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Women at Work—Metal Cutter

In this Issue . . . Changes in civilian goods . . . Handicapped workers in war industry . . . Productivity of railroad labor . . . War housing

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

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This Issue in Brief

State workmen's compensation laws, 1943.

Marked progress in the field of State workmen's compensation legislation was made in 1943. Broadened general coverage of compensation laws, extension of benefits for occupational diseases either by new laws (2 States) or liberalization of existing acts, creation of second-injury funds in 6 States, and increases in amount of compensation benefits payable were some of the gains registered. A review of legislation in this field in 1943 is given on page 543.

Foreign workers and manpower in Germany.

To assist in providing materials and services for carrying on the war, Germany is using, within the boundaries of the Greater Reich, the services of an estimated 12,000,000 foreign workers. This number includes not only those originally shipped to Germany under the guise of "war prisoners," but also so-called "volunteers" who nevertheless had little choice in the matter. It does not include workers serving the German war machine in conquered but not annexed countries. Among the German people, handicapped persons (even those who are capable of very little work) have been utilized and numerous industries have been "combed out" or closed down in order to obtain more war workers. Page 495.

Wages in lead and zinc mines and mills.

Workers in a representative sample of lead and zinc mines and mills in the Tri-State area (four contiguous counties in Oklahoma, Missouri, and Kansas) received straight-time average hourly earnings ranging from 57.1 cents for watchmen to \$1.127 for muckers in June 1943. Over half of these workers were employed in occupations in which the average hourly earnings ranged from 80 to 90 cents. The entire labor force was composed of male workers. In 1941, the Tri-State area accounted for approximately one-third of the zinc and one-tenth of the lead produced in the United States. Page 558.

Use of handicapped workers in war industry.

That handicapped workers can equal or even excel able-bodied workers in productiveness, if placed in suitable jobs, has been demonstrated by the experience in numerous plants. However, there still remains a large group of disabled whose services have not yet been utilized. The advantages and disadvantages in utilization of the handicapped, and examples of their successful use are given in an article on page 435.

Maintenance-of-membership awards of National War Labor Board.

Increased union stability has resulted from National War Labor Board awards containing maintenance-of-membership clauses. A survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated also that resignations of members during the "escape period" were negligible and that discharges of employment for nonpayment of union dues were also small. Improved relations between management and labor resulted in most cases. Page 524.

Wartime expansion in the machine-tool industry.

Between 1939 and 1943, employment in the machine-tool industry more than tripled. In January 1939 the industry was relatively small, employing only about 30,800 workers; in the same month 4 years later there was a labor force estimated at 122,600. The peak of demand upon the industry for wartime tools and equipment has passed, however, and many plants are converting to the manufacture of munitions. The trends in employment, working hours, and labor turnover in this industry are discussed in an article on page 484.

Productivity of railroad labor.

Under stress of wartime demands the railroads are handling unprecedented amounts of both freight and passenger traffic. Labor productivity has increased considerably, being aided by fuller loading of cars and improvements in both equipment and operating methods. Data on productivity and technological changes are given on page 444.

Working conditions in India.

India, although primarily an agricultural country, has developed some large-scale industries. These industries employ about 5 million workers, of whom some 3 millions are in factories. To regulate the labor conditions of these workers numerous measures have been passed, limiting hours of work, providing a weekly rest day, establishing health and safety standards, requiring the payment of compensation for industrial injuries and certain occupational diseases, etc. An account of the employment and working conditions in the various industries is given in the article on page 452.

New housing for war workers, 1940-43.

The construction of 865,000 dwelling units suitably located for use by war workers and within the price range that they could afford was started by private builders in the 3½-year period from January 1940 through June 1943. Some 456,000 family units were also put under construction by the Federal Government, in addition to dormitory accommodations or trailers. Page 513.

Changes in character of civilian textile products and apparel.

Voluntary changes in production by manufacturers and changes necessitated by shortages of materials and Government regulations have resulted in significant modifications in civilian textile products and apparel. The more important of the recent changes, based upon a review of these regulations and reports obtained from manufacturers and retailers, are described in the article on page 421.

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Recent Changes in the Character of Civilian Textiles and Apparel¹

Summary

THE effect of the war program has been reflected to an increasing extent on consumer-goods markets in recent months. Early in this program, changes in qualities in consumer goods resulted chiefly from manufacturers' attempts to offset advances in costs and thus avoid the necessity of setting higher retail prices. Later, familiar items such as electric refrigerators, washing machines, and household articles requiring large quantities of metals gradually disappeared from the civilian market as the Government limited the use of scarce metals. With the entry of the United States into the war and the resulting increased demands for textiles for military needs, Government regulations were extended to the textile field. Stocks of raw silk held in this country were reserved for military purposes, and limitations were placed upon the civilian use of wool. Certain cotton goods were limited to military use, not because of any shortage of raw cotton, but because military demands require the use of all machines capable of producing certain qualities of military standard.

As a result of the heavy orders for military fabrics in 1942, production for the civilian market was considerably decreased. In order to conserve the available supplies, the War Production Board initiated a style-simplification program through the issuance of a series of orders prohibiting certain style features requiring the use of large quantities of materials. As shortages developed in the work-clothing market, manufacturers were permitted to use priority ratings to assist them in obtaining the required materials.

During 1943 shortages have developed in many essential textile and apparel markets and more positive steps have been taken by the Government to supply the essential civilian needs. Rationing was extended to shoes, when production of durable civilian shoes was limited in order to assure adequate leather supplies to the armed forces. To increase the output of important cotton fabrics, some constructions were standardized in an effort to obtain maximum output, and a specified proportion of looms were earmarked for the production of fabrics essential for civilian use, such as denim for work clothing. In order to channel supplies of knitting yarns to the manufacture of winter underwear, WPB required knitters to allocate specified percentages of yarn output suitable for such underwear to manufacturers of these products.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Price Analysis Division, by Laura Brown Webb.

Several steps have been taken by the Government to insure that available supplies of raw materials will be used in the production of goods of durable qualities. Men's, women's, and children's hose must meet certain quality standards formulated by WPB, and the Office of Price Administration has placed price ceilings on the various qualities of women's rayon hose, by class of distributor. A voluntary "war model" program has been initiated in the production of overalls; this program has been discussed in relation to other commodities, but has not been extended to additional apparel items.

With the extension of Government controls and the development of shortages in many lines, there has been a noticeable tendency on the part of consumers to make purchases in excess of current needs. In order to discourage this practice, the WPB in July 1943 requested retailers to cooperate on a voluntary program designed to avoid certain undesirable promotion policies and practices with respect to the advertising and sale of textiles and textile products. Retailers were requested to discontinue the use in advertising of any mention of fear of scarcities or of difficulty of obtaining goods from manufacturers. Reference to "sales price" was to be limited to true clearance sales; in all other cases price comparisons were to be limited to comparison with ceiling prices. Many retailers had undertaken on their own initiative to limit sales to customers. Various methods of allocation have also been devised by manufacturers. Some are limiting sales to customers on the basis of the dollar volume of their purchases during a specified period, some are allocating on the ratio in which their piece-goods orders were accepted by their suppliers, and some are allocating the goods among their salesmen and permitting them to distribute among their customers as they choose. A number of manufacturers reported, in a recent survey conducted by the Bureau, that they were accepting no orders from new customers. Others are accepting only "very desirable" new customers. Because of the tendency of many consumers to buy higher priced merchandise (i. e., to "trade up") as they receive higher incomes, and because of manufacturers' and retailers' desires to concentrate sales in higher price brackets which ordinarily yield a higher rate of return, lower price lines of many types of apparel and textiles have virtually disappeared from the retailers' shelves. In order that consumers shall not be forced to buy solely in higher price lines, several official actions have recently been undertaken. WPB has required shoe manufacturers to continue production in their previously established price lines, with the same proportion in each line as in the base period. In several OPA pricing orders manufacturers were prohibited from adding higher price lines. In its six-point program designed to make rationing or other severe regulation of textiles unnecessary, WPB announced that it would encourage greater production of lower priced clothing by directing the manufacture of fabrics to this important field. Retailers of men's and boys' clothing are prohibited from introducing in lower price departments, such as bargain basements, ceilings which were established in higher price departments.

Some of these regulations have been announced too recently to have affected the retail market as yet. However, the cumulative effect of voluntary changes in production on the part of manufacturers, as well as changes necessitated earlier by Government regulation and shortages of materials, have already resulted in significant modifications in

goods currently stocked by retailers. Certain of these regulations have not fully accomplished their purposes. There have been some objections by the trade, particularly, to price regulations in relation to quality standards. Moreover, regulations designed to increase production in certain classes of goods and especially to maintain production in the lower price lines have not been uniformly successful. Manufacturers and retailers alike complain that many of the record-keeping requirements are burdensome.

The following discussion describes the more significant modifications that have appeared in the consumer-goods field since October 1942 as a result of either Government regulation or manufacturers' inability to obtain adequate supplies of materials to continue production as formerly.² Reports from retailers and wholesalers were obtained by the Bureau of Labor Statistics' field staff in the course of collecting retail and wholesale price data. Manufacturers are becoming increasingly reluctant, however, to describe the quality of fabrics used in a given price line. This is due for the most part to the fact that as fabric shortages become more acute, they are willing to purchase almost any fabric available to keep their factory in production. For this reason, kinds and qualities of fabrics used from time to time vary considerably. Furthermore, for garments such as women's street dresses, style features have always been considered more important than durability, and manufacturers have had little interest in obtaining construction details on fabric purchased.

Textile Products

WOOL PRODUCTS

Early in January 1942 the Government placed sharp restrictions upon the use of wool for civilian products, and subsequent amendments to the original order limited civilian allotments even more severely, so that by the third quarter of 1942 manufacturers of worsted fabrics were allowed only 10 percent of the poundage used for civilian goods in the corresponding period of 1941 and manufacturers of other wool fabrics were allowed 2½ percent.

The accumulation of record-breaking stocks of wool in this country resulting from the improved ocean-transport situation and the severe limitations placed upon wool for civilian use led to a series of orders, beginning late in 1942, relaxing restrictions on the use of wool for essential civilian needs. It was pointed out, however, that a shift in the scene of military activities might at any time change military requirements or interfere with imports, and that restrictions on wool for civilian use might again have to be tightened. In the latest amendment to the wool allocation order, issued June 8, 1943, WPB eliminated the granting of bonuses for the production of blended yarns and fabrics, increased manufacturers' quotas for the production of worsted fabrics to 70 percent of their consumption for civilian purposes during the corresponding period of 1941, and increased quotas for the production of woolen products to 50 percent of the consumption during this base period.

Government officials have warned that these recent increases in the wool allotments for civilian uses may not, however, result in pro-

² For a description of earlier developments, see Monthly Labor Review February 1941 (pp. 286-291) and November 1942 (pp. 891-902).

portionately great increases in the products manufactured, as shortages of manpower, fuel, and machinery are being felt by this industry.

On August 2, the WPB and the War Department notified manufacturers of woolen and worsted products, holding Army contracts, that they could defer delivery of approximately 50 percent of these contracts for 4 months if they desired, in order to increase production for civilian accounts. In view of the fact that such a deferment is voluntary on the part of manufacturers, it is not known to what extent this will lead to increased production for civilian use. This action was sponsored by the Office of Civilian Requirements of WPB and, according to the trade press, it is believed that the War Department acted favorably upon the proposal because of the present shortage of warehousing facilities. Other military and Lease-Lend orders are not affected by this action. WPB has announced that the materials manufactured under this plan are to be used principally in the production of men's mackinaw and melton-cloth work jackets, children's legging sets, blankets, and other essential items of men's, women's, and children's apparel.

WOOL APPAREL

Because of the large stocks of fabrics for men's wear, which had been produced prior to the issuance to the wool allocation order, in addition to the fact that the induction of large numbers of men into the armed forces removed them from the civilian market, limitations on the use of wool were noticed only slightly in the civilian market for men's wear prior to the spring of 1943. By that time, however, the large inventories had practically disappeared, and garments affected by both the wool allocation and the style simplification orders were predominant in the retailers' stocks.

In March 1943, the Bureau's representatives reported that hard-finish worsted suits for men were difficult to obtain and that blended goods were replacing worsteds in the lower price brackets. By March the shortage of rayon linings and pocketings had also developed, and, according to the trade press, large quantities of suits which had been cut could not be finished because of the dearth of materials.

Production of suits was also said to have been delayed somewhat in the spring of 1943 by the diversion of materials typically used in men's wear and by the conversion of contract shops (which produce much of the men's clothing in the eastern area) to the manufacture of women's ready-to-wear clothing, which was reportedly proving a more profitable operation. These various difficulties resulted in considerable delay in the delivery of suits by many manufacturers, and some retailers received their spring shipments as late as July 1.

Numerous quality changes on men's suits were reported during the winter of 1942 and spring of 1943, according to the Bureau's agents. Lighter-weight fabrics were introduced and blended fabrics were replacing worsteds in the lower price lines. The shifting to war plants of woman shop workers, who did much of the hand detail on men's suits, resulted in the use of more machine-finished suits.

Manufacturers reported in the summer of 1943 that there was some tendency to decrease the number of blended fabrics used in current production of suits. This trend can be attributed in part to consumer resistance to blended fabrics and to the fact that production is now

limited to a greater extent by shortages of manpower and machinery than by raw-wool shortages.

The supply of topcoats and overcoats for the fall and winter 1943-44 will be limited, according to trade press reports. Heretofore, few quality changes have been noted, as large inventories of these fabrics have been carried over from previous seasons. However, mills are now engaged in the production of large quantities of overcoating for military demands, and little machinery is available for civilian use. Furthermore, stocks of the coarser wools customarily used in the production of heavy coats are now more limited, and weavers are inclined to favor lower-weight fabrics in order to obtain greater yardage with their limited materials.

One of the largest producers of men's and boys' sweaters announced in June that it was concentrating its production on sleeveless sweaters in order to stretch available yarn stocks and attain maximum production.³

Blends of rayon, and especially cotton, were used to an increasing extent by manufacturers of women's and girls' coats during the past season. The general use of smaller fur collars on women's coats was also reported, as prices for raw furs soared. Blends were commonly used in women's dresses where soft fabrics were desired. The use of blends for women's clothing has never met the same consumer resistance as in the men's wear field.

COTTON PRODUCTS

Heavy demand for cotton products for military and essential civilian uses has led to the institution of a number of regulations during recent months to channel production in the most desirable manner and to increase output to the maximum. By midyear 1942, manufacturers had been required to divert a specified percentage of their looms engaged in the production of certain civilian fabrics, principally work-clothing products, to the production of goods for military purposes. In order to insure that the remaining fabrics in this category would be used for the most necessary civilian needs, preference ratings were granted to manufacturers of work clothing. In recent months, however, some fabrics have been limited entirely to military use. For example, 50 percent of the looms formerly producing 80 x 80 print cloth, commonly used for women's dresses and men's shirts, are frozen to the production of that cloth, and their entire output is limited to orders bearing preference ratings of AA-5 or better. The rest of these looms are allocated to the production of standardized civilian fabrics. Looms ordinarily producing pillowcases have been ordered to convert for a temporary period to the production of raincoat material required by the armed forces. A revision in the price ceiling for combed yarns going into military products, above the ceiling allowed for the same yarn used for civilian goods, has led to an even greater diversion of yarn to military products than is required by WPB regulation.⁴

In order to insure adequate production of goods for essential civilian needs, certain constructions have been standardized, while in other cases looms engaged in the production of specified fabrics are pro-

³ Daily News Record (New York), June 19, 1943.

⁴ Amendment No. 10 to Revised Price Schedule No. 7, effective May 5, 1943.

hibited from changing to other fabrics. For example, in order to provide a substitute for the 80 x 80 print cloth which is no longer available for civilian goods, manufacturers were required to standardize production of civilian percales into lower-count, lighter-weight fabrics. Those looms formerly producing 80 x 80, 68 x 72, and 64 x 60 print cloth, which are now allocated to civilian production, are permitted to produce only 68 x 64 and 64 x 56 constructions, in order to increase output of the looms to the maximum.⁵ Looms operating on cotton flannel as of April 3 must continue to produce this material and to deliver at least 85 percent of their output to work-glove manufacturers. Looms producing denims on that date are prohibited from changing to the production of other fabrics, and manufacturers must deliver 90 percent of the output from these looms to garment cutters for the manufacture of work clothing.

COTTON APPAREL

The trend toward the use of poorer constructions of cotton fabrics in certain lines of apparel commenced late in 1941, as their prices started advancing, and the practice became quite general in 1942 and early 1943. The Bureau's agents reported the general disappearance of 80 x 80 percales in the production of women's moderate-priced house dresses during the past year, so that, in actuality, the recent order limiting the use of this fabric will affect producers of these garments only slightly. Cheaper fabrics, such as 68 x 72 and 64 x 60, which have been used recently, will necessarily be replaced by the standardized constructions. Trimmings have been kept to a minimum and only plain patterns are available in many stores, with stripes and checks far outnumbering the popular floral patterns which have been curtailed because of higher costs and a limited supply of dyes. Several manufacturers have discontinued the production of larger-size house dresses, usually those above size 38, in order to produce the maximum number of garments from the fabrics available.

Although there has been relatively little substitution of lighter-weight fabrics in men's work clothes, retailers have reported evidences of poorer workmanship in many cases, and there has been some substitution of inferior dyes. Price lines have been maintained in a number of instances by the introduction of nonunion goods in the place of union-label articles, and the substitution of regular finished goods in lines in which only Sanforized products were formerly stocked.

Substitutions of lower-construction fabrics have been quite general in the production of men's business shirts, pajamas, and shorts. Elastic waistbands in shorts and pajamas have been replaced by tie sides or button fastenings, and plastic buttons have been substituted for metal snaps.

RAYON PRODUCTS

Simplification of rayon woven goods was studied by rayon industry committees and Government agencies during the early part of 1943 in order to make the most efficient use of available rayon yarn and fiber. In March 1943, the Office of Civilian Supply set as a goal the reduction of rayon constructions from over 1,400 currently produced to 500 weaves.⁶ A few months later the committee representing the rayon-

⁵ L-99, as amended, March 6, 1943, and May 25, 1943.

⁶ Daily News Record (New York), March 2, 1943.

fabrics industry reported that only 50 percent of the rayon constructions woven in 1942 were being produced in 1943, and recommended end-use control of rayon fabrics from the mills to cutters-up rather than mandatory reduction of styles.⁷

The increasing diversion of viscose-rayon production facilities to high-tenacity yarn for synthetic tires for military vehicles since September 1942 had materially curtailed production of civilian goods, since viscose has been the most popular source of rayon fabrics, knit goods, and hosiery. No industry-wide restrictions on constructions were established, but weavers revived an economy measure initiated several years ago to increase the width of fabrics wherever feasible, particularly to achieve a minimum finished width of 42 inches. The change, most prevalent in crepe and plied-yarn fabrics, was estimated to save labor and machinery, and accomplish an 8-percent gain in production.⁸ Some dress patterns sold for home dressmaking have been prepared for several widths of cloths in order to secure the most economical use of the wider yard goods.

The most outstanding rayon-fabric shortage in the winter and spring of 1943 occurred in the twill-lining field. Although it resulted chiefly from the declining availability of viscose-filament yarn, additional factors such as loss of labor to defense plants in New England, unattractive ceiling prices, and diversion of looms to military-uniform linings, parachutes, airplane cloth, and other war fabrics, contributed to the dilemma facing manufacturers of both men's and women's suits and coats, many of whom had woolen material cut and waiting for lining.⁸ Consequently, yoke and half-linings instead of full linings were used more extensively in many topcoats, and substitute fabrics, such as acetate satin crepes, taffeta, and rayon-cotton mixture twills were employed by the women's wear trade for spring coats and suits.

Acetate rayon, not nearly so adaptable to military needs, cannot be expected to replace viscose rayon to any appreciable extent during the war, because of the limited supply of acetic anhydride available to the acetate yarn and fiber producers. Some weavers have developed new rayon cloths with acetate or combined filament warp and spun-rayon filling to replace 2-ply alpaca and similar combination crepes which become increasingly difficult to produce as tire rayon diversion grows. These new dress fabrics will appear in the fall season of 1943.⁹

RAYON APPAREL

Shortages of rayon have been apparent in the retail field for several months. In the fall of 1942, Bureau representatives reported that many lines of inexpensive-quality rayon dresses were disappearing from the market and that manufacturers were stretching available supplies of rayon fiber by weaving rayon and cotton mixtures for the lower price lines. In March 1943 they reported that spun-rayon wash frocks were difficult to obtain. At the same time there was a noticeable trend toward the discontinuance of the lowest price lines for women's rayon panties and slips as shortages of rayon became more acute.

Recent reports from manufacturers have described the tendency toward the greater use of trimmings on women's rayon street dresses

⁷ Daily News Record (New York), July 14, 1943.

⁸ Rayon Organon (New York), June 1943.

⁹ Daily News Record (New York), May 6, 1943.

during the past year. This trend is said to have resulted from features of an OPA price order¹⁰ dealing with the pricing of women's outerwear which recognized that the industry builds its products to price lines, and thus changes qualities frequently rather than attempting to maintain quality standards and pricing the garment accordingly. This regulation applies to garments of any fiber, but its effect was especially noticeable on women's rayon street dresses. The order stipulated that manufacturers were to continue to manufacture the same priced garments that they were producing at the time the order went into effect and that total direct costs should not fall below a stipulated amount for each price line. Partly as a result of the fact that at the present time manufacturers find it necessary to buy whatever piece goods are available and are not able to stipulate the price which they will give for rayon materials, considerable variation in fabric cost is experienced between cuttings. Consequently, in order to build to the next allowed price line rather than take a loss by selling in the next lower price line, many manufacturers have increased their use of trimmings. Unfortunately, this technique has not increased the utility of the dresses although, in such cases, the total cost to the consumer has been advanced. One extreme case was reported of a manufacturer who built up his trimming cost by the addition of an extra belt and justified this procedure by contending that women lost belts to dresses and could not purchase suitable ones to replace them. Some dresses with elaborate novelty trim have a ticket attached reading that the dress may be worn with the pin, button, or belt, detached from the garment, indicating that the manufacturer does not consider it essential to the fundamental design of the garment.

Leather Products: Shoes

Footwear was the first article of apparel to be rationed. The order limiting the purchase of shoes was one of several designed to equalize soaring demand and declining production of civilian footwear resulting from limitations previously placed on civilian uses of shoe leathers. Temporary exemption of certain "platform" and other varieties of play shoes eased manufacturers' and distributors' hardships at the outset of the shoe-rationing program, as did the complete exemption of house slippers and footwear not fabricated from leather or rubber. In July 1943 the OPA permitted shoe retailers to dispose of a limited portion of their stocks without requiring ration stamps, by selling odd-lot and other problem shoes at reduced prices. For the first 2 weeks, only such merchandise actually in stock was sold ration-free, but thereafter manufacturers' releases of odd lots were salable without coupon if so advertised.

A tendency noticeable in other fields of consumer goods for purchasers with increased incomes to select higher-priced merchandise was intensified in the footwear lines by the institution of rationing.¹¹ The WPB, in order to prevent manufacturers from transferring operations to more expensive shoes for which insufficient leather was available, required all producers to adhere to their established price lines in direct proportion to the volume of production estab-

¹⁰ MPR 287, effective December 15, 1942.

¹¹ Shoe and Leather Reporter (Boston), November 21, 1942 (for consumer trading-up prior to rationing); Women's Wear Daily (New York), June 18, 1943 (initial rationing period).

lished in an earlier 6-month period, and prohibited concentration of output on the higher-priced shoes.¹² However, in order to augment the supply of men's work shoes, children's and infants' footwear, WPB authorized a 15-percent increase in the output of men's work shoes, and a 25-percent increase in men's safety shoes and children's and infants' shoes. Manufacturers of misses' and children's shoes retailing for less than \$2 were also allowed to shift production to higher price lines as long as the retail price did not exceed \$2.¹³ These adjustments, effected in the sixth month of shoe rationing, were designed to promote production of essential footwear and meet consumer demand. Shoes made of materials other than leather or rubber were also subjected to the production-quota restriction beginning September 1, 1943, so that skilled labor and machinery would not be diverted to ration-free footwear of questionable durability.

Outright standardization of civilian footwear in order to conserve leather and production facilities was not imposed on the industry; but various additional regulations (such as limitations on heel heights and the use of decorative trimmings), issued since the initial shoe-conservation order in September 1942,¹⁴ have accomplished further simplification, particularly in women's "style" shoes, and have promoted the elimination of approximately half of the shoe styles prevalent in August 1942.¹⁵ The reduction of permissible shoe-leather colors from six to four (black, white, and two shades of brown) was another measure introduced to promote greater volume of production of fewer models.¹⁶

Greater participation of women in factory work and the necessity for more walking, as a result of gasoline rationing, have popularized the low-heeled, sturdy welt shoes as well as the comfortable arch type of oxford. Low-cut work shoes for men have become more popular since the shortage of men's weight leathers extends to upper materials, particularly elk and retanned cowhide.

Shoe manufacturers have introduced a number of substitutes for leather soles, especially for women's shoes. Among these materials put into production during the first half of 1943 have been several varieties of wood, made flexible by cutting in crisscross fashion, or plywood chemically impregnated; cotton soles saturated with glycerine; rope made water-repellant and reinforced with reclaimed rubber; plasticized felt, treated canvas, plasticized lace; woven cotton treated with synthetic resins; and vinylite mounted on leather. In order to stretch the use of leather as far as possible, some manufacturers in need of outsoles for women's shoes have resorted to leather formerly used for innersoles of men's shoes or other similar purposes,¹⁷ and one firm producing better-grade footwear for women terminates the outsole at the shank instead of extending the sole for the entire length of the shoe as is customary. The dearth of sturdy, heavy leather soles caused by the allocation of the better grades of leather to military and Lend-Lease production since March 1942 has augmented the use of reclaimed-rubber composition outsoles in men's work shoes.

¹² WPB Conservation Order M-217 as amended February 19, 1943.

¹³ WPB Conservation Order M-217, as amended July 28, 1943.

¹⁴ WPB Conservation Order M-217, as originally issued September 10, 1942.

¹⁵ Hide and Leather and Shoes (Chicago), June 19, 1943, p. 10.

¹⁶ WPB Conservation Order M217 as amended February 13, 1943.

¹⁷ American Shoemaking (Boston), March 31, 1943, p. 12.

The practice of not inserting a lining in sturdy, medium and lower price lines became more common in the spring and summer of 1943, although it means that tanners must give more attention to the finishing of the inner side of upper leather intended for unlined shoes. Some leathers have been dyed in such a manner that a disagreeable odor results and the color rubs off, while certain forms of reclaimed rubber soles leave black marks on floors. Substitutes for rubber shoe cements have not always been satisfactory, according to retailers, one of whom noticed a trend toward McKay-sewed shoes for that reason. Many shoe dealers in the first half of 1943 remarked upon the inferior workmanship as well as the lower grade of leather in both uppers and soles of newly acquired shoes. Inability to procure missing sizes and better-quality shoes, to round out depleted stocks, also began to trouble shoe retailers. Some preferred to drop the lowest price lines for which demand had declined.

Reduction and Simplification of Styles

Recent Government regulations relating to the reduction and simplification of styles of consumer goods have, for the most part, extended this technique of conserving raw material and labor to additional commodities, as well as placing further restrictions on commodities to which the earlier orders applied. In recent months manufacturers in such widely separated fields as knit underwear and wood household furniture have been required to reduce the number of styles manufactured. A recent development of considerable importance has been the tying of quality standards, established for the purpose of obtaining maximum durability with a given amount of raw materials and labor, to price ceilings in the case of women's rayon hosiery, men's "war model" overalls, and cotton-flannel shirts.

MEN'S AND BOYS' APPAREL

In March 1942 the WPB issued its first style-simplification order, M-73, which applied to men's and boys' clothing. It had for its purpose the conservation of wool fabrics through simplification of garments and the elimination of unnecessary styles. Certain maximum measurements were stipulated in relation to size, and the sweep of topcoats and overcoats and the lap on double-breasted models were limited. Two-trouser suits, vests with double-breasted suits, belted-model coats, pleats and cuffs on trousers, and patch pockets were prohibited.

Early in June 1943 the original order was amended to permit the use of either real or simulated cuffs on men's trousers. However, the limitations on in-seam measurements on trousers were left unchanged, so that in reality only shorter men will find enough material in the trousers to allow for a real cuff. The amended order was extended to include all fabrics used in men's and boys' clothing, with the exception of garments made of nonwool summer-weight cloths, weighing 3 yards per pound or less. Previously, the order had applied only to wool garments.

In November 1942 the WPB issued Limitation Order L-169, affecting men's and boys' shirts. Lengths were limited, and bi-swing or box-pleated backs and pleated fronts, and other pleats requiring excessive use of cloth, were prohibited.

WPB Limitation Order L-180, applying to pajamas, prohibited the use of collars; frogs, pipings, and other decorations; cuffs on either sleeves or trousers; and sashes, except drawstrings. Only one pocket may be placed on the garment.

Continuous and increasing demands made upon the work-clothing industry for military and Lend-Lease purposes as well as for workers in various war industries and agricultural areas caused control over production to become necessary in 1942. To insure the conservation of fabrics and the production of adequate supplies of utility garments, the Government issued an order specifying the maximum and minimum yardage which could be used in various types of garments and prohibiting certain construction features which were believed to affect the durability of the garments only slightly, if at all.¹⁸ In order to channel fabrics into the production of work clothing, preference ratings were assigned to specified types and weights of fabrics to be used in the production of men's work garments.¹⁹

Shortages in the civilian work-clothing market became more acute late in 1942 and the spring of 1943, in spite of this program. Civilian buyers found it increasingly difficult to obtain chambray to be used in the production of work shirts, as a result of heavy purchases made by the Navy; Army orders for 90 million yards of herringbone twill practically removed that fabric also from the civilian market. To some extent the tight supply situation was relieved by the sale to civilians of goods rejected by the Army. In an effort to encourage further the production of simplified types of overalls and overall jackets, OPA in April 1943 announced a "war model" program for overalls and overall jackets—the first such program introduced. While the WPB order (L-181) placed a limit upon the yardage used and prohibited certain wasteful construction features, the "war model" program²⁰ set very detailed minimum specifications as to fabric requirements, garment dimensions, and size ranges which must be manufactured in order to come within the provisions of the regulation. The labeling requirements made it necessary to indicate on each garment the weight of the fabric used in its production, the shrinkage tolerance, and the name or code number of the manufacturer. Production under this plan is entirely voluntary on the part of the manufacturer, but if he produces under the regulation his goods are exempt from the General Maximum Price Regulation, and both manufacturer's and retailer's selling prices are placed under dollar-and-cent ceilings, the exact level depending upon the type of retailer buying the overalls.

