
Massachusetts	36	19,748	19	3,733	55	23,481
Michigan	123	132,082	27	2,531	150	134,613
Minnesota	11	1,681	2	7	13	1,688
Mississippi	7	12,827	1	3	8	12,830
Missouri	42	10,763	11	1,834	53	12,597
Montana	11	808			11	808
Nebraska	9	2,471	1	40	10	2,511
New Hampshire	5	194	1	87	6	281
New Jersey	56	52,432	14	2,269	70	54,701
New Mexico	3	1,357			3	1,357
New York	117	563,123	18	918	135	564,041
North Carolina	17	6,794	7	557	24	7,351
North Dakota	2	66			2	66
Ohio	167	129,590	35	3,423	202	133,013
Oklahoma	8	627	3	184	11	811
Oregon	40	10,497	2	2	42	10,499
Pennsylvania	108	147,803	12	396	120	148,199
Puerto Rico	22	22,568	4	10	26	22,578
Rhode Island	9	11,102			9	11,102
South Carolina	3	926			3	926
South Dakota	3	90	1	7	4	97
Tennessee	34	23,068	2	94	36	23,162
Texas	34	12,527	6	389	40	12,916
Utah	5	516			5	516
Virginia	12	2,270	6	395	18	2,665
Washington	35	12,619	5	89	40	12,708
West Virginia	19	2,469	3	2,615	22	5,084
Wisconsin	41	9,512	7	49	48	9,561
Wyoming	1	48	1	90	2	138

Cost and Standards of Living

COST OF LIVING IN LARGE CITIES, APRIL 15, 1943

MAINLY because of continued advances in food prices, especially for fresh fruits and vegetables, the cost of living for city workers rose 1.1 percent from mid-March to mid-April 1943. (It was toward the end of this period that the President issued his "hold-the-line" order.) This increase, somewhat smaller than in the previous month, brought the level of all living costs to 124.1 percent of the 1935–39 average and 23 percent above January 1941 (base period for the "Little Steel" formula).

Food costs, the most important part of the family budget, rose 2.3 percent from March to April. On the average, consumers in the latter month were paying $1.40 for food which cost $1.00 in the years 1935–39. From mid-March to mid-April, as in the previous month, prices of fresh fruits and vegetables advanced with especial rapidity, rising on the average 10.5 percent, to a point 51.0 percent above April 1942.

Prices of cabbage rose 24 percent, onions 20 percent, apples 19 percent, and sweetpotatoes 31 percent during the month. Prices of certain vegetables declined seasonally—14 percent in the case of carrots and 2 percent for spinach. Prices of white potatoes, which were already growing scarce in April, rose 14½ percent to a level 61 percent above April 1942 and 173 percent above January 1941.

Prices of fresh fish also increased further by 7.7 percent during the month to a level 30 percent higher than in April 1942; fish thus became twice as expensive as it was before the war. Most other food costs continued their slow advances of recent months, with the chief exception of eggs (which declined less than usual at this time of year) and pork. New dollar-and-cent ceilings set by the Office of Price Administration resulted in a fractional decline for pork products as a group. There were increases of 1.0 percent or less for beef and veal, lamb, and poultry and of half of 1 percent or less for cereals and bakery products, sugar and sweets, fats and oils, and dairy products.

The increases in food prices were quite general, but were especially large in a number of southern cities. The variation among cities was larger than usual, ranging from less than half of 1 percent in Minneapolis to over 5 percent in Jacksonville, Norfolk, and Wichita. At present levels there is considerable variation between cities in the amount by which food prices have increased since the price rise began to be marked, in January 1941. Thus, the advance ranges from 35 percent in Minneapolis and St. Paul to 59 percent in Memphis and Norfolk and 61 percent in Knoxville. For living costs as a whole there are also marked differences between cities, the advances since January 1941 ranging from about 19 percent in Minneapolis to nearly 29 percent in Savannah.

Aside from food, other living costs rose by only small amounts during the month ending on April 15, 1943. Prices of clothing were 0.2 percent higher on the average, because of slight increases for men's wool suits and coats and for women's percale house dresses in some cities. There were small increases for housefurnishings and for fuel, electricity, and ice. On the other hand, the fairly sharp advances of recent months were continued for medical care, barber and beauty services, and motion-picture admissions. Charges for hospital rooms were higher in 8 of the 21 cities surveyed. Costs for miscellaneous goods and services as a group rose 0.3 percent from March to April.

Rents, which are surveyed quarterly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, have shown very little change during the past 12 months. The next report on rents will cover monthly changes for the quarterly period through June.

Indexes of the cost of the various groups of items on April 15, 1943, as compared with specified previous dates, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities on April 15, 1943, and Previous Dates*

Date	Indexes [1] (1935–39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1939: Aug. 15	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: Jan. 15	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
1942: 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
Sept. 15	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
1943: Mar. 15	122.8	137.4	127.6	108.0	107.4	124.5	114.5
Apr. 15	124.1	140.6	127.8	[2]	107.5	124.6	114.8

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Rents not surveyed in April. See text.

The extent of change in the cost of living in certain periods is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change* [1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods*

Date	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent [2]	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Mar. 15, 1943, to Apr. 15, 1943	+1.1	+2.3	+0.2	[3]	+0.1	+0.1	+0.3
Sept. 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1943	+5.3	+11.1	+1.6	0	+1.2	+.8	+3.1
May 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1943	+7.0	+15.6	+1.3	−1.7	+2.5	+2.0	+3.5
Apr. 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1943	+7.8	+17.6	+1.0	−1.1	+3.1	+2.2	+3.8
Jan. 15, 1941, to Apr. 15, 1943	+23.1	+43.8	+26.9	+2.9	+6.6	+24.5	+12.7
Aug. 15, 1939, to Apr. 15, 1943	+25.9	+50.4	+27.4	+3.5	+10.3	+23.9	+14.3

[1] Based on changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Changes through March 15, 1943.
[3] Rents not surveyed in April. See text.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of Change* [1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities, March 15 to April 15, 1943, by Groups*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	[2] +1.1	[3] +2.3	[4] +0.2	[5] +0.1	[4] +0.1	[4] +0.3
New England: Boston	+1.0	+2.2	+.2	+.1	0	0
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	+.8	+2.0	+.2	0	0	+.1
New York	+.7	+1.4	+.3	0	0	0
Philadelphia	+2.2	+5.0	+.2	0	0	+.2
Pittsburgh	+.8	+1.6	+.5	+.2	+.3	+.4
East North Central:						
Chicago	+.9	+2.0	+.1	0	0	+.4
Cincinnati	+1.1	+2.3	+.3	+.1	+.6	+.5
Cleveland	+.6	+1.4	+.2	+.2	+.3	0
Detroit	+.7	+1.3	0	0	0	+1.2
West North Central:						
Kansas City	+1.2	+2.8	+.6	0	+.1	+.3
Minneapolis	−.1	+.4	0	0	0	−.9
St. Louis	+1.1	+2.5	+.1	0	+.1	+.1
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	+1.4	+3.1	+.2	0	0	+.6
Savannah	+1.9	+4.3	0	0	0	+.1
Washington, D. C	+.8	+2.2	+.3	0	0	0
East South Central: Birmingham	+2.0	+4.6	0	+.7	+.3	+.9
West South Central: Houston	+.2	+.4	+.1	0	0	+.1
Mountain: Denver	+.6	+1.3	0	0	0	0
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	+1.0	+2.4	0	0	+.1	0
San Francisco	+1.9	+4.2	0	0	0	+.5
Seattle	+.8	+1.0	+.2	+.5	0	+1.2

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Rents surveyed at quarterly dates—March 15, June 15, September 15, and December 15.
[3] Based on data for 56 cities.
[4] Based on data for 21 cities.
[5] Based on data for 34 cities.

TABLE 4.—*Percent of Change* [1] *in Cost of Living in Large Cities, in Specified Periods*

City	Percent of change—				
	Apr. 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to Apr. 15, 1943	Jan. 1, 1941, to Apr. 15, 1943	May 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1943	Sep. 15, 1942, to Apr. 15, 1943
Average: Large cities	+7.8	+25.9	+23.1	+7.0	+5.3
New England: Boston	+8.8	+25.4	+22.9	+7.4	+4.8
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	+7.1	+29.3	+25.0	+5.7	+5.7
New York	+9.1	+24.0	+21.6	+8.4	+5.6
Philadelphia	+9.1	+26.9	+25.1	+8.2	+6.2
Pittsburgh	+8.5	+25.6	+22.1	+6.7	+5.2
East North Central:					
Chicago	+7.0	+25.0	+21.9	+5.9	+5.2
Cincinnati	+7.0	+26.8	+23.9	+6.5	+4.6
Cleveland	+7.0	+26.2	+23.7	+6.2	+5.5
Detroit	+5.5	+26.8	+23.7	+5.1	+5.5
West North Central:					
Kansas City	+7.5	+23.9	+24.2	+7.1	+6.5
Minneapolis	+5.4	+21.3	+18.8	+4.3	+3.5
St. Louis	+6.8	+25.6	+22.0	+6.6	+5.7
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore	+7.9	+28.3	+25.7	+7.1	+5.7
Savannah	+8.7	+31.5	+28.8	+8.0	+7.0
Washington, D. C	+7.5	+24.0	+22.4	+6.6	+4.4
East South Central: Birmingham	+6.0	+27.2	+23.2	+5.6	+5.5
West South Central: Houston	+6.9	+22.8	+21.3	+6.5	+4.8
Mountain: Denver	+6.9	+24.2	+22.5	+6.0	+4.5
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	+7.4	+25.2	+22.7	+6.5	+3.4
San Francisco	+9.8	+29.4	+26.2	+9.3	+6.3
Seattle	+6.3	+27.6	+25.4	+5.6	+4.3

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

Indexes of the cost of living on April 15, 1943, based on the average of the years 1935–39 as 100, are shown in table 5, for the 21 cities.

TABLE 5.—*Index of Cost of Living in Large Cities, April 15, 1943*

City	Indexes [1] (1935–39=100) of cost of—					
	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	[2] 124.1	[3] 140.6	[4] 127.8	[5] 107.5	[4] 124.6	[4] 114.8
New England: Boston	121.8	137.1	123.5	118.3	119.7	111.3
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	127.4	144.0	128.0	105.0	126.5	121.4
New York	122.8	139.9	127.4	110.6	118.3	113.2
Philadelphia	124.1	140.2	127.5	105.9	122.7	114.7
Pittsburgh	123.6	139.4	130.5	110.3	122.5	114.2
East North Central:						
Chicago	123.4	138.6	123.8	103.2	120.1	113.5
Cincinnati	123.4	138.2	132.8	104.0	126.8	114.4
Cleveland	126.2	141.4	131.0	113.7	125.0	114.9
Detroit	124.9	137.4	129.3	108.9	122.2	120.3
West North Central:						
Kansas City	122.2	137.4	125.3	107.9	117.9	116.0
Minneapolis	120.9	133.5	127.5	100.0	125.0	116.2
St. Louis	123.2	142.4	128.9	106.2	116.5	111.7
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	126.6	148.4	127.8	106.8	128.9	114.4
Savannah	130.6	151.3	130.1	113.1	121.4	118.8
Washington, D. C	122.3	139.9	134.9	106.0	131.4	117.9
East South Central: Birmingham	125.3	141.0	128.0	101.1	120.4	114.4
West South Central: Houston	123.7	143.2	129.5	92.2	122.4	115.6
Mountain: Denver	122.5	139.0	124.7	100.1	121.8	114.5
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	125.8	146.2	129.7	94.2	119.0	116.2
San Francisco	128.5	149.7	128.1	92.2	119.0	122.4
Seattle	128.0	146.2	131.0	101.9	119.9	123.1

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
[2] Rents surveyed at quarterly dates—March 15, June 15, September 15, and December 15.
[3] Based on data for 56 cities.
[4] Based on data for 21 cities.
[5] Based on data for 34 cities.

Table 6 shows the indexes of cost of each of the principal groups of items for each of the years 1935–42 and by months from January 1942 through April 15, 1943.

TABLE 6.—*Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities, 1935 to April 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	120.7	133.0	126.0	108.0	107.3	123.8	113.2
Feb. 15	121.0	133.6	126.2	108.0	107.2	124.1	113.6
Mar. 15	122.8	137.4	127.6	108.0	107.4	124.5	114.5
Apr. 15 [1]	124.1	140.6	127.8	108.0	107.5	124.6	114.8

[1] Preliminary figures.

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING, MARCH 15, 1943

LIVING costs of city workers advanced 1.5 percent in the month ending March 15, 1943. This rise, which occurred prior to the President's April 8 "hold-the-line" order, brought the level of living costs to 122.8 percent of the 1935-39 average, 5.9 percent above May 1942, and 21.8 percent above January 1941. The estimate of the change in living costs from February to March incorporates revisions in the food-cost index which were designed to take into account the effects on consumer buying of rationing and other wartime changes in the supply of foods, as well as the effects of recent shifts in population to war production centers.[1] The revisions do not affect the indexes for previous months and did not appreciably affect that for March. The "modernization" of the index will affect measurements of living costs significantly only over a period of time and will serve to insure its future accuracy in reflecting the consumer market conditions characteristic of the war period.

From February to March 1943, the largest increases were in retail prices of foods, which went up 2.8 percent during the month, and in spring clothing prices. The chief reason for the rise in the cost of food from February 15 to March 15 was an advance averaging 13.2 percent in prices of fresh fruits and vegetables, with increases of about 40 percent for cabbage, green beans and sweetpotatoes, 18 percent for white potatoes, and 13 percent for apples. These increases reflect heavy demand because of rationing of canned goods, as well as shortages of supply resulting from the cold weather. In conse-

[1] For description of these changes in the index of cost of food, see article on page 1214 of this issue.

quence of this market situation, prices of a number of the green vegetables were brought under control of the Office of Price Administration on February 23 and 24. Prices of fresh fish, which went up 8.4 percent, were not under OPA control. The data are based on actual selling prices, regardless of OPA ceilings.

Rents, which are subject to Federal control in all cities covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics reports, have varied very little in most areas, and on the average have remained unchanged since December. Other changes include an increase between mid-February and mid-March of 1.1 percent for clothing, 0.8 percent for miscellaneous goods and services, 0.3 percent for housefurnishings, and 0.2 percent for fuel, electricity, and ice.

Changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried employees on specified dates are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Cost of Living in Large Cities, March 15, 1943, and Previous Dates*

Date or period	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
	Indexes [1] (1935–39=100)						
1939: August 15	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1942: March 15	114.3	118.6	123.6	108.9	104.5	121.2	110.1
September 15	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	105.2	123.6	111.4
1943: February 15	121.0	133.6	126.2	108.0	107.2	124.1	113.6
March 15	122.8	137.4	127.6	108.0	107.4	124.5	114.5
	Percent of change						
Feb. 15, 1943, to Mar. 15, 1943	+1.5	+2.8	+1.1	0	+0.2	+0.3	+0.8
Sept. 15, 1942, to Mar. 15, 1943	+4.2	+8.5	+1.4	0	+1.1	+.7	+2.8
Mar. 15, 1942, to Mar. 15, 1943	+7.4	+15.9	+3.2	−0.8	+2.8	+2.7	+4.0
Jan. 15, 1941, to Mar. 15, 1943	+21.8	+40.5	+26.7	+2.9	+6.5	+24.4	+12.4
Aug. 15, 1939, to Mar. 15, 1943	+24.5	+47.0	+27.2	+3.5	+10.2	+23.8	+14.0

[1] Based on changes in cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities of the United States.

Percentage changes in the cost of the various items during the quarter ending on March 15, 1943, are shown, by cities, in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percent of Change in Cost of Living in Large Cities, Between December 15, 1942 and March 15, 1943, by Groups of Items*

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities	+2.0	[1] +3.5	+1.4	0	+1.0	+0.6	+1.5
New England:							
Boston	+1.4	+2.6	+.4	−.1	+1.5	+1.3	+.2
Manchester	+2.8	+4.2	+2.2	−.1	+1.8	+.5	+1.2
Portland, Maine	+1.7	+2.4	+1.9	+.3	+2.8	0	+1.0
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo	+2.3	+4.2	+.7	0	+1.4	+1.2	+2.1
New York	+2.3	+4.3	+.6	0	+1.3	+.3	+1.4
Philadelphia	+1.4	+2.3	+1.1	0	+2.1	+.2	+.8
Pittsburgh	+2.2	+4.3	+1.4	0	+.5	+.2	+1.1
Scranton	+2.3	+3.9	+1.3	−.3	+4.4	0	+.3
East North Central:							
Chicago	+2.3	+4.6	+2.0	0	−.5	+.4	+1.3
Cincinnati	+1.7	+2.7	+1.6	−.1	+1.4	+.7	+1.4
Cleveland	+2.1	+3.5	+2.0	+.1	+1.1	+.6	+1.5
Detroit	+2.1	+3.0	+1.7	−.1	+1.5	+1.2	+3.8
Indianapolis	[2] +2.2	[2] +2.6	+2.3	0	+2.4	+1.9	+2.7
Milwaukee	+2.0	+4.2	+1.5	0	+.2	+.1	+1.2
West North Central:							
Kansas City	+2.5	+5.1	+1.5	0	+1.8	+.7	+1.5
Minneapolis	+1.5	+2.4	+1.2	−.1	+1.0	+.6	+2.0
St. Louis	+1.7	+3.3	+1.5	0	0	+.1	+.5
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta	+3.2	+5.8	+1.5	0	+1.3	+.3	+3.1
Baltimore	+2.5	+4.9	+1.4	+.1	+2.0	+1.0	+.7
Jacksonville	[3] +3.0	[3] +5.6	+.9	+.2	+2.3	+3.6	+1.5
Norfolk	+3.4	+5.9	+1.1	+.2	+1.1	+3.8	+2.6
Richmond	+1.6	+3.4	+1.1	−.7	+1.6	+.2	+.6
Savannah	+3.2	+5.5	+2.0	−.1	+3.2	+1.3	+2.5
Washington, D. C	+1.9	+3.2	+2.0	0	+2.1	+1.8	+1.9
East South Central:							
Birmingham	+1.7	+3.5	+.9	+.7	+.2	+.8	+.4
Memphis	+2.7	+5.6	+.6	−.1	0	+.3	+2.4
Mobile	+2.4	+5.3	+.8	−.3	0	0	+1.0
West South Central:							
Houston	+3.3	+6.2	+2.1	+.1	−.8	+.2	+3.2
New Orleans	+4.3	+7.2	+3.0	0	−.2	+.5	+2.7
Mountain: Denver	+1.9	+3.6	+1.1	0	+.7	−.1	+1.2
Pacific:							
Los Angeles	+.6	0	+1.7	−.1	0	+.4	+1.5
Portland, Oreg	+1.5	+1.8	+2.4	0	−.2	+.5	+2.0
San Francisco	+1.7	+2.6	+2.1	+.1	−2.0	−.2	+1.9
Seattle	+1.1	+.8	+2.0	+.5	+.8	+.3	+2.1

[1] Based on data for 56 cities.
[2] Indexes for Dec. 15, 1942, revised: All items, 120.9; food, 131.4.
[3] Indexes for Dec. 15, 1942, revised: All items, 123.3; food, 138.3.

FOOD SITUATION IN CHINA [1]

CHINA is one of the leading agricultural countries of the world, ranking first in normal times in the production of rice, wheat, sweetpotatoes, kaoliang, soybeans, millet, barley, peanuts, tea, and silk. Notwithstanding its enormous production, China does not produce enough food for its own people, but normally must import great supplies of rice, wheat, and sugar. In the last few years, however, few food imports have been possible.

Among the wartime conditions that have made the food situation more serious have been the blockade, stopping food imports; the invading enemy, not only living on the countryside but also destroying or burning immense quantities of products; the wastage of farm land on war fronts; and the drafting of farm labor for military service. To these may be added the famine in the Province of Honan (which has

[1] Data are from Contemporary China (Chinese News Service, Rockefeller Center, New York), April 19, 1943.

been a war storm center for the last 6 years), affecting some 10,000,000 persons.

Two of China's outstanding problems are (*a*) to secure food enough for both civilians and soldiers to maintain life at least at a bare existence level during the war; and (*b*) to expand agricultural production so as to improve living standards after the war. Vigorous measures have been taken to increase production, to equalize distribution, and to control prices. Therefore, although millions of refugees and of residents in the war regions have suffered from hunger and even starvation, the country in general has had no serious lack of food.

Production and Consumption of Farm Products

Of the country's 80,000,000 households, about 60,000,000 are farm households, and the farming population constitutes about 75 percent of all the people in China.

In 28 Provinces in China, excluding Mongolia and Tibet, there are 12¼ billion mou of land.[2] Over 6¾ billion mou belong to the 10 frontier Provinces, and the remainder to the 18 Provinces of China proper. Of this immense land area, only about 1⅘ billion mou (approximately 14 percent) are cultivated. The farm land per capita is about 3.5 mou.

The average yearly food production before the outbreak of the war was as follows:

	Piculs[1]	*Tons*
Rice	939, 705, 010	(51, 683, 776)
Wheat	542, 024, 252	(29, 811, 334)
Barley	200, 835, 377	(11, 045, 947)
Kaoliang	239, 230, 520	(13, 157, 679)
Corn	184, 215, 085	(10, 131, 830)
Millet	199, 695, 879	(10, 983, 273)
Oats	17, 932, 000	(986, 260)
Potatoes	447, 524, 496	(24, 613, 847)

[1] 1 picul=110 pounds.

It was estimated that this food supply could meet the requirements of only nine-tenths of the population. The pre-war customs reports showed that the imported foods covered, on the average, only one-fourth of the food deficit. As a consequence China's food supply was sufficient only for 92.25 percent of the people and 33,000,000 of them did not have enough to eat.

Food production in wartime.—Of the last 6 years, 3 (1937, 1940, and 1941) were lean in food production and the others (1938, 1939, and 1942) were fat years. The accompanying table shows, in piculs, the pre-war average compared with the 1938 and 1939 production.

Pre-War Average Food Production in China, Compared With Production in 1938 and 1939

Product	Pre-war average	1938	1939
	Piculs[1]	*Piculs*[1]	*Piculs*[1]
Rice	725, 839, 000	746, 146, 000	762, 678, 000
Wheat	169, 160, 000	202, 911, 000	198, 188, 000
Barley	88, 553, 000	90, 338, 000	91, 534, 000
Kaoliang	32, 476, 000	33, 969, 000	34, 273, 000
Corn	59, 407, 000	70, 249, 000	71, 158, 000
Millet	35, 236, 000	33, 110, 000	24, 013, 000
Oats	2, 961, 000	3, 118, 000	3, 375, 000
Potatoes	215, 331, 000	275, 520, 000	247, 721, 000

[1] 1 picul=110 pounds.

[2] 1 mou=⅙ of an acre.

The estimated cultivated land in the 15 Provinces of Free China is approximately 580,000,000 mou and the average food production approximately 1,500,000,000 piculs per annum.

Government Measures

Agricultural measures.—In 1941 the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry planned to raise the cereal output by 32,000,000 piculs through the increase of farm acreage and the adoption of improved farming methods. New areas put under cultivation aggregated 45,600,000 mou. These measures resulted in the production of 89,704,000 piculs—nearly triple the expected amount. The same measures were used in 1941, and again in 1942, and resulted in substantial increases in production.

The Farmers' Bank of China, a Government establishment, has extended credit to farmers in over 800 counties. Its outstanding loans, as of November 1942, amounted to 560,000,000 yuan.[3] Approximately 80 percent of this sum was used for expanding agricultural production and the remainder for irrigation, reclamation, and extension of farm acreage.

Food supply and prices.—In the latter part of 1940 prices of food rushed skyward. In July 1941 a Ministry of Food was established to take the place of the National Food Administration created in August 1940.

According to a 1941 estimate, the Army required 20,000,000 piculs of rice and 20,000,000 piculs of wheat; public functionaries and school teachers needed 20,000,000 piculs of rice and wheat. A decision was reached to collect the land tax in kind, and also to purchase food from landlords by food debentures at cost prices. Furthermore, it was the Government's policy to make the rich pay more than the poor.

In the course of the last 3 years the Chinese Government has placed ceilings on the chief food items, but it has been necessary periodically to adjust those ceilings to production and transportation costs. In general, it is said, there is no serious deficiency of food, but there are great difficulties as regards transportation and control. Commonly it has been the cities that have experienced the shortages, whereas the country districts were well supplied. The Government has undertaken to purchase food and transport it from producing to consuming sections. This procedure has been quite successful in relieving the situation of the urban people.

Beginning in 1941, the Government has enforced a very strict antihoarding and antiprofiteering law (which has led to the execution of a few high officials). All dealers of foodstuffs are required to register with the Government and they must make periodic reports of purchases, sales, and stocks. They have to carry out all transactions in foodstuffs within specified time limits and are allowed to keep only limited supplies.

Plans for Post-War Period

The Chinese post-war program includes enormous expansion along industrial lines, but agriculture will undoubtedly continue to be the dominant activity in the life of the nation. Village communities and

[3] Yuan at par=29.75 cents; its value varies, however, with the price of silver.

various governmental agencies will have to cooperate in planning and working to raise the total agricultural output.

The principal foods of the Chinese are rice, wheat, and vegetables. Little meat and fish are used. The average person's daily diet is a few bowls of rice or some bread and vegetables. Therefore, if China is to raise this very low level of living, the nation must develop the food industries on an immense modern scale. This will entail continuance of measures to improve and expand agriculture, as well as the inauguration of a program to increase the supplies of meat and fish for China's population of 450,000,000.

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WAGE STABILIZATION IN CALIFORNIA AIRFRAME INDUSTRY, 1943[1]

Summary

STANDARDIZED wage rates for all types of occupations in the southern California airframe industry were provided in the decision of the National War Labor Board made public on March 3, 1943. The basic hiring rate of 60 cents per hour, with automatic 5-cent increases every 4 weeks up to 75 cents, was left unchanged. A 10-grade job classification was adopted, with a minimum basic wage rate of 75 cents per hour in labor grade X and a maximum of $1.45 per hour in labor grade I. Additional specialist rates up to $1.60 per hour were also provided.

Shift differentials of 6 cents per hour on the second shift and 6 cents per hour with 8 hours' pay for 6½ hours' work for the third shift were established for all plants except Consolidated Aircraft, in which the previous differentials of 8 cents for the second and third shift, with 8 hours' pay for 8 hours' work on the third shift, were to be continued unless the Board premiums were substituted by mutual agreement.

The directive order of the Board provided that upon application of the job schedule provided, each classified employee should immediately receive at least the minimum hourly wage rate attached to the labor grade in which his job was classified. It provided further that the job schedule should not operate to cause a decrease in the hourly wage rate of any employee. Application of these directives to the present wage structure will raise average straight-time hourly earnings for some employees in practically every classified occupation. It is estimated that average straight-time hourly earnings for all workers paid by the hour in the southern California airframe industry will be increased by 3 cents per hour—from 85.4 (September 1942) to 88.4 cents.

Wage-Rate History of the Industry Since 1941

Minimum hourly rates for beginners were standardized in 1941, but marked differences persisted in the wage rates paid to the various experienced workers in any given occupation and grade.[2] Throughout 1942 numerous discussions of further standardization took place, in the interest of improving morale and reducing labor turn-over. A wage-stabilization conference, sponsored by the Labor Production Division of the War Production Board, was held in July 1942 without leading to any conclusion. Undetermined at that time was the question as to

[1] Prepared by Theodore W. Reedy and N. Arnold Tolles.
[2] See U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 704, or Monthly Labor Review, March 1942 (p. 559)

whether the Government would approve a general wage increase as part of any agreed plan of wage stabilization. In September 1942, the National War Labor Board took jurisdiction over all the West Coast airframe cases [3] and appointed, as investigator, Paul R. Porter, who had conducted the previous WPB conference. The investigator held a wage hearing in Los Angeles, October 12–17, 1942, and submitted his recommendations to the Board in January 1943.[4] After a hearing on these recommendations, the Board issued its order on March 3, 1943.[5] This order governs the wage scales now paid by all the airframe plants in the southern California area.