It was hoped by OPA that manufacturers would concentrate production on war-model overalls and thus obtain maximum output with the production facilities and labor supply available. According to the trade press, however, there has been no appreciable shift to the production of war models. Manufacturers with well-known brand names, it is stated, do not wish to have their names associated with products which they contend are of quality inferior to those previously produced, for fear of consumer resistance to their brands after the war. Other criticisms by trade representatives center in their concern that under this differential pricing system, retail buying will shift from small stores and other independent outlets to mail-

¹⁸ L-181, issued August 8, 1942.

¹⁹ M-207, issued August 22, 1942.

²⁰ MPR-208, amendment 3 issued April 13, 1943.

order houses and chain distributors, and in their fear that the program may be shifted from a voluntary to a compulsory basis.

WOMEN'S AND GIRLS' APPAREL

The WPB Limitation Order L-85, issued April 6, 1942, stabilized the length and fullness of skirts in order to avoid the development of such styles as would lead to a waste of millions of yards of material. The order prohibited such features as French cuffs on sleeves, balloon sleeves and patch pockets, and manufacture of wool suit and coat ensembles of more than two pieces at one unit price, and established maximum coat and skirt lengths and sweeps. It also simplified non-functional features. The first amendment to this order, issued May 25, 1943, further limited the sweep of skirts, and for the first time placed limitations on hip dimensions and length of sleeves. In addition, controls were placed on the amount of material used for such trimmings as pockets, bows, ruffles, and ties. The amendment limited, for the first time, measurements for neckwear and maternity dresses, and banned double-breasted suits and jackets, as well as culottes, reversible skirts, and quilted skirts.

As the number of women engaged in industrial war work increased and as shortages of women's work clothing developed, the use of preference ratings was extended to include the procurement of fabrics for the manufacture of women's work clothing.²¹ This enabled work-clothing manufacturers to obtain materials more readily. These ratings were at first applicable to 14 types of cottons and 5 types of rayons for women's clothing, but the trade contended that many materials acquired in this manner were used in the production of sports clothing and house dresses rather than for heavy-duty work clothing. To limit the materials obtained through this procedure to the production of work clothing, rayons were eliminated from the group to which such preference ratings were assigned and the types of cotton fabrics were reduced from 14 to 5. Nonessential construction features were banned in the manufacture of such clothing.

Feminine lounging wear and lingerie were subjected to more strict limitations in an amendment to L-118, issued on January 20, 1943. The ban on all-wool lounging robes was lifted, however, by the recent amendment to the wool allocation order.²²

In February 1943, WPB issued a limitation order (L-247), reducing by approximately 75 percent the number of styles and fabrics that could be used for men's, women's, and children's knit underwear. This order did not impose controls on specifications of garments, except to eliminate decorative trimming which does not increase serviceability and to ban rayon striping and the use of more than 50-percent rayon fiber in the construction of any of these garments. Maximum and minimum weights of rayon fabrics which may be used are designated. The order requires the elimination of highly styled items which are wasteful of material, and concentrates production on models which permit maximum utilization of manpower, production facilities, and raw materials. In an amendment to this order, issued May 7, 1943, manufacturers of women's and men's rayon knit union suits were limited to two models and two fabrics for each model.

The maximum amount of elastic permitted in the manufacture of women's foundation garments was specified in an order (L-90) issued

²¹ M-207, Schedule 3, issued November 21, 1942.

²² M-73, as amended June 8, 1943.

in April 1942. In an amendment, issued on December 15, 1942, restrictions on the use of elastic were relaxed to encourage the use of scrap elastic. The restriction on the production of brassieres was removed, since scrap elastic is generally used in the manufacture of these garments. The use of new elastic in garter belts and hose supporters was limited still further by the order, but restrictions were relaxed if scrap materials were used. In order to conserve metals, the amended order limits the number of hose supporters on any garment to a total of four.

HOSIERY

Men's, women's, and children's hosiery have been subjected to various types of design and price controls arising from the need to conserve supplies of rayon and long-staple cotton, and to keep retail prices at a reasonable level. Comprehensive Government regulations relating to construction, color, and prices were applied to women's rayon hosiery. Announcements that a stabilization program was under consideration had been made known previous to the issuance of the OPA order MPR 339 on March 8, 1943. That order established maximum prices at the retail and wholesale levels for specified types of hosiery. The highest prices were allowed for grade A hosiery for which OPA set up standards. These standards were designed to insure adequate length of the hose and durable constructions. To discourage diversions from these standards, all hosiery failing to meet the specifications was to be designated as grade B and was subject to much lower price ceilings than grade A products after July 15. Ceiling prices were also established for substandard goods and seconds. In order to inform customers regarding constructions and ceiling prices, manufacturers were required to stamp on the welt of each pair of rayon hosiery sold after July 15 the grade, ceiling price, and needle or gauge.

The OPA announced on July 15 that, effective immediately, the requirement that the grade be marked on the hose was withdrawn, although the labeling requirements relative to ceiling price and needle or gauge construction remained in effect. This action resulted from the passage of Federal legislation limiting compulsory grade labeling. However, WPB had issued an order on April 2, 1943,²³ setting standards for the production of women's rayon hose which closely paralleled those set up for grade A hose in the OPA order. Consumers were thus guaranteed better-quality hose, however, since manufacturers have no choice but to produce durable-quality hose according to these standards, except upon express authority from WPB. This authority is given after it is determined that designated machines are not capable of producing hose meeting these specified standards and that products of these machines are needed for the civilian economy.

Maximum wholesale prices were established by MPR 339 on identical lines of hosiery for three classes of purchasers, depending upon their volume of sales. Specific retail prices were likewise established for two categories of dealers, depending upon the dollar value of their sales; retailers doing a small volume of business and thus ordinarily paying higher prices for their purchases were allowed higher ceilings. No price differentials were established for manufacturers'

²³ L-274, effective May 15, 1943.

brands of nationally advertised hose, and this feature of the order has led to considerable criticism on the part of manufacturers of such branded merchandise, who contend that the order required the lowering of prevailing prices on nationally advertised brands while it permitted an increase on unbranded lines, especially in chain stores.

The WPB order on style simplification of hosiery applies to men's and children's hose as well as to women's full-fashioned hose. The order prohibits manufacturers of men's hose from splicing or reinforcing soles in cotton hose, from using more than five colors (in addition to white and three war-service colors) in any one style of hose, and from knitting fancy half-hose in patterns other than those manufactured during the 2 months immediately preceding the issuance of the order. Somewhat similar restrictions were imposed on producers of children's hose.

Effect of Changes in Character of Consumer Goods on Cost-of-Living Index

Consumers' buying habits have necessarily been altered considerably as a result of the many changes made in the character of the goods which they purchase. The recognition of these changes in the computation of price statistics involves many problems. The Bureau of Labor Statistics, in order that its prices shall be representative of goods currently sold in large volume on the retail market, has made frequent changes in the list of commodities priced and in the specifications used for obtaining these prices. In addition, commodities no longer generally available to the civilian population have been removed from the cost-of-living index. Specifications used for pricing the various apparel commodities affected by recent Government regulations have likewise been revised from time to time. Suggestions have been obtained periodically from manufacturers as to changes which should be made in these specifications as methods of production are altered to meet supply situations.

The Bureau has also taken into consideration the effect of the disappearance of the lower price lines. When a lower price line is discontinued, and a higher one, which comes within the limits of the same specification, is introduced, the difference between the two is treated as a price increase. When goods meeting the same specification were formerly carried in both price lines and the lower price line is dropped, the price increase is computed as one-half the difference between the two, on the assumption that some of the consumers formerly made their purchases in the higher price lines.²⁴

The representatives of the Bureau, who collect retail prices, are told occasionally by retailers that the quality of the merchandise has been somewhat cheapened, but that the change appears minor in character and the goods continue to meet the specifications used by the Bureau to obtain prices, or that the change is of such a character that no monetary value can be assigned. For example, the number of buttons put on a pajama coat may have been reduced, or the stitching has been less carefully done than formerly. Since there is no feasible way of making quantitative allowances for these changes, such information is reported in detail by the Bureau's agents and is used in interpreting current conditions in the commodity market.

²⁴ For a detailed description of these changes, see *Monthly Labor Review*, July 1943 (pp. 82-95).

Use of Handicapped Workers in War Industry¹

Summary

INCREASING numbers of handicapped and disabled workers have been absorbed into industry during the war period, but a substantial group still remains unemployed. In the present manpower emergency, this group constitutes an important potential reserve of efficient workers. Experience has shown that such persons, properly placed in industry, may equal or even exceed in productiveness the nonhandicapped. The key to their effective use is selective placement.

During the year July 1943 to July 1944, it is estimated, a total of 3.6 million workers must be transferred from less-essential industries or recruited from among those previously unemployed, if the needs of the war industries and armed services are to be met.² To achieve success in this endeavor will require that every available means of increasing manpower be adopted.

The Reserve of Handicapped Persons

It is not known exactly how many disabled persons are available for employment in industry. The U. S. Public Health Service states:

It has been estimated that as many as 8 million men,³ and about as many women of working age are suffering from some degree of physical handicap that ordinarily would make it difficult and in some instances impossible for them to obtain employment. Of these 8 million handicapped males possibly almost 7 million are capable of working without rehabilitation. Many of these men now hold jobs but should they lose them or change employment there is always the possibility that they will be rejected for other similar jobs because of their physical handicap. Moreover, it has been estimated that approximately 1 million men of the 8 million need rehabilitation before they can be employed in an occupation commensurate with their education or ability, probably then requiring selective placement.⁴

It has been generally accepted that there are between 2½ and 3 million physically handicapped individuals available for industrial employment. About half of these probably need vocational rehabilitation, and only about a million can be placed without further training.⁵ This group is maintained by the yearly addition of more than 100,000 workers who are physically impaired in industrial accidents.⁶ It is further estimated that each year of participation in the war will add 100,000 war injured and disabled.⁷

Placements of disabled persons in gainful occupations have been small, in comparison with the estimated 2½ to 3 million persons available. The U. S. Employment Service, which is responsible nationally for the placement of the physically handicapped, reports

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division by Frances J. Montgomery and Sylvia E. Lurie under the direction of W. Duane Evans.

² War Manpower Commission Release of June 28, 1943.

³ This estimate includes both those in the labor force and those not in the labor force.

⁴ Manual of Industrial Hygiene and Medical Service in War Industries, by W. B. Saunders. Philadelphia, 1943.

⁵ The Manpower Review (Washington), January 1943 (p. 3): The Physically Handicapped: Assets not Liabilities.

⁶ Estimated by U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of Industrial Accidents.

⁷ Estimate of U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Rehabilitation Division.

that 91,396 such persons were placed during the year 1942. This figure represents an increase of 72 percent over the previous year and an increase of 230 percent over 1940. Placements of the physically handicapped have also increased in relation to total placements made by the agency, rising from 0.7 percent in the last quarter of 1940 to 1.8 percent in the first quarter of 1943 (see table).

The rehabilitation departments of the various States, acting in cooperation with the Vocational Rehabilitation Division of the U. S. Office of Education, have likewise expanded their placements of the handicapped since the beginning of the war. The Division estimates that during 1943-44 about 40,000 persons will undergo rehabilitation.

To placements by the U. S. Employment Service and State rehabilitation agencies should be added the large number of persons placed through private agencies or absorbed into industry through normal methods of individual hiring by the employer; no figures are available to indicate the number of these additional placements. Nevertheless, it is clear from available reports that, although industry is rapidly employing more physically handicapped workers, there still remains a large number of such persons whose abilities are not being utilized.

Total Placements and Placements of Physically Handicapped by Public Employment Offices, First Quarter 1940 to First Quarter 1943¹

Year and quarter	Total placements	Placements of the physically handicapped		Year and quarter	Total placements	Placements of the physically handicapped	
		Number	Percent of total placements			Number	Percent of total placements
1940	3,782,984	27,703	0.7	1942	6,938,418	91,396	1.3
First quarter	667,576	5,628	.8	First quarter	1,285,643	14,318	1.1
Second quarter	974,008	7,221	.7	Second quarter	1,801,791	23,818	1.3
Third quarter	991,410	6,829	.7	Third quarter	1,946,222	22,913	1.2
Fourth quarter	1,149,990	8,025	.7	Fourth quarter	1,904,762	30,347	1.6
1941	5,428,846	53,224	1.0	1943: First quarter	2,025,534	35,923	1.8
First quarter	1,083,806	8,145	.8				
Second quarter	1,414,093	14,972	1.1				
Third quarter	1,554,333	15,597	1.0				
Fourth quarter	1,376,614	14,510	1.1				

¹ Data are from War Manpower Commission. Figures for 1940 and 1941 include agricultural and exclude supplementary placements; those for 1942 and 1943 exclude agricultural and include supplementary placements.

Successful Use of Handicapped Workers

The fact that substantial numbers of handicapped workers have been placed through the U. S. Employment Service and the various rehabilitation agencies supplies abundant proof that handicapped or disabled persons can be used successfully in industry. Persons suffering all types of handicaps have found places in a wide variety of jobs. For example, the Vocational Rehabilitation Division of the U. S. Office of Education reports that 3,349 disabled persons were trained and placed in suitable occupations in war industries during the third quarter of 1942. Of these, 41 percent were in skilled occupations, 23 percent in clerical and sales work, 13 percent in

government positions, 11 percent in professional and managerial positions, 5 percent in semiskilled jobs, 3 percent in service trades, and 3 percent in unskilled jobs. Considered by type of disability, 58 percent of the cases were orthopedic, 12 percent had heart or lung ailments, 9 percent had defective vision, 7 percent were hard of hearing, 5 percent were deaf, and 1 percent were blind.

Many large corporations have definite programs relating to the employment of the physically handicapped. One such corporation, the Ford Motor Co., employs over 11,000 persons who have some form of physical defect, and 10 percent of these are blind. In one of its largest plants about 10 percent of the men employed are handicapped in some manner.⁸ The company's policy is explained as follows:

No company regards such employment as charity or altruism. All our handicapped workers give full value for the wages and their tasks are carried out with absolutely no allowances or special considerations. Our real assistance to them has been merely the discovery of tasks which would develop their usefulness.⁹

The U. S. Civil Service Commission states that the established policy of the Federal Government is to make full use in the Federal service of those physically handicapped. The Commission reports that more than 10,500 handicapped persons have already been placed in Government service. Numerous other examples could be given; a few will be cited later.

Problem of Using the Physically Disabled

The problem of employing physically handicapped persons is not new. The movement to train and place the disabled in useful employment was fostered by private agencies before the present century. Government interest began in the early 1900's when some States first enacted workmen's compensation laws providing for medical attention and payment of compensation in connection with industrial accidents. Some of these laws included a provision for furnishing artificial aids which would restore the worker's employability. After World War I, Congress established the U. S. Veterans' Bureau, and included among its functions the rehabilitation of disabled veterans. In cooperation with trade schools and various institutions, the Bureau rehabilitated 129,000 veterans and placed 125,000 of them in jobs.¹⁰ Since the workmen's compensation laws did not provide for the training of disabled workers and since the Veterans' Bureau program was for ex-servicemen only, various States established rehabilitation services for disabled civilians after 1920. The functions of these services included counsel in the selection of suitable occupations, physical restoration, and such training as might be needed to fit the physically handicapped for employment. Later the U. S. Employment Service undertook the placement of those physically handicapped persons who did not need special training.

Despite the efforts of public and private agencies, there are still large numbers of physically handicapped persons who have not been able to obtain employment. Moreover, the present interest in the problem does not seem to be of a character likely to produce a lasting solution, as employment of the disabled is being considered mainly

⁸ *Factory Management and Maintenance* (Albany, N. Y.), March 1943 (p. 108).

⁹ *Saturday Evening Post*, February 6, 1943 (p. 16): *Why We Employ Aged and Handicapped Workers*, by Edsel Ford.

¹⁰ *Manpower Review* (Washington), January 1943 (p. 10): *The Road Back*, by O. D. Hollenbeck.

in connection with efforts to relieve wartime manpower shortages. In addition, some are beginning to realize with greater force that the creation of additional large numbers of disabled persons is one of the inevitable consequences of war, and that some thought must be given to their treatment when the war is over.

For many years the waste of the natural resources of the United States has been pointed out; however, human resources have been wasted just as lavishly. The physical prerequisites for industrial employment have in many cases been unnecessarily restrictive and have been established without regard to the actual requirements of the job. There is no reason why an applicant for a sedentary job should be required to be fitted physically to do hard manual labor, yet many employers have in the past set up requirements which in effect accomplished just this. It was easy to indulge in this wasteful practice when conditions were such that not even all the physically fit could be employed in industry. Nevertheless, such standards of employment arbitrarily relegate many potentially useful and efficient workers to the ranks of the permanently unemployed.

The present situation very clearly demands that the number of workers be increased by every available means, since the Nation's military strength will be determined finally by the manpower that can be mobilized and used effectively. Every handicapped worker employed releases some able-bodied worker for the armed forces or for a job elsewhere, perhaps in some critical operation where the worker must have full use of all his faculties. Moreover, it is possible that the experience gained during the present period of stress will be of aid in establishing some more enduring policy for the post-war period.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Handicapped Workers

DISADVANTAGES

It should be recognized at the outset that there are certain disadvantages in employing disabled persons. Because they frequently lack industrial experience, it may be necessary to give them special training. Minor changes in equipment or job routines may be required. In some cases, it is considered desirable to check periodically on the condition of persons with particular types of handicaps, a step which is not generally necessary in the case of able-bodied workers. For example, at the General Motors plants, persons with arrested cases of tuberculosis are X-rayed every 3 months to be sure their physical condition is satisfactory, and those with heart defects are under continuous supervision by the company's medical department.⁸

A certain degree of flexibility in production arrangements may have to be sacrificed in order to use significant numbers of handicapped workers, since such employees in general cannot be transferred from job to job as readily as the able-bodied. Consequently, in certain types of operations, especially in small plants, the necessity for versatility may limit the number of handicapped workers which can be used effectively. In most large plants, however, where job specialization and routine tasks are more common, this disadvantage is less serious.

⁸ Factory Management and Maintenance (Albany, N. Y.), March 1943 (p. 108).

An important factor in connection with the employment of handicapped workers is the current status of workmen's compensation laws. These laws, passed for the protection of the injured worker, in some cases operate against him by making it more difficult for him to obtain employment after an injury. Under many of the workmen's compensation laws, an employer of physically disabled persons may be assuming a double risk: first, in the event that a disabled employee receives a second injury, the employer may be held liable for the combined effects of both injuries; and second, the so-called "merit" rating system may raise his insurance rates on all of his employees.¹¹

By January 1943, 14 States had revised their laws in order to prevent placing full responsibility for total disability upon the employer of a person who suffers a second injury. Since January 1943, 6 more States, including such industrially important ones as Michigan, Missouri, Rhode Island, and Washington, have created second-injury funds. In some instances, the employer is liable only for the second injury; in others, the cost of the disability is shared by the fund and the employer.¹²

Many more States will have to revise their laws if this barrier to the employment of the physically handicapped is to be removed. An employer would be more apt to consider the handicapped worker for long-term employment if he could be assured that his costs would not be increased by extra compensation payments and higher insurance rates. The establishment of second-injury funds not only removes this source of discrimination against the disabled, but also affords handicapped workers the protection which, under the principle of workmen's compensation, they were always meant to have.

A few States permit an employee to waive his rights to compensation for additional injuries. However, this system is actively opposed by many who feel that it removes the protection of workmen's compensation from the very workers who individually need it most, and the laws of many States expressly forbid it. The National Conference on Labor Legislation, held in November 1942 and attended by delegates of the Governors of 36 States, adopted a program which included the following statement:

In order to make possible full utilization of manpower, some provision needs to be made for preventing a higher cost of workmen's compensation due to the employment of handicapped and older workers. This should not be done by permitting such workers to waive their rights under the workmen's compensation laws because this defeats the full purpose of the laws and undermines sound administration. Instead, the conference recommends that this provision be made through setting up special funds, such as second injury funds. In this way the employer will carry only the normal cost of an accident while the added cost of the cumulative effects of the second injury will be borne by the fund.¹³

ADVANTAGES

While an employer should consider carefully these possible disadvantages, he should give equal attention to certain advantages in the employment of handicapped persons. An outstanding characteristic of most such workers is their job stability. Perhaps because of their greater difficulty in securing employment, they are far less likely to

¹¹ Workmen's Compensation Laws in Relation to the Employment of the Physically Handicapped, Washington, U. S. Office of Education, January 1941 (p. 1).

¹² See article, page 543 of this issue.

¹³ Résumé of the Proceedings of the Ninth National Conference on Labor Legislation, Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Bulletin No. 55 (p. 15).

seek new positions. Moreover, less absenteeism and a better accident record are usually reported for the handicapped, and, especially where their disability is orthopedic in nature, their general health may be better than average. As regards productiveness, it has already been indicated that when placed in jobs suited to their capacities they frequently outdo normal workers.

A survey contrasting handicapped with normal workers was carried out by the Western Electric Co. some years ago. In a group of 652 workers whose general health was normal but who had some physical handicap, it was found that there were fewer absences because of illness and a lower accident rate than among normal employees. The production record of the handicapped group was considered satisfactory, and many of the individual workers displayed superior ability.¹⁴

The Connecticut Rehabilitation Service, which in cooperation with the National Industrial Conference Board is making a study of the output rates of handicapped workers, states:

Based on experience so far, when handicapped workers are placed in selective employment, their output is equal to that of the physically normal. In addition, absenteeism is in general far less in this group than among those not handicapped. The extent to which handicapped workers are accepted in war industries is gratifying. Industry needs workers and the handicapped group seems to be proving its mettle. These persons work on practically all types of jobs in which employment is available in war plants except where heavy labor is required.¹⁵

The Minneapolis Artificial Limb Co. with 145 employees, 95 percent of whom are disabled, describes its experience as follows:

The firm is not running a curative institution. Does not have special machine attachments to aid crippled in doing work. Nor is any attention directed towards giving workers tasks which will, say, help restore an affected limb. Work absences caused directly or indirectly by physical disabilities are practically unknown. Labor turnover is at zero. The average length of time workers have been with the company is 15 years.¹⁶

An unusual illustration of the productiveness of handicapped workers is afforded by the recent achievement of Brooklyn Sheltered Industries and its subcontracting affiliate, Illinois Industries for the Blind. Accepting the largest order for sheets and pillowcases ever placed by the U. S. Maritime Commission, this organization began production early in 1942. Two factories were re-equipped and two large groups of physically handicapped men and women, more than half of them blind, were trained. On May 1, 1943, these workers were awarded the Maritime Commission's "M" and Victory Fleet Flag for excellence of workmanship. A factor in the award was the attendance record of 98.5 percent set by the group during the winter months. In presenting the award, Admiral H. L. Vickery said, "You have been making deliveries speedily and efficiently—and your attendance record of 98.5 percent should be an example to workers everywhere."¹⁷

Selective Placement

Selective placement, which implies the fitting of each worker into a job where his physical defect does not constitute a handicap, is the key to the effective use of the handicapped in industry.

¹⁴ An Experiment with Vocationally Handicapped Workers, by J. W. Dietz, Western Electric Co., 1931.

¹⁵ Letter to U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics from E. P. Chester, director of Connecticut Rehabilitation Service, March 2, 1943.

¹⁶ Factory Management and Maintenance (Albany, N. Y.), January 1943 (p. 116): We Hire Men and Women Who Are Physically Handicapped, by Ray Trautman.

¹⁷ Marine Engineering and Shipping Review (New York), June 1943 (p. 256).

In the past, jobs have too frequently been analyzed, from the placement standpoint, only in terms of the training and experience deemed necessary. Each applicant was then required to meet certain general physical standards, which might or might not be related to the specific job for which he applied. Proper utilization of handicapped persons requires that jobs be analyzed not only with respect to training and experience but also in terms of the specific physical qualifications which a satisfactory worker must possess. Additional physical specifications should be treated as irrelevant.

REVIEW OF OCCUPATIONS

The first step to be taken by an employer in implementing a general policy of utilizing the handicapped is a careful review of existing occupations from the standpoint of their physical requirements. Usually, a basic analysis is made for each job, listing the specific physical attributes needed to carry it out. This information is then used to establish lists of occupations which are suitable for persons with various defects. Such a survey gives personnel officials the information needed to appraise the employment possibilities of each job applicant in direct relation to any disability which he may have.

A survey of this type made by the Consolidated Aircraft Co. at San Diego indicated that 60 percent of the jobs in the plant could be held by persons with a severe visual defect in one eye, and 50 percent by persons who had full use of one arm and only partial use of the other. About 10 percent of the jobs were completely sedentary and so were suitable for persons with severe leg impairments, and 3 percent could be held by persons having only one arm. The company now employs nearly 700 physically impaired persons on regular production jobs. No special occupations were created for them and they work a full schedule of 8 hours per day 6 days per week.¹⁸

The Lockheed Aircraft Co. at Los Angeles made an analysis of occupations in terms of 11 common physical disabilities. A large variety of jobs suitable for the handicapped was revealed.

All supervisors employed by the Caterpillar Tractor Co. were recently supplied with questionnaires designed to discover the particular types of handicapped persons who could handle each job. The company already employs a number of workers who have suffered the loss of an arm, hand, leg, or foot, some who are blind and deaf, or who have been partially disabled through infantile paralysis or injury.¹⁹

A study made by the U. S. Civil Service Commission indicates the minimum physical requirements for various positions in the Federal service and lists the positions suitable for persons with many types of disabilities. The Commission has issued an extensive manual to be used as a guide by persons engaged in training, recruiting, and placing disabled persons in the Federal service.²⁰

Where job specifications have been formulated, the United States Employment Service and the individual State rehabilitation services will assist the employer by referring to him properly qualified handicapped workers. In addition to utilizing public services, some em-

¹⁸ *Aero Digest* (New York), April 1943 (p. 306).

¹⁹ *American Machinist* (Albany, N. Y.), March 18, 1943 (p. 86).

²⁰ *Operations Manual for Placement of Women and the Physically Handicapped*, Washington, U. S. Civil Service Commission, November 1942.

ployers have created in-service training units to acquaint their own personnel officers with the problems and possibilities of using the physically handicapped.

APPLICATIONS OF SELECTIVE PLACEMENT

The successful application of selective placement has shown that persons suffering from virtually any type of disability may be usefully employed in some occupation. In many cases, persons who would automatically have been denied employment in the past have been converted into useful and efficient workers. For example, the Ford plant at River Rouge employs 112 workers afflicted with epilepsy.⁸ They are placed in jobs which do not require climbing or the use of power machinery. The American Cyanamid Co. employs persons with cardio-vascular impairment on jobs within the limits of their functional capacity. The company states: "Though it is regarded as foolhardy to take back men who have coronary disease, all our coronary patients are back on the job, seem to enjoy good health and to perform their jobs efficiently."²¹

Persons with arrested tuberculosis are used in departments where the air is dust-free and where physical exertion is not required. A great variety of jobs may be satisfactorily filled by persons with orthopedic impairments.

Probably the most difficult problem is the placement of the blind, yet many occupations suitable for them have been found in industry. According to the National Society for the Blind, such workers, depending on their highly developed sense of touch, may be found throughout industry doing delicate inspection work on products ranging from machine-gun cartridges to radios.²² To select a few examples, a blind employee of the Engineering and Research Corporation, Riverdale, Md., finish-files small pieces of machinery before final grinding and polishing. His superiors state that because of his sensitive touch he is better at this type of work than a person with normal vision.²³ A blind employee doing light assembly work at the Warner Electric Brake Co., South Beloit, Ill., equaled the previous production record of 1,200 units per day on the third day of his employment and later raised his record to 2,000 units daily.²⁴ Five blind employees are giving satisfactory service at the R. C. A. Victor Co. Nearly 700 sightless persons are employed in the Ford River Rouge Plant, many of them in assembly jobs; according to the company's officials, any jobs where touch and practice are major factors and where no dangerous machinery is present are suited to sightless men.⁸

In certain cases, a slight change in equipment may make possible the use of handicapped workers; some imagination and ingenuity may be required to discover these possibilities. Especially interesting are those applications which permit the substitution of one sense for another. An example is afforded by the special gauges calibrated in raised Braille characters, permitting blind persons to do inspection jobs. Similarly, scales can be fitted to indicate overweight and underweight by tones rather than by indicating dials. An ingenious sub-

⁸ Factory Management and Maintenance (Albany, N. Y.), March 1943 (p. 108).

²¹ Dr. M. Greenberg, in *The Journal of the Medical Society of New Jersey*, March 1942 (p. 147).

²² *Washington (D. C.) Post*, March 14, 1943.

²³ *Washington (D. C.) Star*, April 14, 1943.

²⁴ *Washington (D. C.) News*, July 7, 1943.

stitution of the sense of touch for sight is reported at the Caterpillar Tractor Co., Peoria, Ill., where a blind worker repairs and cleans safety glasses and goggles. He quickly sorts lenses of clear glass from those of green glass by holding each lens over a light bulb for about 3 seconds. Heat rays pass through the clear glass more quickly than through the green glass and the difference in color can be felt.²⁵

An especially satisfying result is attained when a physical defect can be turned into a positive advantage for a particular job. For example, persons of tiny stature have been found extremely useful in aircraft plants to do final riveting work in the tight corners of wings and fuselages. Such workers have also been used in plants manufacturing self-sealing bullet-proof gasoline tanks where they put on finishing touches and inspect the work from the inside of the tanks.²⁶ The sorting of thin strips of mica is now being done successfully by blind workers. After training, these workers, depending wholly on their highly developed sense of touch, work as accurately as sighted persons using gauges, and even more rapidly.²⁷ Deaf mutes have been found useful in some places where noise would distract normal workers, and at Vultee Aircraft, Downey, Calif., they are used as instructors, since it has been found that on some jobs new workers learn faster from pantomime than from oral instructions.²⁸

Social Aspects of the Problem

It has been indicated above that the problem of employing the handicapped is not new; it merely derives special emphasis from present circumstances. At the end of the war, the difficulties of the handicapped in securing employment will again be accentuated when war-time labor shortages are relieved and additional numbers of disabled servicemen seek gainful employment. Accordingly, it would seem to be short-sighted to establish policies leading to the employment of the physically impaired merely as emergency measures; rather, these policies should be considered as contributing to the solution of a social problem that will be of even greater moment in the peace to come.

From a social standpoint, it may be urged that, wherever a job can be performed equally well by either an able-bodied or a handicapped applicant, the latter should be given not merely equality of opportunity but even preference in placement. The employment opportunities of the disabled are limited; normal persons usually have a wider choice. Even under the most favorable circumstances, then, it is more difficult for the handicapped to secure proper employment, and the probability of long periods of unemployment is increased. Perhaps the greatest benefit to accrue from a policy of utilizing the physically handicapped to the fullest possible extent is one which is independent of any advantages gained by either the individual worker or employer. A decrease in the number of those who must depend for their welfare on the good-will or charity of others, and a corresponding increase in the self-supporting and independent, cannot fail to mean a healthier community and a stronger nation.

²⁵ *Factory Management and Maintenance* (Albany, N. Y.), May 1943, (p. 238).

²⁶ *Automotive War Production* (Detroit), February 1943 (p. 6).

²⁷ *The Manpower Review* (Washington), January 1943 (p. 24): *Try This on Your Fingertips*.

²⁸ *Business Week* (New York), April 3, 1943 (p. 78).

Wartime Labor Productivity in Railroad Transportation¹

Summary

MORE passenger and freight traffic was carried by railroads in 1942 than ever before. During the same year, productivity in railroad transportation, in terms of revenue traffic per man-hour, reached a new high level, largely as a result of the fuller loading of cars. However, further improvements from this source are likely to be limited, since for some time the efforts of railroads, shippers, and Government agencies have been directed toward obtaining maximum utilization of equipment. In addition, the railroads must now contend with serious shortages in equipment, supplies, and manpower.

Many technical developments have contributed to the continuation, in the past few years, of the long-run rise in productivity experienced since the war of 1917-18. Now, however, wartime shortages impede the progress of modernization. Current demands for rail transportation make necessary the retention in service of obsolete rolling stock, and occasion unusual wear and tear on roadbed as well as on equipment. At the same time, average experience and physical qualifications of the labor force are necessarily reduced.

Effects of the War on the Railroads

Most of the wartime burden of internal transportation in this country has to be borne by the railroads. They must move raw materials from farm and mine to mill and factory, partly finished goods along the path to completion, and finished products to the place of use or to seaports. They carry men in the armed services from point to point within the country, and provide facilities for much of all essential civilian travel.

Since the beginning of 1942, traffic in terms of passenger mileage and freight ton-mileage has risen to unprecedented levels. Wartime industrial activity has not only expanded the volume of freight to be moved but also has made necessary much longer average hauls. Development of new, widely scattered sources of materials and destination points for railroad freight has altered the distribution of traffic among different routes, and has thereby complicated the problems of shippers and railroads alike. In addition, much traffic formerly carried by other forms of transportation has been transferred to the railroads. As a result of the shortage of vessels and the hazards of coastwise shipping, it has become necessary to transport by rail most of the petroleum supply for the East and a much larger part of the coal destined for New England. Gasoline and rubber shortages have resulted in a shift to the railroads of some freight and passenger traffic that could otherwise be carried by truck or private automobile. The increase of about 80 percent in revenue passenger mileage between 1941 and 1942, however, is in large part due to the

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Productivity and Technological Development Division by Kenneth A. Middleton.

travel of men in the armed services, both on official order and on furlough. More travel per soldier is entailed by Army training programs in this war than in the war of 1917-18.

Current record-breaking rail traffic has been handled more expeditiously than during the earlier war even though the railroads now have fewer freight cars, passenger cars, and locomotives, and employ fewer persons than in 1916 and 1917. The increase in the amount of traffic that can be carried with a given labor force and physical plant has been made possible in part by continuous technical improvement during the past 25 years in rolling stock, yard design, track-maintenance methods, construction of roadway, signalling and communication—in fact, in virtually every aspect of railroad operation and management. During the present war, efforts have been made to attain fullest possible utilization of equipment through the cooperation of railroads and shippers and through Government measures. Various orders of the Office of Defense Transportation specify minimum loading provisions for less-than-carload and carload freight, and the railroads, while retaining much obsolete equipment in service, have at the same time succeeded in reducing percentages of cars and locomotives in process of repair to a level which leaves little room for improvement. The resultant fuller loading and more continuous utilization of equipment have been attained at the expense of delays, additional wear and tear on rolling stock, and disruption of orderly repair schedules in the shops.

Strenuous efforts to obtain maximum use of equipment have been necessary in order to contend with shortages of steel and other materials, which have permitted only a minimum of new equipment and maintenance items for the railroads. The supply of new freight and passenger cars has been particularly short. Lounge cars, drover cars, and even box cars have been converted into coaches and troop-carrying cars. Railroads having surpluses have leased rolling stock to more hard-pressed lines. Essential materials have been conserved through intensified salvage programs, redesign of equipment, and substitution.

In addition to the famine in new equipment, the railroads have faced a labor shortage of increasing seriousness, overshadowing shortages of materials in some regions. The requirements of the armed forces and of war plants have depleted the supply of track-maintenance labor, skilled shop-craft workers, apprentices, telegraphers, switchmen, welders, and machine operators. Train- and engine-service employees generally have been less affected because of their usually higher age, but reserves of younger men for replacement and expansion of the labor force are greatly diminished in all categories. The recent increases in employee injury and fatality rates, as well as delays in loading and unloading of freight, have been partly attributed to the inexperience or the lower physical capacity of new employees. Fuller loading and greater traffic density are also important factors accounting for delays and increased accident rates.

Several expedients have helped to combat the manpower shortage. Overtime has increased relative to straight time actually worked; age limits have been extended in both directions, physical requirements have been lowered, and retirements discouraged. The railroads have revitalized their training programs, which had been allowed to decline when there were rosters of experienced furloughed men for most

jobs. They have cooperated with Government agencies, Federal and State, in recruitment campaigns; in emergencies they have made use of the part-time labor of high-school boys, teachers, and businessmen. Under Government auspices, about 6,000 workers have been admitted from Mexico for track-maintenance work in the Southwest and on the Pacific Coast, where the shortage is especially critical. During the past 2 years, the railroads have installed a large amount of labor-saving power machinery for construction and track maintenance. On some roads, working rules and mileage limitations have been modified or waived.

Particular interest has been shown in the employment of women, who have been hired in recent months even for heavy track-maintenance, yard, and freight-house work. A tabulation made by the New York Central Railroad listed 1,850 positions in 131 different occupations, other than office work, which could be filled by women, and estimated that a 6¼-percent increase in the total labor force could be effected, provided some men were shifted to heavier occupations so as to make way for women.²

Measures of Productivity

Further increases in traffic are expected, and in view of the labor shortage, the question of how many more employees and man-hours will be needed to meet these increases is of considerable importance. Measures of the extent to which employment and man-hours have risen in response to wartime demands for railroad transportation are provided by the indexes in table 1, which refer to class I line-haul steam railroads. During the period covered, these railroads accounted for more than 98 percent of the freight ton-mileage, more than 99 percent of the passenger-mileage, and over 94 percent of the employment of all steam railroads, including switching and terminal companies.

Productivity, measured in terms of revenue traffic carried per man-hour, increased substantially between 1935 and 1940 and rose sharply in 1941 and 1942, chiefly as a result of the fuller loading of cars (table 1). This trend continues a long-run rise in revenue traffic per man-hour during the past quarter-century.³ The index of car-miles per man-hour shows a much smaller increase, since it indicates the course of productivity in terms of transport facilities provided, irrespective of average load per car. Longer hours and steadier work are reflected in the rise of the indexes of output per employee to higher levels than the indexes of output per man-hour. Pay rolls have increased more rapidly than man-hours, but have not kept pace with revenue traffic; as a result unit labor cost was lower in 1942 than in any previous year.⁴

² According to a paper presented by F. K. Mitchell before a session of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers at New York City, December 3, 1942.

³ See Monthly Labor Review, July 1937 (p. 78): Productivity, Hours, and Compensation of Railroad Labor, 1933 to 1936.

⁴ In order to obtain a truer measure of actual working time, hours of straight time "paid for but not worked" were excluded from the man-hour indexes, but compensation relating to these hours was included in the pay-rolls index in order to provide an accurate basis for computing unit labor cost. Time "paid for but not worked" arises largely from payment on the basis of mileage and standard running times. For the purpose of determining compensation at hourly rates of pay, specified ratios are used to convert mileages and runs into hours, which often exceed the actual time involved in making the runs or mileages in question.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Productivity of Hourly Basis Employees on Class I Railroads in the United States, 1935-42¹

Year	Indexes (1939=100) of—									
	Revenue traffic (freight and passenger)	Car-miles (freight and passenger)	Number of hourly basis employees	Man-hours worked	Revenue traffic per—		Car-miles per—		Pay rolls	Unit labor cost (revenue traffic)
					Employee	Man-hour	Employee	Man-hour		
1935	84.2	89.1	100.4	96.1	83.9	87.6	88.7	92.7	87.3	103.7
1936	101.4	101.2	108.3	108.4	93.6	93.5	93.4	93.4	99.4	98.0
1937	108.2	106.2	113.5	113.6	95.3	95.2	93.6	93.5	107.0	98.9
1938	88.0	91.6	94.6	92.9	93.0	94.7	96.8	98.6	92.7	105.3
1939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1940	111.1	108.2	104.3	105.6	106.5	105.2	103.7	102.5	106.0	95.4
1941	141.0	127.2	116.5	122.1	121.0	115.5	109.2	104.2	128.0	90.8
1942	196.5	153.0	130.7	140.8	150.3	139.6	117.1	108.7	162.8	82.8

¹ All statistics used in computing the indexes were obtained from published reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The index of revenue traffic is based on revenue ton-miles of freight and revenue passenger-miles, weighted respectively by revenue per freight ton-mile and revenue per passenger-mile in 1939. The index of total car-miles represents the sum of car-miles of freight and passenger trains; mileage of work trains is excluded. The index of freight-train car-miles includes mileage of freight cars in passenger trains, and the index of passenger-car-mileage includes the mileage of passenger cars run in freight trains.

All the indexes of employment are based on averages of 12 mid-month counts for each year and refer to hourly basis employees only. The indexes of man-hours are comparable in scope with the employment indexes and include all straight time actually worked, all overtime paid for, and "constructive allowances" for train and engine employees. The index of pay rolls is based on all compensation of hourly basis employees. Compensation for "time paid for but not worked" is included in this index, although the corresponding hours are omitted from the man-hour measures, in order to provide a more significant basis for computing unit labor cost.

In tables 2 and 3, measures are presented for road freight employees and for road passenger employees, respectively. Included in these groups are engineers and motormen, firemen and helpers, conductors, brakemen, and flagmen; in the road-passenger-service group there also are ticket collectors and baggagemen. The output of road freight employees is indicated by revenue ton-mileage and car-mileage in freight service, and the output of the passenger-service group is represented by passenger-miles and car-miles. The index of revenue passenger-miles per man-hour of road passenger employees has nearly doubled since 1939. The index of ton-miles per man-hour of road freight employees has increased about 15 percent. No similar rises are recorded in the indexes of car-miles per man-hour; in fact, the index of car-miles per man-hour in freight service began to decline in 1941, reflecting a drop in productivity in terms of facilities provided.

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Productivity of Road Freight Employees on Class I Railroads in the United States, 1935-42¹

Year	Indexes (1939=100) of—							
	Revenue ton-miles of freight	Freight-train car-miles	Number of road freight employees	Man-hours worked	Revenue freight ton-miles per—		Freight-train car-miles per—	
					Employee	Man-hour	Employee	Man-hour
1935	84.6	88.8	100.0	97.1	84.6	87.1	88.8	91.5
1936	101.7	101.6	109.9	113.5	92.5	89.6	92.4	89.5
1937	108.2	106.6	114.5	115.7	94.5	93.5	93.1	92.1
1938	87.0	90.7	96.6	93.2	90.1	93.3	93.9	97.3
1939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1940	111.9	109.1	105.1	108.2	106.5	103.4	103.8	100.8
1941	142.5	129.8	119.3	131.4	119.4	108.4	108.8	98.8
1942	191.4	156.6	139.4	166.3	137.3	115.1	112.3	94.2

¹ See footnote to table 1.

These indexes are subject to certain qualifications. There have been changes in the types and relative importance of commodities carried by the railroads, and, as a measure of service performed, the wartime ton-miles of freight are not precisely comparable with those of peacetime. They are, however, together with passenger-miles, the best available measure of the physical volume of useful work done by the railroads. In the productivity indexes, no allowance can be made for overmaintenance or undermaintenance of physical plant. There is no adequate basis for excluding hours not chargeable to operating expenses—that is, labor devoted to new construction and the rebuilding of equipment, the output of which cannot be judged in terms of current traffic. However, computations based on wage cost indicate that the latter element has little effect on the index.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Productivity of Road Passenger Employees on Class I Railroads in the United States, 1935-42*¹

Year	Indexes (1939=100) of —							
	Revenue passenger-miles	Passenger-train car-miles	Number of road passenger employees	Man-hours worked	Revenue passenger-miles per—		Passenger-train car-miles per—	
					Employee	Man-hour	Employee	Man-hour
1935	81.6	91.1	100.2	101.3	81.4	80.6	90.9	89.9
1936	98.9	98.1	104.0	107.2	95.1	92.3	94.3	91.5
1937	108.8	103.5	107.5	109.7	101.2	99.2	96.3	94.3
1938	95.5	98.2	101.3	102.1	94.3	93.5	96.9	96.2
1939	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1940	104.9	101.2	100.1	99.7	104.8	105.2	101.1	101.5
1941	129.6	108.3	101.7	103.5	127.4	125.2	106.5	104.6
1942	236.9	125.9	108.0	119.7	219.4	197.9	116.6	105.2

¹ See footnote to table 1.

Technological Developments

Numerous technical improvements have helped to make possible the high level of railroad-labor productivity in the present war; some of the more important of these have affected construction and maintenance of roadway. During the past 15 years, specialized machines with extraordinary labor-saving capacity have been developed. A complete outfit of spike pullers and drivers, power nutters, tie-adzers, and rail-laying cranes, for example, is said to displace 80 men during a 160-day annual working period in tie and rail renewal, and a scarifier and ballast leveler can do the work of 90 men, according to material presented at hearings under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.⁵ Work equipment of this kind, including heavy earth-moving machinery, rail drills, tie-tampers, weed burners, and other devices, has become increasingly popular, and the railroads are estimated to have spent well over \$110,000,000 on such machines up to the end of 1942. Approximate figures indicate that nearly one-third of the total, representing more than 25,000 units, was spent in the years 1937-42.⁶

Machines have reduced the labor cost of making improvements in the structure of the roadbed, and these improvements have in some cases greatly reduced the labor required for regular maintenance. Mech-

⁵ Reported in the Proceedings of the American Railway Engineering Association (Chicago), vol. 42 (1941), Monograph Section, p. 1.

⁶ This statement is based on estimates presented in Railway Age (New York), January 4, 1941 (p. 25), and January 2, 1943 (p. 31).

anization of maintenance operations has helped make possible more efficient organization, including the use of mechanized extra gangs for heavy work, leaving only patrolling and lighter repairs to the regular section gangs.

Economies in maintenance labor have also been effected by improvements in the quality of rail laid. The average weight of rail in all main track of class I line-haul railways rose from 92.72 pounds per yard at the end of 1935 to 95.95 pounds at the end of 1941.⁷ It is reported that "for lines of heavy traffic, savings by use of 112-pound and 131-pound rail in place of 100-pound or lighter rail may reach 40 percent of the total expenditure for track labor."⁸ The railroads have laid increasing tonnages of rail treated by control-cooling and Brunorizing processes, which were originated and continually improved during the thirties. Rail so treated has proved to be almost free of the treacherous transverse fissures which were first recognized in 1911 as the cause of many rail failures. Improvements have also been made in design and application of track accessories and in methods of hardening rail-ends.

The proportion of treated to untreated cross ties laid in replacement has increased sharply in recent years. Long-continued research has led to improved methods of chemical treatment and has facilitated the choice of wood, greatly increasing average service life. The sharp reduction in the number of ties replaced per mile of road during the past decade cannot be entirely accounted for by the depression in traffic, but must be due partly to better wearing qualities. It should be stressed that the benefits of increased life of ties or rail are realized only after a long enough period of time has elapsed for the greater durability to be reflected in reduced needs for replacement.

Modernized signalling installations have greatly increased the traffic-carrying capacity of congested stretches of track. The War Production Board allotted materials for an unusually large number of such projects in 1942, recognizing their value in preventing congestion and avoiding new track construction. Permission was given in all cases only after study indicated that immediate benefits to war transportation would result. In 1942, 1,421 automatic block signals were installed, as compared with 879 in 1939. In connection with centralized traffic control, 1,293 power switch machines and semi-automatic signals were installed in 1942, as compared with 160 in 1939.⁹ Recent refinements in design simplify remote-control operations, and the sending of impulses on coded circuits over existing wires minimizes the need for new wiring. Centralized control permits full use to be made of passing tracks, and the meeting and passing of trains can be arranged with a minimum of delay by taking advantage of current conditions.

Improvements in motive power have affected labor productivity on the railroads by permitting longer trains and higher speeds, as well as by reducing maintenance requirements. The average tractive force of steam locomotives increased from 32,840 pounds in 1916 to 51,217 pounds in 1941.¹⁰ Improvements in the steam locomotive have

⁷ Interstate Commerce Commission, *Statistics of Railways in the United States, 1941* (p. 10).

⁸ *Proceedings of the American Railway Engineering Association*, vol. 42 (1941), Monograph Section, p. 5; see also vol. 40 (1939), pp. 340-346.

⁹ According to figures presented in *Railway Age* (New York), January 2, 1943 (p. 126).

¹⁰ *Class I line-haul steam railways*, Interstate Commerce Commission, *Statistics of Railways, 1941* (p. 156).

greatly increased its ability to make long runs, carrying heavy loads on fast schedules, and have reduced its needs for repairs. The tendency has been toward locomotives designed to attain maximum efficiency at higher speeds, mechanical lubrication, use of alloy steels to reduce weight, improved systems of steam distribution to conserve pressure at high speed, and the use of greater tender capacities and track water pans to avoid stops. Lighter steel rods and better counterbalancing have lessened the strain of high speeds on the track and on the locomotive itself by reducing unbalanced reciprocating weight. Increased use of roller bearings in locomotive and tender journals, rod bearings, and valve mechanism has reduced time for servicing and repairs entailed by older friction-type bearings. Parts formerly attached by bolts are now cast integrally with the locomotive bed. These developments have exerted a continually increasing effect as older locomotives are replaced by modern ones.

Although Diesel motive power has been used on the railroads for about 20 years, the rapid growth in popularity of the Diesel-electric locomotive, particularly in switching and in freight service, is distinctly a recent development. Of all Diesel motive-power units now in service, more than half have been installed since the end of 1939, and Diesel-electric locomotives were first used in regular main-line freight service in 1941. However, Diesel-electric units now make up only about 3 percent of all locomotives in service. Advantages of this form of motive power include high availability, economy of maintenance labor, ability to make long runs with few stops for fuel or water, high tractive force at starting and in the low-speed ranges, multi-unit flexibility, absence of heavy reciprocating parts, dynamic braking,¹¹ and ease in shutting off power when the locomotive is standing idle in the yards. Under some conditions, a given number of Diesel-electrics may adequately replace a larger number of steam locomotives, greatly reducing man-hours of maintenance labor required.

Locomotives embodying the latest improvements are in a minority; of all locomotives in service on class I line-haul railways at the end of 1941, over 47 percent were more than 27 years old and over 80 percent were more than 17 years old.¹² Though these figures do not take account of rebuilding, by which considerable improvement may be made, they indicate that most locomotives fail to meet modern standards. On the other hand, the newer locomotives handle a larger proportion of the traffic than is apparent from their number.

With the aid of modern heavy-duty motive power, fast freight trains are being operated on schedules comparable with those of passenger trains. In general, efficient movement of freight is dependent to a considerable extent on the efficiency of yard operations as well as on adequate motive power, particularly under present dense traffic conditions. For this reason, materials have been allotted to permit completion of extensive yard-modernization work during the war. In the year 1942, record numbers of car-retarders and power switches were installed in freight classification yards. Automatic control systems in some modern yards involve electrically operated switches and retarders, with telephonic or cab-signal communication between hump office and en-

¹¹ By "dynamic braking" is meant utilizing the resistance of the traction motors, operated as generators, to retard speed. This principle has long been used on straight-electric locomotives but has been applied to Diesel-electrics in regular operation only since February 1941. The use of dynamic braking on long down grades avoids excessive wear and heating of wheels and brake shoes.

¹² From figures presented in *Statistics of Railways, 1941* (Interstate Commerce Commission), p. 17.

ginemen. From a tower, the routing and speed of all cars can be controlled as they roll down the hump; in such yards, car-riders and switchmen are not needed. At these and other yards, floodlighting and electric snow-melters speed up work at night and in winter weather. Preparation and duplication of waybills, switching lists, and other paper work have been expedited. Yards have also profited from research in working methods and yard design. Some progress has been made during the war in interyard cooperation, to ease the burden of the more congested yards.

Various improvements have been made in freight cars, including use of lighter materials to increase capacity without adding to weight, introduction of new-type brakes, and adoption of improved draft gears and cushioned underframes to lessen damage caused by horizontal shocks. Snubber springs are used to decrease violent up-and-down vibration, particularly harmful in the range of speed reached in modern fast-freight service. Because of the value of these devices in reducing delay for car repairs and promoting safety, a concerted campaign was inaugurated in the summer of 1942 to have snubber springs applied to all tank cars as fast as materials become available. The use of alloy-bronze bearings and careful inspection have helped to prevent the overheating of freight-car journal boxes, a frequent source of delay in the past.

Outlook for the Industry

Most of the technical developments mentioned above have either speeded up operation and increased the load capacity of trains or have reduced labor requirements for maintaining roadway and equipment. In these ways, they have helped make it possible for the railroads to carry much more traffic per man-hour worked than ever before. Technological improvements cannot be relied upon, however, for increase in railroad labor productivity in the immediate future; shortages of material and plant capacity will not allow much further progress in modernization while the war lasts, and old rolling stock must be patched up and kept in service. By cooperation of railroads, shippers, and Government agencies, it is possible that further advances can be made in utilization of equipment and the elimination of unnecessary hauls. Progress of this kind, together with the limited allotments of new rolling stock and maintenance materials, must be relied upon for the handling of future increases in traffic.

Productivity in terms of car-miles and revenue traffic cannot be expected to continue increasing at the rates recorded in 1941 and 1942. The average experience and physical qualifications of available new railroad employees will be low, and in some regions it is possible that the limit of capacity of equipment and labor force will be reached. It is apparently the policy of the Government agencies concerned, however, as well as of the railroads themselves, to avoid the dangers of undermaintenance. Some relief may be provided by new pipe lines, increased use of waterways, and voluntary restriction of unnecessary civilian travel; formal rationing of freight transportation and passenger accommodations seems a more remote possibility.

Employment and Working Conditions in India¹

By RAJANI KANTA DAS, *formerly of the International Labor Office*

Summary

VARIOUS organized or large-scale industries such as plantations, mines, railways, and factories have been developed in India. These have been considerably increased under war conditions and employ about 5 million workers, about 3 million of whom are in factories.

India has made considerable progress in labor legislation, has ratified and applied 14 International Labor Conventions, has established advanced labor standards, and has instituted a tripartite labor organization, besides adopting several wartime measures providing for workers' training, and for the control of employment.

Trade-unionism has also made some progress and received State recognition. Measures have been passed for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes. Strikes without 14 days' notice have been prohibited in all industries for the duration of the war. Indian workers are strongly against Nazism and Fascism and have been helping the Government to increase civilian and military production.

The system of recruitment through intermediaries, although condemned, still prevails in most of the industries. The greater part of the Indian workers are unskilled and inefficient, mainly because of malnutrition, illiteracy, and lack of training. The Government of India has realized the importance of industrial training for wartime production and has developed several schemes of training workers. By March 1943, 70,000 workers were expected to complete their training.

Sanitation and safety are well provided for in most of the larger plantations, mines, and factories, although much remains to be done among the smaller ones. In 1938, there were 35,065 industrial accidents and the average compensation per accident was Rs. 40.9. The hours of work have been brought under control in most of these industries. Under war conditions, some of the factories work, however, longer hours.

Industrial Development

With an area as large as Europe, not including Russia, and with about a fifth of the world's population, India occupies an important place in the world economy. The most important industry in India is agriculture, which directly or indirectly supports about four-fifths of the population. In spite of the introduction of a few commercial crops, Indian agriculture is largely based on a subsistence economy. It is primitive and backward and is in urgent need of reorganization on the principles of modern science and technology.

The second important class of industry is handicrafts, through which most of the national needs for manufactured goods are still

¹First of two articles on wartime labor conditions in India,

supplied. In competition with modern industries from the West, Indian arts and crafts declined in the second half of the 19th century, but some of them have been recently revived. In 1938-39, the handloom industry, for instance, supplied 2,259 million yards of cotton cloth, as compared with 4,553 million yards produced by the powerloom industry.

The most important factor in the economic development of modern India is, however, the rise of organized or large-scale industries, the present position of which is best indicated by the investment of the paid-up capital of Rs. 3,037 million² by 11,372 (1939-40) Indian joint-stock companies and £745 million³ by 870 (1938-39) foreign joint-stock companies. Of the modern industries, the most important are cotton⁴ and jute mills, tea and other plantations, coal and other mines, and iron and steel industries, railway and engineering workshops, and munitions and ordnance factories.

Even more significant is the fact that India has great potentialities for the development of heavy and large-scale industries, as indicated by the following facts: (1) There are reserves of 3,000 million tons of iron ore of 64-percent iron content, 60,000 million tons of coal, and 27 million horsepower of hydro-electric resources; (2) the country has substantial capital resources, as indicated by the fact that since the beginning of the war India has reduced its national debt, including railway stocks and annuities, from Rs. 43,200 million to Rs. 150 million, has accumulated Rs. 41,400 million in pounds sterling in the United Kingdom, and has made an industrial profit of Rs. 1,000 million and (3) there are immense manpower resources of great potential efficiency, as well as an increasing purchasing power of a vast population.

War has given a new impetus to industrial development, for the production of civilian and military requirements both of India and of some of its allies. From the beginning of the war to October 1942, the value of contracts placed by the Government of India for supplies amounted to Rs. 4,280 million. Most of the industries have been organized on a wartime basis; and production, distribution, and consumption have been brought under Government control. The Government has also enacted legislation and promulgated orders for the regulation of the working and living conditions of the workers and for their training in modern industry.

Rise of Industrial Labor

According to the census of 1931, which is still the latest source of information on occupational distribution in India, of the total population gainfully employed, two-thirds were engaged in agriculture, one-sixth in industry, transport, and trade, and the remainder in professions, liberal arts, public works, and other vocations. The total number of wage workers was 56.5 million, including 31.5 million agricultural workers and 25 million nonagricultural workers. On the basis of a population growth of 15 percent in the last census decade, the total number of wage workers by 1941 was about 65 million, including 36 million agricultural workers and 29 million nonagricultural workers.^{4a}

² Average exchange rate of rupee in 1938=36.59 cents; in 1939=33.25 cents, and in 1940=30.15 cents.

³ A average exchange rate (free) of British pound in 1938=\$4.88; in 1939=\$4.43.

⁴ Indian cotton mills have 10 million spindles and 200,000 looms.

^{4a} Because of war conditions some of the statistics are not published; others are not available in the United States.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The beginning of industrial labor, or more strictly, labor in organized or large-scale industries, may be traced to the middle of the last century when the Public Works Department was established, and elaborate schemes for the construction of roads, railways, and public buildings were projected. The significance of these public works lies in creating new and permanent opportunities for industrial employment and in introducing the system of payment in cash rather than in kind, the latter having been up to that time almost universal throughout the country.

Public works were soon followed by other organized industries, such as railways, plantations, mines, and factories, which began to develop in different parts of the country and to employ increasingly large numbers of workers. Since the beginning of the present century, and especially since the first World War, industrial activities have still further increased and have created new demands for industrial labor. The exact number of such laborers is difficult to ascertain, owing to the lack of statistical data, but in 1932 the total number of workers in organized or large-scale industries was estimated by the Indian Franchise Committee at about 5 million,⁵ which must have now increased to about 7 million, especially under war conditions.

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION

The most important classes of industrial workers are those employed in such industries as plantations, railways, mines, and factories, which employed approximately an average daily number of over 4,672,000 persons in British India during the period, 1938-41:

	<i>Establishments</i>	<i>Average daily number of workers</i>
Plantations (1938-39) ¹ -----	8, 478	885, 950
Factories (1940) ² -----	3 10, 466	2, 727, 927
Railroads ⁴ -----	-----	730, 436
Mines (1940) ⁵ -----	3 1, 925	328, 196
Approximate total-----	-----	4, 672, 509

¹ Government of India, Calcutta and Delhi: Indian Rubber Statistics, 1938; Indian Coffee Statistics, 1937-38; and Indian Tea Statistics, 1939.

² Government of India, Indian Trade Journal, January 1, 1942.

³ Data are for 1939.

⁴ There were 40,000 miles of railways in 1940-41 (Report by Railway Board on Indian Railways, 1940-41).

⁵ Annual Report of Chief Inspector of Mines in India, 1938.

Indian States have also developed a large number of organized industries; their mines, plantations, and factories employed in 1937-39 a daily average of 514,184 workers—173,952 on plantations, 41,138 in mines, and 299,094 in factories. Because of lack of definite information on their working and living conditions, these workers have been excluded from the present study, as have also (for the same reason) seamen, longshoremen, street-railway employees, and drivers of busses and taxis. The largest group of transport workers consists of the railroad employees, shown above.