Job Description and Evaluation

All the parties involved in the California airframe industry recognized that a well-defined list of occupations was essential to any plan for a uniform wage structure. Furthermore, the opinion prevailed that relative rates of pay should be based on a systematic evaluation of the various jobs. Two alternative sets of job descriptions and evaluation were presented to the Board's investigator. One of these plans had been developed jointly by the International Association of Machinists and the Lockheed-Vega Management. The second plan had been developed through discussions among the representatives of the various companies involved. This second plan, which came to be known as the S. C. A. I. plan,[6] was adopted by the Board's investigator and later by the Board itself as the initial basis of wage stabilization in the California airframe plants.

The S. C. A. I. system of job descriptions involved a consolidation and redefinition of 1,154 titles of factory occupations which had been used as late as 1941. The total number of titles was reduced to 116. Counting the A, B, and C classes, which were provided for most of these occupations, the total number of responsible factory jobs amounted to 291.

Job evaluation under the S. C. A. I. plan involved a quantitative expression of judgment as to the importance of each of seven factors related to each job: Skill, mentality, equipment and material responsibility, mental application, physical application, job conditions, and unavoidable hazards. The requirements of any job were expressed in terms of a scale of points which varied according to the relative importance of each factor and the degree to which that factor was judged to be involved. The factor of skill carried the greatest weight, with point values based on the length of training and experience that would be required, normally, to qualify a worker for a given job grade. The other factors were evaluated in terms of 5 degrees, with a weight as high as 20 to 100 points for "mentality" and as low as 5 to 45 points for "unavoidable hazards." The theoretical maximum point value of any job under the S. C. A. I. plan was 890, of which 400 points might be attributed to the "skill" requirement. The highest point

[3] Cases Nos. 174, 307, 557, 558, 608, 609, 610, and 673.

[4] In the matter of West Coast Airframe Companies: Report and recommendations of Paul R. Porter, chairman of wage hearing held at Los Angeles, October 12-17, 1942.

[5] In the matter of West Coast Airframe Companies: Directive order of Board, March 3, 1943.

[6] S. C. A. I.=Southern California Aircraft Industry. Many of the elements of the S. C. A. I. plan had been applied at the North American Aviation plant as a means of carrying out the realinement of wage rates provided in the union agreement of July 1, 1941. The United Automobile Workers of America had accepted the practical application of this evaluation plan at North American, but without approving it as a general basis for wage stabilization.

value actually given has been 655 for service and flight inspectors. The lowest point valuation consists of 125 points for janitors.

Once the factory jobs were evaluated, the employers had a basis for proposing a specific scale of rates. They did not propose individual scales for each of 291 separable jobs, but rather suggested the establishment of 10 rate ranges. The entire list of jobs was grouped into 10 so-called labor grades. All jobs having a point value below 200 were placed in labor grade X. Those evaluated at 600 points or more were assigned to labor grade I. The intermediate grades were established on the basis of 50 evaluation points per grade.

Recommendations of Board's Investigator

The investigator's report to the War Labor Board included four important wage recommendations: (1) No change in the existing wage scales for beginners, (2) a general increase of 5 cents per hour for all classified workers, (3) specific ranges of rates for each of 10 labor grades, and (4) an automatic pay raise of 5 cents per hour every 3 months, for each individual worker, until the maximum rate for his job is reached. Advancement of a worker from one job to another was not to be compulsory but was to be stimulated by a provision for a periodic review of each worker's eligibility for upgrading.

The specific wage scales in the various labor grades, recommended by the Board's investigator, were as follows:

	Minimum rate	*Maximum rate*	*Specialist rate*
Grade X	$0. 85	$0. 85	-----
Grade IX	. 85	. 95	-----
Grade VIII	. 90	1. 00	-----
Grade VII	. 95	1. 05	-----
Grade VI	1. 00	1. 10	-----
Grade V	1. 05	1. 15	-----
Grade IV	1. 10	1. 25	-----
Grade III	1. 15	1. 30	$1. 35
Grade II	1. 20	1. 40	1. 45
Grade I	1. 30	1. 50	1. 60

The specialist rates were recommended for the purpose of authorizing the payment of higher rates to exceptional individuals, without requiring that all the workers in the labor grade should advance automatically to the specialist rate.

TABLE 1.—*Percent of Increase in Wages of Southern California Airframe Employees, Under Recommendations of Board's Investigator, by Grade, as of September 1942* [1]

Labor grade	Increase to grade minimum	Immediate in-grade increases	Total immediate increase [2]	Increase of all workers to grade maximum
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Grade I	5. 3	1. 6	7. 2	18. 5
Grade II	8. 9	. 9	9. 9	25. 5
Grade III	8. 4	1. 2	9. 9	20. 1
Grade IV	10. 6	. 7	11. 8	23. 8
Grade V	11. 9	. 5	12. 5	21. 7
Grade VI	13. 5	. 5	14. 2	24. 2
Grade VII	11. 4	. 6	12. 0	22. 7
Grade VIII	10. 8	. 7	11. 7	22. 6
Grade IX	7. 7	. 8	8. 6	19. 5
Grade X	4. 8	1. 2	6. 5	10. 9
All grades	9. 3	. 8	10. 3	20. 4

[1] Source: Government Exhibit K, In the matter of West Coast Airframe Companies.
[2] Including the general increase of 5 cents to all workers both above and below the standard maximum rate for the grade.

Had the report of the investigator been adopted by the Board, the wage bill of the California airframe plants would have shown an immediate increase of 10.3 percent above the level in September 1942. Automatic increases up to the maximum rate for each grade would further have raised the wage bill. After approximately 6 months, workers who continued in employment would have been raised by an average of 20.4 percent.

Rates Set by Board

In considering the report of its investigator, the War Labor Board accepted the principle of wage stabilization through rate ranges for each of 10 labor grades. Likewise, the Board approved the proposal to retain the existing rates for workers with less than 3 months' experience. However, the majority of the Board rejected the proposed general increase of 5 cents an hour, the proposed provision for automatic in-grade increases, and the specific scale of rates that had been recommended by the Board's investigator.

Labor grade X was divided into two parts. A flat rate of 75 cents an hour was set for certain of the lowest-rated jobs, such as that of janitor, which did not exist in any of the higher labor grades. A wage from 75 to 80 cents was set for other jobs, such as that of class B anodizer and class C electrical assembler. Labor grade X–B and C thus consisted of jobs in which the worker was subject to upgrading as his experience on the job increased.

The scale of rates finally approved and now in effect is as follows:

	Minimum rate	*Maximum rate*	*Specialist rate*
Grade X–A	$0. 75	$0. 75	-----
Grade X–B and C	. 75	. 80	-----
Grade IX	. 80	. 90	-----
Grade VIII	. 85	. 95	-----
Grade VII	. 90	1. 00	-----
Grade VI	. 95	1. 05	-----
Grade V	1. 00	1. 10	-----
Grade IV	1. 05	1. 20	$1. 30
Grade III	1. 10	1. 25	1. 35
Grade II	1. 20	1. 35	1. 45
Grade I	1. 25	1. 45	1. 60

Individual wage increases up to the established minimum rates were mandatory. In-grade increases, from the minimum to the maximum rate, were not mandatory but were authorized as a reward of individual merit. Specialist rates were provided for not more than 10 percent of the workers in each of the labor grades I to IV and (by special ruling) for class A and B welders.[7]

All the rates established by the order were for work at straight time on the first or daylight shift. Overtime pay is governed by the Fair Labor Standards Act. Extra pay for work on second and third shifts was standardized by a provision for a shift differential of 6 cents per hour for both of the additional shifts and by the further provision that the third shift should receive 8 hours' pay for 6½ hours' work. An exception was recognized in the case of the Consolidated Aircraft plant in San Diego, where the existing 8-cent shift differential was retained.

A retroactive wage adjustment was made by the Board, in view of the extended period of consideration of the aircraft cases. Each

[7] This exception was made to permit the continued payment of higher-than-usual rates that had been established under some collective agreements.

worker who remained on the pay roll of a single company from July 6, 1942, to the date of the Board's order was allowed a lump sum of $64.75 in cash or three war bonds of $25 face value plus $10 in cash. Special provisions were made for those employees with a shorter period of service ($1.85 per week or major fraction thereof) and for those terminated because of entry into the armed services ($2.50 per week or major portion thereof). Since calculation of the total amount of this bonus depends upon length-of-service information which is not available to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, no estimate of this item can be made here.

Effect of Order on Factory Wage Bill

The basic data for estimating the increase in the wage bill and the resulting levels of straight-time average hourly earnings were collected and compiled by the Southern California Airframe Industry Research Committee and were presented as industry exhibits during the recent wage hearings before the National War Labor Board. Calculation of the estimated increase in the wage bill is based upon Government exhibit J–I, in the investigator's report presented to the National War Labor Board, an adaptation of which is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Percentage Distribution of Employees in California Airframe Industry, by Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings and Grade, as of September 1942* [1]

Average hourly earnings	Percent of employees receiving specified average hourly earnings in—										
	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI	Grade VII	Grade VIII	Grade IX	Grade X	All grades
$0.750	-------	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	7.5	9.6	28.8	36.2	73.4	28.0
$0.775	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	.2	.4	1.3	1.7	.6	.9
$0.800	0.1	-------	.2	.8	2.6	10.5	15.6	25.6	31.8	9.7	18.9
$0.825	-------	-------	.8	.6	.3	11.6	9.8	11.2	16.5	8.3	10.8
$0.850	-------	.3	2.8	5.8	11.7	15.1	25.1	15.0	10.3	5.4	13.0
$0.875	.1	.1	1.0	1.9	9.1	8.1	10.4	4.6	1.1	1.4	4.3
$0.900	.3	.4	3.3	13.0	18.4	15.9	15.7	8.0	1.7	1.0	7.4
$0.925	-------	.1	.2	1.9	3.6	4.2	2.1	1.7	.1	.1	1.3
$0.950	.3	3.8	7.4	13.5	18.6	12.2	6.5	1.9	.3	.1	4.0
$0.975	.1	.7	3.6	7.7	8.4	2.5	1.4	.5	.1	(2)	1.3
$1.000	2.7	11.4	12.7	14.8	12.1	5.6	2.3	.6	.1	(2)	2.6
$1.025	.3	2.0	4.3	6.3	2.8	1.2	.3	.3	(2)	-------	.7
$1.050	2.5	17.9	13.1	9.6	3.7	1.9	.5	.2	.1	-------	1.5
$1.075	-------	2.6	1.4	1.5	.5	.7	.2	.1	-------	-------	.3
$1.100	3.1	14.8	12.0	5.4	3.5	1.1	.1	.2	-------	(2)	1.0
$1.125	.9	7.3	3.6	2.8	1.0	.8	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	.4
$1.150	10.9	11.3	9.5	3.9	1.4	.4	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	.8
$1.175	4.0	5.6	2.1	1.4	.7	.1	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	.3
$1.200	11.3	6.0	6.0	1.3	.2	.1	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	.5
$1.225	1.0	.7	.9	.3	.2	(2)	-------	-------	-------	-------	.1
$1.250	10.9	5.2	4.8	1.9	.2	.1	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	.5
$1.275	4.4	2.0	1.9	.5	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	-------	(2)	.2
$1.300	11.8	5.3	5.3	3.4	.5	.1	-------	-------	-------	-------	.6
$1.325	3.1	.3	1.2	.2	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	-------	-------	.1
$1.350	12.2	.7	.8	1.0	(2)	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	.2
$1.375	.2	.1	.5	.3	-------	(2)	-------	-------	-------	-------	(2)
$1.400	11.1	.2	.4	(2)	-------	.1	(2)	-------	-------	-------	.2
$1.425	.4	.3	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	(2)
$1.450	.8	.8	.1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	(2)
$1.475	.1	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	(2)
$1.500	7.4	-------	(2)	(2)	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Government exhibit J–1, Porter recommendation.

[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The industry has been directed to grant a wage increase to each employee whose base rate is below the minimum rate of the grade in which his job is classified. Thus, in the case of a job classified in labor grade VI, an employee receiving 80 cents per hour base rate would receive an increase of 15 cents per hour to 95 cents, the grade minimum. The information shown in table 2 can be used to calculate the extent of these wage increases.[8] The results of this calculation are shown in table 3.

The increase in straight-time average hourly earnings of all hourly paid employees, as a result of the application of the Board's order, is estimated to be 3.6 percent.[9] This amounts to an increase of 3 cents per hour to 88.4 cents, based upon average earnings of 85.4 cents per hour for all workers. Since certain salaried employees, beginners, and workers now being paid the grade minimum or above will receive no wage increase, the percent of increase based upon the pay roll for the entire industry would be somewhat smaller.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Increase in Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings of Southern California Airframe Employees* [1] *Under War Labor Board Order*

[Based upon industry pay roll for September 1942]

Labor grade	Percent of employees within grade	Percent of increase in average hourly earnings
Grade I	1.4	2.8
Grade II	1.2	6.3
Grade III	2.8	4.1
Grade IV	4.7	4.7
Grade V	2.3	6.7
Grade VI	8.5	8.6
Grade VII	21.0	4.4
Grade VIII	12.1	5.6
Grade IX	32.6	1.5
Grade X	13.4	----
All grades	100.0	3.6

[1] Includes only shop employees paid by the hour; excludes supervisory personnel.

The greatest increase, 8.6 percent, is found in labor grade VI. In grade X there is no increase, since the minimum basic rate for that grade is 75 cents per hour, and no classified employees now earn less than that rate. Other increases vary from 1.5 to 6.7 percent in the different grades.

Effect of Order on Occupational Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings

The method of calculating the effect of the award on occupational straight-time average hourly earnings is essentially the same as that used to calculate the wage-bill increase. Given a distribution of employees by average straight-time hourly earnings for each occupation, the problem is simply to obtain a new average for that occupation after increasing the base rate of all employees now below the

[8] Basic hourly wage rates below 75 cents are classified as beginner rates and are not included. The order has no immediate effect on the wages of employees now working at these rates.

[9] Based upon the September 1942 pay rolls of all southern California airframe companies, excluding the Ryan Aeronautical Co., San Diego.

minimum of the grade in which the occupation is found to that minimum. Thus, an employee with a straight-time hourly rate of 90 cents engaged in an occupation in grade V (which has a $1 minimum) would have an increase of 10 cents to raise him to the minimum, which in turn would raise the average for the occupation. Fluctuations in the occupational average as a result of changes in the pattern of employment may be extremely wide. Hence, the adjustment shown in table 4 may be slightly in error in the case of any one occupation, but should be substantially correct in most cases.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings, by Occupation, Based on Order of National War Labor Board (September 1942 Pay Roll)*

Labor grade and occupation	Percent of employees	Hourly earnings, on basis of order	Hourly earnings, September 1942	Hourly earnings, December 1941 (first shift unless otherwise noted)
Grade I	100.0	$1.317	$1.28	
Inspectors, experimental, grade A	1.8	1.264	1.20	
Inspectors, outside production, grade A	2.4	1.275	1.23	
Inspectors, service and flight, grade A	7.7	1.279	1.23	$1.168
Inspectors, tooling, grade A	7.8	1.301	1.29	
Jig builders, grade A	19.2	1.286	1.25	
Machinists, general, grade A	4.7	1.315	1.30	1.247
Mechanics, experimental, grade A	6.4	1.250	1.02	
Model builders, grade A	1.8	1.313	1.25	
Patternmakers, metal and wood, grade A	7.0	1.361	1.35	
Tool and die makers, grade A	41.2	1.351	1.34	1.281
Grade II	100.0	1.222	1.15	
Electricians, maintenance, grade A	26.2	1.239	1.18	1.169
Form builders, wood, grade A	6.4	1.255	1.22	[1] 1.213
Heat treaters, steel, grade A	2.3	1.229	1.16	
Inspectors, final assembly, grade A	24.9	1.207	1.14	1.042
Jig borer operators, grade A	3.9	1.254	1.23	
Mechanics, field and service, grade A	18.2	1.210	1.13	1.015
Mechanics, maintenance, grade A	18.1	1.211	1.11	1.067
Grade III	100.0	1.146	1.10	
Boring-mill operators, grade A	1.6	1.243	1.24	
Die finishers, grade A	1.9	1.101	1.03	
Drop-hammer operators, grade A	2.2	1.117	1.09	[1] 1.003
Duplicating-machine operators, grade A	1.1	1.158	1.14	
Engine-lathe operators, grade A	7.7	1.207	1.20	1.143
Grinder operators, grade A	3.4	1.203	1.19	[1] 1.190
Inspectors, experimental, grade B	1.2	1.110	1.04	
Inspectors, machined parts, grade A	3.4	1.180	1.17	[1] 1.110
Inspectors, outside production, grade B	2.6	1.113	1.03	
Inspectors, salvage, grade A	2.9	1.116	1.06	
Inspectors, service and flight, grade B	2.3	1.145	1.10	[1] 1.172
Inspectors, template, grade A	2.1	1.168	1.16	
Inspectors, tooling, grade B	2.0	1.114	1.06	
Jig builders, grade B	28.6	1.102	1.02	
Milling-machine operators, grade A	10.1	1.187	1.18	1.153
Model builders, grade B	.9	1.117	1.07	
Patternmakers, metal and wood, grade B	2.1	1.122	1.07	
Patternmakers, plaster, grade A	2.8	1.217	1.21	1.226
Planer operators, grade A	.4	1.230	1.23	
Radial-drill-press operators, grade A	2.1	1.101	.91	
Screw-machine operators, automatic, grade A	.9	1.233	1.23	
Shaper operators, grade A	1.9	1.189	1.17	[1] 1.181
Template makers, grade A	2.1	1.123	1.06	[1] 1.035
Tool and die makers, grade B	7.8	1.113	1.06	1.042
Turret-lathe operators, grade A	5.4	1.191	1.18	1.066
Welders, combination, grade A	.5	1.300	1.30	
Grade IV	100.0	1.090	1.04	
Assemblers, general, grade A	6.8	1.067	1.03	.992
Assemblers, precision, bench, grade A	3.9	1.061	1.01	1.069
Blacksmiths, grade A	.1	1.108	1.04	
Cabinetmakers, wood, grade A	1.4	1.097	1.07	
Carpenters, maintenance, grade A	3.9	1.095	1.07	1.059
Electricians, maintenance, grade B	6.1	1.066	.97	1.051

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings, by Occupation, Based on Order of National War Labor Board (September 1942 Pay Roll)*—Continued

Labor grade and occupation	Percent of employees	Hourly earnings, on basis of order	Hourly earnings, September 1942	Hourly earnings, December 1941 (first shift unless otherwise noted)
Grade IV—Continued.				
Form builders, wood, grade B	2.5	$1.058	$0.98	
Heat treaters, steel, grade B	.6	1.050	.93	
Inspectors, detail, grade A	2.0	1.067	1.04	[1] $0.904
Inspectors, final assembly, grade B	7.5	1.058	.99	.895
Inspectors, general assembly, grade A	6.4	1.075	1.05	1.039
Inspectors, precision assembly, grade A	1.3	1.071	1.05	
Inspectors, shipping, grade A	.8	1.064	1.03	
Inspectors, welding, grade A	.3	1.132	1.13	
Installers, armament, grade A	.8	1.050	.93	
Installers, hydraulic, grade A	3.3	1.053	.95	
Installers, power-plant, grade A	1.8	1.057	.98	1.007
Machinists, bench, grade A	1.7	1.088	1.07	[1] 1.106
Mechanics, automotive, grade A	.5	1.105	1.07	
Mechanics, field and service, grade B	12.3	1.050	.95	.907
Mechanics, maintenance, grade B	8.5	1.055	.97	.951
Metal fitters, grade A	3.0	1.078	1.05	1.085
Molders, aircraft, grade A	.9	1.072	.98	
Pipefitters, maintenance, grade A	1.7	1.101	1.08	
Plumbers, maintenance, grade A	1.7	1.094	1.07	
Power-hammer operators, grade A	.7	1.073	1.03	
Sheet-metal workers, bench, grade A	6.5	1.087	1.05	1.047
Sheet-metal workers, maintenance, grade A	.6	1.072	1.04	
Welders, arc, grade A	3.3	1.280	1.28	1.324
Welders, gas, grade A	5.3	1.230	1.23	1.245
Welders, maintenance and jig, grade A	3.8	1.247	1.24	1.205
Grade V	100.0	.993	.96	
Crowning-machine operators, grade A	.2	1.000	.97	
Draw-bench operators, grade A	.2	1.020	1.01	
Form-block makers, grade A	3.8	1.049	1.03	
Heat treaters, aluminum, grade A	3.7	1.003	.83	
Hydraulic straightening and forming press operators, grade A	.6	1.015	.91	
Inspectors, receiving, grade A	1.9	1.048	1.04	1.041
Installers, controls, grade A	9.2	1.008	.95	
Installers, electrical, grade A	11.2	1.013	.97	
Installers, general, grade A	43.0	1.003	.92	.966
Painters, aircraft, grade A	13.3	1.018	.98	.972
Painters, maintenance, grade A	2.9	1.076	1.06	
Power-brake operators, grade A	3.1	1.014	.97	
Sign painters, grade A	1.8	1.039	.99	
Slotter operators, grade A	[2]	1.230	1.23	
Upholsterers, grade A	3.0	1.033	.97	
Welders, aluminum, grade A	2.1	1.260	1.26	
Grade VI	100.0	.960	.89	
Boring-mill operators, grade B	.2	1.040	1.04	
Buffer and polishers, grade A	.3	.990	.96	
Craters, grade A	.8	.963	.90	
Die finishers, grade B	.4	.950	.85	[1] .804
Drill-press operators, grade A	2.6	.962	.89	.761
Drop-hammer operators, grade B	1.9	.972	.94	[1] .862
Duplicating-machine operators, grade B	.2	.988	.97	
Electroplaters, grade A	.7	.969	.91	
Engine-lathe operators, grade B	2.3	.986	.97	.854
Grinder operators, grade B	1.4	.982	.96	[1] .979
Hydro-press operators, grade A	1.6	.952	.83	[1] .894
Inspectors, experimental, grade C	.2	.975	.93	
Inspectors, machined-parts, grade B	1.1	1.021	1.01	
Inspectors, salvage, grade B	.6	.970	.93	
Inspectors, service and flight, grade C	.1	.985	.95	
Inspectors, templates, grade B	.5	.955	.93	
Inspectors, tooling, grade C	.8	.968	.86	
Jig builders, grade C	23.7	.951	.84	
Milling-machine operators, grade B	4.6	.991	.97	.901
Model builders, grade C	.5	.972	.88	
Patternmakers, metal and wood, grade C	.5	.955	.85	
Pattermakers, plaster, grade B	1.0	.991	.97	
Planer operators, grade B	.3	.970	.94	
Power-shear operators, grade A	2.0	.959	.88	
Punch-press operators, grade A	2.2	.972	.92	[1] .960
Radial-drill-press operators, grade B	.7	.953	.83	[1] .869

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings, by Occupation, Based on Order of National War Labor Board (September 1942 Pay Roll)*—Continued

Labor grade and occupation	Percent of employees	Hourly earnings, on basis of order	Hourly earnings, September 1942	Hourly earnings, December 1941 (first shift unless otherwise noted)
Grade VI—Continued.				
Riveters, grade A	31.2	$0.950	$0.89	$0.841
Screw-machine operators, automatic, grade B	.7	.964	.89	
Shaper operators, grade B	1.5	.965	.91	[1] .989
Small-tool repairmen, grade A	1.3	.984	.96	.860
Spot welders, grade A	1.9	.956	.91	
Template makers, grade B	3.7	.959	.93	.850
Tool and die makers, grade C	3.2	.958	.87	.918
Truck drivers, grade A	3.2	.956	.87	.863
Turret-lathe operators, grade B	2.1	.992	.98	.946
Welders, combination, grade B	(2)	1.000	.93	
Grade VII	100.0	.914	.87	
Assemblers, electric and radio (bench), grade A	.8	.939	.93	[1] .880
Assemblers, general, grade B	28.4	.916	.89	.845
Assemblers, precision, bench, grade B	1.9	.906	.85	.890
Blacksmiths, grade B	(2)	.958	.93	
Boring-machine operators (semi-automatic), grade A	.1	.900	.85	
Cabinetmakers, wood, grade B	.4	.918	.90	
Cable splicers, grade A	.3	.918	.89	
Carpenters, maintenance, grade B	1.1	.940	.92	[1] 1.019
Crowning-machine operators, grade B	(2)	.900	.81	
Draw-bench operators, grade B	.1	.903	.84	
Electricians, maintenance, grade C	1.3	.907	.83	.836
Form-block makers, grade B	.4	.909	.87	
Form builders, wood, grade C	.8	.901	.85	
Forming-roll operators, (power), grade A	.4	.929	.89	
Heat treaters, aluminum, grade B	.6	.900	.81	
Heat treaters, steel, grade C	.1	.900	.82	
Hydraulic straightening and forming press operators, grade B	.3	.900	.81	
Inspectors, detail, grade B	1.3	.923	.91	.882
Inspectors, final assembly, grade C	3.2	.936	.90	.810
Inspectors, general assembly, grade B	2.8	.935	.91	.939
Inspectors, precision assembly, grade B	.5	.930	.91	[1] .889
Inspectors, receiving, grade B	.5	.916	.88	
Inspectors, shipping, grade B	.2	.922	.90	
Inspectors, welding, grade B	.2	.957	.94	
Installers, armament, grade B	.5	.903	.86	
Installers, controls, grade B	2.4	.902	.85	[1] .871
Installers, electrical, grade B	3.7	.908	.86	.898
Installers, general, grade B	17.6	.902	.83	.834
Installers, hydraulic, grade B	2.8	.902	.85	[1] .955
Installers, power-plant, grade B	1.2	.910	.88	.861
Machinists, bench, grade B	.8	.927	.92	[1] .973
Mechanics, automotive, grade B	.1	.922	.90	
Mechanics, field and service, grade C	3.6	.901	.83	.791
Mechanics, maintenance, grade C	2.2	.908	.85	.790
Metal fitters, grade B	1.7	.911	.89	.863
Millmen, wood, grade A	.1	.955	.95	
Molders, aircraft, grade B	.3	.906	.87	[1] .886
Painters, aircraft, grade B	3.2	.901	.85	.783
Painters, maintenance, grade B	.3	.939	.90	[1] .845
Pipe fitters, maintenance, grade B	.3	.938	.92	
Plumbers, maintenance, grade B	.3	.923	.90	
Power-brake operators, grade B	.8	.902	.83	[1] .930
Power-hammer operators, grade B	.4	.905	.86	
Router operators, grade A	1.0	.901	.85	[1] .858
Saw operators, grade A	1.5	.907	.86	.867
Sheet-metal workers, bench, grade B	3.8	.925	.91	.904
Sheet-metal workers, maintenance, grade B	.2	.927	.89	
Slotter operators, grade B	(2)	.920	.85	
Tool-crib attendants, grade A	1.7	.907	.86	.862
Truck-crane operators, grade A	.3	.930	.90	
Tube benders, bench, grade A	1.4	.924	.89	.985
Upholsterers, grade B	.7	.906	.81	
Welders, aluminum, grade B	.3	.968	.96	
Welders, arc, grade B	.2	1.040	1.04	
Welders, gas, grade B	.7	1.060	1.06	1.017
Welders, maintenance and jig, grade B	.2	1.003	1.00	[1] .972

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings, by Occupation, Based on Order of National War Labor Board (September 1942 Pay Roll)*—Continued