Plantations, especially those for the cultivation of tea, rubber, and coffee are among the oldest organized industries. In India, as a whole, these plantations employed a daily average of 1,059,902 workers in 1937-38; four-fifths of these were in British India and included 5,239

⁶ Census of India, 1935 (p. 285); also Report of the Indian Franchise Committee, 1932 (p. 91).

on rubber estates, 47,832 on coffee estates, and 832,879 on tea plantations. The largest group of tea-garden workers was employed in Assam,⁶ as shown below:

	Total number on books	Average daily attendance
Total.....	646, 588	462, 250
Men.....	294, 848	218, 409
Women.....	263, 280	181, 197
Children.....	88, 460	62, 644

Mines have been under Government control since 1901. The underground employment of women ceased as of July 1, 1937. Of the total number of mine workers in 1940, 209,173, or about two-thirds, were employed in coal mines. The following statement shows the number of workers in all types of mines in British India in 1940:⁷

	Total	Men	Women
Total.....	328, 196	271, 058	57, 138
Underground.....	156, 238	156, 238	-----
Open workings.....	83, 585	53, 344	30, 241
Surface.....	88, 373	61, 476	26, 897

The largest number of industrial workers is employed in factories which, as above noted, employed about 2¼ million persons in 1940. Detailed information on factories is available only for 1939, when there were 6,943 factories working the year round and employing 1,460,314 people, and 3,523 factories working only during the season or part time in the year and employing 290,823 people. The distribution of these workers is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Factory Workers in British India, 1939¹

Class of worker	Total	Year-round factories	Seasonal factories
All classes.....	1, 751, 137	1, 460, 314	290, 823
Men.....	1, 475, 723	1, 266, 462	209, 261
Women.....	239, 414	164, 825	74, 589
Adolescents (15 and 16 years).....	26, 597	21, 535	5, 062
Children (12 to 15 years).....	9, 403	7, 492	1, 911

¹ Data are from Statistical Abstract for British India (London, 1943).

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

Most of the industrial workers are concentrated in certain regions. The rubber and coffee plantation workers are in Travancore, Cochin, Madras, and Coorg, and tea-garden workers in Assam and Bengal. Mine workers are mostly in Bihar and Bengal, which employed respectively 170,217 and 60,661 workers in 1938. The centers of the coal industry are Jharia (Bihar) and Ranigunj (Bengal), which produced two-fifths and one-fourth of the total output and employed one-fourth and one-fifth of the total mine workers, respectively.

As shown in table 2, the majority of the factory workers are found in Bengal and the Bombay Presidency (with about one-third and over one-fourth of the workers in 1939), and in Madras and the United Provinces (with one-ninth and one-eleventh of the workers).

⁶ Data are from Annual Report on the Working of the Tea Districts Immigrant Labor Act (1932), for 1937-38 (Statements VII and VIII).

⁷ Data are from Annual Report of Chief Inspector of Mines in India, for 1940 (Calcutta, 1941).

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Factory Workers in British India, by Provinces, 1938*¹

Province	Factories		Workers	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	10,466	100.0	1,751,137	100.0
Bengal.....	1,725	16.5	571,539	32.5
Bombay.....	3,120	29.8	466,040	26.6
Madras.....	1,811	17.3	197,266	11.3
United Provinces.....	546	5.2	159,738	9.1
Bihar.....	328	3.1	95,988	5.5
Punjab.....	800	7.6	78,302	4.5
Central Provinces and Berar.....	740	7.1	64,494	3.7
Assam.....	772	7.4	52,003	3.0
Others.....	624	6.0	65,767	3.8

¹ Data are from Statistical Abstract for British India, 1943.

Most of the factory workers are concentrated in the large cities and their vicinities. The leading industrial centers are Calcutta and Bombay, employing about one-fourth and one-tenth of the total factory workers. Of the other industrial cities, Ahmedabad, Cawnpore, and Jamshedpur are the chief, as indicated below:⁸

	<i>Number of factories</i>	<i>Number of workers</i>
Calcutta and vicinity.....	943	439,022
Bombay and the island.....	476	177,323
Ahmedabad.....	247	102,753
Cawnpore.....	---	51,892
Jamshedpur.....	---	28,737
Madras.....	---	23,492

Since the beginning of the war in 1939, almost 300,000 workers have been added to different factories, especially to those which are engaged in war production. The total number of factory workers would now amount to about 3 million.

Labor Legislation

Labor legislation has made considerable progress in India within the past two generations and become an important social institution. India has already ratified and applied 14 International Labor Conventions and given effect to a number of Recommendations.

The origins of labor legislation in India may be traced back to 1863, when the first plantation law was passed. Although the main object of that measure was to give legal sanction to the indenture system, and guarantee the employer a stable labor force recruited at his own expense, it also assured the workers steady work, adequate sanitation, and fixed wages. The first factories act was, however, passed in 1881, laying the foundation for the development of modern labor legislation. Since then the number of labor measures has increased both in volume and in kind, with reference both to labor in general and in specific industries. The following deserve special mention:

(1) The regulation of forced labor and the abolition of the indenture system.

(2) The establishment of a minimum age and physical-fitness standard for the admission of children into employment in factories,

⁸ Industrial Labor in India, Geneva, International Labor Office, 1938, p. 49.

mines, and docks, the limitation of the hours of work to 5 a day for children between the ages of 12 and 15 in factories, and the prohibition of night work.

(3) The creation of a new class of protected young workers between the ages of 15 and 17, who may not be employed as full-time workers in factories without certification of physical fitness.

(4) The abolition of nightwork of women and of their employment on underground work in mines and on dangerous work in factories.

(5) The regulation of hours of work of adult workers in factories and mines, on railways and on board ship.

(6) A compulsory weekly day of rest in factories, mines, plantations, railways, shops, commercial enterprises, restaurants, and theaters.

(7) The provision of health and safety standards for workers in factories and mines and on docks.

(8) The protection of wages as regards time and method of payment, and the abolition of the system of fines and deductions from wages earned, as well as relief from indebtedness, attachment of wages, and imprisonment for debt.

(9) The provision of compensation for industrial accidents and for a number of industrial diseases, to over 6 million workers in organized and semi-organized industries, and of maternity benefits to woman workers in factories in several Provinces.

(10) The provision for facilitating industrial welfare work.

(11) Measures for the recognition of trade-unionism and for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes.⁹

ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAW

The importance of proper administration has been realized by the Government since the beginning of labor legislation, and necessary provisions have also been made under each measure. In 1941 the Government of India created an independent labor department under a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council and appointed a special officer to advise on labor legislation. Administrative organizations have also been established by Provincial governments. The Government of Bombay established a labor office under a commissioner of labor in 1921, and similar action has been taken by the other Provincial governments.

Every legislative measure has included provision for the (1) inspection of factories, mines, and similar industrial plants, (2) the adjustment of the claims of workers against employers, as in the case of compensation and wage payment, and the settlement of any disputes arising between the two parties, and (3) the prosecution of violators of the law and the infliction of penalties in case of conviction. The administration and enforcement of the law are carried on by both the Central and the Provincial governments.

TRIPARTITE LABOR ORGANIZATION

An important step toward the improvement of industrial relations and the amicable settlement of industrial disputes was the establishment of a permanent tripartite labor organization composed of the representatives of governments, employers, and workers, meeting in an annual conference and having a standing committee on the model

⁹ History of Indian Labor Legislation, by Rajani Kanta Das, University of Calcutta, 1941.

of the International Labor Organization. The object of this new organization is three-fold: The promotion of uniformity in labor legislation, the formulation of a procedure for the settlement of industrial disputes, and the discussion by employers and workers of matters of national importance.

The first conference was held under the chairmanship of the Labor Member of the Viceroy's Council in New Delhi on August 7, 1942. The conference was composed of 22 representatives of the Government of India, Provincial governments, and Indian States, and 11 representatives each of workers and employers. The standing committee was composed of 5 representatives of the Government of India, Provincial governments, and Indian States, and 5 representatives each of employers and workers, with the Labor Member acting as chairman. The first session of the standing committee was held in New Delhi on November 30 and December 1, 1942, under the chairmanship of the Labor Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council; such questions as wartime labor legislation, production problems, workers' earnings, labor welfare, and industrial statistics were discussed and an agreement was reached regarding a uniform scale of cost-of-living bonus, supply of food grains at cost price, and the supply of "standard" or utility cloth.¹⁰

WARTIME LABOR MEASURES

Under the pressure of war, the Government of India has been obliged to undertake a number of measures regarding labor, the most important being the following:

(1) The National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance, issued by the Government of India on June 29, 1940, which enables the Central Government to control the employment and distribution of all skilled and semiskilled labor in India, and to insure that it is used as effectively as possible in the prosecution of the war. The ordinance is administered through organizations known as National Service Labor Tribunals, one of which has been constituted in every Province except Orissa and the Northwest Frontier Province (which are included in the jurisdiction of the Bihar and Punjab Tribunals, respectively). The ordinance aims at the provision of adequate supplies of labor for Government and other factories, called "notified factories," engaged on work of national importance. The tribunals have power to remove technical personnel from "unnotified" factories and the Central Government can exercise similar powers in respect to "notified" factories.

(2) The Essential Services (Maintenance) Ordinance, issued by the Government of India in 1941, empowering it to prohibit any worker engaged in any employment covered by the ordinance from leaving his job without permission. Two formal amendments were made in May and July 1942, in order to make it clear that the obligation under the ordinance to remain in certain employment does not override an obligation to undertake employment elsewhere imposed under any other law in force, such as the National Services (Technical Personnel) Ordinance, and on the other hand, to render more specific the provisions relating to the continuance in service of essential personnel.

¹⁰ International Labor Review (Montreal), June 19, 1943 (pp. 762-65).

Rules for the administration of the ordinance were promulgated in Bengal in May 1942. Under these rules the Labor Commissioner is empowered to issue directions regulating the wages and other conditions of service of persons engaged in any employment to which the ordinance is applied. Similar rules were promulgated in Orissa in June 1942, empowering the district magistrates to regulate the wages and other conditions of service of all employees of essential services, subject to the general control and supervision of the Provincial government.¹¹

(3) A general order of March 6, 1942, issued by the Government of India under the Defense of India Rules, prohibited strikes and lock-outs except after 14 days' notice. Under the India Trade Disputes Act of 1929, this provision had been confined to public utilities. The new order extended the scope of this provision to all industries and enunciated the principles of compulsory arbitration and the enforcement of the arbitrator's award. Up to April 1943 compulsory arbitration had been applied in only about 25 cases.

(4) As a result of the increasing demand for textile, leather, and other goods under war conditions, the hours of work in the industries producing these commodities have been increased in most of the Provinces, at the suggestion of the Central Government. In November 1941 the Governments of Bombay, Bengal, the Central Provinces and Berar, the United Provinces, Madras, and Sind raised the maximum weekly hours of work from 54 to 60 and provided for overtime pay for the additional 6 hours.

Industrial Relations

EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS

The earliest organizations of employers in India were those of Europeans, who were the pioneers of organized industry; and it is only in recent years that Indian employers have developed strong organizations of their own for furthering their group interests. At present, employers' organizations in India may roughly be divided into three categories—commercial associations, industrial associations, and employers' associations. The main objects of employers' associations, which are directly concerned with labor questions, are the establishment of a harmonious relationship between labor and capital, the securing of proper representation of the interests of their members in the Provincial and Central legislatures, and the nomination of delegates and advisers to represent the employers of India at the International Labor Conference.

Employers' associations exert a great influence on national labor policy. All important industries, such as the cotton mills of Bombay and Ahmedabad, the jute mills of Calcutta, the tea gardens of Assam, and coal mines in Bengal and Bihar, are highly organized. They not only take concerted action in fixing the conditions of labor and rates of wages in the establishments of their members but are also represented in the Central and Provincial legislatures as well as on commissions and committees and similar bodies appointed by the Government to consider economic and labor questions.

¹¹ International Labor Review (Montreal), April 1943 (p. 501).

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS

The origins of labor organization in India may be traced back to the year 1890 when a laborers' association was formed at Bombay. It was not until 1918, however, that the trade-union movement really began, with the establishment of labor unions at Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta. Since then the number of unions has increased rapidly in most of the important industries all over the country. The exact number of trade-unions is hard to estimate, but those which have been registered under the Trades Unions Act of 1927 increased from 29 with a membership of 100,619 in 1927-28 to 666 with a membership of 511,138 in 1939-40.

The most important labor organization in India is the All-India Trade Union Congress, which was started in Bombay in 1920 with the object of coordinating "the activities of all organizations in all the Provinces in India, and generally to further the interest of Indian labor in matters economic, social, and political." After serving as a national platform for the declaration of a policy of organized labor in both national and international organizations, the Congress split into two groups in 1929 and only recently has the gulf between the two factions been bridged. It now stands as the only central organization of the wage-earning classes.

Indian trade-unionism has not yet become an effective movement. Its weakness arises from such causes as the absence of any permanent class of wage workers, the illiteracy of the largest part of the workers, the lack of adequate leadership, and nonrecognition by employers. In spite of these defects, however, the labor movement has become an important factor in the national life, as is indicated by Government recognition of trade-unions in the enactment of protective legislation in 1926, the rise of the labor press which has become influential in recent years, representation by trade-unions in the Central and Provincial legislatures, and representation by Indian labor in the International Labor Conference and also in the Governing Body of the International Labor Organization.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Isolated industrial disputes took place in India as early as the eighties of the last century, but it was not until 1918 that they became serious and attracted public attention. In 1921, when the first accurate data became available, there were 396 disputes involving over 600,000 workers and causing loss of over 6,900,000 working days. In 1928 the number of disputes as well as the number of workers involved declined, but the lost working days amounted to more than 31,000,000. In 1940 there were 322 disputes, involving 453,000 workers and over 7,577,000 days of idleness, as shown in table 3. There is a good deal of fluctuation in the number of disputes, of workers involved, and of working days lost, because of the nature and conditions of industry and the classes of workers concerned. The railway and textile industries are responsible for the loss of more working days than any other industries. The great increase in the number of working days lost in 1928 was due to the prolonged dispute on the railroads. In 1940, over 42 percent of the strikes, 73 percent of the striking workers, and about 80 percent of the working days lost were in cotton and jute mills.

TABLE 3.—*Industrial Disputes in India in Specified Years, 1921-40*¹

Year	Disputes	Workers involved	Working days lost
1921.....	396	600,351	6,984,436
1926.....	128	186,811	1,097,478
1928.....	203	506,851	31,647,404
1938.....	339	401,075	9,198,708
1939.....	406	409,000	7,993,000
1940.....	322	452,539	7,577,000

¹ Data are from Government of India Bulletin of Indian Industries and Labor No. 43062: Industrial Disputes in India; and Indian Trade Journal, January 1, 1942 (p. 42).

The immediate causes of disputes are economic. Of all disputes from 1921 to 1937, 56 percent were concerned with wages and bonuses, 21 percent with personnel (i. e., employment and dismissal), and 23 percent with leave, hours of work, and other causes. Similarly, 62 percent of the disputes in 1940 were caused by demands for higher wages, and the rest by demands for bonuses, and by personnel questions, leave, and hours of labor. Among other causes must be mentioned political unrest during the post-war period 1918-21 and communistic propaganda during 1920-21. Even in these cases the economic factor was the underlying cause, and, as pointed out by the Royal Commission on Labor in India, "there has rarely been any strike of any importance which has not been due entirely or largely to economic reasons." The increasing cost of living since the beginning of the present war has been causing a good deal of unrest among the workers, and although "dearness" (cost-of-living) allowances have been granted by the employers, they have not adequately met the grievances of the workers.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

The frequent occurrence of disputes had led the Central and Provincial governments to enact measures for their prevention and settlement. The Government of India passed the India Trade Disputes Act of 1929, prohibiting strikes and lockouts in the public-utility services and for any purposes other than the furtherance of trade-union interests; it also provided for the appointment by the Government, whether Central or Provincial, of a court of enquiry and a board of conciliation in the case of any disputes, if both parties applied for it. Since most of the important strikes took place in the Bombay Presidency, the Government of Bombay also enacted the Bombay Trade Disputes Conciliation Act of 1934; it provided for the appointment by the government of a labor officer to guard the interests of the workers and to remove their grievances, and also named the commissioner of labor as chief conciliator with the power to initiate, as soon as a trade dispute appeared or was apprehended, conciliatory proceedings with a view to effecting an amicable settlement. Finally, the Government of India also passed the India Trade Disputes (Amendment) Act of 1938, redefining public-utility services and authorizing the Government to appoint officers charged with the duty of mediating in or promoting the settlement of trade disputes; and, as noted above, in 1942 prohibited strikes or lockouts, except after 14 days' notice, in any industry for the duration of the war.

WORKERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD THE WAR

Indian workers are strongly against Nazism and Fascism. In public meetings at Calcutta and Jamshedpur in January 1941, they pledged their help to the workers of Great Britain and the Soviet Union in their struggle against Germany and Italy.

Indian workers were, however, disappointed at the failure of the Cripps Mission and especially at the arrest of Gandhi and other leaders on August 9, 1942. A large number of workers, especially in the cotton mills of Bombay, Ahmedabad, Calcutta, Madras, Coimbatore, and Jamshedpur, immediately went on strike. With the reopening of the cotton mills at Ahmedabad on November 26, 1942, the political strikes and lockouts came to an end. In spite of these strikes, the majority of the workers throughout the country remained remarkably steady. Moreover, as pointed out by the Labor Member of the Government of India, there was no sabotage on the part of the strikers.

What is more important is the fact that there was no strike among the railwaymen. The disturbances in railway communication and the damages to railway property were caused largely by gangs in the rural districts and by the students in the urban areas. As pointed out by the president of the Indian Railwaymen's Federation, the vast majority of Indian workers, although in full agreement with the rest of the Indian people in demanding India's independence and national government, supported the United Nations' war against the Axis and were strongly opposed to strikes and riots.

In a recent broadcast, the Labor Member of the Government of India also pointed out that it was undeniable that Indian labor was actively cooperating in the war effort and wanted fair conditions of both work and living, including democratic ideals which could be achieved only through Allied victory.¹²

Employment and Unemployment

The rise and concentration of organized industries in a few centers away from the sources of labor supply and the increase of population faster than the volume of national employment have raised the problems of employment and unemployment in India.

LABOR SUPPLY

In spite of the vast potentialities of India as a source of labor supply, some of the organized industries were, in their early days, confronted with the difficulty of obtaining not only the right kind of labor but also a sufficient number of workers. This was especially the case with tea gardens in Assam and coal mines in Bengal and Bihar, as they were in sparsely populated regions and the nature of work was different from that to which the people were accustomed. The unhealthful conditions of most tea gardens in Assam, the lack of any organized method of recruiting, and the insufficiency of the transportation system, as well as the ignorance and immobility of the laborers themselves, added to the difficulty.

At present, however, there is scarcely any difficulty in securing sufficient unskilled and semiskilled labor, except that labor for the

¹² Indian Information (New Delhi), January 1943.

Assam tea gardens still requires some governmental control, with special reference to recruitment, transportation, and repatriation. There is, however, a dearth of skilled labor for all industries engaged in the war effort.

The essential feature of industrial labor in India is that it is migratory. Most of the factory workers, including those employed on plantations, are recruited from the rural districts, where they are occupied in agriculture and handicraft, and where they have their families and often hold land. The pressure of population on the land, the overcrowding of agriculture, and the decline of handicrafts have forced some of them to look for occupational opportunities in industrial centers, but they generally leave their families in the villages and return home periodically, especially during the planting and harvesting seasons. However, a class of industrial workers has been growing in large centers such as Bombay and Ahmedabad, becoming increasingly dependent upon industrial work as a sole means of livelihood.

RECRUITMENT AND ENGAGEMENT

Methods of recruiting and engaging labor differ in the various industries, but are characterized almost everywhere by the use of intermediaries. In the south, plantations recruit their labor forces from the neighboring villages, but in the north, especially in Bengal and Assam, the tea-garden proprietors prefer the aboriginal population of Nagpur and the Santhal Parganas. The Assam tea gardens draw their labor forces from distant parts of the country, and formerly recruited them under the indenture system which was, however, abolished in 1932. The majority of the mine workers belong to the aboriginal races and are recruited either through contractors or agents of the mines. Unskilled laborers for railways are mostly recruited locally, semiskilled laborers through promotion, and skilled laborers from outside applicants who have been trained in particular trades.

The factories are scattered all over the country and the sources of supply, as well as methods of recruitment, vary widely. Small factories in industrial centers recruit their laborers locally, but large industrial centers like Calcutta, Bombay, Ahmedabad, Nagpur, and Jamshedpur depend upon migrant labor. The most common system of engaging laborers is through the supervisor or jobber, on whom depends also the promotion, transfer, and dismissal of his workers. This system has given rise to a number of evils, such as favoritism and bribery. It was strongly criticized by the Royal Commission on Labor in 1931, which condemned the system and recommended the recruitment and engagement of workers by a specially appointed labor officer in larger factories and by the manager himself in the smaller ones.

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Unemployment has become a serious problem in India, partly because of the decline of the handicraft industries and partly because of the retarded growth of organized industries. This maladjustment between population growth and the volume of employment affects all types of workers, agricultural, educated, and industrial.

Agricultural unemployment, or rather underemployment, is a major problem. Various estimates show that most of the cultivators in

India have not sufficient work to keep them occupied for more than 6 months in the year. The fundamental causes of this underemployment are the overcrowding of agriculture far beyond its sustaining capacity, the scarcity of supplementary occupations, and the backwardness of agricultural industries. Among the remedies suggested for solving the problem are the improvement, diversification, and intensification of cultivation, the reconstruction of cottage industries and reorganization of arts and crafts in the light of modern technology and marketing, and the establishment of industries in rural areas, such as the preservation of fruits and vegetables and the manufacture of agricultural implements.

The problem of unemployment among the educated classes has become very serious, especially during the last two decades, and several commissions and committees have been appointed by most of the Provincial governments to solve the problem. The principal causes of unemployment among the educated are, first, the absence of compulsory universal education, which would employ the largest number of the graduates of colleges and universities; second, the lack of sufficient modern industries to absorb the increasing number of educated young men; and finally, the theoretical and academic nature of Indian education, which scarcely prepares young men for the technical and practical work required by modern industries and commerce.

The problem of industrial unemployment is of very recent origin. Organized industries made almost steady progress during the first quarter of the present century. After the depression of 1929 some of the industries reduced the number of their workers, through either retrenchment or rationalization. Since the beginning of the war, there has, however, been a great expansion of most industries in both handicrafts and factories. Although some of the industries such as jute, have reduced their production and working strength, most of the others have expanded production and employment, this being especially true in the cotton, sugar, iron and steel, chemical, and ordnance and munitions industries. As long as expansion continues on this scale, there may be some allocation and reallocation, but there is no likelihood of an unemployment problem, at least for the duration of the war.

The appearance of industrial unemployment has, nevertheless, raised the question of finding some measures for its remedy. Those industries which depend upon labor recruited from distant places can easily adjust the supply of labor to their demand through the control of recruitment. However, there still remains the problem of those workers who are already employed, and especially of those who have come to depend on industrial employment as a sole means of livelihood. Of the several remedial measures proposed the following are worth considering: First, the introduction of some kind of unemployment insurance fund within an industry, to which both workers and employers may contribute; second, the extension of the relief work already utilized in the case of famine and scarcity. The essence of the relief-work method is the preparation beforehand of schemes of work for the workless and putting these into operation when the flow of labor to works on which only a bare subsistence wage is paid has demonstrated the need of relief.

Efficiency and Training

The efficiency of Indian labor is rather low. By far the majority of the workers are unskilled. In 1920, for instance, only 26.9 percent of the total labor supply in certain areas was found to be skilled in the ordinary sense of the word. There are several causes for this low efficiency.

First, there is the lack of vigor and vitality among the majority of Indian workers, largely because of malnutrition and ill health, as indicated by the low expectation of life which is only 26.91 years for men and 26.56 years for women (1931) as compared with 59.06 years for men and 62.68 years for women (1929-31) in the United States. The food supply is insufficient in both quantity and quality. According to Sir John W. D. Megaw, former Director General of the Indian Medical Service, over two-thirds of the Indian people are undernourished. An analysis of the diet of the jute-mill workers in Calcutta in 1930 showed that it was deficient in animal fats, proteins, and other protective elements. Moreover, both endemic and epidemic diseases not only kill a large number of people annually but also devitalize others for efficient work.

Second, the industrial workers are almost all illiterate. According to the census of 1941, the proportion of literacy among the Indian people as a whole is only 12 percent, and practically all the workers are illiterate. "In India," said the Royal Commission on Labor of 1929-31, "nearly the whole mass of industrial labor is illiterate, a state of affairs which is unknown in any other country of industrial importance. It is almost impossible to overestimate the consequences of this disability, which are obvious in wages, in health, in productivity, in organization, and in several other directions."¹³ This illiteracy stands in the way of the workers' intelligent participation in the work and in the acquisition of skill.

Third, the absence of any permanent body of industrial workers who could make industrial labor a means of their livelihood and specialize in certain occupations makes for inefficiency. Most of the industrial workers in India are migrants and are drawn from rural districts where they are generally occupied in agriculture and handicrafts, and are quite unaccustomed to the work in modern industry. Moreover, lack of standing orders or rules of conduct stands in the way of the worker's acquiring industrial discipline, which is an important element in industrial efficiency. Although the public and semipublic establishments are subject to the Government Servants Conduct Rules, private enterprises have no standing orders or rules of conduct. In 1928 the Bombay Millowners' Association drafted a uniform set of standing orders for their workers, but they were never put into practice.

A fourth cause of inefficiency is inadequacy of management and supervision. Both of these have recently improved in most of the highly organized industries, such as the Tata Iron & Steel Co. (Jamshedpur), the British India Corporation (Cawnpore), and the Buckingham & Carnatic Mills (Madras), as well as in many other advanced industrial establishments in Bombay, Calcutta, Ahmedabad, and Nagpur. Nevertheless, the great majority of industrial enterprises need to

¹³ Report of the Royal Commission on Labor in India, 1931 (p. 27).

improve both management and supervision with special reference to proper selection and placement, adjustment of the worker to his job, personnel administration, and advancement and promotion—all essential for improving the efficiency of the worker and increasing the productivity of industry.

Finally, another important method of increasing the efficiency of an industry is rationalization, which has already been introduced in many cases. Little is known about the forms such scientific management has taken, except in the case of the cotton mills of Bombay and Ahmedabad where it has mainly meant increasing the number of machines in charge of one worker, either in the spinning or the weaving or in both departments. Most of the mills in Bombay City, however, encountered technical difficulties (e. g., coarse counts, fancy cloth, and short lengths) in adopting schemes of rationalization. Much more progress in the improvement of plants and working conditions has been made in Ahmedabad, where recently a number of up-to-date mills were built and modern machinery was installed in several old mills, though the scheme of rationalization has been adopted only in the spinning departments.

WARTIME TRAINING SCHEMES

The greatest drawback to the industrial development of India is the scarcity of technical and skilled labor, which is due mostly to the lack of facilities for technical training. Until recently, technical training was imparted by only a few educational institutions. In addition to the professional schools and colleges such as those of law, medicine, agriculture, commerce, forestry, and veterinary science, there are also technical schools and colleges. In 1937-38 these technical schools numbered 567 and had 35,794 scholars.¹⁴

The industries themselves are a more important factor in technical training. Some of them impart practical training which is often supplemented by courses in technical schools. The common method of training employees is through personal study and help from colleagues and supervisors. There are also evening classes or part-time courses, and some Government departments have organized such classes primarily for workmen in Government factories and workshops. Most of the mills in the Bombay Presidency employ apprentices for training. Coal mines have organized lectures and classes at various centers and also maintain a school of mines at Dhanbad for higher instruction in mining, engineering, and geology. The railway workshops have a system of apprenticeship for both workmen and foremen. The Tata Iron & Steel Co. maintains a technical institute for theoretical and technical training, and also supports a technical night school for the education of the workmen of the company and of the associated companies.

The most important step in training workers in modern industrial technique has, however, been undertaken by the Government of India. With a view to training new men in war industries, the Government of India appointed a Technical Training Enquiry Committee in June 1940 and on its recommendation developed a scheme of technical training. The first proposal was for the utilization of 16 technical institutions and the training of some 3,000 men in different

¹⁴ Statistical Abstract for British India, Delhi, 1940, table No. 56.

trades by intensive training for 8 to 12 months. The scheme was revised in November 1940, increasing the training capacity to 15,000 men both in educational institutions and in factories and workshops. This scheme was revised again in 1941 and the period of training was reduced to 4 months in some instances. By the end of 1942, there were 350 training centers with facilities to train 35,000 workers. The Department of Labor, which is directly in charge of these schemes, aims at providing a total seating capacity of 46,000 workers with a view to training from 50,000 to 60,000 workers annually. By the end of 1942, 16,000 workers had completed their courses and about 33,000 men were under training. It was expected that by March 1943 a total of 70,000 workers would be trained.¹⁵

In addition, the Air Force Department and Ordnance Factories have also developed their own schemes for training workmen and foremen. Part of the Government scheme has also been undertaken by the Tata Iron & Steel Co. Ernest Bevin, British Minister of Labor, also developed a scheme in November 1940 for training Indian workers in British factories and workshops. Under this scheme, about 50 workers (10 percent of whom are students from technical schools) are sent to England in groups for 6 months' training. By the end of 1942, 150 trained workmen had returned to India. According to a tentative decision, the Technical Training Scheme would be continued for a period of 18 months after the conclusion of the war, to help in supplying trained and skilled workers to the rising industries.

Health and Safety Measures

Provisions for sanitation vary from industry to industry. Owing to their location on hillsides and in forests and to the lack of adequate sanitary arrangements, most of the plantations were unhealthful in the beginning. Great improvements have recently been made on larger plantations, but much still needs to be done on the smaller ones. Although the coal mines generally are shallow and the interior passages are spacious, permitting sufficient ventilation, the lack of adequate sanitation is indicated by the prevalence of hookworm and other diseases from which a vast number of coal miners suffer. Above ground and in the living quarters, however, sanitation has been greatly improved and boards of health have been established at both Asansol and Raniganj. In larger and newer factories sanitary conditions are quite satisfactory and compare favorably with those in advanced countries; but in smaller factories, and especially in those not regulated, they require much improvement.

The question of industrial safety has become more and more important in India, with the increasing use of machinery and mechanical power. The need for improvement in safety provisions is indicated by the fact that considerable numbers of industrial accidents occur every year. The first Factories Act of 1881 contained provisions requiring various measures to be taken for the safety of workers in factories, and these provisions have been extended and elaborated in successive amendments to the act by the Government of India, as well as by the supplementary and elaborate rules issued by the Provincial governments.

¹⁵ International Labor Review (Montreal), May 1943, June 1943.

Safety in mines is also one of the main objectives of Indian mining legislation. The Mines Act of 1923, for instance, empowers the Governor General in council to make regulations providing for the safety of mine workers. In spite of a large number of fatal accidents, especially in the collieries, there has been great progress in the prevention of accidents in mines.

The most recent safety measures in the transportation industries are those provided for the dock workers engaged in handling cargoes, especially in the ports of Bombay and Calcutta. The Governor General in council has been granted powers to make regulations to safeguard the dock workers from most of the occupational risks against which the Revised Conventions of the International Labor Conferences requires protection.

Social Insurance

Workmen's compensation for industrial accidents is the most important social-insurance measure in India. In spite of gradual improvement in protective measures large numbers of accidents occur every year, amounting to 36,006 (1939) or 20.36 per thousand workers in factories, 1,757 (1940) or 5.32 per thousand workers in mines, and 17,616 (1940-41) or 24.11 per thousand employees on railways.

Data on the compensation paid for industrial accidents are available only in the case of factories. In them the number of accidents increased from 11,371 in 1925 to 35,065 for the year 1938. This increase is accounted for mostly by minor accidents or temporary disablements, which increased from 10,371 in 1925 to 32,272 in 1938, partly because of the improvement in the method of registration of accidents and partly because of the increasing desire on the part of the workers to record their injuries, however slight, in the hope of receiving compensation. The total number of industrial accidents for which compensation was paid in 1938 was 35,065 and the amount of compensation paid amounted to Rs.1,432,723 or an average of Rs. 40.9 per accident. The distribution of accidents and compensation is indicated in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation in British India, 1938*¹

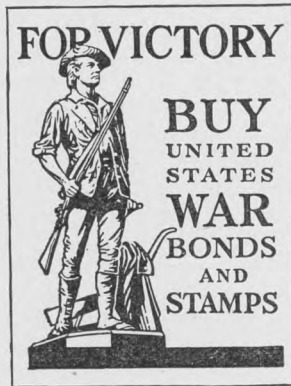
Result of accident	Accidents			Compensation			
	Total	Adults	Minors	Adults		Minors	
				Total amount	Average per person	Total amount	Average per person
Total.....	35,065	35,022	43	Rs. 1,432,165	Rs. 40.9	Rs. 558	Rs. 12.9
Deaths.....	803	802	1	610,436	761	200	200
Permanent disability.....	1,990	1,987	3	471,391	237	204	68
Temporary disability.....	32,272	32,233	39	350,338	11	154	4

¹ Data are from Workmen's Compensation Statistics for 1938, Government of India, 1940.

Another kind of social insurance which has been introduced in India is maternity benefit. Some kind of maternity benefit had long existed in several industries, e. g., in the tea gardens of Assam and Bengal, but this voluntary system was found to be quite insufficient and ineffective in times of trade depression. Since 1929, maternity-benefit

measures have been enacted by several Provinces such as Bombay, the Central Provinces, Madras, the United Provinces, and Bengal, and have also been adopted by Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. In 1936 the women deriving such benefit numbered 572, receiving an average of Rs. 17.16 per person in the Central Provinces and Berar; 946, an average of Rs. 22.42 per capita, in the Madras Presidency, and 4,310, an average of Rs. 24.16 per capita in the Bombay Presidency.¹⁶

¹⁶ Annual Reports on the Administration of the Factories Act in the respective Provinces for 1936.



Wartime Policies

Unification of Federal Agencies Concerned with Foreign Economic Affairs¹

THE President, by Executive Order No. 9361 of July 15, 1943, unified the agencies concerned with foreign economic affairs. The Board of Economic Warfare was abolished, being replaced by an Office of Economic Warfare headed by a Director who is to exercise the functions, powers, and duties of the Board of Economic Warfare.

To the Office of Economic Warfare were transferred the United States Commercial Co., the Rubber Development Corporation, the Petroleum Reserve Corporation, and the Export-Import Bank of Washington, as well as the functions, powers, and duties of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and of the Secretary of Commerce with respect to the above corporations.

Necessary funds for these corporations, until Congress provides other means of financing, are to be obtained from the Secretary of Commerce and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Such funds are to be supplied at such times and in such amounts and in such manner and upon such terms and conditions as the Director of War Mobilization, on the request of the Director of the Office of Economic Warfare, may determine.

Unless the Director of War Mobilization otherwise determines, the functions, powers, duties, outstanding contracts, and obligations relating to activities and transactions in or pertaining to foreign countries, vested in corporations organized under the Reconstruction Finance Corporation Act or by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, are to be transferred to the corporation or corporations designated by the Director of the Office of Economic Warfare.

The Executive order further provides that the functions of the Office of War Mobilization shall include the authority to arrange for the unification and coordination of the activities of the Federal Government relating to foreign supply, foreign procurement, and other foreign economic affairs in conformity with the foreign policy of the United States as defined by the Secretary of State. In providing for such unification the Office of War Mobilization may utilize the facilities of other departments and agencies, including the machinery for the coordination of foreign economic affairs established in the Department of State.

¹ Data are from Federal Register, July 17, 1943 (p. 9861).

Suspension of 8-Hour Law for Interior Department Laborers

EXECUTIVE Order No. 9360 issued on July 7, 1943, suspended the Federal law covering laborers and mechanics employed by the Department of the Interior on public works within the United States.¹ That law limits such work to 8 hours in any 1 day, except in case of extraordinary emergency. The Executive order stated that such an emergency now exists, and that there is an acute shortage of laborers and mechanics.

The order provides that the wages of such employees in the Department of the Interior shall be computed on a basic day rate of 8 hours of work with overtime to be paid for at time and a half for all hours of work in excess of 8 hours in any 1 day.

A similar Executive order covering War Department laborers was issued on December 28, 1942.²



Authority of Labor Relations Board to Investigate Validity of Collective Agreements³

THE National Labor Relations Board Appropriation Act of 1944 imposes restrictions on the authority of the Board to investigate the validity of collective agreements. Under this act, no part of the funds appropriated for the Board may be used in connection with any complaint case arising over an agreement between management and labor which has been in existence, uncontested, for 3 months or longer. This measure provides, however, that effective on the date of the act notice of such agreement must have been posted in the plant affected for 3 months, and, further, that the notice must specify an accessible place where the agreement may be inspected by any interested person.

An interpretation of the extent of the above restrictions, issued on July 16, 1943, by the General Counsel of the Board, held that the restrictions apply only to complaint and not to representation cases. In his opinion, the cases covered by the restrictions, thereby precluding investigation by the Board, included (a) acts of interference based on the making of contracts with unions not alleged to be dominated by the employer, (b) cases involving a discharge or a discrimination made pursuant to an agreement the validity of which would be affected by the Board's order, and (c) cases arising out of a refusal to bargain, in which there was an agreement with a union not alleged to be company dominated.

The General Counsel held that in the following cases the restrictions did not apply and the Board could act: (a) Cases of interference, restraint or coercion not related to the making of an agreement; (b) cases involving domination or interference with the formation or administration of a labor organization; (c) cases involving individual contracts containing illegal terms, such as the so-called

¹ Federal Register, July 10, 1943 (p. 9437).

² See Monthly Labor Review, February 1943 (p. 257).

³ Public Law 135, 78th Cong., 1st sess., approved July 12, 1943; and National Labor Relations Board, Interpretations and applications M-1551 and M-1551 sup. (July 16 and August 2, 1943).

“yellow dog” contracts; and (d) cases involving a discharge or a discrimination pursuant to agreements with allegedly company dominated unions.

Supplementary interpretations of the act were issued on August 2, 1943, by reason of a ruling of the Comptroller General. Pursuant to that ruling, the General Counsel stated that the act limited the use of funds to those cases in which charges had been filed with the Board within 3 months of the execution of a labor agreement, but prescribed no limitation as to the time within which a complaint might be issued by the Board. Also, the Board was not precluded from expending such amounts as would be necessary in connection with further proceedings in those cases as to which a decision and order were issued by the Board prior to July 1, 1943.



Directives Regarding Draft of Fathers¹

THE War Manpower Commission announced, on August 3, 1943, that Selective Service local boards were being instructed to make provision for the induction of fathers after October 1. The men thus affected are those between 18 and 37 years of age, with children born before September 15, 1942.

Announcing the decision to draft these men, the Chairman of the Commission stated that it had delayed calling fathers for military service as long as possible, and had cooperated with the armed forces to lower the physical standards and permit larger recruitment from other classes of registrants. The Commission had also urged women and men not qualified for military service to substitute for single men in every possible place in essential industry.

The directive which relates to the induction of fathers includes the following provisions: Fathers will be drafted only in such number as is absolutely required by a local board to meet a monthly call from the armed forces that cannot be filled from men other than fathers who are not eligible for occupational deferment; they will be called according to their Selective Service order numbers, without distinction regarding the number or ages of their dependent children; and those who are “key men” in agriculture or essential industry will be deferred, as will also those whose induction would cause extreme hardship and privation to their families.

State directors of the Selective Service were instructed, by telegram, that adjustments in State calls were to be made by the national headquarters, so that, as far as possible, all States would begin to call up fathers at the same time. Such adjustments were to be made without regard to the possibility that some States or local boards might, temporarily, furnish more than their share of men to the armed forces.

¹ U. S. War Manpower Commission, press releases, August 3 and 6, 1943.

Wartime Labor Control in the Union of South Africa

AFTER the outbreak of World War II, the Government of the Union of South Africa amended and liberalized its basic factory legislation and supplemented this action by a series of war measures whereby the greatly expanded labor force was made subject to various emergency controls. As the country already had an integrated system of fixing wages and conciliating or arbitrating industrial disputes, the transition from a peacetime to a wartime basis of dealing with manpower questions was facilitated.

The Union of South Africa, which is a self-governing Dominion of the British Commonwealth of Nations, was constituted by act of the British Parliament in 1909. On May 31, 1910, the self-governing colonies of Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange River Colony were united in a legislative union under one government and became the original Provinces—Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State—of the Union of South Africa. The country contains a land area of 472,550 square miles. Its population is still two-thirds rural and less than one-fifth European.

Labor Force

Of an estimated population totaling 10,341,200 persons in 1940, 2,152,700 were Europeans, 829,600 colored, 234,800 Asiatics, and 7,124,100 were natives. Agriculture, pastoral pursuits, and (following the discovery of diamond and gold deposits) mining have been the traditional forms of employment in the Union. Before the present war a mechanized manufacturing industry offered substantial scope for semiskilled workers—European, colored, and native. However, most of the skilled workers were Europeans and the majority of the natives and colored workers were unskilled. Thus, there was a considerable training problem when industry was expanded for war.

At the time of the 1936 census, the gainfully occupied population totaled 5,305,000 persons. A conservative estimate places the number of natives from beyond the borders, who were employed in the Union, at 200,000. Hence, the total of the Union's own population (numbering 9,618,000 in 1936) that was gainfully employed was 5,100,000, or 53 percent. Relatively small use was made of the services of females, of whom 43.6 percent were employed as compared with 62.6 percent of males.

Statistics are not available showing the changes in the ratios of male and female employment since that time. However, in its first report, the Social and Economic Council of the Union of South Africa stated that the main wartime change in employment was caused by enlistment and estimated that the net increase in the male and female labor force of private manufacturing industries was 33,000 between June 1939 and June 1942. The greatest development was in the engineering industry which was employing 7,000 more Europeans and 10,000 more natives than before the war. The labor force in food processing had increased by 12,000 and in chemicals, 5,500. Both the textile and the leather industries had expanded considerably. Although employment in building construction declined later, it was close to the pre-war

level in June 1942. Workers directly engaged in the production of war materials in factories wholly given over to such activities numbered 60,000, according to figures recently announced by the Prime Minister. He added that "South Africa's part in the war has not fallen very far short of a total effort."

Expansion in manufacturing employment was rapid in the 1930's. The total number of workers employed rose from 193,400 in 1925-26 to 348,500 in 1937-38.

As of September 30, 1939, statistics of native employment show only that 360,053 persons were engaged in mining and 288,000 in other employment in the chief industrial centers. The Native Farm Labor Committee estimated that in 1939 some 1,145,000 natives were employed throughout the Union on mines and railways and in industries, public administration, and domestic service. The 200,000 native agricultural workers available at any one time was inadequate. As of April 1943 the natives employed in gold mines numbered 316,370.

For mines, industry, and transportation combined, the indexes of employment (European and other) in the Union are given in the statement below by years 1929-41, and for November 1942. The indexes show a considerable rise in employment between 1939 and 1940 (from 148.9 to 155.8) and again from 1940 to 1941 (from 155.8 to 164.3). In November 1942 the index was 164.9, or practically identical with the 1941 average. However, it had risen to higher levels in the intervening months.

	<i>Index (1929=100) of employment, mining, industry, and commerce</i>		<i>Index (1929=100) of employment, mining, industry, and commerce</i>
1929	100.0	1936	134.9
1930	99.3	1937	143.1
1931	95.2	1938	148.1
1932	88.7	1939	148.9
1933	94.9	1940	155.8
1934	108.1	1941	164.3
1935	122.1	1942 (November)	164.9

Basic Labor Legislation

FACTORIES ACT, 1941

When the Factories, Machinery, and Building Work Act of 1941 came into operation on September 1, 1941, the law of 1918 on factories ceased to operate. Coverage of this later legislation extends to many classes of productive activity which were not within the scope of the 1918 measure—power stations, Government and municipal workshops, and workshops conducted by institutions. The 1941 act excludes from coverage reformatories, industrial schools, and institutions which are maintained wholly or partly from public funds and are wholly engaged in education or vocational training.

Basic hours of work were reduced by the 1941 law from 48 weekly to 46. Originally no limit was placed on the amount of overtime an employee might work but the recent law specifies that overtime shall not exceed 10 hours a week. The premium pay for overtime was raised from time and a fourth to time and a third. Paid holidays prescribed under the 1941 factory legislation consisted of a total of 4 public holidays and 2 weeks' annual leave. The minimum age for employment was advanced from 14 to 15 years. Maximum allow-

ances for women for absences from work owing to pregnancy and confinement were increased from £1 a week for 12 weeks to £1 5s. a week for 16 weeks.

SHOP HOURS ACT, 1939

Conditions of employment in retail stores are regulated by the Shop Hours Act of June 19, 1939. Under its terms, maximum hours are restricted to 46 per week and 8 per day in urban areas to be designated by the Minister of Labor. The daily "spread-over" may exceed the regular hours by 2 hours. No daily limit is placed on hours in rural areas but the daily spread-over may be limited to 12 hours. The act provides for unpaid overtime not to exceed 1 hour per week to serve late customers, and for paid overtime not to exceed 30 hours a year to do work not reasonably possible during ordinary hours, and 15 hours a year to pack and dispatch goods. Any necessary emergency work (i. e., caused by fire, storm, etc.) is unrestricted. The rate of overtime pay is time and a quarter. The paid vacation to be granted is at least 14 days a year (exclusive of paid holidays), or 1 day's pay per month for each month of employment if the employment terminates before the employee completes a year's service.

When the conditions of employment are already covered by either a wage determination or an industrial agreement, the conditions established by the Shop Hours Act are superseded. The majority of employees in stores work under conditions fixed by determinations under the Wage Act, which, according to the Union of South Africa Department of Labor, operate in 44 towns and villages in the Union. The terms of the shops legislation are applicable, therefore, only to the very small towns and villages.

WAGE ACT, 1937

The Wage Act which came into operation on December 15, 1937, superseded the law on the same subject enacted in 1925. Under the 1937 law the Wage Board consisting of three members was retained and the chairman and members of the Board or one of its divisions, who were appointed under the 1925 act and still in office were deemed to have been appointed under the new measure. Trade-unions and employer organizations have the right to nominate additional members for specific investigations.

The Minister of Labor may direct that the Wage Board make an investigation of one or more classes of employees in any section of trade. The need for safeguarding civilized standards of living is recognized in the section of the law which requires the Board to report on classes of employees regarding which it would be equitable to pay remuneration at such rates as would enable them to maintain civilized standards.

Power is given to the Board to make recommendations to the Minister, covering all phases of employer-employee relations, but before making any recommendation the Board is obliged to take into account the ability of employers to fulfill the requirements and still operate their businesses. Final determination regarding a recommendation is the prerogative of the Minister, who may first publish a recommendation of the Board to give interested persons an opportunity to file complaints.

CONCILIATION ACT, 1937

The Industrial Conciliation Act was also enacted in 1937 and became effective in December of that year. Its main object is to prevent and settle disputes between employers and employees by conciliation, and in certain cases by arbitration, and to register and regulate trade-unions, employer organizations, and private registry offices. It covers all industries and occupations except agriculture or farming employment, Government employment (including the railway administration), and work done at charitable or educational institutions.

Recognition is given to the establishment of industrial councils consisting of employers or registered employers' organizations and registered trade-unions or groups of such unions. When registered, these bodies may deal with matters of mutual interest and take the necessary steps to prevent and settle disputes. Agreements reached by the parties may be published by the Minister of Labor and made binding on the parties concerned or throughout the industry. In the application of this principle of the "common rule," native employees might be covered by an agreement even though they could not be parties to an agreement under the definition of "employee" which excluded them from participation.

Where there is no industrial machinery such as the foregoing, the Minister may form conciliation boards, on the request of either party, to perform the functions described. However, he may act on his own initiative if the dispute affects essential services, in which strikes and lockouts are prohibited. Compulsory arbitration follows automatically if conciliation fails in cases involving essential services, as well as in those where an industrial council does not bring about a voluntary settlement by means of conciliation.

In addition to the prohibition of strikes in essential services, persons are forbidden to strike during the life of an agreement, under the terms of this basic legislation.

General War Powers

A series of general war acts and proclamations empowered the Union Government to take extraordinary measures in the control of labor during the emergency. The first of these (known as the National Emergency Regulations, Proclamation No. 201) was adopted on September 14, 1939, and forms the basis for later action. In 1940, the War Measures Act of April 8 validated proclamations and regulations that had been scheduled previously. The War Measures Amendment Act of September 16, 1940, in turn validated proclamations and conferred certain broad powers on the Governor General, with the exception of the power to impose military conscription. A proclamation based on the War Measures Act was gazetted on May 15, 1942, under the terms of which the Director General of War Supplies was granted authority to conscript persons, services, and industries needed for the efficient prosecution of the war.

Price Control

In the Union, wartime price control hinges primarily on the control of profits, as the most sensitive element in prices, rather than on the control of retail prices (as is done in certain other countries by

means of subsidy). Thus, in South Africa, prices paid to primary producers of agricultural products, the landed cost of imported goods, and industrial wages have advanced owing to the war, but the expectation was that by controlling profits, the rise in prices would be no faster than the advance in costs.

The cutting off of low-priced raw materials from the East and the increases in wages and cost-of-living allowances all contributed toward price rises. The merchants were permitted some relief to compensate for these rises. Stated maximum prices were fixed for most household commodities.

The course of wholesale- and retail-price indexes is shown below for the years 1929-42 and for January 1943.

	Indexes of—			Indexes of—	
	Wholesale prices (January 1914=1,000)	Retail prices (1938=1,000)		Wholesale prices (January 1914=1,000)	Retail prices (1938=1,000)
1929	1,269	1,072	1938	1,142	1,000
1932	1,004	891	1939	1,115	993
1933	1,018	917	1940	1,238	1,025
1934	1,112	964	1941	1,360	1,099
1935	1,037	947	1942	1,526	1,211
1936	1,079	942	1943 (January)	1,623	1,267
1937	1,105	954			

After the initial and rapid price rise following the outbreak of war, the increase slackened through 1940 and into 1941. Unfavorable weather and increasing shortages of shipping, in combination with declining stocks and increased demand, resulted in a sharp price rise in the summer of 1941.

More comprehensive control measures were therefore adopted. By War Measure No. 27 of August 1, 1941, the Minister of Commerce and Industries was authorized (on the recommendation of the National Supplies Control Board) to fix maximum prices for specific goods, either at a fixed price regardless of cost or at a fixed percentage over cost; to license purchase, sale, and exchange; to limit the amounts that might be possessed or acquired by any individual; to regulate the manufacture of goods using materials necessary to the war effort; and to fix charges for services.

Later in the same month, by War Measure No. 33 (August 29, 1941), a Price Controller was appointed. Authority to establish manufacturers' wholesale and retail prices, either at a fixed price or at a percentage above cost, and to fix maximum charges for services, was transferred from the National Supplies Control Board to the Price Controller.

Rent-control boards came into operation during the summer of 1941, to investigate written complaints of unreasonable rent. A rent-control board was established under the Minister of Social Welfare to guide and control the various rent boards and to review decisions, where requested. Rents were frozen at the March 31, 1940, level, except for increases granted by permission of the board. Rents of business premises were frozen at the level of August 21, 1942, with certain exceptions, and a special War Measure (No. 89) of the same date consolidated previous rent-control measures and forbade increases over the April 1, 1941, level, except by permission of the National Supplies Control Board.

During October 1941 the Controller fixed maximum charges for a number of commodities and services. Throughout 1942, the maximum prices were extended to cover nearly all household commodities, many articles of clothing, and iron scrap. On September 25, 1942, War Measure No. 100 was published, governing price control and the prevention of hoarding. It consolidated previous price-control measures, listed specific methods of fixing prices, and limited the amount of goods to be stocked.

Wages and Cost of Living

The cost of living rose from an index of 94 in 1939 (based on costs in 1929 as 100) to 110 in 1942, as shown in the statement following. The index was at its lowest level (87) in 1933, as compared with 100 in 1929; it rose irregularly to 97 in the first full year of war, and thereafter the rate of annual increase was accelerated.

Cost-of-living index (1929=100)		Cost-of-living index (1929=100)	
1929.....	100	1939.....	94
1932.....	90	1940.....	97
1933.....	87	1941.....	102
1934.....	89	1942.....	110
1935.....	88	1943:	
1936.....	88	January.....	114
1937.....	91	February.....	114
1938.....	94		

The cost of living was reported to be still rising steadily in the early months of 1943. In April of this year, living costs were 23.2 percent higher than in the pre-war period for the nine principal urban centers. The March average had increased 22.6 percent over the pre-war level; clothing had advanced by 51 percent; eggs, 75 percent; milk, 30 percent; meat, 38 percent; fruit and vegetables, 64 percent; and soap, 38 percent.

Index numbers of money and real wages given below show that money wages increased by 1 point between 1937 and 1938 but that prices rose more rapidly, with the result that the index of real wages dropped 3 points to 107. In 1939 both money and real wages advanced 1 point. The provisional figures for 1940 indicate that there was a rise in money wages of 1 point but a drop of 2 points in real wages, the indexes being 103 and 106, respectively.

Index numbers (1929=100)			Index numbers (1929=100)		
	Money wages	Real wages		Money wages	Real wages
1931.....	97	103	1936.....	100	112
1932.....	93	104	1937.....	100	110
1933.....	94	108	1938.....	101	107
1934.....	94	106	1939.....	102	108
1935.....	98	111	1940.....	¹ 103	¹ 106

¹ Provisional figure.

Cost-of-living wage adjustments.—Effective on August 4, 1941, a cost-of-living allowance scheme was introduced under War Measure No. 28. It applied to all employees earning up to 74s. a week, other than State employees, domestic servants in private households, and laborers employed in agriculture or mining. The allowance author-

ized amounted to 1s. per week plus 6d. for every 10s. by which the employees' weekly wage exceeded 10s., with a maximum of 4s. a week.

War Measure No. 43 of May 1942 replaced the preceding provisions for cost-of-living allowances and substituted a new scale of weekly cost-of-living allowances as follows:

Weekly pay of—	<i>Cost-of-living allowance</i>
Up to 20s.-----	2s.
Over 20s. and up to 40s.-----	3s.
Over 40s. and up to 60s.-----	4s. 6d.
Over 60s. and up to 80s.-----	6s.
Over 80s.-----	7s. 6d.

Under the terms of War Measure No. 43 it was also provided that the cost-of-living allowance might be suspended for employees entitled to receive such allowances under the terms of their agreements with management. Therefore, measures were taken for individual industries to conform to this provision and allow employees to receive the agreement allowances in lieu of those for industry generally.

Hours of Work

Hours of labor in industry fluctuated violently shortly after the outbreak of war, owing to labor shortages in the engineering industry. An excessive amount of overtime was worked, partly to fill orders and partly to satisfy employees who were dissatisfied because they did not get as much overtime as employees in other establishments.

On July 10, 1941, the Controller fixed the minimum workweek at 54 hours for workshop employees in the engineering industry. Under the provisions of the Factories Act of 1918, which was then in effect, this requirement resulted in 6 hours of overtime being worked over and above the basic 48-hour week. The maximum workweek in the engineering industry is 60 hours. When the Factories, Machinery and Building Work Act became law on September 1, 1941, reducing the basic workweek to 46 hours, workshop employees became subject to 8 hours of compulsory overtime weekly.

By decree of the Minister of Labor, various industries and firms have been ordered to carry on continuous operations under the Factories, Machinery and Building Work Act.

Manpower Control

CONTROL OF SEAMEN

The first war manpower regulation (War Measure No. 10 of December 20, 1940) provided for the control of merchant seamen. This power was delegated to the Merchant Shipping Control Commission. If any seaman in a South African port under contract to a vessel of Great Britain, India, or a British Dominion fails to perform his duty or refuses to accept employment offered on such a ship upon expiration of his contract, the regulation declares such action to be a punishable offense. On conviction, the seaman may be bound to accept the work he refused, if the master is willing and the sentence is suspended. Further control was placed on seamen by War Measure No. 55 of December 5, 1941, when it was provided that any merchant seaman shall be subject to arrest and return to his vessel if there is reason to believe that he does not have the intention of returning to his work at the time it would be his duty to do so.

AUTHORITY FOR GENERAL CONTROL OF MANPOWER

General responsibility for the control of manpower was given to the Minister of Defense. War Measure No. 6 of 1941 (published on February 13, 1941) provided that a Controller of Industrial Manpower should be appointed. The Minister of Labor was appointed to this office and is assisted by a Labor Control Board on which employees and employers are represented. The Controller is responsible to the Minister and is charged with insuring that the resources of any controlled industry are used in the way calculated to yield the best results in the interests of the defense of the Union or the efficient prosecution of the war, or for the maintenance of supplies and services essential to the life of the community.

Specifically, the Controller of Industrial Manpower was empowered to (1) prohibit the performance of any specified work or type of work; (2) prohibit the engagement, resignation, or discharge of specified classes of employees without his prior consent; (3) regulate remuneration, hours of work, and other conditions (subject to existing industrial-council agreements and wage determinations); (4) settle any labor dispute which in his opinion may affect the labor available for the making of munitions; (5) regulate "emergency labor"; and (6) terminate or suspend the employment of any employee, and transfer employees from one establishment to another.

According to the 1941 report of the South African Department of Labor, engineering, building, stevedoring, and boot and shoe manufacturing had been placed under control.

MANPOWER CONTROL IN SPECIFIC INDUSTRIES

Engineering industry.—Among the principal functions of the Controller is the prevention of unnecessary movements of skilled workers in industries that are vital to the war effort. Therefore, regulations were issued prohibiting the engagement of any engineering journeyman without the consent of the Controller, who must also be notified whenever the employment of such journeyman is terminated. The publication of advertisements offering employment to these workers is prohibited. Also employers are forbidden to pay any engineering journeyman at a higher rate than was being paid on November 14, 1941, when this limitation was published. Any increase in pay, owing to the terms of an industrial-council agreement, is not subject to this prohibition nor are the increases agreed upon by any employer and an employee in his regular employment or granted in accordance with established practice in the workshop concerned. The employees over whom control was ordered are journeymen, blacksmiths, boiler-makers, coppersmiths; electricians, fitters, millwrights, molders, patternmakers, toolsmiths or toolmakers, turners, and welders.

As it was obvious early in the war that the labor supply of the engineering industry would be inadequate to meet the requirements, plans were made for some form of dilution of labor. Discussions between the Government and representatives of trade-unions and employer organizations took place in October 1939. Anticipating a certain amount of unemployment in trades, such as building, it was agreed that unemployed artisans from other industries should be given preference in filling vacancies for "emergency workers" (that is,

extra workers required) in the engineering industry. Organized labor favored this proposal, believing that the dispersal of emergency workers after the war would be facilitated if they could return to their own industries. In practice, the plan failed to operate because there was little or no unemployment and artisans from other industries were not available in sufficient numbers.

It was inevitable therefore, that woman emergency workers should be employed, and steps were taken in July 1941 to regulate the admission of woman workers to the industry. The regulations issued on May 26, 1942, provided that no employer may employ female labor without the permission of the Controller; such employment is to expire immediately upon the withdrawal of control over the engineering industry under War Measure No. 6 of 1941; and no employer may require or permit a female emergency worker to work over 48 hours in any week without permission from the Controller. The regulations fixed rates of pay for females ranging from 1s. 5d. to 2s. 5d. per hour, according to the experience of the employee and the type of work.

Building industry.—When labor shortages appeared in the building industry early in 1941 the Government, which was engaged in a large building program, decided to declare building a controlled industry. In addition to the controls placed on the engagement and discharge of workers, etc., when the industry was ordered controlled on July 10, 1941, the Controller prohibited the performance of any building work of a value of £2,000 or more, without his consent, and fixed the weekly working hours at a maximum of 60. On August 29, 1941, minimum weekly hours of work were placed at 54 for electricians and at 51.5 $\frac{1}{2}$ for other artisans and apprentices, if engaged on defense work. On September 24, 1941, it was provided that permission must be obtained from the Controller to construct buildings valued at £250 (instead of £2,000, as previously) in the principal urban areas and in any other areas where building work was being performed for defense purposes. The same notice forbade advertising for the services of building-trades workers. An order "freezing" wages was published, which followed the principles observed in the engineering industry.