Labor grade and occupation	Percent of employees	Hourly earnings, on basis of order	Hourly earnings, September 1942	Hourly earnings, December 1941 (first shift unless otherwise noted)
Grade VIII	100.0	$0.856	$0.81	
Anodizers, grade A	.7	.887	.87	[1] $0.988
Buffers and polishers, grade B	.4	.854	.81	
Coverers, fabric, grade A	.7	.858	.79	.783
Craters, grade B	2.0	.850	.80	
Die finishers, grade C	.5	.871	.83	
Drill-press operators, grade B	6.8	.854	.81	.818
Drop-hammer operators, grade C	1.3	.855	.82	[1].874
Electroplaters, grade B	.4	.850	.78	[1].824
Engine-lathe operators, grade C	2.1	.864	.82	[1].818
Grinder operators, grade C	2.0	.856	.82	[1].835
Inspectors, machined parts, grade C	1.5	.885	.86	
Inspectors, salvage, grade C	.2	.852	.81	
Inspectors, templates, grade C	.4	.850	.81	
Milling-machine operators, grade C	5.0	.861	.83	.792
Oilers, maintenance, grade A	.9	.860	.82	[1].774
Overhead-crane operators, grade A	.8	.902	.88	
Patternmakers, plaster, grade C	1.1	.858	.81	
Plexiglass formers, grade A	.3	.870	.84	
Power-shear operators, grade B	2.1	.855	.80	[1].876
Punch-press operators, grade B	3.4	.859	.82	.817
Riveters, grade B	55.8	.853	.80	.772
Small-tool repairmen, grade B	2.4	.861	.82	
Spot welders, grade B	2.2	.852	.81	.833
Tank cleaners and testers, grade A	.6	.869	.81	[1].861
Template makers, grade C	4.7	.852	.80	.774
Turret-lathe operators, grade C	1.7	.866	.83	[1].835
Welders, combination, grade C	[2]	.900	.90	
Grade IX	100.0	.815	.81	
Assemblers, electric and radio (bench), grade B	2.7	.823	.81	.773
Assemblers, general, grade C	57.0	.813	.81	.770
Assemblers, precision, grade C	1.7	.808	.79	.808
Cabinetmakers, wood, grade C	.1	.824	.80	
Cable splicers, grade B	.2	.811	.81	
Carpenters, maintenance, grade C	.3	.838	.83	[1].913
Form-block makers, grade C	.4	.819	.80	
Forming-roll operators (power), grade B	.2	.827	.82	[1].873
Heat treaters, aluminum, grade C	[2]	.806	.79	
Inspectors, detail, grade C	1.3	.816	.79	.767
Inspectors, general assembly, grade C	1.5	.837	.82	.835
Inspectors, precision assembly, grade C	.5	.837	.83	
Inspectors, receiving, grade C	.6	.818	.80	
Inspectors, shipping, grade C	.2	.815	.80	
Inspectors, welding, grade C	.1	.862	.86	
Installers, armament, grade C	.1	.815	.79	
Installers, controls, grade C	.6	.813	.80	.833
Installers, electrical, grade C	2.6	.814	.80	.758
Installers, general, grade C	8.2	.814	.80	.759
Installers, hydraulic, grade C	1.2	.804	.79	.816
Installers, power-plant, grade C	1.1	.811	.80	.803
Machinist, bench, grade C	.8	.824	.82	.775
Mechanics, automotive, grade C	.1	.810	.78	
Metal fitters, grade C	2.3	.813	.80	.836
Millman, wood, grade B	.1	.838	.83	.916
Molders, aircraft, grade C	.1	.803	.78	
Painters, aircraft, grade C	1.4	.815	.80	.771
Painters, maintenance, grade C	.2	.828	.81	
Pipe fitters, maintenance, grade C	.2	.839	.82	
Planishing-hammer operators, grade A	.2	.837	.83	
Plumbers, maintenance, grade C	.2	.814	.79	
Power-brake operators, grade C	.3	.824	.81	
Profile-cutting torch-machine operator, grade A	.1	.898	.89	
Rivet-header-machine operators, grade A	.1	.870	.87	
Router operators, grade B	.4	.814	.79	
Sandblasters, grade A	.2	.823	.81	
Saw operators, grade B	.8	.805	.79	.810
Sewing-machine operators, grade A	.5	.835	.83	[1].841
Sheet-metal workers, bench, grade C	5.6	.821	.80	.806
Sheet-metal workers, maintenance, grade C	.1	.860	.84	
Tool-crib attendants, grade B	2.4	.815	.79	.699
Truckers, power, grade A	1.0	.829	.82	
Tube benders, bench, grade B	1.0	.822	.81	.785

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—*Straight-Time Average Hourly Earnings, by Occupation, Based on Order of National War Labor Board (September 1942 Pay Roll)*—Continued

Labor grade and occupation	Percent of employees	Hourly earnings, on basis of order	Hourly earnings, September 1942	Hourly earnings, December 1941 (first shift unless otherwise noted)
Grade IX—Continued.				
Welders, aluminum, grade C	0.2	$0.864	$0.86	
Welders, arc, grade C	.2	.850	.85	
Welders, gas, grade C	.7	.846	.84	$0.754
Welders, maintenance and jig, grade C	.2	.859	.85	
Grade X	100.0	.758	.76	
Anodizers, grade B	2.7	.800	.80	[1].821
Assemblers, electric and radio (bench), grade C	4.5	.770	.77	
Buffers and polishers, grade C	.1	.820	.82	
Cable splicers, grade C	.2	.770	.77	
Coverers, fabric, grade B	.6	.810	.81	.722
Craters, grade C	.3	.750	.75	[1].749
Drill-press operators, grade C	3.5	.760	.76	.698
Filers and burrers, grade A	2.7	.760	.76	
Helpers, general, grade A	60.7	.750	.75	
Janitors, grade A	12.4	.760	.76	.734
Laborers, grade A	5.0	.770	.77	.713
Parts handlers, grade A	.6	.770	.77	
Plexiglass formers, grade B	.1	.770	.77	
Power-shear operators, grade C	.6	.790	.79	
Punch-press operators, grade C	1.0	.800	.80	
Sandblasters, grade B	.2	.810	.81	[1].771
Spot welders, grade C	1.3	.790	.79	.789
Truckers, hand, grade A	2.6	.790	.79	
Tube benders, bench, grade C	.9	.750	.75	

[1] Covers all shifts; no shift break-down available.
[2] Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

SALARIES OF SCHOOL EMPLOYEES, 1942–43 [1]

MEDIAN salaries for the majority of school positions except those of administrators were higher in 1942–43 than in 1940–41 and 1930–31 in cities covered by the National Education Association's latest biennial survey of salaries in city school systems. In cities of over 100,000 population, median salaries of both kindergarten and elementary-school teachers were 14 percent higher in 1942–43 than in 1930–31; of junior high-school teachers, 9 percent; and of senior high-school teachers, almost 6 percent. Salaries of principals and superintendents in 1942–43 were still below the 1930–31 level, having recovered less rapidly than those for other school positions from the decline which set in after 1930–31. However, since 1934–35 there have been very substantial increases in the salaries of both principals and superintendents as well as of other school employees.

The survey showed a tendency to pay higher salaries to teachers of older children. For example, in cities of over 100,000 population, median annual salaries of senior high-school teachers were $324 higher in 1942–43 than those of junior high-school teachers, and those of junior high-school teachers were $141 above those of elementary-school teachers. However, the report states that there is a growing trend toward salary schedules based upon preparation rather than upon school position. In fact, 36 percent of the salary schedules obtained in the 1942–43 survey were based on preparation, as compared with 31 percent based primarily on preparation in 1940–41.

[1] Data are from Salaries of City School Employees, 1942–43. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, Research Division, February 1943. (Research bull., Vol. XXI.)

Trends in Salaries of School Employees in Cities of Over 100,000 Population, 1930–31 to 1942–43

Type of school employee	Median salaries paid in —					Percent of change		
	1930–31	1932–33	1934–35	1940–41	1942–43	1930–31 to 1942–43	1934–35 to 1942–43	1940–41 to 1942–43
Classroom teachers								
Kindergarten	$2,077	$1,909	$1,926	$2,227	$2,370	+14.1	+23.1	+6.4
Elementary school	2,118	1,947	1,922	2,268	2,422	+14.4	+26.0	+6.8
Atypical classes	2,372	2,100	1,996	2,357	2,537	+7.0	+27.1	+7.6
Junior high school	2,348	2,204	2,078	2,471	2,563	+9.2	+23.3	+3.7
High school	2,731	2,479	2,436	2,768	2,887	+5.7	+18.5	+4.3
Part-time or continuation school	2,695	2,793	2,693	2,458	2,818	+4.6	+4.6	+14.6
Department heads								
Junior high school					3,813			
High school	3,436	3,008	2,913	3,536	3,761	+9.5	+29.1	+6.4
Deans								
Junior high school	3,092	2,730	2,539	3,043	3,143	+1.6	+23.8	+3.3
High school	2,942	2,667	2,268	2,677	2,958	+.5	+30.4	+10.5
Principals								
Elementary school:								
Assistant principals	4,280	4,614	4,042	4,621	4,673	+9.2	+15.6	+1.1
Teaching principals	2,435	2,184	2,135	2,315	2,402	−1.4	+12.5	+3.8
Supervising principals	3,519	3,102	3,016	3,420	3,473	−1.3	+15.2	+1.5
Junior high school:								
Assistant principals	3,496	2,899	2,850	3,940	4,138	+18.4	+45.2	+5.0
Principals	4,500	3,961	3,718	4,403	4,422	−1.7	+18.9	+.4
High school:								
Assistant principals	5,544	3,647	3,453	3,869	3,909	−29.5	+13.2	+1.0
Principals	5,100	4,468	4,252	4,806	4,913	−3.7	+15.5	+2.2
Part-time or continuation school principals	4,111	3,700	4,125	4,050	3,933	−4.3	−4.7	−2.9
Administrative and supervisory staff								
Superintendents of schools	10,000	8,267	7,288	8,605	8,542	−14.6	+17 2	−.7
Associate, assistant, or deputy superintendents	6,527	5,672	5,578	6,039	6,083	−6.8	+9.1	+.7
Business managers	5,361	4,500	4,186	4,967	4,570	−14.8	+9.2	−8.0
Directors, assistant directors, or supervisors of—								
Research, tests, etc	3,400	3,010	2,925	3,333	3,480	+2.4	+19.0	+4.4
Vocational education	3,550	3,380	3,075	3,667	4,008	+12.9	+30.3	+9.3
Physical education	3,100	3,123	2,909	3,285	3,386	+9.2	+16.4	+3.1
Health	3,167	2,500	2,800	2,947	3,255	+2.8	+16.3	+10.5
Evening schools		3,325	3,000	3,275	3,383		+12.8	+3.3
Americanization classes	3,240	3,033	2,750	3,000	3,050	−5.9	+10.9	+1.7
Art	2,867	2,744	2,687	3,044	3,170	+10.6	+18.0	+4.1
Music	2,909	2,825	2,569	3,077	3,077	+5.8	+19.8	0
Penmanship	2,933	2,789	2,727	2,960	3,100	+5.7	+13.7	+4.7
Manual or industrial arts	3,450	3,308	3,278	3,480	3,289	−4.7	+.3	−5.5
Home economics	3,219	2,967	2,818	3,325	3,300	+2.5	+17.1	−.8
Visual education				3,100	3,400			+9.7
Other school employees								
Secretarial and clerical employees:								
Secretaries to superintendents of schools	2,329	1,978	1,779	2,107	2,194	−5.8	+23.3	+4.1
Secretaries of boards of education	4,450	3,700	3,333	3,850	3,950	−11.2	+18.5	+2.6
Clerks in principals' offices	1,281	1,133	1,147	1,355	1,383	+8.0	+20.6	+2.1
Clerks in other administrative and supervisory offices	1,581	1,442	1,450	1,628	1,678	+6.1	+15.7	+3.1
Superintendents of buildings	4,267	3,400	3,109	3,960	3,980	−6.7	+28.0	+.5
Head janitors	2,500	2,000	1,564	3,022	3,200	+28.0	+104.6	+5.9
Head nurses	2,138	2,029	1,875	2,050	2,175	+1.7	+16.0	+6.1
Nurses	1,715	1,611	1,512	1,764	1,844	+7.5	+22.0	+4.5
Chief attendance officers	3,125	2,783	2,530	2,967	3,163	+1.2	+25.0	+6.6
Attendance officers	2,078	1,971	1,888	2,241	2,489	+19.8	+31.8	+11.1

The figures in the foregoing table cover school systems in 79 of the 92 cities which had populations of over 100,000 in 1940. The data for 1942–43 do not include 7 of the largest cities represented in earlier surveys. The grouping of the cities by size for 1940–41 as well as for 1942–43 was based on the 1940 census of population; for the earlier years the 1930 census figures were used. Changes in population for certain cities occurred before 1940, and the National Education Association points out that this fact should be borne in mind in interpreting the figures in its report, especially those involving trends.

Median salaries in cities of under 100,000 population were higher in 1942–43 than in 1940–41 and 1934–35 for practically all positions, and were higher than in 1930–31 for the majority of positions in cities down to 10,000 population, but in cities of the 5,000–10,000 and 2,500–5,000 population groups, salaries in about half the positions were lower than in 1930–31.

WEEKLY SALARIES OF CLERICAL WORKERS IN NEW YORK CITY, DECEMBER 1942

A SURVEY by the Industrial Bureau of the Commerce and Industry Association of New York, Inc., disclosed salaries as low as $10.40 per week in December 1942 among male employees doing clerical work (type not specified) in New York City, although there were other male employees in the same group receiving salaries ranging as high as $55. The lowest salaries for the types of positions specified in the association's report [1] were those of junior clerks, with a low of $14 for both males and females; the highest for the male junior clerks, however, was $60, and for the female clerks, $48. The survey did not cover administrative positions or those with salaries of over $60 per week.

The following table shows weekly salary ranges for different clerical positions in New York City in December 1942, and the weighted average salary level of the largest number of employees in each occupational group, by sex, together with the number of reporting firms and the number of employees represented in each classification. The investigation covered a total of 30,689 clerical workers—8,001 males and 22,688 females—employed by 281 firms engaged in various lines of business, including banking, insurance, transportation, wholesale and retail trade, public-utility enterprises, importing and exporting, manufacturing, newspaper publishing, hotels, etc.

[1] Survey of Weekly Clerical Salaries in New York City, December 1942. New York, Commerce and Industry Association of New York, Inc., 1943.

Weekly Salaries of Clerical Workers in New York City, December 1942

Occupation and sex	Number of reporting firms	Number of employees	Weekly salary range		Weighted average salary level of largest group
			Low	High	
Entire group:					
Male	281	8,001	$10.40	$60.00	$33.37
Female		22,688	14.00	60.00	27.32
Bookkeepers:					
Senior—					
Male	134	474	24.00	60.00	45.90
Female	82	192	17.31	60.00	41.36
Junior—					
Male	83	531	17.31	58.00	37.04
Female	106	386	16.00	46.15	28.01
Machine operators—					
Male	29	158	17.00	60.00	31.52
Female	129	620	15.00	46.00	27.24
Secretaries:					
Male	29	80	24.23	60.00	42.05
Female	211	1,516	19.00	60.00	39.35
Stenographers:					
Male	25	121	17.00	54.37	33.75
Female	233	2,753	15.00	58.00	30.21
Typists:					
Male	13	42	16.00	51.92	25.62
Female	158	2,696	15.00	42.78	23.47
Dictaphone operators:					
Male	2	2	27.00	35.00	[1]
Female	71	418	17.00	40.38	29.88
Telephone operators:					
Male	11	55	22.00	45.00	33.39
Female	235	739	15.00	48.00	27.43
Office-machine operators:					
Male	56	261	17.31	51.92	30.22
Female	130	2,030	16.00	55.00	27.13
Senior clerks:					
Male	188	3,745	18.00	60.00	40.27
Female	142	3,456	16.00	60.00	36.01
Junior clerks:					
Male	139	1,580	14.00	60.00	27.75
Female	161	5,959	14.00	48.00	24.93
File clerks:					
Male	19	45	16.35	45.00	25.77
Female	144	1,301	15.00	58.46	22.63
Other clerical positions:					
Male	152	907	10.40	55.00	18.85
Female	87	622	14.00	43.84	17.44

[1] Not tabulated; data incomplete.

AVERAGE WORKWEEK IN BRITISH METAL TRADES

AN ANALYSIS of the actual working time of employees in the British metal-trade industries indicates that in July 1942 the workweek averaged 55.4 hours, as compared with 55 hours in July 1941. These averages were computed by the Engineering Employers' Federation [1] and cover the working time of 90 percent of the employees.

Although the basic working week in Great Britain is from 47 to 48 hours, there are no statistics showing the average actual workweek, including overtime, for all British industries. Hours rose to 70, 80, and even 90 in 1940, but the Government has urged that workweeks not longer than 60 hours for men and 55 hours for women shall be observed. In industries and enterprises where a 3-shift system is worked, the weekly hours are, in general, 48. Under a 2-shift system, they average 56 hours in many industries. Hours actually worked are

[1] Data are from Labor and Industry in Britain (British Information Services), April 1943.

usually shorter than scheduled working time, owing to absenteeism and other causes.

The average actual weekly working time is shown in the following table for time and piece workers in the British metal-trade industries, by occupations as of July 1941 and July 1942.

Average Weekly Hours in British Metal Trades, July 1941 and July 1942

Class	Hours per week					
	Time workers		Piece workers		All workers	
	July 1941	July 1942	July 1941	July 1942	July 1941	July 1942
All classes combined	56.2	56.6	54.1	54.6	55.0	55.4
Fitters (skilled)	56.0	56.3	54.1	54.5	54.7	55.0
Turners and machinemen:						
Rated at or above fitters' rates	55.3	55.9	54.8	54.9	55.0	55.2
Rated below fitters' rates	55.4	56.3	53.9	54.4	54.2	54.7
Sheet-metal workers	53.1	54.8	51.2	53.1	51.6	53.4
Molders	51.5	53.7	48.9	51.4	50.2	52.5
Platers, riveters, and caulkers	54.3	54.8	54.1	54.0	54.2	54.2
Laborers	57.5	57.5	56.7	57.1	57.3	57.4

Wage and Hour Regulation

REVIEWING ROLE OF NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD

IN A decision denying the request of Oregon and Washington plywood companies for review of a decision of the War Labor Board West Coast Lumber Commission, the National War Labor Board, on April 1, 1943, stated that it could not review all decisions of its subordinate agencies, and defined its appellate role for questions not settled by its subsidiary bodies.[1] The Board has created a number of industry commissions to make primary decisions. It has also established regional boards to which questions not settled by the commissions could be referred.

In its statement the Board declared that it will review the decisions of the subsidiary agencies only when one of the four following conditions exists: (1) The subordinate body has made findings or issued orders which are incompatible with the established policies of the Board, or (2) the case involves a novel question which is of sufficient importance to warrant action by the Board on the basis of National considerations, or (3) the lower body has abused its authority, or (4) the lower body has followed an unfair procedure causing substantial hardship to the appellant.

OVERTIME PAY OF GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES

THE President, on May 7, 1943, signed the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943,[2] providing for overtime pay to Government employees for work in excess of 40 hours per week. The act was made retroactive to May 1, 1943, and is to terminate on June 30, 1945, or such earlier date as Congress may prescribe.

This statute continues most of the provisions of the temporary measure signed December 24, 1942, which expired April 30, 1943.[3] The same rate of pay for overtime work is provided for as in the preceding act, and overtime compensation is limited to that portion of an employee's basic salary not in excess of $2,900 per annum.

However, there are important differences between the War Overtime Pay Act of 1943 and the temporary measure which preceded it. The 1943 law authorizes the Federal agencies to give leave in lieu of extra overtime pay to an employee working more than 48 hours per week; the earlier act made no provision for such compensatory overtime. The new measure also provides that an employee, regardless

[1] National War Labor Board, Case No. 256, Order Denying Petition for Review. Washington, April 1, 1943. (Mimeographed.)
[2] Public Law No. 49, 78th Cong., 1st sess.
[3] See Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 359)

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of rate of salary, shall receive overtime payment on that portion of the salary not in excess of $2,900, whereas the earlier statute prohibited payment of overtime compensation which would cause an employee's aggregate salary to exceed $5,000 per annum.

Another provision of the act of May 7, 1943, guarantees additional compensation of $300 per year in lieu of overtime compensation to an employee covered by the statute, in case the overtime compensation at the established rate is less than $300. Also, those employees whose hours are intermittent and irregular, those in and under the legislative and judicial branches (with certain exceptions), and, subject to the approval of the Civil Service Commission, those whose hours of work are governed by the hours of private establishments, shall receive, in lieu of overtime compensation, (1) additional compensation of $300 per year if their earned basic compensation is less than $2,000 per annum, or (2) if their earned basic compensation is at a rate of $2,000 per annum or more, 15 percent of so much of their earned basic compensation as is not in excess of a rate of $2,900 per annum.

In case the pay of an employee is based upon other than a time-period basis, provision is made for additional compensation, in lieu of overtime compensation, at a rate of 15 percent of so much of the earned basic compensation as is not in excess of $2,900 per annum.

No employee covered by this law is entitled to receive additional compensation for any pay period amounting to more than 25 percent of his earned basic compensation for such pay period.

In the executive branch, the heads of agencies whose workers are covered by the act, are required to report to the Director of the Bureau of the Budget and to the Congress, at least quarterly, information required for the purpose of determining the number of employees needed to enable the agencies to perform their functions. Any excess personnel is to be released as the Director orders. Unless the head of any department or agency concerned shall certify within 30 days from the effective date prescribed by the Director that the number of employees of his agency does not exceed the number determined by the Director to be required for the proper and efficient exercise of its functions, the provisions of the act authorizing overtime pay or additional compensation, as the case may be, shall cease to apply to the employees of such department or agency.

WAGE-STABILIZATION MEASURES IN AUSTRALIA

TO CLARIFY the provisions of the wartime wage-stabilization measures adopted in Australia, the Secretary of the Australian Department of Labor and National Service recently issued a statement on the subject, which was substantially as follows.[1]

The original Australian wage-pegging regulations prevented, subject to certain necessary exceptions, any changes in the rates of pay fixed by awards or industrial agreements in force on February 10, 1942, or (where there was no award or industrial agreement) the rates which were applicable at that date to the particular employment. If on February 10, 1942, an employer was paying a higher rate than the

[1] Information is from Industry and Trade, The Employers' Monthly Review (Melbourne, Australia), February 1943.

award or agreement rate, he was permitted, but not compelled, to continue to pay that higher rate.

The pegging provisions did not prevent periodic adjustments of rates in accordance with cost-of-living changes, provided the award or industrial agreement called for such adjustments. Subsequent amendments of the regulations permitted the Commonwealth Arbitration Court or other competent authority to change award rates to accord with changes in the cost of living. Two recent amendments removed anomalies revealed by the working of the earlier provisions.

The first deals with marginal payments. As mentioned above, the original provisions permitted, but did not compel, an employer to continue to pay remuneration in excess of the award rate as long as the remuneration did not exceed that being paid on February 10, 1942. Where a rate higher than the award rate was being paid, the excess usually represented merit money for special skill. However, since the award rate itself usually was varied by cost-of-living changes, in some cases this merit money tended to be absorbed by the cost-of-living adjustments. To overcome this difficulty, a recent amendment requires an employer to continue to pay the margin over the award rate which he was paying immediately prior to February 10, 1942, for any special skill or other qualification of the employee, irrespective of any increases in the award rate by way of cost-of-living variations. This obligation continues as long as the employee concerned remains in that employment, unless an industrial authority otherwise approves. For example, an employer paying to a process engraver 15s. over the process engravers' determination of the Victoria Wages Board, because of the employee's ability in color engraving, must continue to pay the 15s. margin, even though the award rate itself may have been increased subsequently. Again, it is recognized that some employees, such as managers and clerks, may have been on February 10, 1942, in receipt of wages considerably in excess of the rates fixed by the relevant shop assistants' award or clerks' award for those classifications. In such cases, the test as to the applicability of the amendment is whether the excess being paid immediately prior to February 10, 1942, was for special skill or other qualifications.

The second amendment concerns employees whose remuneration is not determined by awards or industrial agreements. Prior to its adoption, no provision existed for any adjustment in the rates which these employees were receiving on February 10, 1942. To remove this anomaly, the amendment now permits the remuneration of such persons to be varied by employers in accordance with changes in the cost of living as indicated by the retail-price index numbers published quarterly by the Commonwealth Arbitration Court. Account may be taken of any changes in cost of living as shown by these index numbers since the remuneration was first fixed, but no increased payments may be made in respect of any period prior to January 27, 1943. By this provision the parties are given a right to make the variation, but, unlike procedure under the other amendment, there is no compulsion on the employer to do so. Those affected are principally foremen and supervisors in certain trades and many persons in commercial and professional occupations whose remuneration is fixed solely by arrangement with the employer, and for whom there is no specific classification in any award or industrial agreement.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, MARCH 1943

THE total separation rate for all manufacturing industries in March 1943 was 7.69 per 100 employees, as compared with 7.04 in February 1943 and 5.36 in March 1942. The quit rate rose to 5.36 per 100 employees as compared with 3.02 a year earlier. At least three-fourths of a million persons quit their old jobs during March, for other jobs. Further curtailment in the production of civilian goods, shortages of some materials, the completion of certain Government contracts in the durable-goods industries, and the appeal of blanket draft deferments in farm jobs, brought the quit rate to the highest point on record.

In both anthracite and bituminous-coal mining the total separation rates were considerably below the rate for all manufacturing industries. The quit rate in anthracite mining, 2.37, was lower than in any manufacturing industry except petroleum refining. In spite of the relatively low separation rates in both coal-mining industries, the accession rates were even lower and were therefore insufficient to maintain the level of employment.

TABLE 1.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates (per 100 Employees) in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Separations, 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
1943	7.11	7.04	7.69									
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
1943	4.45	4.65	5.36									
Discharges:												
1942	.30	.29	.33	.35	.38	.38	.43	.42	.44	.45	.43	.46
1943	.52	.50	.57									
Lay-offs: [2]												
1942	1.61	1.39	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.21	1.05	.87	.68	.78	.65	.70
1943	.74	.54	.52									
Military and miscellaneous:												
1942	.83	.73	.82	.87	.96	1.02	1.23	1.46	1.79	2.03	1.80	1.50
1943	1.40	1.35	1.24									
Accessions:												
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
1943	8.28	7.87	8.32									

[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 pay periods 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 so extensive as that of the employment survey which includes a larger number of small plants.

[2] Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

Among the 10 durable-goods industry groups, 4 groups—furniture and finished lumber products, lumber and timber products, nonferrous metals and their products, and transportation equipment—had higher total separation rates than the average for all manufacturing.

Of the 22 selected war industries, 6 had higher quit rates than the average for all manufacturing industries. These were aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining, 8.71; shipbuilding and repairs, 7.11; aluminum and magnesium products, 6.94; iron and steel foundry products, 5.99; rolling, drawing, alloying of nonferrous metals, 5.51; and firearms, 5.39 per 100 employees.

TABLE 2.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates, by Major Industry Group, March 1943* [1]

Major industry group	Separation rates							Accession rates	
	Total		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total	
	Mar. 1943 [1]	Feb. 1943	Mar. 1943 [1]	Feb. 1943	Mar. 1943 [1]	Mar. 1943 [1]	Mar. 1943 [1]	Mar. 1943 [1]	Feb. 1943
Durable goods									
Automobiles	6.34	5.90	3.86	3.17	0.70	0.42	1.36	9.99	9.00
Electrical machinery	5.38	5.00	3.45	2.94	.45	.15	1.33	7.06	6.43
Furniture and finished lumber products	12.03	11.72	8.80	8.30	1.12	.96	1.15	11.29	11.14
Iron and steel and their products	6.50	5.45	4.32	3.48	.37	.32	1.49	6.98	5.65
Lumber and timber products	9.29	8.72	6.95	5.79	.32	1.00	1.02	8.77	7.35
Machinery (except electrical)	6.08	5.44	3.94	3.24	.60	.14	1.40	6.65	6.10
Nonferrous metals and their products	8.38	7.36	5.99	4.83	.72	.20	1.47	8.74	8.47
Ordnance	7.35	6.57	4.36	3.90	.66	.93	1.40	8.76	7.95
Stone, clay, and glass products	7.33	6.86	5.07	4.17	.35	.79	1.12	7.48	6.00
Transportation equipment (except automobiles)	8.22	7.30	5.40	4.41	.92	.30	1.60	10.79	10.55
Nondurable goods									
Apparel and other finished products	7.09	6.58	5.97	5.58	.29	.48	.35	7.09	6.99
Chemicals and allied products	5.52	4.77	3.60	2.92	.44	.39	1.09	7.56	6.44
Food and kindred products	11.80	11.87	8.07	8.11	.63	1.78	1.32	9.68	9.78
Leather and leather products	7.79	6.97	6.04	4.98	.30	.32	1.13	6.02	5.61
Miscellaneous industries	6.02	5.70	3.59	3.14	.60	.21	1.62	6.89	11.10
Paper and allied products	9.83	8.39	7.47	5.85	.60	.56	1.20	9.60	8.54
Petroleum and coal products	3.07	4.10	1.77	2.55	.18	.26	.86	3.69	4.23
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	5.78	5.70	3.60	3.24	.24	1.09	.85	5.64	5.22
Rubber products	7.41	7.26	5.70	5.29	.35	.16	1.20	8.01	7.45
Textile-mill products	8.52	7.43	6.91	5.87	.39	.37	.85	7.99	7.35
Tobacco manufactures	9.29	7.35	7.59	5.90	.22	.89	.59	7.60	5.91

[1] March data are preliminary.