Advisory committees under the chairmanship of divisional inspectors of labor were established at the chief centers. They were instructed to deal with applications for permits to build, in such manner as to meet defense requirements without causing unemployment. The committee also assisted the controllers of building materials by requiring applicants to show that they could obtain their material by legitimate means, without applying for the release of frozen stocks. The system worked smoothly and the hope was that the restrictions might be relaxed early in 1942. However, this was not feasible and, as the building program continued to expand, the power to issue building permits was given to a Controller of Building in July 1942. The advisory committees were retained and the Controller of Industrial Manpower remained responsible for controlling the movement of labor, hours of work, and related matters in the building industry.

Stevedoring.—Stevedoring was declared a controlled industry in August 1941, to enable the Controller to deal with a strike in Durban. On August 20, 1941, minimum wages were fixed at 4s. 6d. daily plus 6d. as a cost-of-living allowance for stevedores at Durban. Overtime pay for hours in excess of 9 per day was at the rate of 8d. an hour on

weekdays and 11d. an hour on Sundays. In August 1942, stevedores at Durban again ceased work and demanded a minimum daily wage of 8s. The Controller of Industrial Manpower published a notice on November 20, 1942, whereby the basic daily minimum wages for stevedores at Durban were raised to 5s. plus a 1s. cost-of-living allowance. Overtime rates were increased also.

Boot and shoe industry.—The sole purpose of placing the boot and shoe manufacturing industry under control in September 1941 was to control the engagement of skilled workers. No other measures were taken for the control of this branch of the leather industry.

COMPULSORY REGISTRATION OF WORKERS

In April 1942 employers were required to report on all European employees. On the termination of the employment of any worker or the engagement of new workers, the change must be reported to the Secretary of Defense, who is Director of Recruiting. By regulation, all journeymen in the engineering industry were required to register with their divisional labor inspectors. Information was to be given concerning all men under and over the age of 45 years, the number of women under and over age 41, and whether they had enlisted in the armed forces, had been exempted, or were willing but unable to enlist.

Industrial Disputes

ARBITRATION MACHINERY

The peacetime provisions for the settlement of industrial disputes were supplemented under the terms of War Measure No. 9 of January 28, 1942, covering the settlement of labor disputes in wartime. Broad discretionary powers are accorded to the Minister of Labor, who, under the provisions of this measure, may appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators to settle any existing labor dispute or any which may arise which "affects or may affect adversely the effective prosecution of the war or the maintenance of services and supplies essential to the life of the community." An arbitrator or arbitrators so appointed may make any award authorized under existing wage-regulating measures. Such an award takes precedence over any existing provisions, applied by some other wage-regulating machinery. In this way power that was decentralized between the Wage Board and industrial councils and conciliation boards was concentrated under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Labor. After consultation with the trade-unions and employers affected, the Minister makes an award which supersedes previous awards of wage boards and determinations of industrial-council agreements.

Again on December 19, 1942 (by War Measure No. 145), changes were made in the provisions for arbitration. The Minister of Labor was given the authority to appoint arbitrators in actual or threatened labor disputes affecting employees in any industry, trade, or enterprise (not only those that might adversely affect the war effort). An arbitrator may apply all or any of the provisions of his award to persons who are employees as defined in the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1937, and to employers of such persons, if in his opinion it is necessary to insure the fulfillment of the objects of the award.

The Industrial Conciliation Act of 1937, governing trade-union privileges, did not grant status to native workers, as they were excluded from the definition of the term "employee." Therefore, an association of natives could not claim to be a trade-union within the meaning of the legislation. Registration of native unions was not permitted and, owing to this lack of recognition, there was little incentive for the natives to organize for trade purposes. However, in 1942, the Government agreed to recognize native trade-unions, which were brought under the terms of the Conciliation Act. As a result, unskilled workers, whether native or European, are now on an equal footing as to collective bargaining.

LIMITATIONS ON STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS

Before the present war, the Government attempted to prevent labor stoppages in several ways. By the terms of the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1937 (section 65) no strike or lockout is permissible during the effective period of an industrial-council agreement or an award made by an arbitrator or umpire. Under the 1937 legislation, arbitration was compulsory in the Union of South Africa when a dispute occurred between a local authority and its employees who were engaged in work connected with the supply of light, power, water, sanitation, passenger transportation, or the extinguishing of fires; and arbitration was compulsory and strikes were forbidden in essential services provided by private individuals, as well.

To meet war conditions alterations were made in the pre-war methods of settling industrial disputes, as already mentioned, and for the avoidance of strikes. By the regulation of January 28, 1942 (War Measure No. 9), strikes and lockouts were forbidden after the appointment of the arbitrator to handle a particular case. The arbitrator was defined for the first time as a civil servant or member of the Wage Board. However, strikes and lockouts are not prohibited absolutely.

Following the promulgation of War Measure No. 9 and the regulations for its enforcement, important strikes were called among natives. The Government, noting the ill effects of postponing the operation of wage determinations in certain strikes among natives and noting the heterogeneous nature of the laws which the strikers transgressed, took further action on December 19, 1942 (War Measure No. 145). Every strike became illegal, as the regulations provide that "no employee or other person shall initiate or take part in a strike or in the continuation of a strike and no employer or other person shall initiate or take part in a lockout or in the continuation of a lockout." For contravention of these provisions heavy cash fines or imprisonment, or both, might be imposed. In prohibiting strikes by natives, at least, the Government has not introduced anything new, as practically all native strikes would contravene the Masters and Servants Act. However, the penalties for striking are far heavier under War Measure No. 145 than under previous law.

SOURCES.—The data on which this article is based are from the following: Union of South Africa Official Yearbook, 1941; Union of South Africa, Third Interim Report of Industrial and Agricultural Requirements Commission, 1943; Union of South Africa Department of Labor, Report, 1941; South African Journal of Economics, March 1943; International Labor Review (Montreal), various issues; International Labor Office Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1942; I. L. O. Yearbook, 1939-40; unpublished data from U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce; Foreign Commerce Weekly (Washington, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce), various issues; Statesman's Yearbook, 1942; Britannica Book of the Year, 1940; and reports from William P. Wright, United States consul at Johannesburg.

Employment and Labor Conditions

Wartime Expansion in Machine-Tool Industry¹

THE War Production Board announced recently that "the United States at last has the machine tools and capital equipment it needs to defeat the Axis." Although some segments of the machine-tool industry still have heavy backlogs of orders, the peak of machine-tool employment has passed and many machine-tool plants are converting to the production of munitions. This seems an appropriate time to review the employment and man-hour picture during the tooling-up stage of the war. In 1939 the machine-tool industry was a relatively small industry which, while making possible mass production in other industries, was itself unmechanized. Average wage-earner employment in this industry in 1939 was 36,600. At the peak in January 1943 it was more than three times as great.²

The machine-tool industry, as referred to here, includes establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture of power-driven machine tools employing a cutting tool for work on metal. Machine-tool accessories, dies, and machinists' precision tools are not included here but will be covered in a later report.

Trend in Employment

The impact of the war was felt first and most directly by the machine-tool industry. Before those industries which make fighting equipment could expand, the machine-tool industry had to furnish the tools. The conversion to the manufacture of war products by all industries was dependent upon the ability of the machine-tool industry to build the particular tools required for the special job at hand. Employment in the durable-goods industries as a whole increased at a much lower rate, as may be seen in the following comparison of indexes of wage-earner employment, based on January 1939, in the machine-tool industry and in the durable-goods industries.

	<i>Machine tools</i>	<i>Durable goods</i>
January 1939.....	100	100
January 1940.....	156	119
January 1941.....	226	144
January 1942.....	309	183
January 1943.....	398	236

The machine-tool industry expanded very rapidly and steadily. From January 1939 to January 1943, employment grew from 31,000 wage earners to 123,000 (table 1). However, this is only part of the

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Employment Statistics by Clara F. Schloss.

² In December 1941 the publication of employment and pay-roll data for the machine-tool industry was stopped, as it was felt that these figures might indicate the state of preparedness of the United States.

story. In their desire to supply tools as speedily as possible, machine-tool manufacturers subcontracted a good deal of their work, the subcontracts ranging from small parts to large subassemblies and complete machines. Employment in firms engaged in subcontracting is not covered by this report; nor is employment in firms which produced machine tools as a wartime measure but whose peacetime classification was outside the machine-tool industry. For this reason the peak employment figure as described in this report is a minimum.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in the Machine-Tool Industry, by Months, 1939-43

Year	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands) in—											
	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	30.8	31.9	32.8	33.6	34.3	35.2	35.8	34.1	38.0	41.6	44.7	46.8
1940.....	47.9	49.9	51.4	52.7	53.9	55.8	57.1	57.8	60.4	62.8	64.7	67.2
1941.....	69.6	72.4	74.8	77.1	79.8	82.4	84.2	85.6	86.9	88.0	89.3	91.5
1942.....	95.2	99.6	103.9	108.2	110.6	113.9	116.1	117.7	118.6	120.0	121.0	122.0
1943.....	122.6	121.4	120.3	118.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Trend in Hours per Week

Expanding employment, subcontracting, and conversion were accompanied by a lengthening workweek. The average workweek in the machine-tool industry increased from 38.1 hours in January 1939 to a peak of 55.0 in January 1942. Since January 1942, reductions have been made in the weekly hours; nevertheless, the average hours per week in the machine-tool industry in April 1943 was 52.0. This was greater than in any other industry; hours in the durable-goods industries as a whole averaged 46.8. Although the workweek has been extended in nearly all industries, this extension occurred very early in the machine-tool industry. Indexes of hours of work, based on January 1939, in the manufacture of machine tools and in the durable-goods industries are shown in the accompanying statement.

	Machine tools	Durable-goods industries
January 1939.....	100	100
January 1940.....	124	105
January 1941.....	132	112
January 1942.....	144	120
January 1943.....	138	126

Actual hours of work per week, by months, from January 1939 through April 1943, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Average Hours Worked per Week in the Machine-Tool Industry, by Months, 1939-43

Year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	38.1	39.9	40.2	40.9	42.4	42.4	41.8	42.6	43.0	44.9	47.0	48.2
1940.....	47.4	47.8	48.3	47.9	47.5	47.9	47.5	46.7	48.4	49.1	48.0	50.6
1941.....	50.4	51.9	51.9	51.0	52.1	52.0	50.9	51.2	51.4	52.0	51.0	53.8
1942.....	55.0	54.9	54.6	53.9	54.1	53.8	52.7	52.8	51.2	52.5	52.8	53.0
1943.....	52.5	51.8	52.0	52.0	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Although this report does not attempt to measure machine-tool production, perhaps the best measure of labor input is total man-hours. On the basis of man-hours, the maximum of the industry was reached in December 1942, when 6,466,000 hours went into the production of machine tools. This was $5\frac{1}{2}$ times as many hours as in January 1939.

Geographical Distribution

A special survey of 61 firms, employing 64 percent of all wage earners in the machine-tool industry in October 1939, was made for the purpose of noting any dislocation of employment which may have resulted from the vast wartime expansion. The evenness with which expansion took place is reflected in the fact that these same 61 firms employed 67 percent of the total wage earners in April 1943. Ohio, the most important single State in the manufacture of machine tools, employed 26.8 percent of the wage earners covered by this study in October 1939 and 26.2 percent in April 1943. The probable explanation for the fact that the geographical distribution of the greater part of the machine-tool plants at the peak of wartime production was substantially the same as the beginning of the war is that the quickest method of increasing production is to utilize existing facilities to their utmost capacity. The building of new plants is of necessity slow and expensive.

Further evidence of the unusual evenness with which expansion took place may be seen in table 3. The estimated employment for the machine-tool industry as a whole, which included new firms, expanded somewhat less than was the case in the 61 selected established firms. On a regional basis, the North Central region which contained 7 of the selected firms, experienced greater expansion than either Ohio or the New England region, but all three regions employed more than three times as many wage earners in 1943 as in October 1939.

TABLE 3.—*Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in the Machine-Tool Industry in United States and Selected Regions*

[October 1939=100]

Month and year	United States		Region		
	Entire industry (estimated)	61 selected plants	Ohio: 25 plants	New England (Connecticut, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Vermont): 25 plants	North Central (Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin): 7 plants
October 1939.....	100	100	100	100	100
October 1940.....	151	155	155	151	167
October 1941.....	212	219	215	213	251
October 1942.....	288	304	297	302	321
January 1943.....	295	310	306	308	332
April 1943.....	286	300	293	301	315

Labor Turnover

Labor turnover data indicate the nature of the employment situation and its development. Whereas in the first quarter of 1939 layoffs were the dominant component of total separations, in September 1939 (the beginning of the war in Europe) quits were the major factor and have remained so. The jump in the rate for miscellaneous separations (which include military separations) in 1942 reflects the entry of the United States into the war.

TABLE 4.—Labor Turnover Rates in the Machine-Tool Industry, 1939 to April 1943

[Rates are per 100 wage earners, 1939-42; for 1943, rates are per 100 employees]

Year and month	Separations	Quits	Discharges	Lay-offs	Miscellaneous ¹	Accessions
1939: annual average.....	1.44	0.82	0.12	0.50	(²)	4.34
1940: annual average.....	2.06	1.29	.39	.26	0.12	4.70
1941: annual average.....	2.84	2.01	.44	.13	.26	5.33
1942: annual average.....	4.82	3.02	.52	.09	1.18	7.12
1943:						
January.....	5.69	3.28	.54	.26	1.61	5.68
February.....	5.52	3.26	.47	.30	1.49	4.97
March.....	5.79	3.68	.54	.07	1.50	5.36
April.....	5.65	3.59	.59	.24	1.23	4.44

SEPARATION RATES

Year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
1939.....	1.02	1.52	1.36	1.28	1.16	1.25	0.99	1.25	2.06	1.84	1.92	1.62
1940.....	1.85	2.08	1.99	1.90	2.36	2.21	2.09	1.97	2.61	2.11	2.08	1.52
1941.....	2.44	2.42	2.88	3.10	3.01	2.84	2.79	3.31	3.53	2.70	2.31	2.72
1942.....	3.74	3.21	3.77	4.84	4.56	4.35	4.73	5.36	6.41	6.60	5.58	4.67
1943.....	5.69	5.52	5.79	5.65								

QUIT RATES

1939.....	0.44	0.52	0.56	0.64	0.75	0.60	0.61	0.79	1.38	1.38	1.26	0.91
1940.....	.91	.98	1.21	1.14	1.29	1.28	1.28	1.54	1.92	1.53	1.47	.98
1941.....	1.77	1.58	1.85	2.22	2.22	1.99	2.02	2.55	2.76	1.93	1.59	1.58
1942.....	2.46	2.23	2.75	3.50	3.17	2.86	3.02	3.41	3.87	3.64	3.02	2.35
1943.....	3.28	3.26	3.68	3.59								

¹ Includes military separations, beginning with September 1940.² Included in quits.

Characteristics of Applicants for Old-Age and Survivors Insurance¹

Summary

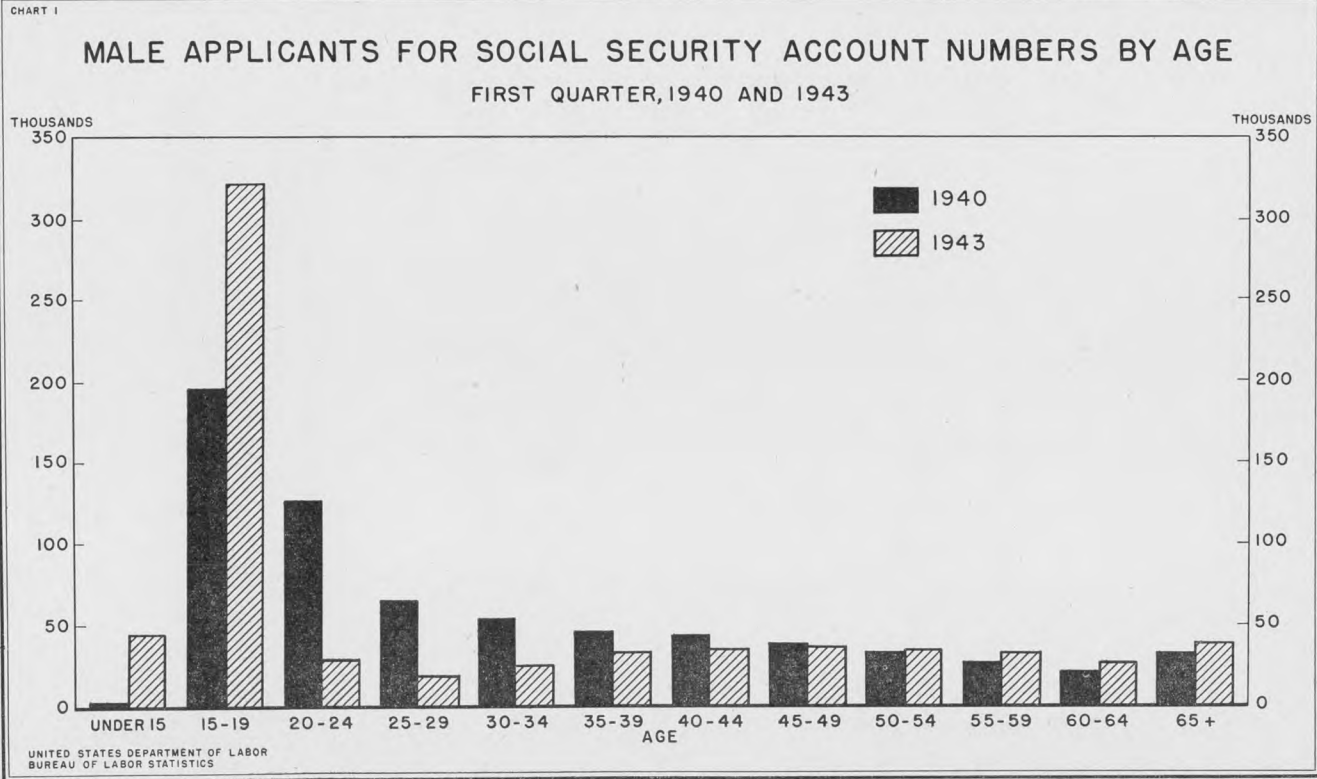
THE demands for manpower by the armed forces and industry since the beginning of the present war have materially changed the age and sex characteristics of persons who are now looking for work. The supply of those who were most easily available for entrance into the labor force has long since been exhausted. Large numbers of women over 30 years of age and children who would normally remain in school now comprise the greater part of the expanding portion of the labor force. There is also considerable shifting from low-paid agricultural work and domestic service to higher-paid industrial work, especially among Negro women. Some evidence on age, sex, and color of the expanding wartime labor force are available from the applications for social security account numbers. Analysis of these indicates that the number of woman applicants exceeded the males by 50 percent during the first quarter of 1943. Among the women 35 to 59 years of age there was an increase of over 200 percent in the first 3 months of 1943 as compared to the same period of 1940.

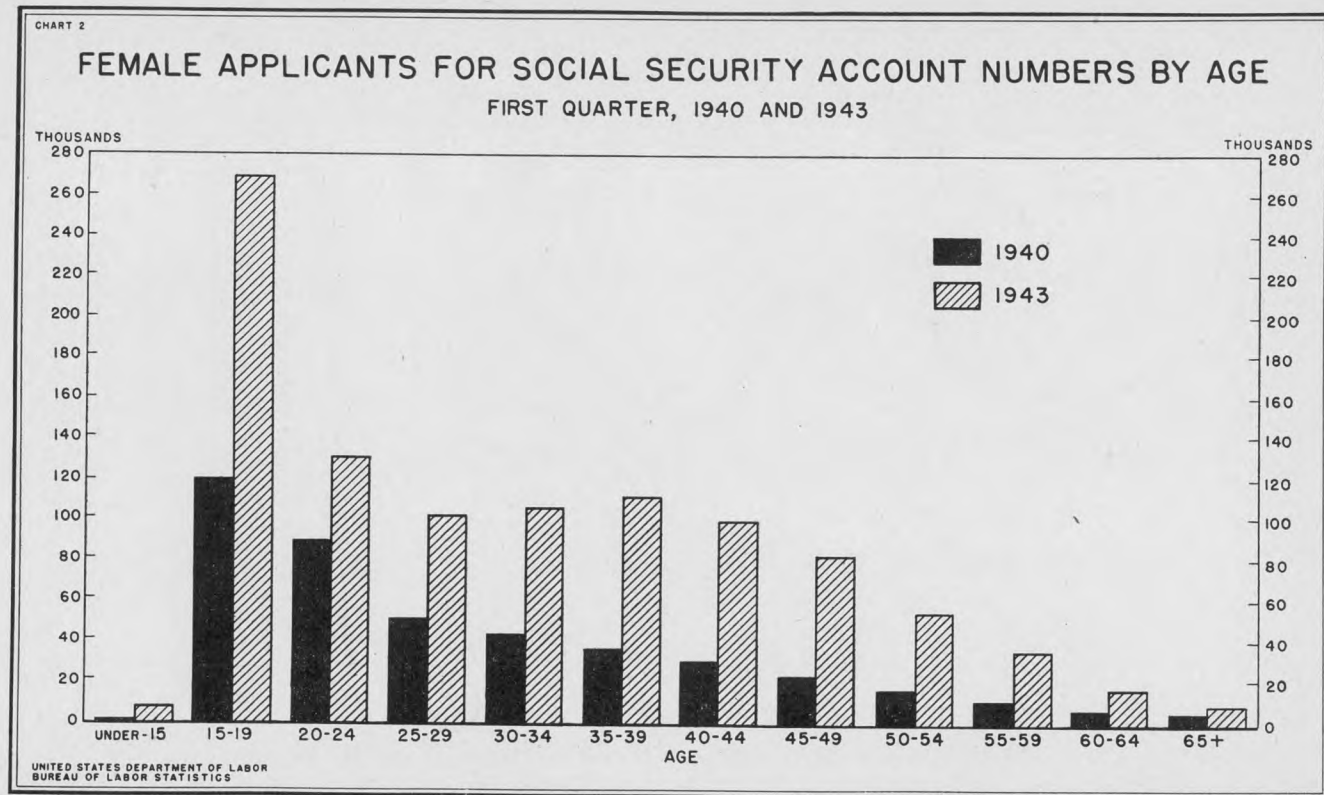
Persons employed in industries covered by the old-age and survivors insurance program comprise about four-fifths of the working population and include practically all persons in the rapidly growing war industries, except Government employees. Because these data represent applicants for account numbers and not job holders, they must be used with some degree of caution. Some of the applicants may never acquire a job or may take employment in an industry not covered by the OASI program, such as Government, railroads, agriculture, or domestic service. Others are already in the labor force but desire to shift employment from a noncovered to a covered industry. A small amount of duplication occurs because of persons with more than one account number. These difficulties, however, are not great enough to preclude the statistical use of the records.

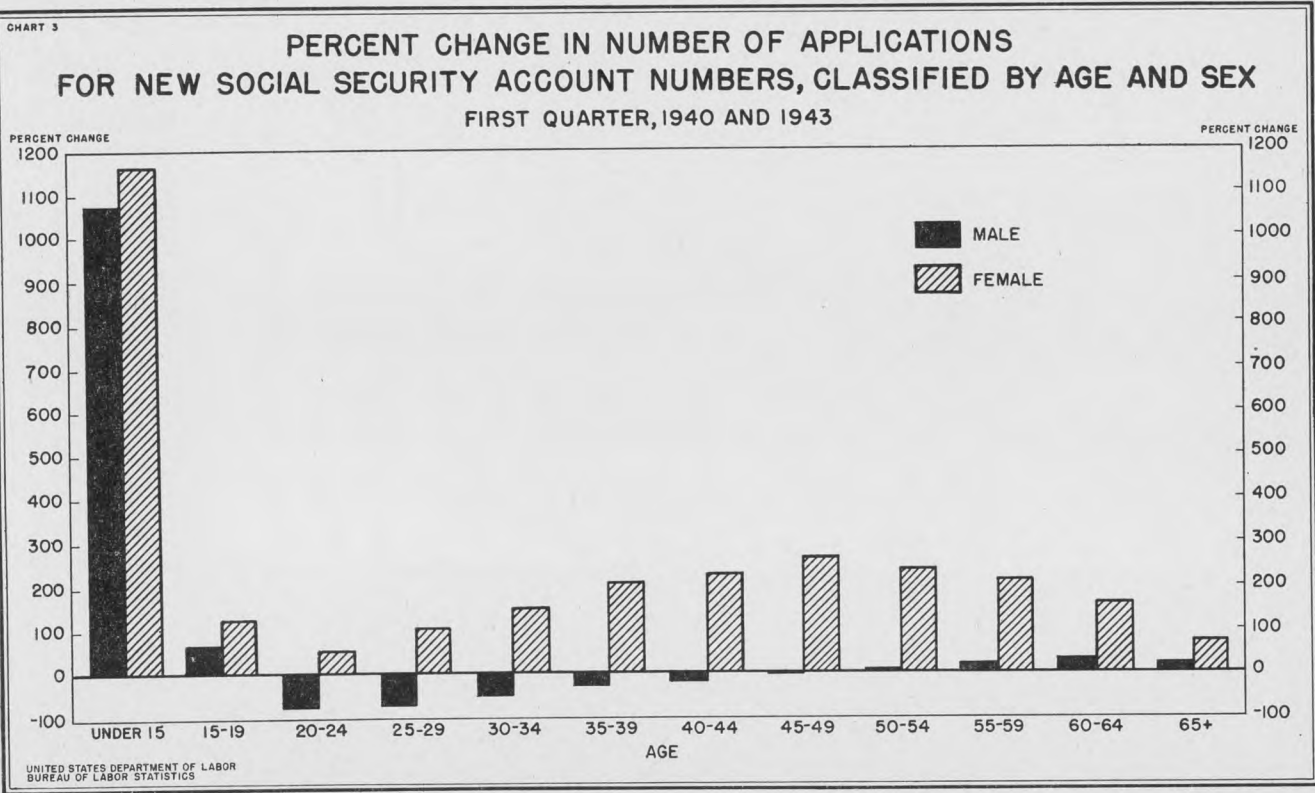
Trend by Sex and Age

The numbers of applications during the first 3 months of 1940, 1941, 1942, and 1943 were compared as to age, sex, and color. Between 1940 and 1943 there was an increase of 138.0 percent in the number of applications from women and a decline of 1.7 percent in those from men. (See table 1 and charts 1 and 2.) The number of woman applicants in the first quarter of 1943 was almost double that in the same period of 1942, and exceeded the number of males by 50 percent, reversing the usual sex distribution. During this time there were also significant changes in the age composition of the applicants. The national defense program, inaugurated June 1940, developed more industrial job opportunities than had been available for over a decade. Young people were especially attracted to these jobs, and 109,000 more males and 47,000 more females between 15 and 19 years of age applied for social security account numbers in the first quarter of 1941 than in the same period of 1940. Increases among the older age groups

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division.







were far more moderate, presumably because a greater percentage of older persons already possessed social security cards.

Large numbers of men who were available for work in covered industries entered military service through either voluntary enlistment or induction after October 1940. The movement of men into the armed forces was greatly accelerated after Pearl Harbor and was reflected in the sharp decline in the number of males of all ages applying for account numbers in 1942 as compared to 1941. On the other hand the number of applications from females, especially those over 30 years of age, showed considerable increase. Even greater demands for manpower by both the armed forces and industry between 1942 and 1943 resulted in further declines in the number of applications from men of military age, but increases from those under 20 years of age and those over 50, and correspondingly very heavy increases in the number of woman applicants, especially those 15 to 19 and those over 30 years. Among the women 35 to 59 years of age there was an increase of over 200 percent in 1943 as compared to 1940.

TABLE 1.—*Applicants for Social Security Account Numbers, Classified by Age and Sex, January–March, 1940–43*¹

Age group	Males					Females				
	1940	1941	1942	1943	Percent of change, 1940 to 1943	1940	1941	1942	1943	Percent of change, 1940 to 1943
All groups.....	694, 231	830, 783	634, 174	682, 535	-1.7	429, 538	509, 962	581, 622	1, 022, 188	+138. 0
Under 15 years.....	3, 777	5, 890	11, 849	44, 393	+1, 075. 4	527	786	1, 121	6, 676	+1, 166. 8
15-19 years.....	107, 711	306, 339	272, 675	323, 972	+63. 9	119, 569	166, 251	181, 348	268, 549	+124. 6
20-24 years.....	128, 179	139, 924	63, 997	28, 832	-77. 5	87, 326	101, 758	94, 842	130, 190	+49. 1
25-29 years.....	65, 891	64, 307	30, 444	19, 098	-71. 0	50, 373	56, 065	60, 768	101, 538	+101. 6
30-34 years.....	54, 389	56, 180	36, 503	26, 315	-51. 6	42, 781	48, 546	58, 887	105, 881	+147. 5
35-39 years.....	46, 695	53, 420	39, 479	33, 363	-28. 6	36, 212	43, 392	57, 542	111, 170	+207. 9
40-44 years.....	43, 965	48, 168	39, 376	35, 403	-19. 5	30, 138	33, 366	48, 163	98, 769	+227. 7
45-49 years.....	38, 274	46, 611	40, 010	37, 369	-2. 4	22, 805	24, 990	34, 725	82, 549	+262. 0
50-54 years.....	33, 706	38, 072	33, 813	35, 285	+4. 7	16, 701	15, 894	22, 654	55, 885	+234. 6
55-59 years.....	27, 871	31, 037	26, 461	32, 713	+17. 4	11, 268	10, 623	12, 617	35, 050	+211. 1
60-64 years.....	20, 959	20, 708	19, 060	27, 056	+29. 1	6, 733	5, 414	6, 007	17, 304	+157. 0
65 years and over.....	32, 814	20, 127	20, 507	38, 736	+18. 0	5, 105	2, 877	2, 948	8, 627	+69. 0

¹ Data exclude persons of unknown age.

Occupational Background

The changing age and sex pattern was due not only to the previous exhaustion of the most readily available age and sex groups but also to the lowering of job qualifications as regards training and experience, to job dilution and simplification, to the elimination of objections to the use of women and older persons, and to the introduction of training courses for new workers. Inquiries as to the occupational background of a small number of applicants show that most of them had been housewives or school children; substantial numbers were workers in industries not covered by the OASI program (such as agriculture or domestic service), but very few were retired persons reentering the labor market.²

² Social Security Bulletin, June 1943, p. 50.