TABLE 3.—*Quit Rates for Selected War Industries, March 1943* [1]

Industry	March	February	Industry	March	February
Aircraft	4.75	3.71	Iron and steel foundry products	5.99	5.21
Aircraft parts and engines	3.13	2.35	Machine tools	3.68	3.26
Aluminum and magnesium products	6.94	[2] 5.57	Machine-tool accessories	4.02	2.43
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	8.71	8.41	Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	3.09	2.72
Ammunition (except small-arms)	4.89	4.51	Primary smelting and refining (except aluminum)	3.53	3.47
Communication equipment (except radios)	2.67	2.16	Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs	4.99	4.62
Electrical equipment for industrial use	2.95	2.41	Rolling, drawing, alloying of nonferrous metal (except aluminum)	5.51	5.28
Engines and turbines	3.77	3.24	Shipbuilding and repairs	7.11	5.90
Explosives	2.47	2.57	Small-arms ammunition	3.64	2.42
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	5.39	5.46	Tanks	4.79	4.59
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	3.83	3.26			
Industrial chemicals (except explosives)	3.09	2.49			

[1] March data are preliminary.
[2] Revised.

TABLE 4.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates in Selected Manufacturing Industries, March 1943* [1]

Industry	Separation rates							Accession rates	
	Total		Quit		Discharge	Layoff	Military and miscellaneous	Total	
	Mar. 1943 [1]	Feb. 1943	Mar. 1943 [1]	Feb. 1943	Mar. 1943 [1]	Mar. 1943 [1]	Mar. 1943 [1]	Mar. 1943 [1]	Feb. 1943
Iron and steel and their products:									
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	5.18	4.49	3.19	2.67	0.19	0.14	1.66	5.08	4.49
Gray-iron castings	8.67	8.26	6.52	6.19	.56	.56	1.03	7.86	7.83
Steel castings	8.22	6.70	5.93	4.76	.82	.10	1.37	9.01	8.06
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.71	5.55	3.85	3.15	.49	.29	1.08	6.39	3.63
Tin cans and other tinware	15.99	10.34	7.86	6.79	.79	5.12	2.22	17.10	11.31
Wire products	4.89	4.26	3.32	2.63	.23	.10	1.24	6.32	7.34
Cutlery and edge tools	7.74	6.87	5.87	4.94	.48	.29	1.10	10.14	7.64
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	7.35	7.16	5.43	5.44	.44	.30	1.18	8.24	7.36
Hardware	6.90	6.43	5.09	4.51	.43	.25	1.13	7.76	7.00
Plumbers' supplies	5.22	4.76	3.51	2.73	.22	.04	1.45	5.09	5.53
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	13.50	8.90	8.10	6.36	1.22	2.68	1.50	11.05	12.74
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	8.50	6.88	5.99	4.01	.56	1.09	.86	8.87	9.24
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	11.65	9.71	7.45	7.15	1.27	1.52	1.41	12.86	9.94
Fabricated structural-metal products	8.67	8.64	5.82	5.49	.63	.71	1.51	9.98	7.30
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	6.12	5.04	4.45	3.41	.39	.07	1.21	9.64	7.99
Forgings, iron, and steel	6.98	6.03	4.75	3.95	.60	.31	1.32	9.48	8.47
Machinery (except electrical):									
Agricultural machinery and tractors	4.72	4.15	3.11	2.45	.41	.17	1.03	5.80	5.26
Textile machinery	4.92	4.42	3.11	2.88	.09	.21	1.51	6.34	4.92
General industrial machinery (except pumps)	7.02	6.22	4.71	3.87	.78	.14	1.39	8.49	7.72
Pumps and pumping equipment	6.60	5.38	4.54	3.59	.64	.22	1.20	6.29	6.50
Automobiles:									
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	5.75	6.01	3.20	3.00	.68	.49	1.38	10.86	9.40
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	7.15	5.77	4.75	3.38	.72	.33	1.35	8.82	8.51
Nonferrous metals and their products:									
Primary smelting and refining	7.89	8.05	5.70	5.73	.74	.12	1.33	8.49	9.42
Lighting equipment	5.46	5.66	3.26	3.27	.27	.36	1.57	6.35	6.55
Lumber and timber basic products:									
Sawmills [2]	8.94	8.82	6.56	5.77	.31	1.03	1.04	8.39	7.14
Planing and plywood mills	9.82	8.35	7.50	5.69	.32	.97	1.03	9.47	7.44

[1] March data preliminary.
[2] Previously included logging.

TABLE 4.—*Monthly Labor Turn-over Rates in Selected Manufacturing Industries, March 1943*—Continued

Industry	Separation rates							Accession rates	
	Total		Quit		Discharge	Lay-off	Military and miscellaneous	Total	
	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Mar. 1943	Mar. 1943	Mar. 1943	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943
Furniture and finished lumber products:									
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	12.36	11.87	9.00	8.38	1.12	1.06	1.18	11.31	11.01
Stone, clay, and glass products:									
Glass and glass products	6.59	5.82	4.16	3.29	.39	.78	1.26	9.50	6.33
Cement	6.25	7.39	4.63	3.67	.15	.54	.93	4.85	3.48
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	9.06	9.22	6.10	5.80	.35	1.58	1.03	7.18	6.40
Pottery and related products	9.02	7.12	6.62	4.94	.46	.68	1.26	6.95	7.11
Textile-mill products:									
Cotton	9.59	8.26	7.99	6.68	.42	.32	.86	8.96	8.05
Silk and rayon	8.55	7.78	7.26	6.16	.23	.42	.64	8.34	8.04
Woolen and worsted (except dyeing and finishing)	7.01	5.77	4.99	4.21	.29	.88	.85	5.68	5.60
Hosiery, full-fashioned	5.25	4.66	4.35	3.67	.18	.08	.64	5.04	3.86
Hosiery, seamless	7.41	6.41	6.38	5.11	.39	.23	.41	7.03	7.40
Knitted underwear	7.66	7.32	6.44	5.94	.38	.36	.48	6.96	7.04
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	9.12	8.70	6.85	6.18	.70	.29	1.28	8.79	8.50
Apparel and other finished textile products:									
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	6.17	5.33	4.65	4.15	.21	1.06	.25	5.21	5.56
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments	6.93	6.44	6.08	5.74	.42	.06	.37	7.41	7.01
Women's clothing (except corsets)	7.51	6.53	6.30	5.64	.09	.82	.30	6.47	5.83
Leather and leather products:									
Leather	6.01	5.44	4.25	3.64	.29	.34	1.13	4.95	4.43
Boots and shoes	8.10	7.23	6.37	5.18	.30	.31	1.12	6.18	5.79
Food and kindred products:									
Meat products	12.57	14.29	8.18	8.95	.62	2.12	1.65	8.86	9.73
Grain-mill products	12.27	11.38	9.15	8.79	1.59	.64	.89	13.16	11.50
Paper and allied products:									
Paper and pulp	8.45	6.51	6.50	4.69	.46	.33	1.16	8.62	6.43
Paper boxes	10.83	9.72	7.71	6.32	.61	1.32	1.19	11.40	10.66
Printing, publishing, and allied industries:									
Newspapers and periodicals	4.25	4.07	2.78	2.43	.24	.49	.74	4.00	3.56
Printing, publishing, and allied industries (except newspapers and periodicals)	7.31	7.21	4.39	3.93	.24	1.73	.95	7.26	6.82
Chemicals and allied products:									
Paints, varnishes, and colors	6.52	6.83	4.68	4.75	.52	.36	.96	5.93	7.20
Rayon and allied products	5.00	4.12	3.29	2.60	.35	.25	1.11	4.70	4.34
Industrial chemicals (except explosives)	4.96	4.52	3.09	2.49	.45	.22	1.20	5.21	5.09
Products of petroleum and coal:									
Petroleum refining	2.81	3.71	1.57	2.32	.14	.27	.83	3.49	3.93
Rubber products:									
Rubber tires and inner tubes	4.89	4.72	3.21	2.83	.17	.16	1.35	6.28	5.51
Rubber footwear and related products	7.63	7.99	6.25	6.01	.22	.07	1.09	7.92	7.75
Miscellaneous rubber industries	10.38	9.23	7.95	7.19	.86	.32	1.25	10.49	9.48

The monthly labor turn-over rates for February and March 1943 in the bituminous-coal and anthracite mining industries are given in the following statement:

	Bituminous coal		*Anthracite*	
	March 1943	*February 1943*	*March 1943*	*February 1943*
Separation rate—total	5.90	5.34	3.23	2.87
Quit rate	4.52	4.36	2.37	2.08
Discharge rate	.20	.17	.07	.12
Lay-off rate	.21	.04	.07	.06
Military and miscellaneous rate	.97	.77	.72	.61
Accession rate—total	4.74	4.48	2.82	2.70

As a result of a shift in the classification of firms to a current war-product basis, changes in the sample and in the schedule itself, the Bureau of Labor Statistics is not able at this time to furnish data on a comparable basis for all industries prior to January 1943. It is expected that data for previous periods will be available later.

In the interest of establishing uniformity with other employment series in the matter of industry titles, some new titles have been employed in the labor turn-over reports. A comparison of the new and old titles is given below. Change in title does not indicate a change in sample consistency.

New industry titles	*Old industry titles*
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	Same.
Gray-iron castings	Part of: Foundry and machine shops.
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	Cast-iron pipe.
Tools (except edge and machine tools, files, and saws).	Same.
Hardware	Same.
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	Stoves.
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.	Steam and hot-water heating apparatus.
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	Stamped and enamel ware.
Fabricated structural-metal products	Structural and ornamental metalwork.
General industrial machinery	Part of: Foundry and machine shops.
Agriculture machinery and tractors	Agriculture implements.
Textile machinery	Same.
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	Automobiles and bodies.
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	Automobile parts and equipment.
Lighting equipment	Same.
Sawmills	Same.
Planing and plywood mills	Planing mills.
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	Furniture.
Glass and glass products	Glass.
Cement	Same.
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	Same.
Cotton	Cotton manufacturing.
Silk and rayon	Silk and rayon goods.
Woolen and worsted (except dyeing and finishing)	Woolen and worsted goods.
Dyeing and finishing textiles (including woolen and worsted).	Dyeing and finishing.
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats	Men's clothing.
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments.	Men's clothing.
Leather	Leather goods.
Boots and shoes	Same.
Meat products	Slaughtering and meat packing.
Grain-mill products	Flour.
Paper and pulp	Same.
Paper boxes	Boxes, paper.
Printing: Newspapers and periodicals	Same.
Printing, publishing and allied industries (except newspapers and periodicals).	Printing—book and job.
Paints, varnishes, and colors	Paints and varnishes.
Rayon and allied products	Same.
Industrial chemicals (except explosives)	Chemicals.
Petroleum refining	Same.
Rubber tires and inner tubes	Rubber tires.
Rubber footwear and related products	Rubber boots and shoes.

BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN URBAN AREAS OF THE UNITED STATES, APRIL 1943

BETWEEN March and April 1943, the 19-percent increase in the value of privately financed building construction started in urban areas of the United States practically offset the 20-percent decline in the value of Federal construction contracts awarded. The decrease of less than 1 percent in total valuations from March to April was in marked contrast to the sharp downward movement of the previous 13 months. New nonresidential valuations declined 13 percent; but those for new residential buildings increased 3 percent and for additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures, 19 percent.

The dollar volume of building construction started in urban areas during April 1943 was 70 percent lower than during the same month a year ago. All types of building construction shared in this decline, but the most pronounced drop, 82 percent, was in the value of nonresidential buildings. New residential valuations declined 58 percent, and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures, 44 percent.

Comparison of April 1943 with March 1943 and April 1942

The volume of Federally financed and other building construction in urban areas of the United States in March and April 1943 and April 1942 is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, April 1943*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	April 1943	Percent of change from—		April 1943 (in thousands of dollars)	Percent of change from—	
		March 1943	April 1942		March 1943	April 1942
All building construction	57,404	+26.3	−31.9	92,477	−0.4	−70.1
New residential	13,161	+1.2	−51.2	45,885	+2.7	−58.0
New nonresidential	9,701	+52.2	−25.4	29,869	−12.5	−82.4
Additions, alterations, and repairs	34,542	+32.4	−22.0	16,723	+19.3	−43.9

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which permits were issued or contracts were awarded in April 1943 and the estimated valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Dwelling, April 1943*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	April 1943	Percent of change from—		April 1943 (in thousands of dollars)	Percent of change from—	
		March 1943	April 1942		March 1943	April 1942
All dwellings	15,686	−0.4	−53.0	43,889	+2.6	−59.4
Private	9,860	+6.0	−61.2	31,225	+14.3	−61.2
1-family	6,551	−.7	−63.1	22,203	+8.7	−63.6
2-family [1]	1,353	+26.9	−51.7	3,996	+45.2	−42.4
Multifamily [2]	1,956	+19.8	−59.7	5,026	+21.3	−59.6
Federal	5,826	−9.7	−26.6	12,664	−18.0	−54.4

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparison of First 4 Months of 1942 and 1943

Permit valuations reported in the first 4 months of 1942 and 1943 are compared in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Building Construction in All Urban Areas by Class of Construction, First 4 Months of 1942 and 1943*

[In thousands of dollars]

Class of construction	Total: First 4 months of—			Federal: First 4 months of—		
	1943	1942	Percent of change	1943	1942	Percent of change
All construction	402,897	1,121,601	−64.1	236,074	577,490	−59.1
New residential	190,278	422,249	−54.9	96,570	109,742	−12.0
New nonresidential	157,716	586,611	−73.1	135,542	457,010	−70.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs	54,903	112,741	−51.3	3,962	10,738	−63.1

The number and permit valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued in the first 4 months of 1943 are compared with similar data for corresponding months of 1942 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 4 Months of 1942 and 1943*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands of dollars)		
	First 4 months of—		Percent of change	First 4 months of—		Percent of change
	1943	1942		1943	1942	
All dwellings	73,878	120,225	−38.6	185,230	410,337	−54.9
Private	31,044	91,726	−66.2	94,057	306,806	−69.3
1-family	21,394	70,355	−69.6	68,551	251,592	−72.8
2-family [1]	3,905	7,395	−47.2	10,762	19,367	−44.4
Multifamily [2]	5,745	13,976	−58.9	14,744	35,847	−58.9
Federal	42,834	28,499	+50.3	91,173	103,531	−11.9

[1] Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.
[2] Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Public Funds, April 1943

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during March and April 1943 and April 1942 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is shown in table 5. This table includes other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside cities included in urban areas.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects and Shipbuilding Financed From Federal Funds*

[In thousands of dollars]

Source of funds	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	April 1943 [1]	March 1943 [2]	April 1942 [2]
Total	249,178	481,128	355,095
War public works	1,739	3,431	6,759
Regular Federal appropriations	222,730	440,415	304,963
Federal Public Housing Authority	24,709	37,282	43,373

[1] Preliminary: subject to revision.
[2] Revised.

Coverage of Statistics

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has revised its methods of summarizing reports on building permits. Through January 1943, the figures covered a specified number of reporting cities, which varied from month to month. Beginning with the February 1943 comparisons, the data cover all building construction in urban areas of the United States which, by Census definition, includes all cities and towns with population of 2,500 or more in 1940. The principal advantage of this change is that figures for every month will be comparable since estimates are made for any cities failing to report in a given month. As in the past, the value of contracts awarded by the Federal Government for building construction will be combined with information obtained from the building-permit reports. The contract value of Federally financed construction in urban areas was $37,814,000 in April 1943, as contrasted with $47,033,000 in the previous month and $168,965,000 in April 1942.

The 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 cities in the urban areas is included in the tabulations.

CHANGES IN BUREAU'S FOOD-COST INDEX

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics index of retail food costs for March incorporates revisions designed to take into account the effects on consumer buying of rationing and other wartime changes in the supply of foods, as well as the effects of recent shifts in population to war production centers.

The revisions do not affect the level of the indexes for previous months and did not appreciably affect the movement of the food cost index from February to March. They will affect the measurements significantly only over a long period of time and will serve to insure the future accuracy of the index in reflecting consumer market periods characteristic of the war period.

The changes made were as follows:

1. Seven foods were added to the index: Rolled oats, beef liver, hamburger, sliced ham, and corn sirup, now being bought in larger quantities than before rationing and food shortages; and grapefruit juice and green beans, included to provide more complete representation of canned fruits and vegetables. Eleven other foods were priced for the first time in February.

2. The quantity "weights" of 27 foods have been reduced in line with anticipated 1943 supplies which will be available to civilian consumers, including most cuts of beef (round steak, beef rib roast, and chuck roast); veal; lamb; frozen and fresh fish, and pink salmon; butter; apples and bananas; several fresh vegetables (cabbage, carrots, lettuce, and spinach); canned peaches, pineapple, corn, peas, and tomatoes; dried prunes and dried navy beans; coffee and tea; shortening other than lard; corn meal; and sugar.

3. The relative importance of 25 foods was increased, including the cereals and bakery products (white, whole wheat and rye bread, macaroni, corn flakes, vanilla cookies, and soda crackers); most pork products (pork chops, sliced bacon, whole ham, and salt pork); roasting chickens; cheese; fresh and evaporated milk; eggs; certain fresh fruits and vegetables (oranges, onions, potatoes, and sweetpotatoes); and lard, salad dressing, oleomargarine, and peanut butter. The increase in importance of these foods in the index does not necessarily mean that a larger quantity will be available for civilian use—the contrary is true of bacon, for example—but indicates that they are relatively less scarce than the 27 foods listed above.

4. Adjustments were made for changes in the volume of food sold through chain and independent stores.

5. Five cities for which food prices have been available for some time have been incorporated in the all-cities index.

6. The relative importance of the cities included in the food-cost index and in the general cost-of-living index has been changed to take account of the changes in population because of war activities.

The effects of changes 4, 5, and 6 on the average prices for the 56 cities combined were negligible for most foods. The adjustments for changes in the volume of foods sold through chain and independent stores affected the average prices by cities only where the shifts were considerable. Revised average prices for February for the 56 cities combined are shown in table 3 (p. 1220), even though there were few significant differences from those previously published.

FOOD PRICES IN MARCH 1943

RETAIL costs of food rose 2.8 percent between February 16 and March 16, primarily as a result of an increase of 13.2 percent in average prices of fresh fruits and vegetables. All other groups edged up slightly, with the exception of eggs which showed a less-than-seasonal decline (1.2 percent).

The all-foods index for March 16 stood at 137.4 percent of the 1935–39 average; 15.9 percent above March 1942; 40.5 percent above January 1941; and 47.0 percent above August 1939, the last survey preceding the outbreak of war in Europe.

Of the list of 78 foods priced in February and March, 54 showed increases, 7 declined, and 17 remained unchanged. In mid-March all groups of foods were above the May 1942 level and only one, eggs, was seasonally below the September 1942 average. Increases from August 1939 varied from 14.6 percent for cereals and bakery products to 104.7 percent for fresh and canned fish.

Percentage changes in retail costs of food on March 16, compared with costs for February 1943; March, May, and September 1942; January 1941; and August 1939, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Changes in Retail Costs of Food in 56*[1] *Large Cities Combined, by Commodity Groups*

Commodity group	Percent of change, March 16, 1943, compared with—					
	1943	1942			1941	1939
	Feb. 16	Sept. 15	May 12	Mar. 17	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	+2.8	+8.5	+13.0	+15.9	+40.5	+47.0
Cereals and bakery products	+.5	+1.5	+1.7	+2.1	+12.8	+14.6
Meats	+.9	+5.1	+10.5	+13.9	+35.8	+43.5
Beef and veal	+.5	+2.9	+4.4	+8.3	+18.5	+30.1
Pork	+.1	+1.9	+2.6	+7.6	+47.0	+43.6
Lamb	+.2	+2.8	+16.2	+26.4	+39.2	+39.1
Chickens	+1.0	+8.4	+27.8	+29.1	+49.1	+53.2
Fish, fresh and canned	+5.6	+21.2	+35.1	+28.3	+71.8	+104.7
Dairy products	+.8	+7.3	+11.1	+12.6	+30.4	+47.2
Eggs	−1.2	−8.2	+23.4	+27.0	+46.2	+57.0
Fruits and vegetables	+10.7	+27.1	+28.1	+33.6	+76.7	+78.5
Fresh	+13.2	+32.7	+33.0	+39.8	+85.1	+86.3
Canned	+.3	+6.4	+7.3	+9.0	+44.1	+43.8
Dried	+.3	+9.5	+19.7	+22.8	+57.6	+73.9
Beverages	+.1	+.9	+.2	+4.4	+37.4	+31.6
Fats and oils	+.2	+4.7	+3.3	+8.2	+57.4	+49.6
Sugar and sweets	+.4	+.7	+.6	−.5	+34.2	+33.8

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined, prior to March 1943.

Details by Commodity Groups

Indexes of retail food costs by commodity groups are shown in table 2 for February and March 1943; March, May, and September 1942; January 1941; and August 1939. The accompanying charts show the trends in costs of all foods for January 1913 to March 1943, inclusive, and for each major commodity group for the periods January 1929 to March 1943.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56* [1] *Large Cities Combined,* [2] *by Commodity Groups, in Specified Months*

[1935–39=100]

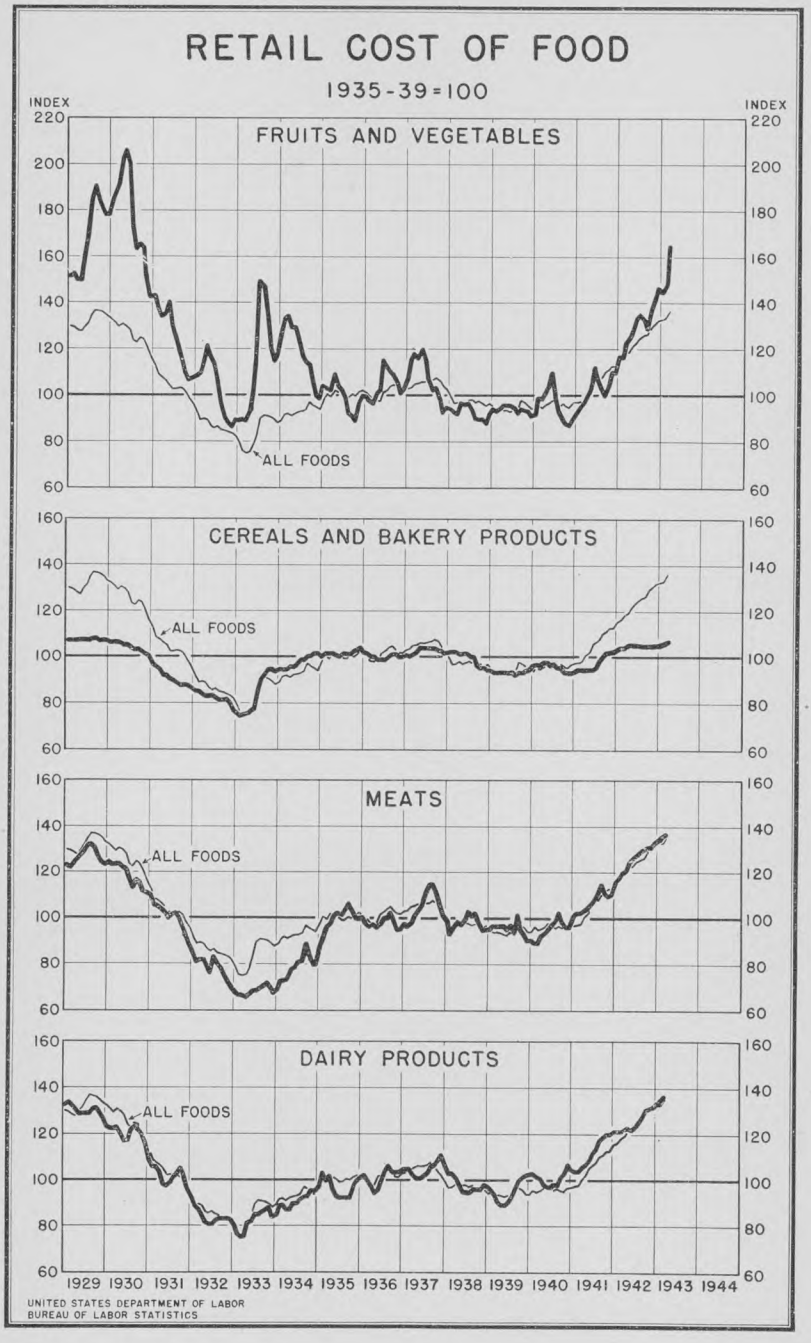
Commodity group	1943		1942			1941	1939
	Mar. 16 [3]	Feb. 16	Sept. 15	May 12	Mar. 17	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods	137.4	133.6	126.6	121.6	118.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products	107.0	106.5	105.4	105.2	104.8	94.9	93.4
Meats	137.3	136.1	130.6	124.3	120.5	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal	129.6	128.9	126.1	124.1	119.7	109.4	99.6
Pork	126.4	126.3	124.0	123.2	117.5	86.1	88.0
Lamb	137.4	137.1	133.7	118.2	108.7	98.7	98.8
Chickens	144.9	143.4	133.7	113.4	112.2	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned	203.9	193.0	168.2	150.9	158.9	118.7	99.6
Dairy products	137.0	135.9	127.7	123.3	121.7	105.1	93.1
Eggs	142.4	144.1	155.2	115.4	112.1	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables	164.9	148.9	129.7	128.7	123.4	93.3	92.4
Fresh	172.9	152.8	130.3	130.0	123.7	93.4	92.8
Canned	131.7	131.3	123.8	122.7	120.8	91.4	91.6
Dried	157.0	156.5	143.4	131.2	127.9	99.6	90.3
Beverages	124.9	124.8	123.8	124.6	119.6	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils	126.4	126.1	120.7	122.4	116.8	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets	127.9	127.4	127.0	127.1	128.5	95.3	95.6

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined, prior to March 1943.
[2] Aggregate costs of 61 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.
[3] Preliminary.

Cereals and bakery products.—The index for the group rose 0.5 percent as 51 cities reported increases. Prices of wheat flour, corn meal, macaroni, and vanilla cookies rose more than 1 percent, and there was a slight increase for soda crackers. The cereals and bakery products group has shown the smallest increase of any of the food groups since August 1939. The net change over the past 43 months ending in March 1943 was less than 15 percent, and the increase between May 1942 (immediately preceding the first comprehensive control of food prices by the Office of Price Administration) and March 1943 amounted to only 1.7 percent. This was due principally to the stability of bread prices.

Meats.—The cost of meats continued to edge up, with all groups sharing in the increase. Prices of chickens rose 1 percent and there were fractional increases for beef and veal, pork, and lamb. Serious shortages of some meats, particularly beef, were reported in many cities. Prices of fresh fish advanced 8 percent. In March 1943 the index for all meats was 10 percent above the May 1942 level and 43 percent above that of August 1939.

Dairy products.—Prices for dairy products as a group rose 0.8 percent; there was an advance of 1.3 percent in the prices of cheese and fresh milk delivered to homes, a rise of 1 percent for evaporated milk, and smaller increases for butter and milk sold through grocery stores.



Several reports were received of local adjustments in the ceiling prices of fresh milk. A mark-up type of OPA price ceiling permitted the increased costs of cheese and evaporated milk at the primary level to be passed on to the consumer.

Eggs.—Prices of eggs declined in 46 cities, with the usual seasonal increase in supplies. The general average decreased to approximately 50 cents per dozen. In March 1943 egg prices were 27 percent above March 1942 and 57 percent above August 1939.

Fruits and vegetables.—The index for the group as a whole rose 10.7 percent during the month, largely as a result of advances in prices of fresh produce. In March 1943 the index of fresh fruits and vegetables was about 40 percent above the same month of 1942 and 85 percent above January 1941. Prices of apples and sweetpotatoes, uncontrolled by the Office of Price Administration, rose 12.7 percent and 36.6 percent respectively. Among the articles placed under ceilings in the latter part of February, green beans and cabbage rose 41 percent and there were smaller increases for carrots, lettuce, and spinach. Oranges, onions, and potatoes, whose prices are under the mark-up type of control whereby increased producers' costs are passed on to the consumer, rose by amounts varying from 6 percent for oranges to 18 percent for potatoes. Potato prices reached a point 138 percent above January 1941, and onions were 97 percent and oranges 44 percent above that level. These increases reflected the heavy demand resulting from the rationing of canned goods as well as shortages of supply caused by the unusually late cold weather. Reports were received indicating local shortages for several fresh vegetables, especially potatoes.

Prices of canned and dried vegetables continued to go up by small amounts.

Beverages.—Beverage prices increased slightly, with coffee showing a 0.7-percent rise and tea a 0.5-percent decline. Local shortages of certain brands of coffee were reported, but there was no indication that coffee was not available in any community.

Fats and oils.—Prices of oleomargarine and peanut butter rose by more than 1 percent, and those of lard, shortening, and salad dressing rose by smaller amounts. The average for the group was only 0.2 percent above mid-February and approximately 3 percent above May 1942.

Sugar and sweets.—Prices of sugar remained unchanged. The average for this group rose slightly, however, because the prices of corn sirup (included in the index for the first time) advanced 1.3 percent.

Average prices of 78 foods in 56 cities combined are given in table 3 for February and March 1943 and in 51 cities combined for March, May, and September 1942.

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TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined, February and March 1943 and March, May, and September 1942*

Article		1943		1942		
		Mar. 16 [1]	Feb. 16 (revised) [2]	Sept. 15	May 12	Mar. 17
Cereals and bakery products:						
Cereals:		*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Flour, wheat	10 pounds	60.0	59.1	54.3	51.6	51.9
Macaroni	pound	14.6	14.6	14.1	14.2	14.2
Wheat cereal [3]	28 ounces	24.1	24.1	24.0	24.1	24.1
Corn flakes	8 ounces	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.2	7.3
Corn meal	pound	5.4	5.3	5.0	4.7	4.7
Rice [3]	do	12.8	12.8	12.5	12.3	11.9
Rolled oats	do	8.9	8.9	8.7	8.6	8.4
Flour, pancake [3]	20 ounces	10.5	10.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Bakery products:						
Bread, white	pound	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.7	8.7
Bread, whole-wheat	do	9.7	9.7	9.5	9.5	9.5
Bread, rye	do	9.8	9.8	9.7	9.7	9.6
Vanilla cookies	do	28.8	28.1	27.0	27.7	27.1
Soda crackers	do	17.6	17.5	16.6	16.4	16.4
Meats:						
Beef:						
Round steak	do	45.6	45.2	44.2	44.2	42.0
Rib roast	do	36.0	35.8	34.7	34.0	32.8
Chuck roast	do	31.4	30.9	30.0	28.9	28.6
Stew meat [3]	do	35.6	35.5	(4)	(4)	(4)
Liver	do	37.5	37.4	(4)	(4)	(4)
Hamburger	do	33.2	33.1	(4)	(4)	(4)
Veal:						
Cutlets	do	55.5	55.6	54.9	53.6	52.2
Roast, boned and rolled [3]	do	36.6	36.7	(4)	(4)	(4)
Pork:						
Chops	do	43.5	43.4	43.1	43.2	40.0
Bacon, sliced	do	43.2	43.0	40.9	39.3	38.4
Ham, sliced	do	61.0	60.8	59.6	58.8	57.7
Ham, whole	do	39.1	39.1	38.3	37.8	37.0
Salt pork	do	24.1	24.1	23.8	24.0	22.8
Liver [3]	do	24.1	24.1	(4)	(4)	(4)
Sausage [3]	do	38.3	38.2	(4)	(4)	(4)
Bologna, big [3]	do	33.5	33.4	(4)	(4)	(4)
Lamb:						
Leg	do	39.5	39.2	37.9	33.8	31.4
Rib chops	do	48.4	48.2	47.1	41.3	37.5
Poultry:						
Roasting chickens	do	46.3	45.7	42.5	36.1	35.7
Fish:						
Fish (fresh, frozen)	do	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Salmon, pink	16 oz. can	23.1	23.2	21.8	21.8	21.4
Salmon, red [3]	do	40.9	41.7	40.6	40.0	39.2
Dairy products:						
Butter	pound	56.2	56.0	50.6	45.7	42.2
Cheese	do	38.2	37.7	34.3	34.0	34.9
Milk, fresh (delivered)	quart	15.6	15.4	15.0	14.9	15.1
Milk, fresh (grocery)	do	14.3	14.2	13.5	13.5	13.6
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) [3]	do	15.1	15.0	14.5	14.4	14.6
Milk, evaporated	14½-oz. can	10.2	10.1	8.9	8.7	8.8
Eggs:						
Eggs, fresh	dozen	50.3	50.9	55.2	40.9	39.7
Fruits and vegetables:						
Fresh fruits and vegetables:						
Fruits:						
Apples	pound	8.9	7.9	6.2	7.5	6.2
Bananas	do	10.7	10.6	10.3	12.0	9.8
Oranges	dozen	39.4	37.2	39.1	31.4	28.9
Grapefruit [3]	each	6.8	6.0	9.4	6.3	4.8
Vegetables:						
Beans, green	pound	26.7	18.9	11.6	13.4	21.3
Cabbage	do	9.3	6.6	3.9	4.5	4.1
Carrots	bunch	9.2	9.0	6.9	6.6	6.6
Lettuce	head	14.2	14.0	12.5	9.2	9.8
Onions	pound	7.1	6.2	4.5	6.8	7.6
Potatoes	15 pounds	69.6	58.8	48.3	53.0	48.1
Spinach	pound	12.9	12.4	10.7	7.4	7.0
Sweetpotatoes	do	9.7	7.1	6.4	5.4	5.0
Beets [3]	bunch	11.9	9.4	(4)	(4)	(4)
Canned fruits and vegetables:						
Fruits:						
Peaches	No. 2½ can	26.3	26.1	24.0	23.3	23.0
Pineapple	do	29.3	29.2	28.3	27.1	26.3
Grapefruit juice	No. 2 can	13.8	13.6	12.4	9.8	9.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined, February and March 1943 and March, May, and September 1942*—Continued

Article	1943		1942		
	Mar. 16 [1]	Feb. 16 (revised) [2]	Sept. 15	May 12	Mar. 17
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Vegetables:					
Beans, green—No. 2 can	15.2	15.0	13.7	14.0	13.6
Corn—do	14.2	14.1	13.3	13.0	12.8
Peas—do	15.5	15.3	14.6	15.8	15.6
Tomatoes—do	12.8	12.7	11.6	12.1	11.9
Soup, vegetable [3]—11 oz. can	13.0	12.9	(4)	(4)	(4)
Dried fruits and vegetables:					
Fruits:					
Prunes—pound	16.7	16.6	14.8	12.3	11.8
Vegetables:					
Navy beans—do	9.8	9.7	9.1	9.0	9.0
Soup, dehydrated chicken noodle—ounce	3.8	3.9	(4)	(4)	(4)
Beverages:					
Coffee—pound	30.1	29.9	28.7	28.9	27.9
Tea—¼ pound	21.2	21.3	22.4	22.4	21.3
Cocoa [3]—½ pound	9.1	9.2	10.2	10.2	10.0
Fats and oils:					
Lard—pound	19.3	19.2	17.3	17.9	16.6
Shortening other than lard:					
In cartons—do	20.0	19.9	19.5	19.8	19.3
In other containers—do	24.4	24.4	24.4	25.8	25.2
Salad dressing—pint	25.2	25.1	25.2	25.4	24.7
Oleomargarine—pound	23.3	22.8	22.4	22.4	22.0
Peanut butter—do	32.0	31.5	27.8	26.9	23.4
Oil, cooking or salad [3]—pint	30.2	30.1	(4)	(4)	(4)
Sugar and sweets:					
Sugar—pound	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9
Corn sirup—24 ounces	15.4	15.2	15.1	14.8	14.4
Molasses [3]—18 ounces	15.6	15.5	14.9	14.5	14.2
Apple butter [3]—16 ounces	13.7	13.7	(4)	(4)	(4)

[1] Preliminary.
[2] March averages are computed by using the latest available information concerning city population, and sales volume in independent and chain stores. February prices have been revised for comparability with March and vary slightly from previously published figures. The differences are small for the U. S. average for any individual food.
[3] Not included in index.
[4] Priced for the first time in February 1943.
[5] Composite prices not computed.

Details by Cities

All of the 56 cities showed increases of 1 percent or more except Seattle, where relatively small changes for fruits and vegetables resulted in a net increase of only 0.6 percent. The largest increases over February 1943 were reported for Little Rock and Knoxville, where there were sharp increases for fresh fruits and vegetables. The increase over March 1942 varied from 11 percent in Louisville to 23 percent in Memphis.

Indexes of food costs, by cities, are shown in table 4 for February and March 1943 and March, May, and September 1942.

TABLE 4.—*Indexes of Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,*[1] *February and March 1943 and March, May, and September 1942*

[1935–39=100]

City	1943		1942		
	Mar. 16[2]	Feb. 16	Sept. 15	May 12	Mar. 17
United States	137.4	133.6	126.6	121.6	118.6
New England:					
Boston	134.1	130.4	124.4	118.3	115.3
Bridgeport	137.6	132.9	127.1	121.3	118.6
Fall River	138.0	132.7	125.7	120.8	118.2
Manchester	137.8	134.4	126.8	124.0	118.7
New Haven	136.1	132.9	126.2	120.6	118.0
Portland, Me.	134.4	132.3	125.8	121.7	117.1
Providence	135.3	132.3	126.3	122.1	117.3
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	141.2	138.1	127.6	125.2	121.5
Newark	139.1	135.3	128.0	129.9	118.5
New York	138.0	133.4	125.2	118.0	116.5
Philadelphia	133.5	129.6	123.9	119.4	115.5
Pittsburgh	137.2	133.8	125.9	121.4	117.8
Rochester	137.6	133.8	125.2	122.3	118.4
Scranton	136.9	134.0	125.6	121.0	117.6
E. N. Central:					
Chicago	135.9	132.1	124.9	121.7	117.5
Cincinnati	135.1	131.1	126.9	122.4	118.9
Cleveland	139.5	135.9	127.3	124.1	120.5
Columbus, Ohio	130.2	126.5	119.6	118.6	115.2
Detroit	135.7	132.3	124.7	122.4	118.6
Indianapolis	134.8	131.2	127.1	125.0	120.8
Milwaukee	134.0	131.1	121.0	119.8	116.0
Peoria	140.8	136.9	130.7	129.0	123.6
Springfield, Ill.	141.3	136.4	130.2	128.0	124.3
W. N. Central:					
Cedar Rapids[4]	136.3	133.0	121.2	123.9	120.7
Kansas City	133.7	129.4	120.7	118.8	116.5
Minneapolis	133.0	130.7	123.3	120.9	117.3
Omaha	132.4	129.8	123.2	119.9	116.5
St. Louis	138.9	134.4	126.7	123.8	122.9
St. Paul	132.1	129.8	120.8	118.7	115.2
Wichita[4]	144.6	141.6	132.0	129.0	123.7
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta	137.7	133.1	125.9	120.4	118.4
Baltimore	144.0	137.9	131.2	125.8	123.0
Charleston, S. C.	133.7	130.8	126.6	123.2	119.8
Jacksonville	146.0	140.1	134.2	127.4	124.3
Norfolk[3]	144.5	140.9	131.9	126.1	126.7
Richmond	135.8	132.8	126.2	120.9	118.4
Savannah	145.1	141.3	133.3	130.3	125.2
Washington, D. C.	136.9	132.2	128.1	120.7	118.3
Winston-Salem[4]	134.5	129.3	119.8	119.3	115.7
E. S. Central:					
Birmingham	134.8	131.7	125.3	120.5	117.8
Jackson[4]	153.5	151.5	141.0	128.3	126.9
Knoxville[4]	149.7	142.8	134.2	131.0	124.6
Louisville	132.6	129.0	124.2	122.6	119.3
Memphis	144.8	139.6	129.7	123.5	117.8
Mobile	145.6	140.4	133.9	126.8	130.7
W. S. Central:					
Dallas	134.3	129.2	123.7	116.8	115.6
Houston	142.7	137.9	130.8	125.9	124.6
Little Rock	137.4	131.5	129.2	123.2	120.1
New Orleans	153.2	147.0	135.9	129.0	128.0
Mountain:					
Butte	133.5	131.8	124.6	121.5	118.3
Denver	137.2	133.9	126.8	122.9	117.7
Salt Lake City	141.1	138.5	130.1	124.2	120.0
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	142.8	139.5	137.9	128.1	124.9
Portland, Oreg.	148.5	147.0	141.2	134.5	129.7
San Francisco	143.7	141.7	133.5	125.5	121.9
Seattle	144.7	143.9	137.3	129.9	126.7

[1] Aggregate costs of 61 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] Indexes based on June 1940=100.0.

Average Annual Indexes, 1913 to March 1943

Annual average indexes of food costs for the years 1913–42 and monthly indexes for January 1942 through March 1943 are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 [1] Large Cities Combined, 1913 to March 1943*

[1935–39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1926	137.4	1939	95.2	*1942*—Con.	126.1
1914	81.8	1927	132.3	1940	96.6	August	126.6
1915	80.9	1928	130.8	1941	105.5	September	129.6
1916	90.8	1929	132.5	1942	123.9	October	131.1
1917	116.9	1930	126.0			November	132.7
1918	134.4	1931	103.9	*1942*		December	
1919	149.8	1032	86.5	January	116.2		
1920	168.8	1933	84.1	February	116.8	*1943*	133.0
1921	128.3	1934	93.7	March	118.6	January	133.6
1922	119.9	1935	100.4	April	119.6	February	137.4
1923	124.0	1936	101.3	May	121.6	March	
1924	122.8	1937	105.3	June	123.2		
1925	132.9	1938	97.8	July	124.6		

[1] Indexes based on 51 cities combined, prior to March 1943.

COAL PRICES IN MARCH 1943

A GENERAL advance in retail prices of coal between December 15, 1942, and March 15, 1943, accounted for practically the entire increase recorded for a year. Prices of coal which, under Government control, had shown little change during 1942 were increased during the first part of 1943 to cover higher production costs resulting from the increase in working hours in the mines and in the operating cost which occurred subsequent to the establishment of maximum prices.

TABLE 6.—*Average Retail Price of Coal in Large Cities Combined, March 1943 and December and March 1942*

Kind of coal	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price (October 1922–September 1925=100)			Percent of change March 15, 1943, compared with—	
	1943	1942		1943	1942		1942	
	Mar. 15 [1]	Dec. 15	Mar. 15	Mar. 15 [1]	Dec. 15	Mar. 15	Dec. 15	Mar. 15
Bituminous coal (35 cities) old series [2]	$9.82	$9.56	$9.52	99.8	97.2	96.7	+2.7	+3.2
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities) new series: [3]								
Stove	13.08	12.43	12.42	92.9	88.3	88.2	+5.2	+5.3
Chestnut	13.13	12.49	12.48	93.4	88.9	88.9	+5.1	+5.1
Pea	11.21	10.56	10.56				+6.2	+6.2
Buckwheat No. 1	9.11	8.58	8.64				+6.2	+5.4
Western anthracite:								
Arkansas (6 cities)	14.53	13.63	13.57				+6.6	+7.1
Colorado (1 city)	15.97	15.86	15.81				+.7	+1.0
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 August 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.

The advance for bituminous coal, which averaged 2.7 percent between December 15, 1942, and March 15, 1943, was due to increases of 20 cents or more per ton in most of the reporting cities. A few

cities in the southern area and Los Angeles and San Francisco on the Pacific coast reported little or no change for the high-volatile coals sold in those localities.

Increases for domestic sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite during the first 3 months of 1943 ranged from 5.1 percent for chestnut to 6.2 percent for pea and buckwheat No. 1. Arkansas anthracite prices advanced 6.6 percent and other western anthracites showed little or no change.

Average prices of coal, together with indexes for bituminous coal and stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite, are presented in table 6 for March 1943 and December and March 1942.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN APRIL 1943

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics index of prices of commodities in primary markets [1] rose 0.3 percent in April to a new wartime high. Further increases in prices for fresh fruits and vegetables were largely responsible for the advance. The all-commodity index for April stood at 103.7 percent of the 1926 level, the highest point reached in more than 17 years.

Prices for both farm products and foods averaged nearly 1 percent higher in April than in March. Textile products, fuel and lighting materials, chemicals and allied products, and miscellaneous commodities rose slightly. A minor decrease was recorded in average prices for building materials, as a result of a seasonal decline in prices for sand and gravel and lower quotations for rosin.

Influenced by continued advances in prices for agricultural commodities, the index for raw materials rose 0.7 percent during the month, while manufactured commodities and semimanufactured products were 0.1 percent higher.

During the 12-month period from April 1942 to April 1943, prices for farm products rose more than 18 percent—103 percent higher than in August 1939. Food prices were nearly 10 percent above their April 1942 level; fuel and lighting materials and chemicals and allied products rose from 3 to nearly 4 percent and miscellaneous commodities, over 1 percent. Hides and leather products, textile products, and housefurnishing goods were lower than they were at the same time last year, the decrase ranging from 0.2 percent to 1.2 percent.

The increase of 0.9 percent in the farm products group was led by advances of 44 percent for sweetpotatoes, 23 percent for onions, and substantially higher prices for apples and white potatoes in most markets. Smaller increases were reported for cotton, hay, seeds, dried beans, and wool. Grains averaged 0.3 percent higher, principally because of increases of more than 3 percent for corn and oats. Rye declined over 3 percent and wheat fell almost 2 percent. Livestock and poultry declined 1.3 percent during the month, because of lower quotations for calves, cows, and hogs. Steers, sheep, and live poultry in the Chicago market advanced.

Led by an advance of 6.6 percent in prices for fresh fruits and vegetables, the foods group index rose 0.9 percent in April, notwithstanding weakening prices for flour. Quotations for cereal products, particularly oatmeal, corn meal, hominy grits, and macaroni continued to move upward. Higher prices were also reported for fresh milk and veal in the Chicago market and for vinegar and olive oil. A few foods

[1] 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.

declined in price. Prices of lemons dropped over 15 percent; oleomargarine, 3 percent; and eggs, almost 2 percent.

Except for higher prices for binder twine and certain woolen materials there were few changes in textile markets. Quotations for shoes and other leather products were steady.

An increase of 0.4 percent in the fuel and lighting materials group index was attributable to higher prices for crude petroleum in the California region, for fuel oil, gasoline, and kerosene, together with fractionally higher prices for bituminous coal in some areas.

No changes were reported in prices for metals and metal products during the month.

Building materials as a whole dropped 0.1 percent because of a seasonal decline in quotations for sand and gravel and a further decrease in rosin. Linseed oil and turpentine continued to rise, and fractional advances were also reported for some types of lumber, namely, Ponderosa pine boards, maple flooring, and red cedar shingles.

In the chemicals and allied products group, quotations were higher for stearic acid, nicotine sulfate, caffeine, ergot, and for fertilizer materials such as cottonseed meal and superphosphate.

The furniture market remained firm.

Average prices for cattle feed advanced 1.8 percent, with linseed meal 25 percent higher and bran and middlings 0.3 percent higher. Boxboard continued to rise and prices were also higher for laundry starch and soap.

Percentage comparisons of the April 1943 level of wholesale prices with March 1943, April 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, April 1943, with Comparisons for March 1943, April 1942, and August 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	April 1943	March 1943	Percent of change	April 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of increase
All commodities	103.7	103.4	+0.3	98.7	+5.1	75.0	38.3
Farm products	123.9	122.8	+.9	104.5	+18.6	61.0	103.1
Grains	112.5	112.2	+.3	91.5	+23.0	51.5	118.4
Livestock and poultry	134.0	135.7	−1.3	118.3	+13.3	66.0	103.0
Other farm products	120.0	117.1	+2.5	99.0	+21.2	60.1	99.7
Foods	108.4	107.4	+.9	98.7	+9.8	67.2	61.3
Dairy products	113.3	113.2	+.1	94.1	+20.4	67.9	66.9
Cereal products	93.7	93.5	+.2	90.2	+3.9	71.9	30.3
Fruits and vegetables	123.2	115.6	+6.6	97.7	+26.1	58.5	110.6
Meats	115.8	115.5	+.3	112.8	+2.7	73.7	57.1
Other foods	96.0	96.3	−.3	90.4	+6.2	60.3	59.2
Hides and leather products	117.8	117.8	0	119.2	−1.2	92.7	27.1
Shoes	126.4	126.4	0	126.7	−.2	100.8	25.4
Hides and skins	116.0	116.0	0	123.5	−6.1	77.2	50.3
Leather	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	20.6
Other leather products	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	18.6
Textile products	97.4	97.3	+.1	97.7	−.3	67.8	43.7
Clothing	107.0	107.0	0	107.8	−.7	81.5	31.3
Cotton goods	112.6	112.6	0	113.8	−1.1	65.5	71.9
Hosiery and underwear	70.5	70.5	0	70.6	−.1	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	112.5	112.4	+.1	111.0	+1.4	75.5	49.0
Other textile products	98.7	97.5	+1.2	98.5	+.2	63.7	54.9

[1] Data not available.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, April 1943, with Comparisons for March 1943, April 1942, and August 1939*—Con.

Group and subgroup	April 1943	March 1943	Percent of change	April 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of increase
Fuel and lighting materials	80.6	80.3	+0.4	77.7	+3.7	72.6	11.0
Anthracite	89.8	89.8	0	83.7	+7.3	72.1	24.5
Bituminous coal	115.6	115.2	+.3	108.2	+6.8	96.0	20.4
Coke	122.4	122.4	0	122.1	+.2	104.2	17.5
Electricity	(1)	(1)		64.4		75.8	
Gas	(1)	75.6		78.1		86.7	
Petroleum and products	62.0	61.5	+.8	58.4	+6.2	51.7	19.9
Metals and metal products	103.8	103.8	0	103.8	0	93.2	11.4
Agricultural implements	96.9	96.9	0	96.9	0	93.5	3.6
Farm machinery	98.0	98.0	0	98.0	0	94.7	3.5
Iron and steel	97.2	97.2	0	97.1	+.1	95.1	2.2
Motor vehicles	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	21.9
Nonferrous metals	86.0	86.0	0	85.6	+.5	74.6	15.3
Plumbing and heating	90.4	90.4	0	98.5	−8.2	79.3	14.0
Building materials	110.3	110.4	−.1	110.2	+.1	89.6	23.1
Brick and tile	98.7	98.7	0	98.0	+.7	90.5	9.1
Cement	94.2	94.2	0	94.1	+.1	91.3	3.2
Lumber	134.7	134.6	+.1	131.8	+2.2	90.1	49.5
Paint and paint materials	102.5	102.2	+.3	100.6	+1.9	82.1	24.8
Plumbing and heating	90.4	90.4	0	98.5	−8.2	79.3	14.0
Structural steel	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials	101.6	102.0	−.4	103.8	−2.1	89.5	13.5
Chemicals and allied products	100.1	100.0	+.1	97.1	+3.1	74.2	34.9
Chemicals	96.4	96.4	0	96.4	0	83.8	15.0
Drugs and pharmaceuticals	165.1	165.0	+.1	126.7	+30.3	77.1	114.1
Fertilizer materials	80.0	79.0	+1.3	79.2	+1.0	65.5	22.1
Mixed fertilizers	85.8	85.8	0	82.8	+3.6	73.1	17.4
Oils and fats	101.5	101.5	0	108.8	−6.7	40.6	150.0
Housefurnishing goods	102.6	102.6	0	102.8	−.2	85.6	19.9
Furnishings	107.3	107.3	0	108.0	−.6	90.0	19.2
Furniture	97.7	97.7	0	97.5	+.2	81.1	20.5
Miscellaneous	91.6	91.4	+.2	90.3	+1.4	73.3	25.0
Automobile tires and tubes	73.0	73.0	0	72.5	+.7	60.5	20.7
Cattle feed	150.9	148.2	+1.8	140.4	+7.5	68.4	120.6
Paper and pulp	102.9	102.7	+.2	102.9	0	80.0	28.6
Rubber, crude	46.2	46.3	−.2	46.3	−.2	34.9	32.4
Other miscellaneous	95.1	94.9	+.2	93.4	+1.8	81.3	17.0
Raw materials	112.8	112.0	+.7	100.0	+12.8	66.5	69.6
Semimanufactured articles	93.1	93.0	+.1	92.8	+.3	74.5	25.0
Manufactured products	100.6	100.5	+.1	98.7	+1.9	79.1	27.2
All commodities other than farm products	99.1	99.0	+.1	97.2	+2.0	77.9	27.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods	96.6	96.5	+.1	95.6	+1.0	80.1	20.6

(1) Data not available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to April 1943

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1942, inclusive, and by months from April 1942 to April 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 materials	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
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:											
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	103.8	109.8	100.2	102.5	90.7	101.9
February	119.0	105.8	117.8	97.3	79.8	103.8	110.2	100.3	102.6	90.9	102.5
March	122.8	107.4	117.8	97.3	80.3	103.8	110.4	100.0	102.6	91.4	103.4
April	123.9	108.4	117.8	97.4	80.6	103.8	110.3	100.1	102.6	91.6	103.7

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to April 1943

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	Semimanufactured 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
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3
1940	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0
1941	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0
1942	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5
1942:					
April	100.0	92.8	98.7	97.2	95.6
May	99.7	92.9	99.0	97.4	95.7
June	99.8	92.8	98.6	97.1	95.6
July	100.1	92.8	98.6	97.0	95.7
August	101.2	92.7	98.9	97.5	95.6
September	102.2	92.9	99.2	97.7	95.5
October	103.0	92.7	99.4	97.9	95.5
November	103.9	92.6	99.4	97.9	95.8
December	106.1	92.5	99.6	98.1	95.9
1943:					
January	108.2	92.8	100.1	98.5	96.0
February	109.6	92.9	100.3	98.7	96.2
March	112.0	93.0	100.5	99.0	96.5
April	112.8	93.1	100.6	99.1	96.6

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during March and April 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 Commodity Groups, March and April 1943*

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Apr. 24	Apr. 17	Apr. 10	Apr. 3	Mar. 27	Mar. 20	Mar. 13	Mar. 6
All commodities	103.4	103.5	103.5	103.4	103.3	103.0	103.2	102.9
Farm products	123.9	124.4	124.3	124.7	124.2	122.4	123.5	122.0
Foods	108.5	108.4	107.9	107.8	107.6	107.1	107.0	106.4
Hides and leather products	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4
Textile products	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8	96.8
Fuel and lighting materials	81.1	81.1	81.1	80.8	80.8	80.8	80.7	80.9
Metals and metal products	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9
Building materials	110.2	110.3	110.3	110.4	110.4	110.4	110.4	110.1
Chemicals and allied products	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
Housefurnishing goods	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.2	104.1
Miscellaneous	91.4	91.4	91.3	91.2	91.2	91.2	91.2	91.0
Raw materials	112.5	112.8	112.7	112.8	112.5	111.5	112.1	111.2
Semimanufactured articles	92.9	93.0	93.0	93.0	92.9	92.9	92.9	92.9
Manufactured products	100.8	100.8	100.8	100.7	100.7	100.6	100.6	100.6
All commodities other than farm products	99.0	99.0	99.0	98.9	98.8	98.8	98.8	98.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods	96.8	96.8	96.7	96.7	96.6	96.6	96.6	96.6

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR APRIL 1943

THE total number of employees in nonagricultural establishments in April 1943 was 38,341,000, about 150,000 more than in March and almost two and a half million more than in April 1942. The gain during the month was primarily the result of an increase of almost 100,000 employees in trade and reflects the large spurt in retail buying during the Easter season.