Racial Trends

Racial data indicate that the number of Negroes relative to whites increased significantly between the first 3 months of 1942 and the first 3 months of 1943—from 11.9 percent of all applicants to 15.1 percent. This increase was confined almost entirely to women; there were twice as many applicants among women as among men during the first quarter of 1943. The age pattern of the colored applicants shows a smaller percentage in the age group 15 to 19 years and a much larger percentage between 20 and 39 years than among the whites. This is probably because far more Negroes than whites are moving from agriculture and domestic service to industries covered by the old-age and survivors insurance program. The spurt in Negro applicants during 1942-43 probably reflects the lowering of color bars in industries which previously restricted their employment. Applications from white persons would therefore represent new entrants into the labor force to a much greater extent than applications from Negroes.

TABLE 2.—*Female Applicants for Social Security Account Numbers, Classified by Color, January-March, 1940-43*

First quarter of—	Total	White ¹	Negro	
			Number	Percent of total
1940.....	429, 886	377, 270	52, 616	12. 2
1941.....	510, 025	452, 277	57, 748	11. 3
1942.....	581, 662	517, 281	64, 381	11. 1
1943.....	1, 022, 307	851, 091	171, 216	16. 7

¹ Includes all races other than Negro.

Economic and Health Conditions in Agriculture in China

FOUR-FIFTHS of China's 400 million people are dependent upon the land for their living, according to recent estimates.

In normal periods the farmers are called upon not only to meet the food requirements of the population and to furnish the raw materials for the chief industries, but also to supply nearly four-fifths of the exports. In brief, agriculture is the core of China's economic life.

In spite of the importance of agriculture, almost all of the rural population still have a low standard of living. Among the natural and inherited causes of China's basic agricultural problems, discussed in a recent report by a former United States agricultural commissioner and agricultural attaché in China, are the following:¹

(1) Density of population in relation to soil resources depleted by cropping and erosion; (2) periodic floods and droughts; (3) poor communications; (4) uneconomic systems of land tenure; (5) high cost of credit facilities; (6) inequitable taxes; (7) lack of improved varieties of plants and breeds of stock; (8) ravages of plant and animal pests; (9) lack of sufficient implements and fertilizer; (10) unsympathetic State and local administrations and exactions of middlemen; (11) poor health and educational facilities.

¹ Agricultural Reconstruction in China, by Owen L. Dawson. In *Foreign Agriculture* (U. S. Department of Agriculture), June 1943.

Correlated with the tenancy problem is that of the insignificant size of the holdings. In numerous cases the farmer cultivates a number of very small pieces of land inconveniently shaped and of considerable distance from each other.

Rents of from 45 to 60 percent of the produce have not been infrequent. Other exactions in the form of presents and unrecovered deposits were also imposed, as well as the land tax, usually based upon an old assessment which has become obsolete. The tax itself may not be heavy but surtaxes are piled upon it. Although the landowner has the legal responsibility for the tax, apparently the tenant must pay it, in many cases, in whole or in part. On the average, the amount would be bearable if fairly distributed, but reports indicate widespread evasion of this tax which is the principal source of Provincial revenue. Administrative reforms planned by the Central Government may improve the methods of tax collection.

The 1930 Land Act included nearly all phases of necessary reform but, according to the report under review, "it represented a goal rather than a code of actual practice."

The lack of adequate credit facilities has been a continuous handicap to agricultural production and marketing in China. The peasant's capital is small and his income too meager to permit him to save. Usurious rates of interest in China have been forced on the peasant by the gentry, merchants, professional money-lenders, pawnbrokers, and farmers themselves. One of the commonest forms of loans is that of short-term credit on crops, for which the farmer pledges his prospective harvest at heavy rates of interest. Something has been done in a small way to remedy this situation, but the evil still widely persists.

Another great difficulty for the farmer is the immense discrepancy between local prices he is paid and the prices in the big towns. Official statistics received in 1933 indicated that the prices charged to Shanghai consumers were 100 percent above the prices paid to Kiangsi farmers for the same produce. "It is fair to say that next to reforms in the three fields of land tenure, taxation, and credit, improved transportation by rail, motor roads, and waterways would yield the best returns on agricultural resources to the operator of land in China and to the country."

Health Problems

The matter of rural health is another outstanding problem. The death rate is probably double that of western countries and indicates a lack of physical efficiency in the people. It is estimated that 75 percent of the excess deaths is due to the rising incidence of gastrointestinal diseases, pulmonary tuberculosis, and the infectious causes of infant mortality (diarrhea, smallpox, and tetanus). Only very inadequate medical facilities are available for the struggle with these conditions, as modern medicine in China is of comparatively recent date. With most of the people living in rural regions, it is impossible for a great number of them to pay for private medical care, even if it were available. Consequently the provision for requisite health and medical facilities is to a large extent a Government problem.

As a part of the general problem of rural health in China, diet deficiencies call for particular attention. Each year, because of poor crops and the difficulties of transportation and distribution affecting the flow of products from surplus areas, great numbers of the people have insufficient food. Vitamin deficiencies are also prevalent, on

account of the scanty production of certain foods and the improper preparation and handling of available food products. In many sections of the country, children, especially, lack the right type of food.

Measures Necessary for Post-War Period

China cannot make the desired contributions to post-war reconstruction until its agricultural problems are to a large extent solved. The rapid rehabilitation of agriculture in the occupied regions and the inauguration of basic reforms are imperative to stabilize the country's political post-war conditions.

In the period following the war, agriculture must be equipped as quickly as possible to supply most of China's food on a higher level than before the war. Agricultural exports must be raised at least to the pre-war level, and raw materials must be supplied for increasing industrial activities. In many instances manpower for industry must be withdrawn from the farms. As agriculture will be called upon to supply most of the reconstruction sinews of China, it is clear that agricultural economy must be aided along with any big-scale development of industry. "A top-heavy superstructure of industry cannot be built in China upon a shaky agricultural foundation."

After its organization in 1927, the Government recognized the necessity of improving agriculture, and for a brief period made some evident progress along this line. In 1937 these efforts were interrupted by the Sino-Japanese War, since the outbreak of which the Government has been largely concerned with wartime emergency measures.



Foreign Workers and Manpower in Germany¹

A YEAR or so ago there were from 5 to 6 million foreign workers in Germany, including war prisoners who were being used in various war industries and activities.² At the end of May 1943, according to what appear to be reliable sources, this number had increased to some 12 million. Those who are not war prisoners are referred to by the German authorities as "voluntary" or "free"; actually, of course, these civilian foreign workers were compulsorily drafted from the conquered countries.

The above figure of 12 million foreign workers applies only to those employed within the area referred to by the Nazi Government as "Greater Germany"—i. e., pre-war Germany, plus such territories as Austria and Sudetenland, in which the population is largely or partially of German stock, plus entirely non-German territories such as parts of Czechoslovakia and Poland which have been definitely annexed to Germany.

The figure of 12 million does not include foreign workers and war prisoners forming part of the German industrial war machine but working in the conquered but unannexed territories, such as France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, and large parts of the Soviet Union. Practically all of the able-bodied workers in these countries

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division, by Peter A. Speck. This article is based on the reports of German correspondents of various newspapers in adjacent neutral countries, such as Sweden and Switzerland; and on certain confidential sources.

² See Monthly Labor Review, June 1942 (p. 1310).

are compelled to work for the benefit of German war production, sometimes in factories, and at other times on such military objectives as the building of forts, harbors, roads, and underground bomb-proof and submarine shelters. No information is available regarding the number of persons thus employed in the conquered territory outside of "Greater Germany," but judging from the pre-war industrial importance of these countries it would seem conservative to estimate their total as being at least another 12 million. Thus it appears that in the summer of 1943 the Nazi Government had a grand total of at least 24 million and possibly as many as 30 million foreign workers in industrial war production.

Measures to Increase the Labor Force

Increase in number of native German workers.—Before the war there were 24.5 million native German industrial workers in Germany. This number has now grown to some 27 million—a gain of 2.5 million, in spite of great war losses of men and repeated drafts upon the industrial manpower for service in the active military forces.

This increase was made possible (1) by the drafting of women, young boys and girls, and handicapped persons for war production; (2) by the suspension of industries, trades, and services which were not absolutely essential to the prosecution of the war; and (3) by the closing of many small shops and stores and even of a considerable number of large department stores.

The number of women industrially employed in Germany had reached a figure of 9.2 million in November 1942.

Recent German statistics showed that in about 1½ million small-scale enterprises, shops, and stores, over 5 million persons were engaged. Through the closing policy referred to, large numbers of these persons were released for war production. About 20 percent of the existing 740 department stores were closed. In the city of Vienna 11 banks, in Upper Danube 40 banks, and in the Austrian Province of Styria 2 banks were closed in order to transfer their employees for war production.

The "combing out" policy.—On March 21, 1942, the War Council ordered the Commissar of Manpower to conscript workers for war production in Germany as well as in all conquered territories. Since then a continuous search for and mobilization of manpower has been going on. All civilian persons capable of doing any work and not already employed in war production were ordered to register with the local employment service offices, by a decree issued in February 1943.

According to the fragmentary information published in the German papers it appears that about 5 million German persons were registered during the first half of the current year, there being about 5 times as many female as male registrants.

Employment of handicapped and immature workers.—In the effort to secure manpower, physically handicapped persons were not overlooked. During the years 1940–42, about 15,000 such handicapped persons were set to work, including many who were blind and many who were so seriously crippled that they could be employed to only a very limited extent. In addition, over 5,000 handicapped were undergoing training in the early part of 1943.

Elementary-school children were also ordered to perform various tasks for which they appeared to be capable, such as picking fruit and harvesting vegetables. School vacation periods were lengthened for that purpose.

All high-school and university students were ordered to work in the armament plants or in agriculture during their vacations. The foreign students in Germany were asked to work "voluntarily," but the alternative was the loss of their student status, ration cards, and passports.

Employment of Foreign Workers

The changing policy regarding war prisoners.—At the beginning of the war the German military authorities in the conquered countries seized many local civilian men and women capable of hard work and sent them to Germany as "war prisoners." This was done for two reasons. In the first place the number of real war prisoners was thus augmented for the purpose of showing the magnitude of the German victories. Secondly, the money wages and food rations of these "prisoners" were much lower than those allowed to foreign civilian workers.

This policy was applied in the initial years of the war, but was later revised. Under the revised policy the war prisoners are given the status of civilian foreign workers in Germany. This is done partly because of the fact that the wages and food rations of the civilian foreign workers in Germany have been so lowered that the gain from wage and food differentials has become negligible. A more important reason for the change is the fact that it releases large numbers of prison guards for service in the active army. The ratio between the war prisoners in prison camps and the German guards is reported to be about 10 to 1, that is, one German guard is required for each 10 war prisoners. Thus, if 1 million war prisoners are transferred to the status of civilian foreign workers, 100,000 German guardsmen are released for active military service. The transferred war prisoners are then sandwiched among the German workers and among the foreign workers of various nationalities and tongues. In such a mixture the task of guarding prisoners is greatly reduced, and can be turned over to the existing civil machinery, such as the Gestapo, the local organizations of the German Labor Front, and the Nazi Party "cells" in the various shops and establishments.

"Mixing" of foreign workers of different races.—The "mixing" of foreign workers by race is apparently a well-established German policy. The object, of course, is so to intermingle various races, with no common language, that plotting or other joint action becomes extremely difficult. Instances are cited of a single shop containing foreign workers of as many as 16 different races and languages. Comparatively few such workers have a knowledge of the German language, so that all orders and reports have to be given through interpreters. In total it is estimated that there are at least 28 distinct languages represented by the war prisoners, not including several score linguistic differences among the prisoners from the Soviet Union.

Efficiency of Labor

Closely related to the quantity of manpower is the question of its quality. As regards the native German working force there is ample evidence that its efficiency has declined very considerably during the war.

The most important factor in the declining productivity of the native German workers is the continued lowering in quality of the civilian labor force by the withdrawal of able-bodied males for the army and the substitution of less industrially efficient persons, both males and females. Thus, for every million persons registered under the general mobilization order of early 1943, referred to above, some 830,000 were women, of whom about one-third were found to be unsuitable for industry, and about half the remainder were suitable only for part-time work. Also many of the men were unadapted for military service or for war industry. On the whole, therefore, the civilian labor force thus recruited to take the place of able-bodied men called to military service was far below the efficiency level of the experienced and full-time workers displaced by this process.

As regards the efficiency of the foreign workers in German industry there is no detailed statistical information, but scattered reports indicate that as a whole this group is very much less efficient than the native German workers. This is entirely reasonable, as all experience has shown that forced labor is relatively inefficient labor, and this is no doubt accentuated in Germany by the large number of races and economic backgrounds represented by the foreign workers, both civilian and war prisoners. The difficulty of welding such diverse groups of individuals into an efficient working machine is evident, even were these individuals free and willing workers. Actually, of course, the vast majority are very unwilling workers, hating their German masters and anxious to produce as little as possible.

Other Objectives in Employment of Foreign Workers

The employment of foreign workers in German war production has other objectives than mere production. Evacuation of manpower from the conquered countries to Germany weakens those countries in competition with German industry and trade and lessens the possibility of revolt.

Again, foreign workers in Germany are convenient hostages for the Nazis. This is borne out by the fact that if in a conquered country a worker evades German registry for work in Germany, one of his close relatives, regardless of his qualities as a worker, is arrested and brought to Germany as a hostage. For instance, the German occupational authorities in Belgium announced that, for every student who avoids conscription for "work" in Germany, a near relative of the student would be arrested and sent to Germany.

Employers in Germany have been "advised" by the Commissar of Manpower to fill their plants with foreign workers even if the plants thereby become overstaffed, on the theory that it is good policy to have surplus workers available for any eventuality.

Employment and Cost of Living in Newfoundland¹

THE end of the unusual prosperity of Newfoundland labor, which began with the construction of defense bases, appeared to be in sight early in 1943. Men were told that they could not expect to hold their building-construction jobs through the year. Retail sales were declining after a period in which demand for consumer goods of all kinds was active and high prices did not retard sales. Sales of food-stuffs and dry goods were lower than in 1942, but exceeded those of the pre-war period at the same season; and it was becoming increasingly difficult for dealers to replace stocks.

General Employment Situation

An official statement of the Newfoundland Government shows that at the peak of operations on the defense bases 15,000 Newfoundland workers were employed on all base work, exclusive of persons brought to the Island for this purpose from the United States and Canada. In a population totaling 289,588 at the time of the last census (1935) and having 88,710 gainfully occupied workers, this was a substantial body of labor. By February 1942 there were fewer than 10,000 workers engaged on the bases and a further decline was expected. In addition to the employment on the bases, for which the labor force was drawn from the usual local pursuits of fishing and lumbering, more than 5,000 Newfoundlanders were serving overseas with the British and Canadian armed forces; 170 were employed in the British Merchant Marine; nearly 1,500 were engaged in forestry work in Scotland; and 900 were enrolled in the Newfoundland militia, serving in different parts of the Island.

Even though men were released from work on defense construction projects in the fall of 1942, industrial activity on the Island continued to suffer from the effects of the labor shortage. It was expected that many of those discharged would not seek work until spring, preferring to return to their homes to occupy themselves with any available odd jobs, such as boat building and carpentry. The majority of the unemployed workers had accumulated savings while at work and were therefore not in need of immediate employment.

In February 1943 absenteeism was reported to have impeded industrial and construction activities for some time.

By March 1943 it was estimated that 10,000 men were unemployed but the majority were not seeking work. At least half of them, it was reported, could have been absorbed by the logging and fishing industries. Earlier it had been foreseen that some of the workers who were released from labor on defense bases would be able to obtain other construction work locally, as much-needed repairs on dwellings and other buildings were not made during the period of active military construction. Lack of labor was the one deterrent to such construction, as the purchasing power of the population had been raised by war conditions to a point that made such outlays practical.

More effective organization of the population for war work is anticipated as a result of the registration of all persons between the

¹ Data are from reports by William E. Cole, Jr., United States vice consul at St. John's (Nos. 3 and 7, 1942; Nos. 3, 11, 18, 26, and 29, 1943).

ages of 16 and 65 years. The original regulations called for completion of the count by October 15, 1942, but the program was delayed. Interviewers were to call at each house to secure information that would bring out the economic usefulness of each person. Registration certificates to be issued must be shown before employment can be obtained.

The present unemployment problem does not appear to be serious but the only apparent solution to the long-term problem lies in increased activity in fisheries and in lumbering.

Situation in Various Industries

Paper and pulp.—During October 1942 the newsprint industry was unable to obtain any substantial number of workmen when the Woods Labor Board appealed for 2,000 men to participate in logging operations. Therefore, work was to be carried out on a reduced scale and labor was to be employed as it became available. Owing to the labor shortage, newsprint companies were able to obtain only 50 percent of the expected pulpwood cut during the past season.

An agreement reached in April provided a 35-cent hourly wage in the two largest pulp and paper mills. Loggers were granted a 20-cent increase for each cord of wood cut, the rate being fixed at \$2.50 (Canadian) per cord of 128 cubic feet when the company has a trail cut to the scene of operations and \$2.67 per cord when the loggers have to clear their own trails. An average day's cut is 1½ cords. The \$1 weekly bonus was discontinued for loggers and laborers. The worker pays \$18.90 a month for board at logging camps.

Iron mining.—Accumulation of large stocks of ore that could not be shipped for smelting led one of the important iron mines to reduce operations. As employees were dissatisfied with the reduced work schedule of 3 days each week, they engaged in a slowdown strike in February. Output fell to one-half the normal daily volume, and because of the excessive cost of operations under these conditions the management shut down the mine late in the month. An agreement was reached, later, by the miners and management regarding an adjustment of the cost-of-living bonus payable for the last 4 months of operation. The bonus was to be raised from \$1.10 to \$1.30 a day.

Of the 2,000 iron-mine workers whose work was discontinued, a number applied to the Government for relief. Food orders on local stores were granted to about 700.

Plans were being made for reopening the iron mine early in May. This was expected to give part-time employment to 1,500 persons, 4 days a week. Wages and bonus payments were to be the same, at least temporarily, as in February when the mine closed. The basic rates at that time were between 32 and 39 cents an hour, plus the cost-of-living allowance of \$1.30 a day already mentioned. Underground workers received a production bonus, based on output. Since the workers have not succeeded in obtaining higher pay by direct negotiation with the company, they have asked the Government to appoint a trade-disputes board to consider raising the rates.

Fishing.—Prices to fishermen for the 1943 catch have been set tentatively at levels well above 1942.

Cost of Living

Rises in the cost of living led to the appointment last fall of a deputy food controller. The announcement of this action was made by the Department of Public Health, which stated that the new officer would be responsible for the control of prices of commodities that determine the cost of living. According to the index numbers of cost of living for St. John's, living costs rose each month from September to December 1942 but have declined since then. The base period for the calculation was October 1938. Index numbers for recent months are given below.

	<i>Index</i> ¹ (October 1938=100)
September 5, 1942.....	142. 7
October 3, 1942.....	144. 8
November 7, 1942.....	2 150. 0
December 5, 1942.....	150. 2
January 2, 1943.....	149. 7
February 6, 1943.....	3 148. 1
March 6, 1943.....	4 144. 0

¹ Indexes are based on an assumed weekly budget for a family of five persons having an income of \$1,200 a year.

² Revised figure.

³ Weighting of index changed to conform with a reduction in the tea ration from the normal 1 pound to 7 ounces.

⁴ Weighting of index adjusted to allow for an adjustment in ceiling prices of tea.

Rises in the different items entering into the cost of living from October 1938 are shown by the following indexes for November 1942.

	<i>Index</i> (October 1938=100)
Food.....	178. 7
Fuel and light.....	155. 7
Clothing.....	140. 0
Sundries.....	115. 0

No estimate was made of the change in rents. In computing the index of cost of living the weights for clothing and sundries have remained fixed at the arbitrary levels of 140 and 115, respectively, and no change has been made in the figure for rent since the index was established in 1938. Therefore any changes in the index of cost of living are entirely the result of variations in the cost of foodstuffs and fuel.

Rationing of food was still on the honor system in April 1943. The commodities affected were sugar, tea, coffee, and preserved meats. Ceiling prices were placed on tea and molasses in February of this year. Both these products are staples in the Newfoundland diet.

Women in Industry

Effect of War on Employment of Woman Lawyers

THE trend toward wider employment of woman lawyers has become accentuated, according to an article in *Women's Work and Education* (New London, Conn.), April 1943. Some reduction in the entrance requirements of certain law schools has been made and a marked speed-up of courses is reported. Notwithstanding the draft of men for the armed forces, the number of woman law students, though increasing, continues small.

On the other hand, a decidedly greater demand for trained woman lawyers is noted. Governmental services, particularly Federal offices, are asking for woman lawyers and are providing openings for them in consumer and social service fields and in the Treasury Department, the Department of Justice, the Surgeon General's office, and the division of the WPB handling oil questions.

Some headway is also being made by woman lawyers in State and local government units. Various types of new appointments are recorded. In North Dakota for the first time the position of chief inspector of the licensing department, under the attorney general, was given to a woman lawyer. In Washington State, for the first time also, a woman lawyer is serving as director of the Kings County Legal Aid Bureau and another woman of the same profession is briefing clerk for a justice of the supreme court. In Louisiana and Minnesota women have received appointments as law clerks to justices of the State supreme court. In Missouri one of the members of the public service commission is a woman lawyer. In some other States, however, Rhode Island for example, woman lawyers are not applying for positions in the classified service.

The author of the report under review comments on what seems to her to be "an inexplicable geographical difference in the demand for woman lawyers." In the South and Middle West the increased openings have been mainly in public service. The following States all report that there are few woman lawyers and no growing demand for them: Colorado, Delaware, Iowa, Maryland, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. In the East and the war production areas of the East North Central States, and on the Pacific Coast, however, woman lawyers are more and more in demand, chiefly for private offices. According to one law school, it is impossible to meet the calls for such professional women, and various downtown law offices which, even in 1942, would not contemplate engaging a woman lawyer, are now eager to take them. The salaries offered are also higher than previously.

Despite available private openings, numerous woman lawyers have gone into public service because they have had the impression that those taking private positions will surely lose them when the

men come back at the end of the war. This attitude, according to the report, fails to take into account the almost certain prospect that an immensely increased number of post-war problems will demand the services of not only trained men but also trained women.



Woman War Workers In Canada

CANADIAN women have played a highly important role in making the Dominion the fourth largest producer of war materials among the United Nations. According to an official estimate of March 1943, there were 238,000 women engaged directly or indirectly in the war industries of Canada, and since then hundreds more have been utilized on production. The above information and the following data are taken from a report of the Canadian War Information Board of April 6, 1943.

The Dominion is relying on the women to bring its new and enormous war industrial machinery to the highest possible output in the current year. The British Ministry of Labor holds that four-fifths of the industrial jobs can be done by women, and although the Dominion does not expect to reach this ratio in industry as a whole, the proportion of women in some new war establishments is steadily approaching this record.

Many thousands of women are also doing essential work as teachers, nurses, clerks, and stenographers, and in other professions important in the progress of the Canadian war program.

Registration of September 1942

In September 1942, the National Selective Service, under the Department of Labor, conducted a compulsory registration of Canadian women in the 20-24 age group who had not been previously registered as employed through the Unemployment Insurance Commission. The number of women included in this compulsory registration was 258,583. They were under no obligation, however, to accept employment. Since the September registration, to the date of the report under review (April 6, 1943), over 85,000 women have gone into war industries and over 9,000 have enlisted in the women's armed services, which has brought the number of women in war uniforms to over 24,400. Women are not obligated to serve in the armed forces. However, a stronger emphasis is being placed on recruiting women for such services in order to release men to take active part in the combat forces.

Canadian Women in the Armed Services

The following figures for March 1943 show the approximate numbers of Canadian women engaged in various types of service with the armed forces.

Women over 15 years of age in Canada.....	3, 970, 000
Engaged directly or indirectly in war industry.....	238, 000 +
In the armed services.....	24, 400 +
Women's Royal Canadian Naval Service.....	1, 790 +
Canadian Women's Army Corps.....	10, 000 +
Royal Canadian Air Force (Women's Division)	10, 600 +
Nursing services.....	2, 130 +
Female doctors in the armed services.....	26

The Women's Royal Canadian Naval Service, the Canadian Women's Army Corps, and the Royal Canadian Air Force (Women's Division) have fixed their combined enlistment objective for 1943 at 50,000.

The W. R. C. N. S., organized in June 1942, by the close of March had attested approximately 1,798 women and had called up 1,288 for training. The service expects to enlist 5,000 members by the close of 1943. The first members of this organization to be assigned to foreign service were 7 ratings and an officer, who in April 1943 were sent to Washington, D. C., to work for a naval officer of the Canadian Joint Staff.

Graduate members of the service are engaged in approximately 27 trades, and are taking the places of naval men in shore establishments at Ottawa, Halifax, and Esquimalt.

The Women's Division of the Royal Canadian Air Force had over 10,600 enlisted women by the end of March 1943. Carefully selected members of this division keep a check on the positions and courses of aircraft, surface ships, and friendly or enemy submarines, which approach the North Atlantic Coast of Canada; this work is so secret that its exact nature cannot be revealed. Last March some of these women were allocated to the new bomber group of the R. C. A. F., to serve as clerks, stenographers, transport drivers, cooks, and mess women. The 1943 enlistment quota for this service is 20,000.

The Canadian Women's Army Corps had 10,000 members by the close of March 1943, and was hoping to enlist 25,000 before 1944. The combined members have over 50 trades. About 37 percent are engaged in clerical work, as stenographers, typists, and filing or account clerks, 9 percent are cooks, 7 percent transport drivers, and 17 percent in other trades. Girls who have had no special training in trades, in office work, or in university laboratories, are given training opportunities.

The number of nurses in Canadian war uniforms several months ago was 2,130, almost 1,500 being in the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps. Approximately 280 Canadian nurses were with the South Africa Military Nursing Service, 232 with the R. C. A. F. Nursing Service, and 131 were temporarily with the Royal Canadian Navy.

Voluntary aid detachments may now, under expanded plans, constitute a considerable proportion of the nursing [sisters] of a Home War Nursing Establishment, and may volunteer for several classes of service.

The 26 woman doctors serving with the armed forces in February 1943 were distributed as follows: 15 with the Army Medical Corps, 10 with the Air Force, and 1 with the Navy.

Women in Industry

Women constitute approximately 23 percent of the more than 1,050,000 persons engaged directly or indirectly with the war industries of Canada.

The largest contingent of female munition workers is in the shell-filling industry.

Woman employees in aircraft and instrument factories make up, respectively, 27 percent and 80 percent of the working force. They not only work on production lines, but also serve as supervisors. One

establishment, manufacturing vital parts for airplanes and anti-aircraft and antitank guns, was organized and financed, and is managed, by a woman.

On both the east and the west coasts, women are helping to build ships. In a Nova Scotia shipyard, approximately one-third of the more than 1,000 workers are women.

Thousands of women are doing various essential jobs in the food, building, mining, and transportation industries. In 1942 the proportion of women in the canning factories increased approximately 14 percent. For the first time women have taken up work in fish-filleting plants. They are also employed to trim freshly slaughtered animals and handle heavy carcasses, to operate bottling machinery in breweries, as service-station attendants, bread-delivery drivers, nailers in box factories, workers in sawmills and shingle mills, blacksmiths, bell-boys, construction workers, car checkers, engine wipers, and car inspectors, and in metal and coal mines and steel plants.

Training Schemes

Since the inauguration of the War Emergency Training Program of the Federal Department of Labor, in July 1940, the percentage of women in industrial training has risen substantially, month by month. By February 1, 1943, the women enrolled totaled 27,345, and over 22,000 had completed training. The program includes the training of women as aircraft-metal workers, woodworkers, aircraft overhaulers, acetylene and electric welders, bench workers and fitters, instrument makers, industrial chemists, mechanical draftsmen, inspectors, power-machine operators, and radio assemblers.

Day Care of Children

An order in council passed July 20, 1942, authorized the Dominion Government "to establish child-care facilities for war-working mothers in any Province requesting such aid on a Dominion-Provincial equal-cost basis."

By March 10, 1943, approval had been given for 14 day nurseries, and 9 were in operation.

Woman Volunteers

During the last year, the work of woman volunteers was under the combined direction of the Voluntary and Auxiliary Service Division and the Women's Voluntary Services Division of the Federal Department of National War Services. With the encouragement and guidance of these Government divisions, 41 citizens' committees and 22 subcommittee voluntary service centers have been organized throughout the Dominion to prevent duplication of volunteer activities.

Productivity of Labor and Industry

Employment and Productivity of Anthracite Miners, 1942¹

THE Pennsylvania anthracite mines experienced a labor shortage in 1942, owing to the accelerated demand for anthracite as a substitute for other forms of fuel that were in short supply, the increased industrial activity, expanded purchasing power, and rising exports (particularly to Canadian markets). Output totaled 60,328,000 net tons—the largest tonnage since 1930, and 7 percent in excess of the 1941 total. In spite of an increase of about 4,000,000 tons, the 1942 output was insufficient to meet the demand.

To raise production, working time was extended by agreement between the producers and the United Mine Workers of America, in January 1943. Under the contract effective in the anthracite mines in 1942 the industry permitted employees to work 40 weeks of 5 days each and 12 weeks of 6 days each. The new arrangement provides for a 6-day week throughout the year 1943. Thus, should the demand for anthracite continue at a high level, the manpower shortage should be alleviated somewhat by the increase in working time.

Comparative statistics for the industry in the years 1941 and 1942 are given in the accompanying table.