Industrial and Business Employment

Wage-earner employment in all manufacturing industries increased 4,000 over the month, the smallest monthly increase since January 1942. In the nondurable-goods group of industries, where a relatively short workweek had prevailed, wage-earner employment declined by 49,000.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group* [1]

[Subject to revision]

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	April 1943	March 1943	February 1943	April 1942	April 1943	March 1943
All manufacturing	13,713	13,709	13,617	11,988	167.4	167.3
Durable goods	8,144	8,091	7,989	6,500	225.5	224.1
Nondurable goods	5,569	5,618	5,628	5,488	121.6	122.6
Iron and steel and their products	1,716	1,718	1,706	1,569	173.1	173.3
Electrical machinery	697	693	676	520	268.9	267.4
Machinery, except electrical	1,241	1,233	1,220	1,048	234.8	233.3
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,230	2,187	2,132	1,250	1,405.2	1,378.1
Automobiles	656	649	642	429	163.0	161.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	408	410	412	370	177.8	178.8
Lumber and timber basic products	477	479	478	549	113.4	114.0
Furniture and finished lumber products	360	364	364	387	109.8	111.0
Stone, clay, and glass, and products	359	358	359	378	122.2	122.0
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,249	1,268	1,272	1,303	109.2	110.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	886	903	897	952	112.3	114.4
Leather and leather products	346	354	359	386	99.7	101.9
Food and kindred products	905	921	936	893	105.9	107.7
Tobacco manufactures	91	93	94	93	97.4	99.9
Paper and allied products	313	313	313	326	117.8	118.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	330	334	338	331	100.8	101.8
Chemicals and allied products	740	727	722	576	256.8	252.2
Products of petroleum and coal	122	122	122	125	114.9	115.6
Rubber products	185	186	185	142	153.3	153.8
Miscellaneous industries	402	397	390	361	164.1	162.1

[1] The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted 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 and are not comparable with data published in the February 1943 and preceding issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Estimates and indexes for the period January 1939 to November 1942 comparable with the data in the above table are available upon request.

Among the nine durable-goods groups, furniture, iron and steel, nonferrous metals, and lumber showed declines in wage-earner employment. The only sizable increase was in the transportation-equipment group, a result of the continued expansion in aircraft and shipbuilding. Employment in this group was 2,230,000, an increase of 53,000 over March 1943 and of 980,000 from April 1942.

Among the nondurable groups, only the chemical group and the miscellaneous group, which includes the professional and scientific instruments industry, showed increased employment over March. Both these groups had scheduled workweeks of approximately 48 hours in March.

Employment in both coal-mining industries continued to decline because the supply of experienced miners has been exhausted. The anthracite-mining industry employed about 5,000 fewer wage earners in April 1943 than in April 1942 and 600 less than in March 1943. Employment in the bituminous-coal-mining industry was 394,000, about 47,000 less than in April of last year and 11,000 less than in March.

Public Employment

Federal employees in April 1943 totaled 3,058,000, with 74 percent in the War and Navy Departments and other war agencies. The increase of 33,800 over March, the smallest nonseasonal gain in 18 months, reflected the influence of the employment-ceiling order of the Bureau of the Budget. The order was not applicable, however, to part-time, temporary, or construction workers, or to consultants and experts.

From April 1942 the increase in Federal employment amounted to almost a million persons (998,000), and since Pearl Harbor, to almost a million and a half (1,458,000). The war agencies alone added 1,069,000 employees during the past year. Although the decline of 38,800 employees in other agencies was partially the result of reorganizational shifts, transferring some offices to war agencies, the distinction between "war" and "other" agencies is still not clear-cut because of the conversion of many of the "other" agencies to almost completely war activities.

The monthly Federal pay roll, which passed the half billion mark in January with the provision of overtime pay, amounted to $564,819,000, in April. War-agency pay rolls rose from 58 percent in April 1942 to 72 percent a year later.

Of the 4,630 persons dropped in April from the National Youth Administration, 440 were from the student work program and 4,190 from the war production training program. The total personnel decline over the year was 267,000.

The Work Projects Administration cut its personnel and pay rolls by 39 percent—from 136,000 to 81,900 for personnel and from $10,204,000 to $6,188,000 for pay rolls. The 12-month personnel decline was 785,000. The Civilian Conservation Corps carried on its curtailed operations with a staff of 207 persons, all of whom were supervisory and technical employees.

Housing, war public works, and shipbuilding and repair projects added personnel in April 1943; however, declines on other types of projects lowered the number of workers on all Federally financed

construction by 21,500. Declines on other types of projects resulted from completing the projects started and because of adequacy of facilities for present needs. Personnel on war-construction projects accounted for 97 percent of the total (2,465,000) in April 1943 and for 94 percent of the total (1,640,000) a year ago. Total pay rolls for Federally financed construction and shipbuilding and repair amounted to $535,131,000 in April 1943.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative and judicial services and for force-account employees in the executive service are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics; data for other executive-service employees 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		
	April 1943	March 1943	April 1942	April 1943	March 1943	April 1942
Regular Federal services:						
Executive [1]	3,049,466	3,015,760	2,051,133	$562,639,300	$556,986,551	$327,568,897
War agencies [2]	2,262,845	2,232,451	1,255,941	405,879,200	400,897,800	192,324,003
Other agencies	786,621	783,309	825,192	156,760,100	156,088,751	135,244,894
Judicial	2,722	2,583	2,650	763,179	716,152	670,030
Legislative	6,116	6,119	6,457	1,416,469	1,417,046	1,379,536
Construction projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations [3]	2,153,166	2,178,826	1,543,803	480,656,266	459,353,280	278,125,266
War	2,087,462	2,108,836	1,440,893	468,236,101	446,637,539	262,200,085
Other	65,704	69,990	102,910	12,420,165	12,715,741	15,925,181
Public housing	93,314	86,804	42,734	13,751,596	13,170,165	5,883,337
War public works	11,107	11,033	6,640	1,605,037	1,457,580	677,892
Financed by RFC	207,077	209,513	46,385	39,117,664	40,082,388	8,738,818
War	206,659	208,952	44,890	39,037,049	39,977,158	8,419,315
Other	418	561	1,495	80,615	105,230	319,503
Other programs:						
National Youth Administration [4]	179,151	183,777	446,412	3,473,194	3,429,598	6,809,909
Student work program	96,987	97,429	238,411	814,737	794,660	1,647,759
War production training program [5]	82,164	86,348	208,001	2,658,457	2,634,938	5,162,150
Work Projects Administration projects	81,860	135,934	866,723	6,188,093	10,203,770	57,393,699
War	33,879	48,364	305,579	1,806,626	2,785,328	20,099,187
Other	47,961	87,570	561,144	4,381,467	7,418,442	37,294,512
Civilian Conservation Corps	207	239	95,853	45,339	47,889	4,892,528

[1] Includes employees in United States navy yards and on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects, and supervisory and technical employees included under NYA, WPA, and CCC.

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

[3] Includes ship construction and repair in United States navy yards and the Federally financed part thereof in private shipyards.

[4] 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 April 1942, but excluded from those for March and April 1943.

[5] Called the out-of-school work program prior to July 1942.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, MARCH 1943

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. 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 United States 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 Division*

Industry division	Estimated number of workers (in thousands)			
	March 1943	February 1943	January 1943	March 1942
Total estimated employment [1]	38,184	37,958	37,862	35,411
Manufacturing	15,958	15,851	15,743	13,859
Mining	861	867	867	933
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,357	1,386	1,470	1,625
Transportation and public utilities	3,475	3,456	3,463	3,295
Trade	6,328	6,291	6,371	6,711
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,281	4,270	4,259	4,194
Federal, State, and local government	5,924	5,837	5,689	4,794

[1] Estimates exclude proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, public emergency employees, 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 the 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 6 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. Formerly, weekly earnings for the groups 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 January, February, and March 1943, where available, are presented in tables 3, 5 and 6.

The revised manufacturing indexes and aggregates in tables 2 and 3 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

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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.

Not all industries in each major industry 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.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

Industry [2]	Number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	March 1943	February 1943	January 1943	March 1942
All manufacturing	13,709	13,617	13,503	11,821
Durable goods	8,091	7,989	7,875	6,350
Nondurable goods	5,618	5,628	5,628	5,471
Durable goods				
Iron and steel and their products	1,718	1,706	1,693	1,556
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	523.2	523.9	521.9	543.9
Steel castings	84.5	84.0	82.9	69.9
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	17.8	18.5	19.4	21.9
Tin cans and other tinware	28.9	28.7	27.8	38.2
Wire drawn from purchased rods	36.9	36.1	35.3	30.6
Wirework	32.8	32.1	32.2	33.1
Cutlery and edge tools	21.8	21.3	21.3	22.2
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	28.2	27.8	27.4	27.5
Hardware	43.9	42.8	42.3	48.4
Plumbers' supplies	23.6	23.2	22.8	28.3
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	53.2	52.2	52.1	49.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	58.8	58.5	57.4	49.3
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	85.7	82.8	79.5	77.8
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	68.9	68.7	67.4	56.6
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	11.9	11.9	11.1	10.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	28.6	28.1	27.2	24.0
Forgings, iron and steel	40.5	39.8	39.1	33.0
Wrought pipes, welded and heavy riveted	24.6	24.2	23.1	13.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws	49.3	49.6	48.8	41.2
Steel, barrels, kegs, and drums	6.6	6.8	6.9	8.9
Electrical machinery	693	676	661	511
Machinery, except electrical	1,233	1,220	1,202	1,028
Machinery and machine-shop products	483.0	476.4	468.9	391.1
Tractors	49.3	48.5	48.2	44.1
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	34.4	33.3	31.7	37.9
Textile machinery	29.1	29.2	29.1	31.4
Pumps and pumping equipment	74.5	72.5	70.9	59.6
Typewriters	11.9	11.5	11.0	18.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	33.5	33.4	33.3	27.4
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	12.1	11.9	11.1	8.1
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	10.7	11.0	11.1	10.9
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	52.4	51.0	48.4	39.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Con.

Industry [2]	Number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	March 1943	February 1943	January 1943	March 1942
Durable goods—Continued				
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,187	2,132	2,067	1,145
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	10.0	9.8	9.5	10.4
Automobiles	649	642	631	421
Nonferrous metals and their products	410	412	408	373
Primary smelting and refining	43.2	42.9	42.4	35.2
Clocks and watches	25.3	26.1	25.8	26.6
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	16.7	16.8	16.7	18.3
Silverware and plated ware	11.7	11.5	11.4	13.6
Lighting equipment	23.0	22.6	22.1	24.6
Sheet-metal work	28.9	29.4	29.5	28.1
Lumber and timber basic products	479	478	489	545
Sawmills and logging camps	261.6	260.4	266.2	305.9
Planing and plywood mills	82.2	82.8	83.5	86.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	364	364	362	397
Mattresses and bedsprings	17.7	17.4	16.8	21.7
Furniture	170.5	169.6	168.0	186.0
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	30.7	31.3	31.0	32.0
Caskets and other morticians' goods	12.4	12.3	12.2	12.7
Wood preserving	10.6	10.6	11.0	13.1
Wood, turned and shaped	22.3	22.4	22.9	26.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	358	359	362	374
Glass	85.6	84.6	82.9	87.9
Glass products made from purchased glass	11.8	12.1	12.0	12.9
Cement	25.1	25.8	27.4	27.7
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	52.0	53.5	55.8	65.4
Pottery and related products	44.9	44.6	44.7	45.4
Gypsum	4.4	4.3	4.5	5.3
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	11.4	11.4	11.2	10.4
Lime	9.4	9.6	9.6	11.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	12.5	12.2	12.6	14.2
Abrasive wheels	22.2	22.0	21.5	15.2
Asbestos products	22.2	22.1	22.2	21.8
Nondurable goods				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	1,268	1,272	1,273	1,298
Cotton manufactures, except small wares	499.9	502.3	503.7	503.0
Cotton small wares	17.0	17.0	17.3	17.8
Silk and rayon goods	98.1	97.9	97.8	103.4
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	174.4	175.3	175.9	178.6
Hosiery	121.7	122.6	122.6	135.2
Knitted cloth	12.1	12.0	11.9	12.3
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	32.6	32.0	31.0	31.8
Knitted underwear	43.8	44.5	44.6	45.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	71.3	72.4	72.0	72.9
Carpets and rugs, wool	24.0	24.0	23.8	25.2
Hats, fur-felt	10.2	10.0	10.0	11.8
Jute goods (except felts)	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.2
Cordage and twine	17.2	16.7	16.4	16.9
Apparel and other finished textile products	903	897	884	959
Men's clothing	241.8	239.8	236.5	259.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	62.6	63.0	63.5	71.6
Underwear and neckwear	12.7	12.5	11.9	14.7
Work shirts	18.6	18.6	17.7	17.8
Women's clothing	253.3	252.0	247.8	277.1
Corsets and allied garments	17.2	17.2	17.1	19.7
Millinery	23.3	22.8	20.1	26.5
Handkerchiefs	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.7
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	18.4	18.2	18.2	17.5
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	15.2	15.4	15.7	12.3
Textile bags	16.0	16.2	16.8	15.2
Leather and leather products	354	359	361	392
Leather	48.7	49.2	49.8	53.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	18.7	18.7	18.9	20.3
Boots and shoes	197.2	200.6	202.2	224.6
Leather gloves and mittens	14.9	14.9	14.9	14.2
Trunks and suitcases	14.4	14.5	14.3	14.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Con.

Industry [2]	Number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	March 1943	February 1943	January 1943	March 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Food and kindred products	921	936	965	890
Slaughtering and meat packing	166.7	176.8	185.2	159.8
Butter	20.6	20.0	20.0	19.3
Condensed and evaporated milk	12.2	11.9	11.7	12.9
Ice cream	13.3	12.8	13.1	14.4
Flour	28.3	28.1	27.4	24.6
Feeds, prepared	22.4	20.9	21.9	18.2
Cereal preparations	9.9	9.8	9.8	9.1
Baking	254.0	252.0	257.6	238.5
Sugar refining, cane	13.6	12.7	12.3	13.8
Sugar, beet	4.0	5.0	8.6	3.8
Confectionery	58.1	58.2	59.9	55.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	24.5	23.8	23.9	22.1
Malt liquors	42.6	41.4	40.4	38.4
Canning and preserving	79.5	90.0	94.8	86.6
Tobacco manufactures	93	94	96	95
Cigarettes	32.7	33.1	34.4	28.0
Cigars	46.2	46.0	46.3	52.7
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	8.4	8.6	8.8	7.8
Paper and allied products	313	313	309	327
Paper and pulp	149.6	150.3	151.1	165.0
Paper goods, not elsewhere classified	49.3	49.7	48.6	46.7
Envelopes	10.4	10.3	10.1	10.2
Paper bags	12.2	12.3	12.2	14.4
Paper boxes	82.1	80.6	78.5	80.6
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	334	338	335	333
Newspapers and periodicals	112.6	113.2	114.2	117.7
Book and job	132.2	135.1	132.6	127.9
Lithographing	24.3	24.8	24.8	25.5
Bookbinding	29.0	28.6	27.8	28.2
Chemicals and allied products	727	722	715	551
Paints, varnishes, and colors	28.9	29.1	29.0	32.4
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	43.5	42.8	42.1	36.3
Perfumes and cosmetics	11.1	10.5	10.0	10.4
Soaps	13.5	13.6	13.7	15.2
Rayon and allied products	51.5	51.2	51.1	52.0
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	112.5	112.2	111.2	109.5
Compressed and liquefied gases	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.1
Cottonseed oil	17.8	19.5	21.0	15.6
Fertilizers	29.8	25.9	21.5	29.4
Products of petroleum and coal	122	122	123	124
Petroleum refining	78.3	77.5	77.4	78.5
Coke and byproducts	25.3	25.6	25.8	26.1
Paving materials	1.3	1.3	1.4	2.1
Roofing materials	9.5	9.5	10.0	10.0
Rubber products	186	185	183	146
Rubber tires and inner tubes	82.8	81.6	81.2	57.9
Rubber boots and shoes	21.7	22.2	22.0	19.0
Rubber goods, other	72.4	72.0	71.1	64.4
Miscellaneous industries	397	390	384	356
Photographic apparatus	27.9	27.1	26.3	22.7
Pianos, organs, and parts	9.5	9.4	9.0	8.2
Games, toys, and dolls	15.0	14.7	14.0	22.9
Buttons	11.3	11.6	11.6	13.5

[1] Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted 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, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage earners in war industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

[2] Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; 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 fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries* [1]

[1939 average=100]

Industry [2]	Indexes of wage-earner employment				Indexes of wage-earner pay roll			
	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942
All manufacturing	167.3	166.2	164.8	144.3	304.4	297.2	290.9	215.1
Durable goods	224.1	221.2	218.1	175.8	420.4	409.9	399.8	276.2
Nondurable goods	122.6	122.9	122.9	119.4	191.0	187.0	184.5	155.4
Durable goods								
Iron and steel and their products	173.3	172.1	170.7	156.9	295.9	288.9	283.5	226.6
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	134.7	134.9	134.3	140.0	215.3	211.8	208.8	189.8
Steel castings	280.8	279.1	275.6	232.4	495.4	475.8	463.6	354.8
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	108.0	112.1	117.5	132.6	186.1	183.3	189.5	193.6
Tin cans and other tinware	90.9	90.2	87.6	120.3	138.3	134.7	129.6	148.6
Wire drawn from purchased rods	167.8	164.2	160.6	139.2	259.1	252.6	243.4	181.6
Wirework	107.9	105.6	105.8	109.0	195.6	187.7	185.7	152.0
Cutlery and edge tools	141.7	138.3	138.3	144.3	272.8	265.4	268.4	215.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	184.0	181.6	179.0	179.4	326.3	313.5	324.5	280.6
Hardware	123.0	120.2	118.7	135.7	229.2	223.3	215.3	209.5
Plumbers' supplies	95.8	94.1	92.5	114.9	160.7	152.4	149.6	147.5
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment not elsewhere classified	115.4	113.1	113.0	107.3	189.8	184.1	181.3	138.9
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	193.9	192.9	189.3	162.7	339.1	336.2	312.5	261.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	154.3	149.0	143.1	140.1	278.2	262.9	255.9	201.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	193.9	193.4	189.7	159.4	334.0	323.5	308.6	232.7
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim	153.5	153.2	143.4	137.0	258.1	256.0	240.5	176.4
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets [3]	199.7	196.1	190.3	167.9	355.4	344.7	332.6	253.4
Forgings, iron and steel	263.4	258.9	254.5	214.8	502.8	495.0	478.4	347.9
Wrought pipes, welded and heavy riveted	294.4	288.9	275.7	162.6	586.9	579.0	528.7	242.3
Screw-machine products and wood screws	291.6	293.0	288.3	243.2	545.0	532.8	519.3	389.5
Steel, barrels, kegs, and drums	107.9	112.6	112.9	146.2	197.5	202.6	186.7	220.8
Electrical machinery	267.4	260.8	255.1	197.2	453.7	441.6	427.4	296.3
Machinery, except electrical	233.3	230.8	227.5	194.6	417.7	410.0	400.2	307.8
Machinery and machine-shop products	238.7	235.5	231.7	193.3	421.5	413.4	402.1	300.6
Tractors	157.6	155.0	154.2	141.1	241.5	238.8	224.7	184.0
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	123.9	119.7	113.9	136.4	228.0	215.4	195.5	190.0
Textile machinery	132.7	133.3	132.9	143.2	229.3	225.7	229.7	215.8
Pumps and pumping equipment	307.4	299.2	292.6	245.9	614.2	601.8	580.7	453.0
Typewriters	73.5	71.1	68.0	116.7	139.9	131.7	126.0	172.1
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	170.0	169.9	169.0	139.4	317.6	306.8	304.9	212.8
Washing machines, wringers and driers, domestic	162.6	159.8	148.5	109.0	267.5	269.9	246.8	154.8
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	136.4	140.7	141.9	139.2	269.1	277.1	267.8	251.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	149.0	145.1	137.7	112.6	249.8	236.5	220.2	153.8
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	1378.1	1343.1	1302.2	721.4	2583.3	2486.5	2406.0	1237.0
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	143.1	141.2	136.1	148.5	254.0	249.3	242.5	210.4
Automobiles	161.4	159.5	156.7	104.7	283.9	282.2	277.9	167.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	178.8	179.6	178.1	162.8	312.1	308.6	305.8	237.5
Primary smelting and refining	156.3	155.1	153.6	127.4	252.0	244.9	239.2	170.3
Clocks and watches	124.7	128.7	127.1	131.0	237.6	240.3	238.6	204.8
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	115.9	116.1	115.9	126.8	177.4	175.0	173.7	157.7
Silverware and plated ware	96.8	94.9	93.9	112.1	159.7	154.9	151.4	153.1
Lighting equipment	112.3	110.5	107.8	120.4	189.2	186.8	183.6	165.4
Sheet-metal work	154.0	156.9	157.2	150.1	274.2	263.8	264.1	216.1
Lumber and timber basic products	114.0	113.8	116.3	129.7	179.4	173.7	166.9	165.6
Sawmills and logging camps	90.8	90.4	92.4	106.2	143.5	138.7	130.9	137.1
Planing and plywood mills	113.2	114.0	114.9	119.3	171.4	166.5	167.2	145.4
Furniture and finished lumber products	111.0	111.0	110.2	121.1	175.2	171.8	165.9	161.7
Mattresses and bedsprings	96.4	95.0	91.4	118.3	143.8	136.5	131.4	152.1
Furniture	107.1	106.6	105.5	116.9	169.5	165.6	159.6	156.7
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	121.1	123.3	122.1	126.1	198.5	195.8	194.7	176.2
Caskets and other morticians' goods	99.8	99.0	97.9	102.4	146.9	147.6	142.7	129.4
Wood preserving	94.3	94.1	98.2	116.4	161.7	163.6	152.2	163.7
Wood, turned and shaped	101.5	102.1	104.1	118.6	164.5	163.4	158.7	157.7
Stone, clay, and glass products	122.0	122.4	123.2	127.3	181.9	179.2	178.5	162.2
Glass	122.5	121.1	118.7	125.9	175.6	173.6	168.3	159.4
Glass products made from purchased glass	117.8	120.8	120.2	129.0	163.8	164.4	160.8	155.2
Cement	105.2	108.5	115.0	116.4	137.0	138.7	149.9	141.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry [2]	Indexes of wage-earner employment				Indexes of wage-earner pay roll			
	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942
Durable goods—Continued								
Stone, clay, and glass products—Continued.								
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	91.6	94.3	98.3	115.2	136.7	137.9	137.8	145.8
Pottery and related products	135.7	134.8	135.0	137.1	189.4	186.4	185.2	176.6
Gypsum	88.4	87.8	91.5	107.1	139.8	130.1	129.1	135.2
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	140.6	140.6	138.6	128.6	221.7	215.4	214.7	145.4
Lime	99.5	101.6	101.3	117.3	166.5	160.1	155.9	159.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	67.2	66.1	67.8	76.5	84.0	76.9	80.7	80.6
Abrasive wheels	286.9	284.8	277.9	197.0	459.0	453.2	443.2	276.4
Asbestos products	139.8	138.9	139.5	137.1	252.0	241.3	246.6	192.6
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	110.8	111.3	111.3	113.5	182.4	180.7	179.6	155.1
Cotton manufactures, except small wares	126.2	126.8	127.2	127.0	217.4	216.1	215.8	187.2
Cotton small wares	128.0	127.6	129.6	133.4	218.9	213.4	210.7	188.5
Silk and rayon goods	81.8	81.7	81.6	86.3	133.5	132.2	134.4	122.3
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	116.9	117.4	117.9	119.7	208.3	207.2	207.5	171.2
Hosiery	76.5	77.1	77.1	85.0	110.7	108.4	105.9	96.9
Knitted cloth	111.2	110.3	108.8	112.9	173.2	171.6	168.0	146.8
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	115.8	113.7	110.1	113.0	194.4	187.9	180.3	146.7
Knitted underwear	113.8	115.5	115.7	117.7	184.2	183.7	185.2	160.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	106.7	108.2	107.7	109.1	165.2	165.8	162.2	140.3
Carpets and rugs, wool	93.9	93.8	93.0	98.4	150.1	148.4	145.0	124.8
Hats, fur-felt	70.2	69.0	69.0	81.1	119.0	115.9	111.3	100.3
Jute goods (except felts)	113.6	115.1	114.1	117.6	195.7	198.9	197.3	159.4
Cordage and twine	141.8	137.9	135.9	139.3	231.5	223.6	216.7	194.5
Apparel and other finished textile products	114.4	113.7	112.0	121.4	179.5	169.3	155.9	161.5
Men's clothing	110.6	109.7	108.2	118.6	168.5	159.2	149.6	157.9
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	88.8	89.5	90.1	101.6	142.2	139.6	136.0	138.0
Underwear and neckwear	78.4	77.3	73.9	90.8	132.8	127.9	111.9	122.8
Work shirts	138.3	138.2	131.7	132.6	231.8	233.3	213.2	190.4
Women's clothing	93.2	92.8	91.2	102.0	150.9	140.3	125.0	136.8
Corsets and allied garments	91.5	91.5	91.1	104.8	138.3	133.2	120.6	138.3
Millinery	95.8	94.0	82.9	109.0	144.0	135.9	103.2	131.2
Handkerchiefs	79.8	80.8	81.6	96.6	123.1	118.1	115.9	126.8
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	108.7	107.5	107.8	103.7	170.0	162.0	161.6	141.5
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc	143.3	144.7	147.7	115.8	231.1	228.9	238.2	141.8
Textile bags	133.3	135.5	140.2	126.6	191.8	196.1	203.3	151.9
Leather and leather products	101.9	103.3	104.1	112.9	157.6	156.9	158.9	156.7
Leather	103.0	104.2	105.4	113.0	152.1	153.8	153.7	146.6
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	99.4	99.4	100.2	107.8	146.3	142.2	144.1	138.6
Boots and shoes	90.4	92.0	92.8	103.0	143.0	142.3	145.2	148.5
Leather gloves and mittens	149.2	149.3	149.6	141.6	226.9	215.2	215.5	184.6
Trunks and suitcases	173.2	174.7	172.2	175.9	242.4	241.4	237.3	200.5
Food and kindred products	107.7	109.5	112.9	104.2	151.3	150.7	155.6	125.3
Slaughtering and meat packing	138.4	146.8	153.7	132.6	180.4	185.1	202.9	149.0
Butter	114.5	111.4	111.2	107.6	153.1	148.0	147.7	126.9
Condensed and evaporated milk	125.8	123.0	120.7	133.2	173.8	171.4	164.7	161.6
Ice cream	84.7	81.5	83.1	91.6	109.2	103.8	103.9	104.9
Flour	114.3	113.3	110.7	99.5	172.2	169.3	169.1	114.9
Feeds, prepared	145.4	135.9	142.0	117.9	227.3	207.1	219.3	144.5
Cereal preparations	132.4	131.9	131.4	121.4	212.6	198.4	176.1	161.3
Baking	110.1	109.2	111.6	103.4	145.8	141.5	144.3	119.3
Sugar refining, cane	96.0	89.6	87.0	97.2	130.2	118.8	119.3	107.8
Sugar, beet	38.2	47.9	82.2	37.0	57.2	67.1	109.5	51.9
Confectionery	116.9	117.1	120.5	111.2	166.8	163.5	163.8	135.3
Beverages, nonalcoholic	115.3	111.8	112.3	103.8	129.4	126.3	124.4	113.6
Malt liquors	117.9	114.9	112.0	106.4	147.2	144.0	133.8	121.8
Canning and preserving	59.1	67.0	70.5	64.4	98.6	112.8	115.4	85.6
Tobacco manufactures	99.9	100.2	102.4	101.3	143.8	138.5	147.8	119.4
Cigarettes	119.2	120.6	125.5	102.1	148.4	144.0	172.4	111.3
Cigars	90.8	90.4	91.0	103.6	144.0	136.4	132.9	128.6
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	91.4	94.2	96.1	84.7	127.5	129.2	130.7	105.6
Paper and allied products	118.0	117.8	116.6	123.2	173.1	171.3	167.6	156.9
Paper and pulp	108.9	109.3	110.0	120.1	165.6	164.8	162.3	159.2
Paper goods, not elsewhere classified	131.1	132.0	129.2	124.0	179.4	178.2	174.6	147.1
Envelopes	119.4	118.3	115.8	117.9	162.1	164.6	156.0	135.8
Paper bags	110.5	111.1	109.9	130.3	163.0	164.6	164.2	172.5
Paper boxes	118.8	116.5	113.5	116.6	171.8	166.6	160.2	140.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries* [1]—Continued

Industry [2]	Indexes of wage-earner employment				Indexes of wage-earner pay roll			
	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued								
Printing, publishing and allied industries	101.8	103.0	102.2	101.7	121.9	122.5	121.8	112.5
Newspapers and periodicals	94.9	95.4	96.3	99.2	108.2	107.3	107.2	106.4
Book and job	104.7	107.0	104.9	101.3	129.6	131.0	129.9	113.0
Lithographing	93.4	95.3	95.3	98.2	119.2	112.3	112.8	107.8
Bookbinding	112.6	111.0	107.8	109.3	167.6	163.3	160.3	143.5
Chemicals and allied products	252.2	250.3	248.0	191.1	407.6	399.2	391.2	263.4
Paints, varnishes, and colors	102.7	103.5	103.2	115.0	141.4	140.2	137.0	141.8
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	158.8	156.0	153.6	132.6	220.4	212.2	202.8	157.3
Perfumes and cosmetics	107.2	101.3	96.9	100.5	138.6	131.6	128.0	115.2
Soaps	99.4	100.0	101.3	111.9	141.7	142.9	137.6	137.3
Rayon and allied products	106.8	106.1	105.8	107.8	154.1	150.5	149.0	141.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	161.7	161.3	159.8	157.4	255.4	250.0	247.2	206.7
Compressed and liquefied gases	162.4	161.5	159.7	154.8	258.0	249.6	239.3	212.1
Cottonseed oil	116.9	128.4	138.0	102.6	180.9	198.4	218.7	126.6
Fertilizers	158.6	138.2	114.5	156.7	265.3	223.7	184.6	208.8
Products of petroleum and coal	115.6	115.2	116.0	117.5	167.7	165.3	162.8	145.4
Petroleum refining	107.5	106.4	106.3	107.8	155.3	152.2	149.3	132.9
Coke and byproducts	116.6	118.0	119.0	120.2	170.2	168.8	167.8	153.0
Paving materials	53.3	55.2	56.3	86.9	81.6	81.4	84.1	114.1
Roofing materials	117.7	118.5	124.1	124.7	172.7	178.3	176.5	153.6
Rubber products	153.8	152.8	151.6	121.0	246.2	238.3	234.6	156.5
Rubber tires and inner tubes	153.0	150.7	150.0	107.0	239.7	228.9	226.6	135.5
Rubber boots and shoes	146.3	149.6	148.3	128.4	239.2	240.8	240.7	170.7
Rubber goods, other	139.9	139.1	137.4	124.4	224.9	219.9	212.4	171.6
Miscellaneous industries	162.1	159.5	157.0	145.4	281.4	270.6	263.1	195.8
Photographic apparatus	161.3	156.7	152.4	131.3	250.6	241.2	230.9	175.5
Pianos, organs, and parts	125.3	122.9	118.3	107.8	229.0	226.1	211.0	127.8
Games, toys, and dolls	80.5	78.5	75.2	122.8	139.7	133.6	123.9	157.8
Buttons	103.1	105.4	105.9	122.8	172.3	172.0	174.2	171.4

[1] Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted 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, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

[2] Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; 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 fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

[3] Revisions have been made as follows: *Bolts, nuts, washers and rivets*—November and December 1942 pay-roll indexes to 307.2 and 319.4, respectively.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

Industry	Number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	March 1943	February 1943	January 1943	March 1942
Anthracite mining	74.0	74.1	69.1	79.6
Bituminous-coal mining	405	409	414	442
Metalliferous mining	100	101	101	112
Iron	32.0	31.7	31.6	29.0
Copper	33.0	33.3	33.3	33.2
Lead and zinc	19.5	19.7	19.8	19.6
Gold and silver	8.4	8.6	8.9	23.8
Miscellaneous metal mining	7.1	7.4	7.5	6.0
Hotels [1]	337	336	329	328
Power laundries	265	268	269	254
Dyeing and cleaning	78.4	76.4	75.5	76.2
Class I steam railroads [2]	1,324	1,313	1,319	1,190

[1] Data include salaried personnel.

[2] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data includes salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—*Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries*

[1939 average=100] [1]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942	Mar. 1943	Feb. 1943	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1942
Coal mining:								
Anthracite	89.4	89.5	83.4	96.1	152.7	154.9	101.5	130.1
Bituminous	109.2	110.4	111.8	119.2	202.3	196.2	178.6	167.3
Metalliferous mining	113.4	114.4	114.8	126.4	165.5	166.3	163.8	166.8
Iron	159.1	157.9	157.4	144.1	228.5	229.6	222.0	196.7
Copper	138.5	139.8	140.1	139.3	214.6	213.7	210.7	192.4
Lead and zinc	126.0	127.4	127.7	126.5	207.6	206.6	206.6	193.8
Gold and silver	33.9	34.8	35.9	95.8	41.5	43.0	43.1	104.7
Miscellaneous	178.3	184.7	186.5	150.4	272.3	283.9	283.1	199.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	96.3	96.7	98.6	107.6	150.2	150.3	151.0	141.4
Crude-petroleum production [2]	80.4	80.3	81.2	90.8	107.3	106.9	103.9	102.7
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph	122.4	122.3	122.2	119.5	137.6	138.3	136.9	127.4
Electric light and power	87.4	88.1	89.0	100.6	105.8	106.7	107.6	113.0
Street railways and busses	115.5	114.8	113.2	103.2	150.6	150.3	147.3	121.9
Wholesale trade	97.3	97.6	97.7	105.3	124.0	124.3	122.3	122.7
Retail trade	98.3	97.3	99.0	104.2	115.7	114.9	115.3	114.5
Food	105.8	106.4	107.0	111.2	125.7	126.4	125.7	120.9
General merchandising	111.0	108.8	112.3	106.7	128.0	126.2	129.1	117.5
Apparel	108.0	103.1	104.4	108.4	127.8	124.9	122.7	119.6
Furniture and house furnishings	69.1	69.5	70.7	90.9	83.7	83.9	85.9	106.0
Automotive	61.4	61.4	62.3	79.0	79.7	78.6	77.2	89.7
Lumber and building materials	89.1	89.2	90.1	100.6	112.4	112.2	112.4	113.7
Hotels (year-round) [3]	104.6	104.2	102.0	101.6	130.9	131.2	129.2	112.8
Power laundries	117.4	118.5	119.2	112.6	145.2	145.4	147.6	125.6
Dyeing and cleaning	116.1	113.2	111.8	112.9	150.3	143.8	142.8	126.5
Class I steam railroads [4]	134.0	132.9	133.6	120.5	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Water transportation [6]	117.0	110.2	100.8	92.1	271.9	257.8	231.4	139.1

[1] Mimeographed report showing revised data (1939=100) January 1939–November 1942, for each industry, available on request.
[2] Does not include well drilling or rig building.
[3] Data include salaried personnel. Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips not included.
[4] Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.
[5] Not available.
[6] Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*

MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
All manufacturing	$41.84	$41.12	$40.62	44.8	44.5	44.2	93.4	92.4	91.9
Durable goods	47.79	47.12	46.68	46.4	46.2	45.9	103.0	102.0	101.7
Nondurable goods	33.24	32.51	32.10	42.5	42.0	41.8	78.2	77.4	76.8
Durable goods									
Iron and steel and their products	46.37	45.56	44.91	46.0	45.7	45.0	100.8	99.7	99.8
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	47.24	46.57	46.16	43.2	42.8	41.9	109.9	109.4	110.3
Steel castings	48.76	47.22	46.47	47.5	46.6	45.7	103.4	101.4	101.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	36.85	35.17	34.87	45.1	43.5	43.1	82.2	80.7	80.4
Tin cans and other tinware	35.43	34.75	34.46	43.6	43.2	42.9	81.2	80.6	80.6
Wirework	45.14	43.92	43.37	47.9	47.4	47.2	93.7	92.9	92.0
Cutlery and edge tools [3] [4]	40.54	40.49	41.08	46.9	47.3	46.9	86.4	85.7	87.6
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	44.11	42.92	43.64	48.6	48.0	48.4	91.0	89.6	90.4
Hardware	40.08	39.97	39.31	47.9	48.0	48.5	84.7	84.1	81.5
Plumbers' supplies	43.20	41.59	41.77	47.0	46.1	45.9	91.8	90.2	90.5
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	40.90	40.46	39.91	46.3	45.8	45.5	89.2	88.9	88.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	45.17	45.06	42.73	47.8	47.8	45.9	94.6	94.3	93.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943
Durable goods—Continued									
Iron and steel and their products—Continued.									
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	$42.92	$41.98	$42.55	46.6	46.2	46.3	*Cents* 91.7	*Cents* 90.6	*Cents* 91.9
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	47.47	46.09	44.84	47.6	46.4	45.8	100.4	100.0	98.6
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets [4]	45.15	44.89	44.49	46.7	46.5	46.0	97.3	96.6	96.7
Forgings, iron and steel	57.57	57.66	56.68	48.6	48.5	48.6	117.5	117.9	115.7
Firearms	57.07	56.32	57.69	48.3	48.3	49.5	118.1	116.7	116.5
Electrical machinery	44.89	44.51	44.70	47.1	46.9	47.0	95.3	94.9	95.1
Electrical equipment	47.77	47.55	46.97	47.5	47.3	47.4	99.2	98.6	99.1
Radios and phonographs	38.62	39.18	38.61	45.8	46.1	45.8	84.9	85.0	84.3
Communication equipment	38.67	38.99	39.96	46.4	46.1	46.0	87.8	87.7	86.9
Machinery except electrical	51.48	51.09	50.69	49.6	49.6	49.6	103.8	103.0	102.2
Machinery and machine-shop products	50.37	50.09	49.84	49.3	49.3	49.6	102.1	101.4	100.3
Engines and turbines	56.83	57.17	57.40	50.1	50.1	50.2	114.0	114.5	114.9
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	49.01	47.62	45.69	46.9	46.6	45.0	103.9	102.6	101.2
Tractors	50.89	51.60	48.81	47.0	47.2	45.7	109.5	109.5	107.4
Machine tools	54.10	52.86	53.25	52.2	52.1	52.5	103.6	102.3	101.4
Textile machinery	44.13	43.24	44.13	49.2	48.8	49.8	90.4	89.1	88.9
Typewriters	45.75	44.50	44.53	50.5	49.9	49.8	90.5	89.2	89.4
Cash register, adding and calculating machines	56.81	54.83	55.03	49.3	49.0	49.0	116.2	113.7	113.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	54.57	53.80	53.65	46.8	46.7	46.9	116.6	115.2	114.4
Locomotives	58.36	60.30	60.69	48.1	49.4	49.3	121.4	122.2	123.2
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	46.78	48.54	44.03	43.7	44.8	42.0	106.8	107.9	104.7
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	46.99	47.17	46.94	46.2	46.3	46.5	102.7	102.0	101.0
Aircraft engines	60.84	60.27	60.27	48.8	48.1	48.1	125.5	125.0	125.3
Shipbuilding and boat building	58.46	57.16	57.24	46.9	46.7	47.1	124.6	122.4	121.6
Automobiles	55.62	55.71	55.85	45.7	46.0	45.7	121.7	121.1	122.2
Nonferrous metals and their products	46.13	45.26	45.31	46.6	45.9	46.0	99.0	98.6	98.5
Primary smelting and refining	43.18	42.10	41.46	43.5	42.9	42.6	98.6	98.1	97.2
Alloying; and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum	50.82	50.36	50.71	47.5	47.2	47.3	107.0	106.7	107.4
Clocks and watches	39.32	38.56	38.76	46.1	45.8	46.2	85.4	84.3	83.9
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	40.06	39.43	39.22	46.3	45.7	46.3	86.4	86.0	84.8
Silverware and plated ware	43.04	42.95	42.43	46.7	47.0	46.8	93.1	91.6	90.8
Lighting equipment	43.70	43.87	44.19	45.3	45.4	45.5	96.8	96.7	97.0
Aluminum manufactures	47.83	47.21	47.29	46.5	45.9	46.1	102.9	102.7	102.6
Lumber and timber basic products	29.68	28.79	27.10	42.4	41.9	39.8	70.0	68.7	68.1
Sawmills and logging camps	28.30	27.43	25.38	41.5	41.2	38.6	68.1	66.6	65.7
Planing and plywood mills	34.04	32.87	32.68	45.0	44.1	43.7	75.7	74.7	74.7
Furniture and finished lumber products	31.39	30.56	29.79	43.9	43.6	42.8	71.5	70.6	69.6
Furniture [4]	32.22	31.66	30.74	44.1	43.9	43.1	73.3	72.0	71.1
Stone, clay, and glass products	35.15	34.52	34.15	42.4	42.0	41.7	82.9	82.2	81.9
Glass	36.48	36.49	36.09	41.2	41.3	40.9	88.8	88.5	88.4
Cement	34.90	34.17	34.70	40.7	40.2	40.7	85.7	84.9	85.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	30.36	29.76	28.52	40.9	40.2	39.3	75.1	74.8	73.4
Pottery and related products	31.80	31.78	31.31	40.5	40.0	39.8	78.6	78.0	78.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	33.20	30.91	31.67	40.4	39.9	38.8	82.0	78.3	80.0
Asbestos products	43.57	41.77	42.60	48.1	47.0	47.8	90.6	89.3	89.4
Nondurable goods									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	27.39	27.14	26.93	41.6	41.5	41.3	65.8	65.4	65.2
Cotton manufactures, except small wares	24.38	24.20	24.22	41.6	41.5	41.4	58.8	58.3	58.2
Cotton small wares	32.07	31.22	30.21	44.6	44.2	44.0	71.6	71.0	69.5
Silk and rayon goods	26.26	26.07	26.30	41.7	41.6	41.2	63.0	62.7	63.9
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	33.15	32.82	32.84	41.5	41.3	41.3	79.9	79.5	78.9
Hosiery [4]	26.62	25.89	25.58	39.3	38.8	38.2	68.7	67.5	67.2
Knitted cloth	30.93	30.89	30.65	43.2	43.5	43.5	71.0	70.9	70.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943
Nondurable goods—Continued									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures—Continued.							*Cents*	*Cents*	*Cents*
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	$27.66	$27.23	$26.98	40.2	40.1	40.1	66.6	65.8	65.2
Knitted underwear [3]	23.91	23.68	23.87	41.2	40.8	41.0	57.9	58.0	58.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles including woolen and worsted	32.08	31.64	31.09	44.7	44.8	44.2	71.7	71.2	70.9
Carpets and rugs, wool	36.68	36.31	35.64	43.5	43.4	43.1	84.6	83.9	83.0
Hats, fur-felt	38.90	38.40	36.89	42.2	41.7	41.3	92.5	93.5	90.9
Apparel and other finished textile products	27.23	26.11	24.50	38.9	38.4	37.4	70.0	68.0	65.5
Men's clothing	29.03	27.79	26.40	38.1	37.9	36.7	75.4	72.1	71.4
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	21.85	21.29	20.60	38.4	38.4	37.0	57.2	55.9	56.3
Underwear and neckwear	23.23	22.64	20.74	39.5	39.3	36.9	57.3	57.1	55.3
Work shirts	18.55	17.81	17.92	38.8	38.4	39.0	46.7	45.9	45.9
Women's clothing	32.80	30.67	27.77	39.3	38.3	37.4	71.5	70.3	65.0
Corsets and allied garments	26.28	25.30	25.04	41.3	41.4	40.3	64.3	61.9	62.6
Millinery	36.57	35.16	30.27	37.2	36.9	33.5	85.4	82.6	77.6
Leather and leather products	29.52	28.90	29.06	40.5	40.2	40.3	72.9	71.9	72.1
Leather	36.46	36.36	35.89	42.5	42.7	42.0	86.0	85.4	85.6
Boots and shoes	28.10	27.65	27.98	39.9	39.6	39.9	70.3	68.9	69.4
Food and kindred products	33.75	33.15	33.22	43.4	43.0	43.2	77.7	77.1	76.9
Slaughtering and meat packing	36.11	34.99	36.66	43.0	42.1	44.2	83.9	83.1	83.0
Butter	29.63	29.46	29.43	46.5	46.3	46.6	63.7	63.6	62.7
Ice cream	35.42	35.12	34.44	46.6	46.2	45.5	73.1	72.7	73.0
Flour	38.62	38.03	38.89	48.7	48.3	49.4	79.1	78.8	79.0
Baking	34.20	33.55	33.35	44.2	43.8	43.8	77.5	76.8	76.4
Sugar refining, cane	32.42	31.70	32.78	40.9	41.1	41.4	79.2	77.1	79.2
Sugar, beet	37.29	34.92	33.35	39.4	37.3	39.9	94.7	93.7	83.5
Confectionery	26.37	25.82	25.18	41.7	41.5	40.7	63.8	62.6	62.0
Beverages, nonalcoholic	30.17	29.76	29.06	42.4	42.3	41.3	70.5	70.4	70.1
Malt liquors	43.81	43.84	41.83	42.7	42.8	41.3	102.4	102.5	101.6
Canning and preserving	26.75	26.79	26.14	39.4	39.7	38.8	68.0	68.1	68.1
Tobacco manufactures	24.16	23.28	24.27	39.4	38.6	39.6	61.3	60.3	61.3
Cigarettes	26.08	25.02	28.66	38.0	36.9	41.1	68.6	67.9	69.7
Cigars	23.06	21.66	20.95	40.4	39.7	38.4	56.2	55.0	54.7
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	24.50	24.09	24.02	39.4	39.0	39.5	62.2	61.7	60.8
Paper and allied products	35.11	34.75	34.21	44.9	44.5	44.2	78.2	78.1	77.4
Paper and pulp	38.41	37.93	37.19	45.8	45.3	44.9	83.8	83.6	82.8
Paper boxes	31.53	31.35	30.95	44.2	43.9	43.6	71.7	71.6	71.0
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	39.30	38.63	38.73	39.9	39.7	39.8	98.5	97.3	97.3
Newspapers and periodicals	43.52	42.74	42.42	36.6	36.3	36.4	116.3	115.7	115.1
Book and job	36.71	36.34	37.19	41.3	41.6	41.4	90.4	88.7	89.4
Chemical and allied products	40.32	39.96	39.43	45.2	45.0	44.5	89.2	88.8	88.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors	39.61	39.16	38.23	44.0	43.5	42.8	90.2	89.9	89.4
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides	33.04	32.48	31.27	43.7	43.4	41.6	75.4	74.5	74.3
Soaps	40.88	40.88	38.75	44.1	43.9	42.6	92.7	93.0	90.9
Rayon and allied products	35.01	34.54	34.27	41.3	40.9	40.5	84.8	84.5	84.6
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified	47.15	46.23	46.15	45.0	44.3	44.4	104.7	104.4	104.0
Explosives and safety fuses	46.42	46.01	45.99	46.7	46.4	46.3	99.9	99.5	99.7
Ammunition	41.90	42.11	40.90	46.5	46.5	45.6	90.1	90.2	89.2
Fireworks	(5)	38.00	37.50	(5)	48.8	49.1	(5)	77.9	76.3
Cottonseed oil	20.87	20.84	21.42	47.7	48.0	49.6	43.7	43.0	42.7
Fertilizers	23.64	22.81	23.04	42.9	41.4	40.2	55.2	55.1	57.3
Products of petroleum and coal	47.05	46.61	45.42	42.5	42.3	41.1	110.7	110.2	110.5
Petroleum refining	50.00	49.51	48.38	42.6	42.4	41.0	117.8	117.5	118.2
Rubber products	44.74	43.57	43.11	45.1	44.6	44.4	99.2	97.7	97.1
Rubber tires and inner tubes	52.68	50.95	50.53	45.5	44.9	44.4	115.9	113.5	113.9
Rubber boots and shoes	36.96	36.35	36.66	44.6	44.3	44.8	82.9	82.1	81.9
Rubber goods, other	38.01	37.36	36.59	44.9	44.3	44.4	84.8	84.5	82.7
Miscellaneous industries	39.80	38.92	38.30	46.5	46.0	45.7	85.6	84.6	83.8
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment	50.74	49.67	49.07	51.2	50.9	50.7	99.1	97.9	96.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—*Hours and Earnings in Specified Months*—Continued

NONMANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings [1]			Average weekly hours [1]			Average hourly earnings [1]		
	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943	Mar. 1943 [2]	Feb. 1943 [2]	Jan. 1943
							Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*
Coal mining:									
Anthracite	$43.84	$44.47	$31.25	41.2	41.5	31.0	106.5	106.9	100.7
Bituminous	42.97	41.49	37.55	38.3	37.0	34.7	112.2	111.3	108.5
Metalliferous mining	41.61	41.61	41.16	43.7	43.6	43.3	94.9	94.7	94.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	33.21	33.39	33.34	44.0	44.7	44.3	75.5	74.9	75.9
Crude-petroleum production	44.51	44.27	42.82	41.0	40.6	39.9	107.3	107.4	105.9
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph	34.56	34.22	34.49	41.1	40.8	41.1	84.5	84.4	84.2
Electric light and power	41.93	42.03	42.05	40.8	40.5	40.5	102.3	103.2	102.6
Street railways and busses	43.14	43.10	42.49	49.5	50.3	49.2	85.7	85.4	85.6
Wholesale trade	37.90	37.97	37.40	41.7	41.6	41.4	90.9	91.1	90.3
Retail trade	24.55	24.79	24.37	41.1	41.1	41.3	65.0	65.0	64.5
Food	29.39	28.52	28.58	41.9	41.5	41.6	66.2	65.6	64.6
General merchandising	20.58	20.83	20.79	37.2	37.2	37.5	54.3	54.1	53.7
Apparel	25.61	25.72	25.26	37.4	37.9	37.6	67.8	68.5	67.1
Furniture and housefurnishings	33.21	32.76	33.33	44.4	43.6	44.2	76.5	76.9	78.0
Automotive	35.46	35.10	33.83	47.6	47.5	46.7	75.3	73.5	73.9
Lumber and building materials	32.64	32.75	32.26	42.5	43.0	42.5	79.4	78.8	78.1
Hotels (year-round)	19.29	19.06	19.35	44.5	45.3	44.7	43.3	43.2	42.2
Laundries	22.70	22.47	22.78	43.8	43.7	44.1	52.3	51.7	51.9
Dyeing and cleaning	26.56	25.60	25.92	43.7	43.1	43.6	62.9	61.7	61.5
Brokerage	49.75	47.11	45.00	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]
Insurance	40.37	40.46	39.77	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]	[5]
Building construction	46.49	45.04	46.03	37.4	36.3	37.1	124.3	124.0	124.0

[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 furnished man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings.

[2] Subject to possible revision.

[3] Because of changes in the composition of the reporting sample, hours and earnings are not comparable with those published for previous months as indicated:

Cutlery and edge tools—Average hourly earnings (comparable December 1942 average, 85.2 cents).

Knitted underwear—Average hourly earnings (comparable December 1942 average, 57.1 cents).

[4] Revisions in the following industries have been made as indicated:

Cutlery and edge tools—November and December 1942 average weekly hours to 47.0 and 47.8, respectively. Revised averages are not comparable with those published for October 1942 and previous month (comparable October average, 46.2).

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets—December 1942 average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings to $43.41, 45.8 hours, and 94.7 cents, respectively.

Furniture—November and December 1942 average weekly earnings to $30.35 and $31.40, respectively, average hourly earnings to 70.5 cents and 70.8 cents.

Hosiery—October and December 1942 average weekly hours to 38.1 and 38.8; average hourly earnings to 64.0 cents and 65.2 cents.

[5] Data not available.

CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE, APRIL 1943

THE civilian labor force increased by 100,000 persons between March and April 1943 to a total of 52,100,000, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. At the same time, unemployment declined by 100,000 persons to a new low of 900,000, and the number employed increased by 200,000.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force by Employment Status and Sex, in Selected Months, April 1940–April 1943* [1]

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Sex and employment status	Estimated number (millions of persons)				
	April 1943	March 1943	April 1942	April 1941	April 1940
Both sexes	52.1	52.0	53.7	53.5	53.9
Unemployed [2]	.9	1.0	3.0	6.7	8.8
Employed	51.2	51.0	50.7	46.8	45.1
Nonagriculture	41.6	42.0	41.4	37.6	36.1
Agriculture	9.6	9.0	9.3	9.2	9.0
Males	36.5	36.4	39.8	40.9	40.6
Unemployed [2]	.5	.6	2.0	4.7	6.5
Employed	36.0	35.8	37.8	36.2	34.1
Nonagriculture	27.5	27.7	29.4	27.6	[3]
Agriculture	8.5	8.1	8.4	8.6	[3]
Females	15.6	15.6	13.9	12.6	13.3
Unemployed [2]	.4	.4	1.0	2.0	2.3
Employed	15.2	15.2	12.9	10.6	11.0
Nonagriculture	14.1	14.3	12.0	10.0	[3]
Agriculture	1.1	.9	.9	.6	[3]

[1] All data exclude persons in institutions.
[2] Includes persons on public emergency projects.
[3] Not available.

The increase in the civilian labor force was directly attributable to a seasonal rise in agricultural employment which increased by 600,000 persons—400,000 men and 200,000 women. The increase in farm employment was partially offset by a decline of 400,000 in nonagricultural employment.

During the year ending in April 1943, the civilian labor force declined by 1,600,000—the net result of a decrease of 3,300,000 men and an increase of 1,700,000 women. Inductions into the armed forces were reflected in a decline of 4,200,000 male civilian workers under 45 years of age, but this was partially offset by an increase of 900,000 among men aged 45 years and over.

For the 3 months ending in April 1943, the number of women in the civilian labor force remained unchanged at 15,600,000. This compares with an increase of 500,000 women during the corresponding period in 1942.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment and Unemployment, by Age and Sex, in March and April 1943 and April 1942* [1]

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Employment status and age	Estimated number (millions of persons)								
	Total			Male			Female		
	April 1943	March 1943	April 1942	April 1943	March 1943	April 1942	April 1943	March 1943	April 1942
Total civilian labor force	52.1	52.0	53.7	36.5	36.4	39.8	15.6	15.6	13.9
14–19 years	4.8	4.7	4.9	2.7	2.7	3.2	2.1	2.0	1.7
20–24 years	5.1	5.3	6.6	2.3	2.4	3.9	2.8	2.9	2.7
25–34 years	11.6	11.6	12.7	7.7	7.8	9.2	3.9	3.8	3.5
35–44 years	11.5	11.6	11.8	8.3	8.3	8.9	3.2	3.3	2.9
45–54 years	10.0	9.9	9.5	7.8	7.7	7.7	2.2	2.2	1.8
55–64 years	6.4	6.3	5.8	5.3	5.2	4.8	1.1	1.1	1.0
65 years and over	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.1	.3	.3	.3
Total persons employed	51.2	51.0	50.7	36.0	35.8	37.8	15.2	15.2	12.9
14–19 years	4.6	4.5	4.4	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.0	1.9	1.5
20–24 years	5.0	5.2	6.3	2.3	2.4	3.8	2.7	2.8	2.5
25–34 years	11.5	11.5	12.2	7.7	7.7	8.9	3.8	3.8	3.3
35–44 years	11.3	11.4	11.3	8.2	8.2	8.6	3.1	3.2	2.7
45–54 years	9.9	9.8	9.0	7.7	7.7	7.3	2.2	2.1	1.7
55–64 years	6.3	6.1	5.3	5.2	5.0	4.4	1.1	1.1	.9
65 years and over	2.6	2.5	2.2	2.3	2.2	1.9	.3	.3	.3
Total persons unemployed [2]	.9	1.0	3.0	.5	.6	2.0	.4	.4	1.0
14–19 years	.2	.2	.5	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	.2
20–24 years	.1	.1	.3	(3)	(3)	.1	.1	.1	.2
25–34 years	.1	.1	.5	(3)	.1	.3	.1	(3)	.2
35–44 years	.2	.2	.5	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	.2
45–54 years	.1	.1	.5	.1	(3)	.4	(3)	.1	.1
55–64 years	.1	.2	.5	.1	.2	.4	(3)	(3)	.1
65 years and over	.1	.1	.2	.1	.1	.2	(3)	(3)	(3)

[1] All data exclude persons in institutions.
[2] Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed.
[3] Less than 50,000.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

JUNE 1943

Absenteeism

Absenteeism in commercial shipyards. By Eleanor V. Kennedy. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 14 pp. (Bull. No. 734; reprinted from February 1943 Monthly Labor Review, with additional data.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Controlling absenteeism—a record of war plant experience. Washington, U. S Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1943. 57 pp. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

More manpower through reduction of absences. By R. R. Sayers, M. D., and others. Pittsburgh, Industrial Hygiene Foundation, [1943]. 63 pp., charts.
Panel discussion, at 7th annual meeting of Industrial Hygiene Foundation, Pittsburgh, November 1942, on the subjects of absenteeism in the coal-mining industry, sick absenteeism among a group of the Foundation's member companies, methods of tackling the absentee problem, the accident factor in absenteeism, the common cold as an industrial-health problem, and the role of psychology in absenteeism.

The problem of absenteeism. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 31 pp., charts. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 53.)
Analyzes the causes of absenteeism and discusses methods of combating it.

Tested ways to reduce absenteeism. New York, McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., Inc., 1943. 20 pp., charts, illus. 25 cents.
Four articles, reprinted from regular issues of Factory Management and Maintenance, in which the methods followed by a number of companies to reduce absenteeism in their plants are described.

Ways of dealing with absenteeism as part of the war production drive. Washington, U. S. War Production Board, [1943?]. 27 pp., illus.
Discusses different causes of absenteeism and methods of meeting the problem.

Working conditions and absenteeism in Britain. New York, British Information Services, 1943. 8 pp. (I. D. 384.) Free.
Shows the factors contributing to absenteeism and methods employed in Great Britain to reduce it, both by improving conditions surrounding their employment and penalizing workers for unnecessary absence.

Cost and Standards of Living

Civilian spending and saving, 1941 and 1942. Washington, U. S. Office of Price Administration, Division of Research, Consumer Income and Demand Branch, 1943. 40 pp.; processed.
Shows the burden of personal tax payments on different income classes, the relative welfare of different sections of the consuming public as indicated by the division of the national total of consumer goods and services, and the large volume of individual savings.

Cost of living index numbers for Canada, 1913–42. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1943. 15 pp.; mimeographed. 25 cents.
Gives the index numbers of cost of living and the component series in convenient form for ready reference, with a review in text.

Food costs more in Harlem: A comparative survey of retail food prices. New York, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, [1943?]. 23 pp.

Report on a survey of retail food prices in Harlem stores as compared with prices in stores in comparable income areas in other sections of New York City. The conclusion is reached that the prices that Negroes in segregated communities have to pay for the food they eat are excessive, and it is recommended that further surveys in segregated areas be made. Legislative action, consumer education, and cooperative buying and selling are suggested as potential remedies.

Economic and Social Problems

An economic program for a living democracy. By Irving H. Flamm. New York, Liveright Publishing Corporation, 1942. 342 pp. $3.

As stated in the preface, the objective of this capitalistic and functional approach toward a planned economy is not so much to discuss desirable social and economic goals, but rather to point the way to a method, a technique for improving our own economic efficiency as the best means for defending ourselves from without and strengthening our democratic institutions from within.

The banking system and war finance. By Charles R. Whittlesey. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., 1943. 53 pp., charts. (Occasional paper 8.) 25 cents.

Described as the first of several studies that are being developed as part of the financial-research program of the National Bureau of Economic Research. At the end of the pamphlet various questions are raised, calling for analysis in later publications in the series. Among the questions are the methods of restraining inflationary tendencies and the possible effect of war finances, particularly the large public debt, on the maintenance of full employment after the war.

Poverty and progress: A second social survey of York [England]. By B. Seebohm Rowntree. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1942. xx, 540 pp., diagrams, illus. 15s.

Presents a picture of working-class life in a provincial British city of 100,000 persons, showing housing, rents, occupations, earnings, etc. The study affords an opportunity of comparing conditions shortly before the present war with those in 1899 when the first investigation was made. The poverty line adopted for income was 43s. 6d. a week (at 1936 prices), after paying rent, for a family of man, wife, and three dependent children. It was concluded that nearly one-third of the working population of York was living below the minimum standard.

Trends in German economic control since 1933. By Sidney Merlin. (In Quarterly Journal of Economics, Cambridge, Mass., February 1943, pp. 169–207. $1.25.)

Education and Training

*Handbook on education and the war, based on proceedings of the National Institute on Education and the War, * * * August 28–31, 1942.* Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1943. 344 pp., charts. 55 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The volume includes summaries of the discussion of training of manpower, one of the major problems considered.

Workers' education—a Wisconsin experiment. By Ernest E. Schwarztrauber. Madison, University of Wisconsin Press, 1942. 182 pp., charts, illus. $1.

A history of workers' education in Wisconsin during the past 20 years.

Canada's war emergency training program. (In Manufacturing and Industrial Engineering, Toronto, Ont., November 1942; 19 pp., illus. Also reprinted.)

Industry and education. London, Oxford University Press, 1943. 38 pp. 1s.

Statement on conclusions reached at a conference held by Nuffield College to consider the problems of education in relation to industry in Great Britain.

Employment and Unemployment

Effect of the war on employment in the iron and steel industry. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1517; reprinted from February 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Employment in Federal executive service, December 1940—December 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1521; reprinted from March 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Full employment. London, Times Publishing Co., Ltd., 1943. 20 pp. 3d.
Ten articles, by various authors, reprinted from the London Times, dealing with different aspects of post-war employment problems, including the need for planning and for a census of consumption and production.

The problem of unemployment. London, Lever Bros. & Unilever, Ltd., 1943. 38 pp.
In this pamphlet the publishers propose various governmental, industrial, and international policies for preventing or combating mass unemployment.

Food and Nutrition

Farm labor and food supply. By Kendrick Lee. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1943. 16 pp. (Vol. 1, 1943, No. 4.) $1.
Obstacles to attainment of the 1943 food-production goals, the rising trend of farm income and wages, and the farm labor supply, are problems considered.

Food, work and war. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1942. 47 pp., charts, illus.
Stresses the need for proper food to insure efficient workers and cites different companies which provide well-balanced meals for their employees.

Lunchrooms for employees. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, [1943?]. 28 pp., plans, illus.
Discusses the need for lunchrooms in industrial plants, describes different types of service and equipment, and gives sample menus.

Nutrition and the war. By Geoffrey Bourne. New York, Macmillan Co., 1943. 148 pp. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. $1.60.
Examines food requirements, showing energy requirements for different forms of activity, foods which furnish energy, and value in the diet of the different vitamins and minerals. Contains a table showing calories and vitamin and mineral contents of different foods.

La protección del hombre en el Estado del porvenir [*Perú*]. By Máxime H. Kuczynski-Godard. (In Informaciones Sociales, Caja Nacional de Seguro Social, Lima, third quarter 1942, pp. 199–221.)
Includes a discussion, with statistics, of nutritional deficiencies and the prices of articles of consumption in the Amazon region of Peru, statistics of infant mortality, the relation of these problems to underproduction, and the part the Government may play in bettering such conditions.

La alimentación en Venezuela. By R. Cabrera Malo and J. M. Bengoa Lecanda. (In Revista de Sanidad y Asistencia Social, Ministerio de Sanidad y Asistencia Social, Caracas, February 1943, pp. 131–139; bibliography.)
Report to the Pan American Sanitary Conference in Rio de Janeiro in September 1942, dealing with the organization and functioning of the nutrition program of Venezuela. Statistics of food consumption, costs of foods, and workers' earnings are included.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Dermatitis in industry. By John G. Downing, M. D. (In American Journal of Nursing, New York, April 1943, pp. 332–336. 35 cents.)
Deals with dermatitis due to contact with various substances, treatment, and preventive measures.

Exploring the dangerous trades. The autobiography of Alice Hamilton, M. D. Boston, Little, Brown & Co., 1943. 433 pp., illus. $3.
Much of this life story of a physician pioneering in the study of occupational diseases is devoted to the reasons for and the results of these studies but it covers also her travels and her interest in labor and social movements.

Industrial Safety and Hygiene Conference, St. Louis, Mo., July 17, 18, 1942: Part I, Speeches; Part II, Discussions. Washington, [Office of Chief of Ordnance, U. S. War Department?], 1942. Various paging; mimeographed.

The conference was conducted by the Plant Security Branch, Office of the Chief of Ordnance, in conjunction with the Office of the Surgeon General, U. S. Army, and the U. S. Public Health Service. Subjects covered included TNT poisoning, health hazards in manufacture of munitions, dermatoses in munitions manufacture, periodic physical examinations, women in industry, and engineering control of toxic exposures.

Manual of industrial hygiene and medical service in war industries. Prepared by Division of Industrial Hygiene, National Institute of Health; edited by William M. Gafafer. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1943. 508 pp., charts. $3.

The volume consists of articles by different experts presented under three main heads: Organization and operation of facilities; Prevention and control of disease in industry; The manpower problem. The manual is intended both as a source of information for industrial physicians who must meet the changed conditions in industries converted to war purposes and as a guide to those who take the place of industrial physicians who have entered the armed services.

Manual on industrial health for war workers. Boston, Massachusetts Committee on Public Safety, Division of Health and Social Services, 1943. 39 pp.

Revised second edition of Manual on Industrial Health for Defense, issued in June 1942.

Proceedings of seventh annual meeting of members of Industrial Hygiene Foundation of America, Inc., Pittsburgh, Pa., November 10-11, 1942. Pittsburgh, Industrial Hygiene Foundation of America, Inc., [1943?]. 196 pp.

The papers and panel discussions dealt with different causes of fatigue in wartime industry, reduction of absenteeism, and employment of women, older men, and the physically handicapped.

Useful criteria in the identification of certain occupational health hazards. Salt Lake City, Utah State Department of Health, Division of Industrial Hygiene, 1942. 88 pp.

Lists the hazards in a large number of industries and occupations, and principal diagnostic signs. Also has a section on occupational dermatoses.

Housing

Housing handbook for social workers. New York, Welfare Council of New York City, Caseworkers' Committee on Housing, 1942. 18 pp. 25 cents.

Lists governmental housing agencies in New York State and New York City, and housing legislation applicable in New York City, and describes procedure for dealing with different housing matters.

Housing regulation in wartime: Toward more effective utilization of housing in New York. New York, Community Service Society, Committee on Housing, [1943?]. 39 pp.

Recommends measures for raising housing standards and maintaining them.

New dwelling units in nonfarm areas, 1941 and 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 10 pp. (Serial No. R. 1511; reprinted from April 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Operating statistics of housing company projects. New York, Executive Department, Division of Housing, 1942. 73 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Covers operations of limited-dividend housing companies, which built and own projects housing over 5,900 families. The housing was provided under the former New York State housing law. Data cover 1939 and 1940 and historical statistics are also given for each project from its inception.

Residential Chicago. Volume I of report of Chicago land-use survey, directed by Chicago Plan Commission and conducted by Work Projects Administration. Chicago, [1942]. Various paging, charts. $2 postpaid, from Municipal Library, City Hall, Chicago.

The survey was made to aid in comprehensive city planning and offers statistical and graphic information. Volume I presents city-wide data on residential land use and information on the physical, social, and economic character of residential properties in Chicago, including data on distribution of dwelling units by monthly rentals.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Industrial injuries in Pennsylvania, 1941]: *Part I, All reported injuries; Part II, All compensable cases.* Harrisburg, Department of Labor and Industry, Bureau of Research and Information, [1942?]. 2 vols, 94 and 60 pp.; mimeographed.

Training safety leaders. A report to the planning panel on war safety training, National Committee for the Conservation of Manpower in War Industries. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1943. 18 pp., charts; processed. Free.

Twenty-sixth annual report of United States Employees' Compensation Commission, July 1, 1941, to June 30, 1942. Washington, 1943. 61 pp.

Report on operations under the several laws providing workmen's compensation benefits for injury or death of workers engaged in employments under Federal jurisdiction.

Industrial Relations

Elements of supervision. By William R. Spriegel and Edward Schulz. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942. 273 pp., bibliography. $2.25.

The authors discuss the part of the supervisor in developing a sound labor-relations program.

More production through sound industrial relations: Proceedings of twenty-fifth anniversary Silver Bay Industrial Conference, Silver Bay, N. Y., July 22–25, 1942. New York, Y. M. C. A., National Council, [1942]. 159 pp.

Summary of decisions of the National War Labor Board: Volume I, January 12, 1942, to February 15, 1943. Washington, U. S. National War Labor Board, 1943. 76 pp.

A manual describing some of the more important decisions and determinations of the Board. The cases are classified by matters in dispute.

Union membership and collective bargaining by foremen. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, April 1943. 22 pp.; mimeographed. (Industrial relations problems arising under war production, memorandum No. 7.) Free.

Workers and bosses are human. By Thomas R. Carskadon. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1943. 32 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 76.) 10 cents.

International Labor Conditions

The international standardization of labor statistics. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1943. 169 pp. (Studies and reports, series N, No. 25—revision of No. 19.) $1.

Revision of the first (1934) edition of a report by the International Labor Office summarizing its work and that of a series of international conferences of labor statisticians, and giving the documentary texts of resolutions and recommendations of the conferences, with reference to standardization of statistics of employment and unemployment, wages and hours of work, collective agreements, industrial disputes, industrial accidents, cost of living, housing, etc.

Yearbook of labor statistics, 1942. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1943. 222 pp. In English, French, and Spanish. $2.

The statistics in the yearbook cover some sixty countries in all parts of the world. In addition to the usual data on population, unemployment, hours of labor, wages, cost of living, migrations, and industrial accidents, two new tables have been added, one on the distribution of food expenditures for the chief food groups as shown in family-living studies, and the other showing differences in the percentage of expenditures for the chief groups of items at different income levels.

Migration and Migratory Labor

Internal migration and the war. By Henry S. Shryock, Jr. (In Journal of the American Statistical Association, Menasha, Wis., March 1943, pp. 16–30, maps (charts). $1.50.)

Discusses the extent and the characteristics of the migration between States and to defense centers during the period April 1, 1940, to May 1, 1942.

*National defense migration: Final report of Select Committee Investigating National Defense Migration, House of Representatives, 77th Congress, 2d Session, pursuant to H. Res. 113 * * *.* Washington, Government Printing Office, 1943. 24 pp. (House report No. 3, Union calendar No. 4, 78th Cong., 1st sess.)

Summarizes the work done by the Tolan Committee and discusses briefly the situation existing in manpower and migration as of January 1943.

A research memorandum on internal migration resulting from the war effort. By Conrad Taeuber and Irene Barnes Taeuber. New York, Social Science Research Council, Committee on Research on Social Aspects of the War, 1942. 36 pp.; mimeographed. 25 cents.

Temporary migration of Mexican agricultural workers—agreement between the United States and Mexico. Washington, U. S. Department of State, 1943. 13 pp. In English and Spanish. (Executive agreement series No. 278.)

The agreement was signed August 4, 1942, and provides that agricultural workers from Mexico shall be paid the prevailing wage in the localities to which they are sent and that in no case may the wage be less than 30 cents an hour. Working and living conditions must be the same as those for other workers in the same localities.

Old-Age Retirement

State retirement plans for municipal employees (a description of four operating systems). By A. A. Weinberg. Chicago, Municipal Finance Officers Association of the United States and Canada, 1943. 8 pp. (Special bull. F.) 35 cents.

Outlines the retirement systems for public employees, including those of local administrations, in California, Illinois, New York, and Ohio, giving information on membership, contributions, benefits, and administration.

O Instituto de Aposentadoria e Pensões dos Comerciários [Brazil]. By Decio Ribeiro Costa. (In Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio, Rio de Janeiro, September 1942, pp. 237–250; bibliography.)

Account of the background of the Brazilian Retirement and Pension Institute for Commercial Employees, benefits provided under this scheme, and certain statistics of its operation to December 30, 1940.

Post-War Reconstruction

Post-war planning—a selected and annotated list of references. Washington, Library of Congress, Legislative Reference Service, April 5, 1943. 36 pp.; mimeographed. (War service bull., series H–6.)

Post-war planning in Britain: Unofficial post-war planning, 1939–43. New York, British Information Services, 1943. 80 pp., bibliography.

Post-war trade: Second memorandum by the National Union of Manufacturers. London, National Union of Manufacturers, 1942. 7 pp.

In the light of the Atlantic Charter and supplementary agreement between the British and United States Governments, this employer organization examines post-war trade problems, such as exchange and tariffs. It is assumed that labor will have a larger share in questions affecting employment conditions, and the association concludes that there must be mutual confidence and cooperation between management and labor to insure production.

War and reconstruction—some Canadian issues. Addresses given at Canadian Institute on Public Affairs, August 15–23, 1942. Edited by A. R. M. Lower and J. F. Parkinson. Toronto, Ryerson Press, 1942. 106 pp.

Two of the addresses reproduced are on labor and one is on price control.

Prices and Price Control

The economics of price in the milk industry. By James M. Stepp. University, Va., University of Virginia, Bureau of Public Administration, 1942. 154 pp., diagrams; mimeographed. (Report series B, No. 9.) $1.

Analysis of the price-making forces in the production, transportation, and distribution of milk in the United States.

The relation between price movements and the extent of control [in the United States], to October 10, 1942. Washington, U. S. Office of Price Administration, Division of Research, 1943. 44 pp., charts; processed. (Price control report No. 14.)

British price control. New York, British Information Services, 1942. 11 pp. (I. D. 312.) Free.

Wholesale price index numbers, [Canada], 1913–42. Ottawa, Bureau of Statistics, [1943]. 16 pp.; processed.

Production

Joint production committees in United States war plants. By W. Ellison Chalmers. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, January 1943, pp. 22–45. 60 cents.)

Outlines the object, methods, and results of the drive to establish labor-management production committees in war factories.

Production standards from time study analysis by labor and management. By Frank Leslie Bailey and others. Detroit, Local No. 2, U. A. W.–C. I. O. and the Murray Corporation of America, 1942. 103 pp., charts.

This volume is described as the first book on time study undertaken as a cooperative enterprise by labor and management. The first part is entitled "The story of Joe Workman," and is a presentation of problems of production standards and time-study analysis from the point of view of a typical worker's experience. The second part is a time-study procedure manual, giving detailed definitions and methods and concluding with a chapter on the establishment of production standards.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Administration and financing of public relief. By Frank M. Landers and Claude R. Tharp. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Bureau of Government, 1942. 35 pp. (Michigan pamphlet No. 17.) 10 cents.

Deals with the major aspects of the administration and financing of public relief by the State and local governments in Michigan.

Report of the President of the United States to the Congress showing status of funds and operations under Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts for fiscal years 1935 to 1942, inclusive, as of June 30, 1942. Washington, U. S. Treasury Department, 1943. 507 pp.

A study in public relations. By Harold P. Levy. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1943. 165 pp. $1.

Describes the public-relations program of the Pennsylvania Department of Public Assistance, established in 1937, as it has been adjusted to meet the changing conditions presented by the business recession and the demand for labor as a result of war needs.

Work relief experience in the United States. By John Charnow. Washington, Social Science Research Council, Committee on Social Security, 1943. 141 pp., bibliography. (Pamphlet series No. 8.) 50 cents.

Analyzes the more important problems arising in connection with the various types of work relief undertaken in the United States during the past decade, for the purpose of furnishing a guide for work-relief planning if unemployment again becomes a problem in the post-war years.

Social Security

Social welfare in New York State under World War II: 73rd annual report of Department of Social Welfare, July 1, 1941–June 30, 1942. Albany, 1943. 80 pp., charts. (Legislative doc. No. 11, 1943.)

The report deals with the impact of war upon the welfare of the people of the State, and the problems created by the war and the way they are being met, and contains detailed reports of assistance given during the fiscal year 1941–42.

Social welfare services and the war: Part I, Meeting wartime needs. By Esther Cole Franklin. Washington, American Association of University Women, 1943. 52 pp.; mimeographed. (Contemporary America, Vol. IV, No. 4.) 30 cents.

Outlines measures taken by different agencies in the United States to meet welfare needs during the war.

Social work yearbook, 1943: A description of organized activities in social work and in related fields. Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1943. 764 pp. $3.25.

The book contains two major divisions. Part I presents a group of 78 signed articles by authorities on the different social subjects; part II consists of directories of national and State agencies, both governmental and voluntary, whose programs are related to different phases of social work.

Monografía sobre la Caja Nacional de Empleados Públicos y Periodistas [*Chile*]. By Alfredo Herrera Aristegui. [Santiago, Imp. y Lit. Cervantes], 1942. 90 pp.

Except for a brief history of social insurance in Chile, the volume is devoted to the history, resources, benefits, and operation of the Chilean National [Social Insurance] Fund of Public Employees and Journalists, with statistics for recent years, including 1940 and 1941.

The problem of social security in Colombia. By Ernesto Herrnstadt. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, April 1943, pp. 426–449. 60 cents.)

Social security as interpreted in this article embraces all measures pertaining to the security and welfare of workers. The article contains a résumé of labor legislation and social-insurance provisions, and discusses the need for unification and extension of existing services. An appendix lists the principal legislative enactments mentioned, and indicates whether they are available in English translation in the Legislative Series of the International Labor Office.

The Mexican social insurance law. By Gustavo-Adolfo Rohen y Gálvez. (In Social Security Bulletin, U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, March 1943, pp. 11–16. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Legislative history of the new Social Insurance Act of Mexico with analysis of its provisions relating to persons covered, risks insured, benefits, financial organization of the system, and administration and enforcement of the act.

Wages and Hours of Labor

The economic status of the members of the American Chemical Society. Report of Committee on Economic Status, prepared by Arthur Fraser, Jr. Washington, American Chemical Society, [1943?]. 39 pp., charts. (Reprinted from Chemical and Engineering News, Vol. 20, Nos. 20, 22, 23, 24, 1942.)

Analysis of data obtained by questionnaire from members of the American Chemical Society with respect to annual income, monthly salary rate, occupational status, source of employment, and field of specialization, for the period 1926 to 1941, the number of returns represented in the study ranging from 8,538 for the year 1926 to 19,009 for 1941. Data on monthly earnings, taken from this study, were published in the April 1943 Monthly Labor Review (p. 776).

Union wages and hours in the building trades, July 1, 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 66 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 730; reprinted from December 1942 Monthly Labor Review, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Hourly entrance rates paid to common laborers, 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 16 pp., map (chart). (Bull. No. 733; reprinted without change from February 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wages and hours of union motortruck drivers and helpers, June 1, 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 38 pp., chart. (Bull. No. 732; reprinted from January 1943 Monthly Labor Review, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wage structure of the nonferrous-metals industry, 1941–42. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 72 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 729; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, June, July, August, October, 1942, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Wage rates of union street-railway employees, June 1, 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 9 pp., chart. (Bull. No. 731; reprinted from January 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

First report of Nurses Salaries Committee: Salaries and emoluments of female nurses in hospitals. London, Ministry of Health, 1943. 42 pp. (Cmd. 6424.) 9d.

The report contains tables of the salaries and emoluments recommended for different grades of nurses, according to size and type of hospital, in Great Britain.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

Impact of the war on the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, area. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Occupational Outlook Branch, 1943. 88 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Industrial area study No. 1.) Free.

First of a series of studies designed to aid in the development of locally-directed programs of economic readjustment and to indicate the extent to which local readjustment is related to the prospects for high-level economic activity for the Nation as a whole. The emphasis in these studies is on effects of the war on industry as related to employment.

Manpower for victory: Total mobilization for total war. By John J. Corson. New York and Toronto, Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1943. 299 pp., charts, illus. $3.

Presents an over-all picture of the manpower situation in the United States, giving information on requirements, sources, mobilization, and ways of increasing the supply.

Sources of information for the study of national defense and the war effort. Compiled by Dorothy Campbell Tompkins. Berkeley, Calif., University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, September 1942. 49 pp.; mimeographed.

Youth Problems

Report of the National Advisory Committee of the National Youth Administration to the President of the United States. Washington, [1942]. 98 pp.; mimeographed.

Covers the period during which the National Youth Administration has functioned with particular reference to the war emergency. A supplement contains the results of a survey on youth made by the Federal, State, and local advisory committees of the National Youth Administration.

Working with rural youth. Prepared by Edmund de S. Brunner for American Youth Commission. Washington, American Council on Education, 1942. 113 pp. $1.20.

Tells the story of an experiment, in selected areas within a few States, to demonstrate all possible ways by which State, county, and local resources could be used to solve some of the problems of rural youth, including that of employment.

Youth and jobs: Young America rolls up its sleeves. Prepared by Douglas S. Ward and Edith M. Selberg for Committee on Experimental Units of North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. New York, Ginn & Co., 1942. 102 pp., bibliographies, charts, illus. (Unit studies in American problems.) 60 cents.

Presents data concerning remunerative employment of youth, for use as text material for the instruction of high-school students.

Addendum to industrial protection of youth. London, Committee on Wage-Earning Children, 1943. 6 pp.

Expresses concern over the strain on young persons of working unduly long hours—often in blind-alley jobs—and recommends inquiry into the conditions under which they work in Great Britain. The pamphlet supplements the Committee's report on "Industrial protection of youth," issued in 1940.

General Reports

The economic almanac for 1942–43: A handbook of useful facts about business, labor and government in the United States and other areas. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1942. 523 pp. $5.

Puerto Rico: A selected list of recent references. Compiled by Ann Duncan Brown. Washington, Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1943. 44 pp.; mimeographed.

References grouped under economic and social conditions include reports on labor matters.

Comercio interior y comunicaciones, año 1940 [*Chile*]. Santiago, Dirección General de Estadística, 1942. 173 pp.

Contains indexes of cost of living in Santiago and of cost of food in various Chilean cities, and statistics on wholesale and retail prices, number of pilots and mechanics employed by the National Air Line, employment in railway enterprises, and agricultural and industrial production.

Censo general de población 5 de julio de 1938—resumen general del pais [*Colombia*]. Bogotá, Contraloria General, Dirección Nacional de Estadística, 1942. 195 pp., maps, charts.

Contains detailed tables which show the industrial population of Colombia, according to the census of 1938, by political division of the Republic, by industry, by position in the industry (whether owner, employee, laborer, professional man, etc.), and by sex. A brief analytical discussion of the figures is included.

Desarrollo de la política social [*Cuba*]. By the Minister of Labor. (In Trabajo, Ministerio del Trabajo, Habana, March 1943, pp. 307–318.)

Subjects covered in this report include conciliation and arbitration, wages, labor contracts, number of organized unions (by Province), administrative organization for the improvement of labor conditions, and existing and needed legislation.

El contrato de embarco en el Perú. By Eduardo Rosales Puente. (In Informaciones Sociales, Caja Nacional de Seguro Social, Lima, third quarter 1942, pp. 237–263.)

Following a list of the navigation companies and types and numbers of vessels of the Peruvian merchant marine, are data as to the personnel needed for each type of vessel, a summary of legislation protecting seamen, and employment-contract provisions concerning such matters as eligibility of employees to contract, wages, bonuses, working hours, overtime, industrial accidents and compensation for them, paid vacations, termination of contract, various benefits to members of seamen's associations, etc.

Investigations in progress in the United States in the field of Latin American humanistic and social science studies. By Alexander Marchant and Charmion Shelby. Washington, Library of Congress, Hispanic Foundation, 1942. 236 pp.; mimeographed. Preliminary edition.

Includes studies in the field of labor. The references are arranged alphabetically by investigator, and are indexed by field of investigation and by country or region.

Labor and Industry in Britain, No. 1. New York, British Information Services, April 1943. 16 pp. Free.

This first number of a new periodical to be issued monthly by the British Information Services contains brief articles on absenteeism, Britain's arbitration tribunal, and new manpower controls; statistics of unemployment, wages, and working hours; and other information.

Labor in the U. S. S. R. By Margaret Miller. London, British Association for Labor Legislation, 1942. 49 pp. 9d.

Soviet workers in Germany—methods of recruitment and conditions of employment. (In International Labor Review, Montreal, May 1943, pp. 576–590. 60 cents.)

Analyzes German regulations issued up to February 1943 covering conditions of employment, wages, savings, and medical benefits to which civilian workers transferred from occupied parts of the U. S. S. R. for labor in Germany are theoretically entitled.

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