Employment, Output, and Productivity in the Anthracite Mines, 1941 and 1942

Item	1941	1942
Production..... net tons..	56,368,267	60,327,729
Average number of days worked.....	203	239
Man-days idle owing to strikes and lockouts.....	397,616	279,641
Number of men on strike during year.....	39,768	26,631
Average number of men employed.....	88,054	82,121
Output per man per day..... net tons..	3.04	2.95
Output per man per year..... do.....	617	705
Quantity cut by machines underground..... do.....	1,855,422	2,285,640
Quantity cut by stripping..... do.....	7,316,574	9,070,933
Quantity loaded by machine underground..... do.....	13,441,987	14,741,459

Anthracite Production

Deep-mined and strip-pit output, culm-bank coal, anthracite purchased by the legitimate industry from "bootleggers," and river or dredge coal (which is recovered from the rivers and creeks draining the anthracite fields) are included in the 60,328,000 tons mined in 1942. The practice of bootlegging coal (i. e., the mining of anthracite by unauthorized and unemployed miners on land owned by the

¹ Data are from United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Mines, Mineral Market Report M. M. S. No. 1068.

operating companies, and its transportation by truck to distant cities, for sale in competition with the legitimate product) first developed in the depression of the early 1930's. In 1941, the illicit tonnage was estimated at approximately 5 million tons and for 1942 at slightly under 4 million tons. Before 1941, bootlegged anthracite was excluded from the total production statistics. Although included in the total for 1941 and 1942, it was deducted from the total tonnage shipped by the legitimate industry, before computing the output per man per day.

Employment in Anthracite Mines

The labor shortage of the mines reached a total of several thousand workers in 1942. The number employed declined by 5,933 from 1941 to a total of 82,121 in 1942. Many men who were formerly engaged in the anthracite industry were inducted into the armed forces, and others left to seek employment in nearby war industries.

Persons engaged in bootleg or illicit coal-mining operations which are conducted in the southern and western middle fields of the Pennsylvania anthracite regions are not included in the statistics of employment quoted above. According to the Anthracite Committee, 10,762 men were working 3,006 bootleg holes in March 1941, as compared with 7,554 men employed in 2,029 holes during May 1942. Although, as previously stated, the bootleg coal and the workers who raised it were excluded in calculating output per man per day in the industry, the figures were affected somewhat by the time which the men in the preparation plants spent in preparing for market the bootleg coal which had been purchased by the legitimate industry. On a per-ton basis, the report under review states, the time so spent was very small and did not affect the validity of the output figures materially.

Productivity of Labor

Output per man per day of anthracite labor declined to an average of 2.95 tons in 1942 from 3.04 tons the previous year, and was lower than in 1939 and 1940, when the average was 3.02 tons. In spite of the 1941-42 decline in productivity, total production was increased by an extension of the average number of days worked to 239 in 1942 from 203 in 1941. The output per man per year increased to 705 tons from 617 tons, owing to the increase in the number of days worked. Also, the decline in productivity occurred in spite of a marked growth in the use of mechanical equipment from 1941 to 1942. The quantity of anthracite cut by machine underground increased to 2,285,640 tons in 1942 from 1,855,422 tons in 1941; the tonnage mined by stripping increased to 9,070,933 from 7,316,574; and the quantity loaded by machine underground increased to 14,741,459 tons from 13,441,987 tons.

Industrial Disputes

The record regarding industrial disputes was more favorable in 1942 than in the preceding year—279,641 man-days idle as compared with 397,616 in 1941, and 26,631 men on strike as compared with 39,768.

Social Security

Social Services for Residents of Low-Cost Housing in Argentina¹

CERTAIN social services, to be provided by the National Low-Cost Housing Commission (*Comisión Nacional de Casas Baratas*), have been authorized in Argentina. The services include survivors' benefits, a medical clinic, visitation by social workers, establishment of recreational centers, and the giving of courses in practical education; their scope is limited to the Federal Capital. These benefits and their administration were provided for by the Commission's resolutions Nos. 9331 and 9332 of October 31, 1942. Only members receive the benefits of the new service. Membership is limited to residents in the Commission's low-cost housing projects and to employees of the Commission; it is optional for purchasers of houses and for Commission employees, but compulsory for renters.

Contributions

The social service is to be financed by monthly contributions from the members, by subsidies, gifts, etc., and by an initial appropriation of 5,000 pesos, national currency, provided by the National Low-Cost Housing Commission. The Commission will also bear the cost of the professional services of a physician and a dentist, and the installation of a clinic in its own building.

The monthly contribution of members is fixed at 1.50 pesos, national currency. In the case of present residents the contribution will be added to the amount of their rent or purchase installment. In the future, the rentals of houses that are vacant and new ones that are fitted out are to be increased by 1.50 pesos per month. The contributions of Commission employees are to be made by deductions from their pay.

Benefits

As "reciprocal aid" (i. e., payment of a fixed sum to the family of a member who dies) is one of the chief purposes of the social service, one-third of the amount received each month as contributions from members is assigned to this fund. The family becomes eligible to benefits of reciprocal aid only after a membership of 6 months and provided the member at the time of his death has paid his contributions for the month just ended. The amount of benefit is to be fixed annually by the Subcommittee of Social Assistance of the Commission, taking into account the number of members, the mor-

¹ Data are from *La Habitación Popular* (Ministerio del Interior, Comisión Nacional de Casas Baratas, Buenos Aires), October-December 1942.

tality rate, and the reserve fund. The aid was to become effective from June 1, 1943, and during the first year cannot be greater than 200 pesos, national currency, in any case.

Other services include a clinic for medical aid to members of the social service and members of their families living with them; instruction in prophylaxis, hygiene, and care of children, through periodical consultations and home visitation; the opening of recreational centers; and instruction in practical courses.

Members are given the opportunity to name the persons to whom reciprocal aid is to be paid. In case no declaration of beneficiaries has been made, or if the beneficiaries have died before the member's death, the benefits are to be paid to the member's heirs; in the absence of these, the amount is to be added to the aid fund after deduction of burial expenses.

No refund of contributions is made in case of loss of membership for any reason, regardless of whether any benefits have been received. Membership is lost on termination of residence in a low-cost dwelling or of employment in the Housing Commission.

Administration

The Office of Social Service of the National Low-Cost Housing Commission² is to be administered under the secretariat of that Commission, by a chief who is to be a member of the Subcommittee of Social Assistance. The Subcommittee of Social Assistance is composed of two members of the National Low-Cost Housing Commission, serving terms of 1 year each. Their duties are specified in resolution No. 9332 of the Commission.

The social-welfare visitors are to make, at least 3 days a week, visits to beneficiaries of the low-cost housing law, and to report to the chief of social service the observations made and the measures they recommend. In the course of these visits, they are to attempt to create good-neighbor habits and better domestic economy.



Plan for Prevention and Care of Tuberculosis in Great Britain³

THE British Minister of Health announced, on April 29, 1943, the new steps to be taken in a campaign to combat the wartime increase in pulmonary tuberculosis, as well as to reduce its incidence in peacetime. The special measures to be adopted include extension of the making of chest examinations, through the wide introduction of mass miniature radiography; and the payment of maintenance allowances, based on a standard scale and without any means test, for persons undergoing tuberculosis treatment and for their dependents.

Trend of Tuberculosis Incidence

In the autumn of 1941 it had become evident that in this war, as in the last, a reversal of the favorable pre-war trend of mortality from

² The Commission was established by law No. 9677, of October 5, 1915.

³ Data are from report of E. M. Hodgkinson, United States Embassy, London; Great Britain, Medical Research Council, Report of Committee on Tuberculosis in Wartime, 1942; and *The Economist* (London), May 8, 1943.

tuberculosis had occurred. It seemed likely that death rates from this disease would continue to increase, unless steps could be taken to deal with the determining factors and to limit the spread of infection. The Medical Research Council, at the request of the Ministry of Health, appointed a Committee on Tuberculosis in Wartime to investigate the extent and causes of the wartime increase in the incidence of tuberculosis, particularly among young women.

The Committee reported that in 1940 the increase in respiratory tuberculosis in England and Wales affected mainly children, older men, and younger women. In 1941 the mortalities of the adult age groups continued to be unfavorable, although not materially worse, but there was a substantial relative increase in the deaths of children. The outstanding feature of the increased incidence of tuberculosis has been an increase in tuberculous meningitis. In England and Wales, the death rate for males from this form of the disease in 1941 was 34 percent higher than the figures for 1938-39 and that for females 38 percent higher. In Scotland the increases were 37 and 60 percent, respectively.

Although the rate for tuberculosis mortality was much lower at the beginning of the present war than in 1914, the relative increase was much greater from 1939 to 1941 than from 1914 to 1916. The adverse trend in mortality from respiratory tuberculosis began immediately after the outbreak of war in 1939, and progressed in 1940, but in 1941 it showed no significant further increase except in the female population in Scotland. The adverse trend of deaths from other forms of tuberculosis, on the other hand, did not begin until 1940, but continued in 1941.

Factors in Increase of Tuberculosis

The decline in tuberculosis in Great Britain during the past 80 years was closely associated with the improved standard of living, which included better housing, nutrition, industrial conditions, and personal hygiene. In the first World War the increase in tuberculosis was considered to be due chiefly to defective nutrition resulting from shortages of certain essential foods, and to increased industrialization, often under unfavorable hygienic conditions.

The unfavorable conditions which are peculiar to the present war are the evacuation of many hospitals and sanatoriums at the beginning of the war to make room for expected air-raid casualties, with the result that many patients returned to their homes in an infective condition; the poorer ventilation, increased cross-infection, and possibly lowered resistance, resulting from the black-out; overcrowding in the homes, owing to the destruction of residential property by enemy bombs; evacuation of the population, which may have led to billeting in homes containing infective tuberculous persons—and, conversely, to the introduction of tuberculous persons into healthy families; and evacuation of town populations to the country, where many children formerly supplied with pasteurized milk have had to change over to raw milk. The first four factors involve risk of pulmonary infection of the human type, while the fifth carries the risk of nonpulmonary infection of the bovine type. As a result of all these conditions, all ages of the population are being exposed to an increased risk of the disease.

The principal feature common to both wars is the great increase in industrialization, which brings larger numbers of people together, favors the employment of persons suffering from the disease who would not normally be employed, and bring many persons—formerly relatively isolated—into factories where they are not only more exposed to infection but also lack the protection of home food and surroundings.

Treatment and Rate of Benefit

Good nutrition is essential in the maintenance of health and resistance to disease, but its relation to the increase of tuberculosis during the present war, it is said, is not easy to assess. Great attention has been paid by the Ministry of Food to the nation's food requirements and particularly to the importance of protective foods, and a notable contribution to the maintenance of the level of nutrition is being made by British Restaurants and factory canteens. However, although there is a steady increase and improvement in restaurant facilities, the number of these establishments is still too small; and although the needs of children for milk and other protective foods are being satisfactorily met, the supply of milk for adult consumption is considerably below the desirable level, especially in view of the scarcity of many of the other protective foods.

Under the Ministry of Health scheme, mass miniature radiography sets to assist early diagnosis will be provided as rapidly as possible for the populous areas. Anyone found to be suffering from the disease will be asked to undergo treatment without delay, but the results of miniature radiography and of subsequent examinations in individual cases will be confidential and will not be disclosed without the individual's consent. The allowances to persons undergoing treatment will be administered by the tuberculosis authorities as part of the local health services. The regular maintenance allowance will be 39s. a week for a male applicant undergoing treatment at home, and his wife, or for a female applicant and her dependent husband, with children's allowances ranging from 5s. a week for children under 10 years of age to 12s. for those over 16. For a single person, without dependents, receiving treatment at home, the allowance will be 27s.—or 25s. if the applicant is living as a nondependent member of a relative's household. These rates will be increased by a rent allowance up to 15s. a week, and by a winter fuel allowance of 3s. 6d., and will be decreased by national health benefits and payments from employers.

Extension of Social Insurance in Peru, 1942¹

TWO Peruvian decrees of October 28, 1942, and a later resolution, extended the coverage of social insurance to include workers more than 60 years of age, and chauffeurs in public service in Lima and Callao, and included textile workers on piece work as compulsorily insured persons, regardless of the amount of their pay. This legislation to increase the scope of the social-insurance system established by law in 1936 and regulated by decree of February 18, 1941,² was found advisable in the light of economic developments in the country.

The compulsory insurance applies to all persons from 14 to 60 years of age who habitually work, under labor agreement, for an employer, and whose annual wage does not exceed 3,000 gold soles. Farm workers, home workers, and apprentices are included; self-employed persons (whose annual income does not exceed 3,000 gold soles) and domestic servants may come under the scheme voluntarily. Independent workers eligible for voluntary insurance include persons who personally engage in work and employ not more than 2 assistants, and persons who are hired by an independent worker. Persons who cease to be subject to compulsory insurance and others under 40 years of age who live by their work and earn less than 3,000 gold soles per year may voluntarily come under the insurance system by furnishing specific proof of health.

One of the executive decrees of October 28, 1942, authorized the National Social Insurance Fund to make special agreements insuring the risks of sickness and death for workers older than 60 years of age. According to a later executive resolution, the National Social Insurance Fund was to arrange for the extension of voluntary sickness insurance to chauffeurs in public service in the Provinces of Lima and Callao as independent workers; for purposes of contributions, these persons are included in the eighth wage class (30.01 to 38.00 soles with 34.00 soles fixed as the basis for contribution) and their weekly contribution will amount to 0.51 gold sol.

Because of the fact that many of the textile workers on piece work were earning more than 3,000 gold soles annually (which excluded them from the compulsory social insurance), an executive decree of October 28, 1942, provided that such piece workers should be considered as compulsorily insured in the social-insurance scheme. The limit of 3,000 gold soles, however, was to continue to apply with respect to the workers' social-insurance contributions.

¹ *Informaciones Sociales* (Caja Nacional de Seguro Social, Lima, Peru), fourth quarter 1942.

² For a full account of compulsory social insurance in Peru, see *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1941, p. 912 (also included in Serial No. R-1405: Labor Conditions in Latin America No. 10).

Housing Conditions

New Housing for War Workers, 1940-43¹

Summary

CONSTRUCTION of more than a million and a half new family dwelling units was started by private builders in the nonfarm areas of continental United States from January 1940 through June 1943. Not quite three-fourths of these, somewhat over 1,125,000 units, were in areas which at some time during the period were officially designated as localities with critical housing shortages owing to the influx of war workers. These 1,125,000 included houses in all price ranges, and it is estimated that approximately 260,000 of them could not be regarded as actually a part of the supply of housing available for war workers because of their cost. There were, therefore, some 865,000 dwelling units privately constructed during the 3½ years, which were suitably located and priced for families of war workers. Of these 865,000 units, approximately 620,000 were built in war-housing localities during the period for which they were designated as critical areas. Some 323,000 of these units were built with priority assistance while 297,000 were constructed without the benefit of priorities.

To supplement the supply of war housing provided by private capital, the Federal Government inaugurated a public war housing program in the summer of 1940, under which a total of 456,000 family dwelling units had been started by the end of June 1943. This total includes all family housekeeping dwellings in public housing projects, that is, permanent, temporary, and demountable units. It does not include dormitory accommodations for single persons or the trailers that were provided as stop-gap housing until regular housekeeping units became available.

Scope and Method of Study

The above estimates of the number of new dwelling units constructed with private funds, which were suitably located and priced for occupancy by war workers, were made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the National Housing Agency. The estimates cover the period from January 1940 through June 1943.

During some part of the period through August 1942, as local war activities were initiated or expanded, 495 areas were officially classified as defense or war housing localities for privately financed construction.² Complete information on private housing operations in 148 of these areas from January 1940 through August 1942 was obtained

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment by Alexander C. Findlay.

² This classification was canceled for some areas toward the end of the period as local housing shortages were relieved.

through the Defense Housing Survey, a field study conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in cooperation with the Work Projects Administration and the National Housing Agency.³ Estimates for the remaining 347 areas, were made on the basis of that survey.

For each of the 148 areas, the number of new family dwelling units for war workers, constructed with public funds during the period of the survey, was added to the number privately financed, and the total number of new units per 10,000 of the 1940 population of the area was computed. These construction rates were correlated with the Census Bureau's estimates of changes in civilian population from April 1940 to May 1942 for the county or counties in which each area was situated.⁴ A series of relationships between population change and building rate was thereby established for areas of different population classes.

For each of the other 347 areas a building rate was then computed on the basis of the area's population class and the Census estimates of 1940-1942 population change in the corresponding county or counties. This rate, multiplied by the 1940 population of the area, gave an estimate of total dwelling units started from January 1940 through August 1942, from which was subtracted the number of publicly financed units. The resulting estimate of the number of private units for each area was checked with available building inspectors' reports and adjustments were made when indicated.

The estimates of total dwelling units started in each area were then adjusted downward to exclude those assumed to be outside the price range of war workers. The adjustments were made according to the distribution of permit valuations reported in the Defense Housing Survey areas. In those areas all units with permit valuations or estimated construction costs up to \$4,500 were assumed to be within the cost limitations established under the priority regulations for private war housing. This assumption was based on relationships between permit valuations and selling prices, determined by earlier studies. In the other 347 areas, which in general included smaller places with lower land and related costs than the Defense Housing Survey areas, units with valuations up to \$5,000 were included.

The number of units started each month, from January 1940 through August 1942, in the 347 areas was estimated in accordance with the timing pattern in the Defense Housing Survey areas.

For the 10 months from September 1942 to June 1943, monthly estimates of new privately financed units in all areas were based on building-permit reports and on Federal Housing Administration records of units started under priorities. The distribution by permit valuation within this period was obtained from a projection of the trend during the period covered by the Defense Housing Survey.

All figures on units in public housing projects were obtained from reports of the Federal Public Housing Authority.

Trends in Privately Financed Housing

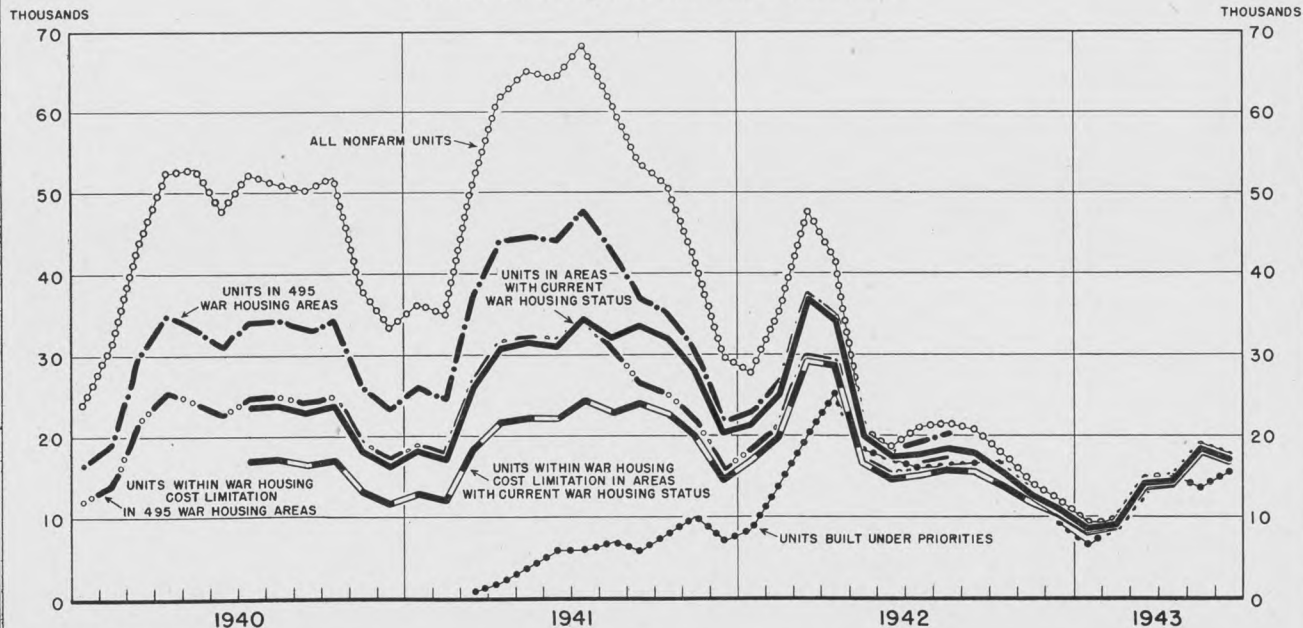
Over 1,534,000 privately financed family dwelling units were started in all nonfarm areas in the United States in the 3½ years ending with June 1943. More than four-fifths of these were started before

³ For a statement on the purpose and scope of this survey, see *Monthly Labor Review*, December 1942 (pp. 1204-1206). Ten areas were covered in addition to the 138 completed in time for inclusion in that report.

⁴ Bureau of the Census. *Estimates of the Civilian Population of Counties: May 1, 1942.* Series P-3, No. 33.

PRIVATELY FINANCED DWELLING UNITS CONSTRUCTED IN NONFARM AREAS

UNITED STATES, JANUARY 1940 - JUNE 1943



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

the War Production Board issued a limitation order (L-41) in April 1942 which prohibited all nonessential construction and which, therefore, had the effect of restricting the volume of private housing to little more than that for which priority assistance could be obtained. In the period from January 1940 to April 1942 an average of 46,700 units was started each month. From April 1942 through June 1943, when the L-41 limitation order was in effect, the monthly average dropped to 18,300.

As the volume of privately financed residential building was curtailed, there was an increasing concentration of new housing in war-housing localities. The effect of priority regulations governing costs and location on the volume of new homes started by private builders is shown in the accompanying chart, which is based on figures in table 1.

When private building activity was at its peak in the spring and summer (April-August) of 1941, about 70 percent of the new homes were in 495 areas where serious housing shortages had resulted from military activities or from the influx of workers to take jobs in war industries.⁵ These same areas accounted for 91 percent of the total started during the same months a year later.

TABLE 1.—*Privately Financed Dwelling Units Constructed in Nonfarm Areas of the United States, January 1940–June 1943*

Month of start of construction	Number of privately financed dwelling units started in specified areas				Number of privately financed dwelling units built under priorities ³	
	All nonfarm areas ¹	495 areas with war-housing status ²		Areas currently designated for private war housing		
		All units	Units within cost limitations for war housing	All units		Units within cost limitations for war housing
Total:						
January 1940–June 1943	1,534,216	⁴ 1,127,860	⁴ 866,073			
July 1940–June 1943	1,282,222			⁵ 796,201	⁵ 620,147	
January 1940–August 1942	1,383,613	988,763	735,317			
<i>1940</i>						
January	24,087	16,708	12,176	(9)	(9)	
February	30,945	19,374	14,119	(9)	(9)	
March	43,703	30,009	21,870	(9)	(9)	
April	52,421	35,158	25,622	(9)	(9)	
May	53,033	33,464	24,387	(9)	(9)	
June	47,805	31,151	22,702	(9)	(9)	
July	52,342	34,283	24,985	23,873	17,146	
August	51,195	34,392	25,064	23,949	17,200	
September	50,363	33,193	24,190	23,114	16,601	
October	51,920	34,325	25,015	23,902	17,167	
November	38,237	26,200	19,093	18,244	13,103	
December	33,520	23,476	17,109	16,348	11,742	
<i>1941</i>						
January	36,480	26,259	18,878	18,286	12,946	
February	35,196	24,592	17,679	17,125	12,125	
March	51,162	37,488	26,951	26,104	18,482	
April	61,544	44,139	31,732	30,737	21,762	
May	65,097	44,832	32,230	31,627	22,414	
June	64,153	44,324	31,864	31,268	22,159	
July	68,122	47,820	34,378	34,648	24,602	
August	61,162	42,833	30,793	32,355	23,019	
September	53,795	36,963	26,573	33,707	24,071	
October	50,972	35,108	25,239	32,012	22,861	
November	41,815	30,602	22,000	28,043	20,036	
December	29,962	22,027	15,835	20,484	14,649	

See footnotes at end of table.

⁵ See footnote 2, table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Privately Financed Dwelling Units Constructed in Nonfarm Areas of the United States, January 1940–June 1943—Continued*

Month of start of construction	Number of privately financed dwelling units started in specified areas					Number of privately financed dwelling units built under priorities ³
	All nonfarm areas ¹	495 areas with war-housing status ²		Areas currently designated for private war housing		
		All units	Units within cost limitations for war housing	All units	Units within cost limitations for war housing	
<i>1942</i>						
January	27,867	22,947	18,239	21,495	17,012	8,500
February	35,527	26,752	21,263	25,256	19,993	13,907
March	47,518	37,642	29,918	36,944	29,317	20,071
April	41,616	34,872	29,310	34,267	28,762	25,375
May	20,575	20,260	17,028	19,943	16,741	18,337
June	18,689	18,255	15,343	17,411	14,629	17,324
July	21,159	19,172	16,449	17,633	15,132	16,013
August	21,631	20,143	17,283	18,329	15,720	16,100
September	20,729	(⁴)	(⁴)	17,827	15,688	16,600
October	17,703	(⁴)	(⁴)	15,490	13,947	16,800
November	14,350	(⁴)	(⁴)	12,772	11,750	14,000
December	12,145	(⁴)	(⁴)	10,991	10,222	9,377
<i>1943</i>						
January	9,401	(⁴)	(⁴)	8,649	8,130	6,730
February	9,793	(⁴)	(⁴)	9,156	8,698	8,691
March	14,954	(⁴)	(⁴)	14,206	13,638	13,419
April	15,108	(⁴)	(⁴)	14,504	14,069	15,316
May	18,918	(⁴)	(⁴)	18,350	17,891	13,616
June	17,502	(⁴)	(⁴)	17,152	16,723	15,686

¹ For description of coverage of these estimates, see Monthly Labor Review, April 1943, pp. 652–653.

² Includes all areas with defense or war-housing status sometime during the 32 months ending with August 1942. No area was officially given such status for the entire period. The earliest were so classified in April 1941, but this date is regarded by officials of the National Housing Agency merely as formal recognition of a condition which had existed since July 1940. The first group included 99 Defense Housing Survey areas and 30 other areas. The remainder were added from time to time thereafter until August 1942. A considerable number of small areas were given war-housing status after August 1942, but these are omitted from this estimate as they were relatively unimportant. All but 6 of the Defense Housing Survey areas and all but 38 of the 347 other areas retained their defense or war-housing classification until the end of the period, but there were only 3 months (March to May 1942) when all 148 of the Defense Housing Survey areas had defense classification simultaneously and there was no single month during which all of the other areas had such status simultaneously.

³ Figures for August 1941 and earlier months are for dwelling units started before initiation of the housing priority system, but completed with the aid of priorities to obtain needed materials. Figures for remaining months of 1941 include such dwelling units. Source of 1941 figures was Research and Statistics Division, Office of Administrator, National Housing Agency; and of 1942 and 1943 figures was Monthly Volume of War Housing Operations, Federal Housing Administration.

⁴ Estimates for the 495 areas were not made later than August 1942. The totals for the period from January 1940 to June 1943 include figures for September 1942 to June 1943 from the corresponding columns for "areas currently designated for private war housing" because of the continued approach of the corresponding pairs of estimates.

⁵ The status indicated by current designation for private housing construction is regarded by the National Housing Agency as inappropriate prior to July 1940.

Within these 495 areas there was also a reduction in 1941 and 1942 in the proportion of higher-priced homes started. No cost limitation for private war housing prevailed prior to the establishment of the priority system in September 1941, but the limitation of a sales price of \$6,000 or an equivalent shelter rent not in excess of \$50 a month was established at that time by the Office of Production Management and the Division of Defense Housing Coordination, and may be regarded as appropriate in measuring the volume of housing suitable for war workers which was built prior to that time. Regardless of the existence of any formal limitation, units of higher costs cannot reasonably be considered as within the budget of most industrial workers. It is estimated that in the 495 housing areas 72 percent of the homes started between April and August 1941 were suitably

priced for war-worker occupancy. In August 1942, however, after the War Production Board ban on nonessential construction, approximately 86 percent of the privately financed units were within the cost or rent limitations established under the private priority system.

There are several explanations for the continuation of some building in the higher-cost brackets after April 1942. Homes built to replace those destroyed by fire, tornado, etc., were exempted from the War Production Board order limiting construction (Conservation Order L-41). Evasion of priority regulations was present to some degree. Instances are known in which less responsible speculative builders sold basic houses at the maximum price permitted, making an extra charge for even such essential items as connection to the public water system, but the extent of such practices is not known. Some part of the difference may be caused by the abnormal conditions of building operations, which would modify the established ratios between permit valuations and selling prices. Thus the number of dwelling units which may be properly regarded as appropriately priced for war workers may be somewhat different from the estimate shown in table 1.

For the period subsequent to August 1942, when the Defense Housing Survey was terminated, the estimates are based on the assumption that an increasing percentage of nonfarm residential construction was in areas with currently active housing priority quotas, since the administrative control of housing priorities was becoming increasingly effective. Similarly, it was assumed that the cost limitation of war housing applied to an increasing percentage of these units up to a maximum of 97½ percent in May and June, 1943. Improved procedures for the allotment of critical materials and for the inspection of priority-assisted private housing, to detect violations of the regulations governing the use of materials, constituted an increasingly effective method of holding builders to the cost limitations provided in the priority regulations.

On the basis of these assumptions, it is estimated that over 139,000 dwellings units were started in officially designated war-housing localities from September 1942 through June 1943, of which approximately 130,796 were within the specified cost limitation. During the same period 130,235 were reported as started under priorities. The difference of about 500 units, approximately a third of 1 percent, is well within the probable error of such an estimate.

The chart shows, however, that there were large differences between these estimates and priority reports in individual months. Since it was possible until April 12, 1942, to start construction on private houses for which priority assistance had not been received, the number of units reported by the Federal Housing Administration as having been started with priority assistance prior to May 1942 has no particular significance as an indication of the total volume of private construction. Priorities shown for housing started during the spring and summer of 1941 before the inauguration of the priority system were, in fact, issued during the following fall and winter to facilitate the purchase of materials needed for the completion of these units.

Some difficulty has been encountered by the FHA in obtaining accurate monthly reports from all priority-certificate holders on the number of units started. Although the FHA has adjusted its priority

reports for all known cases of prereporting or late reporting, it is possible that some of the differences between these estimates and the priority starts, as reported by FHA, may result from a failure completely to correct all faulty reporting by the builders. Of equal or greater importance in accounting for the discrepancies in individual months, however, may be the difference in the timing of the issuance of building permits, upon which these estimates are based, and the actual start of construction.

A further explanation is the fact that the issuance of priorities has itself been somewhat irregular, with delays and temporary suspensions in operations to effect changes in regulations and for other administrative reasons. Any units started by applicants during such periods, in anticipation of issuance of the desired priorities before they were needed for the purchase of critical materials, would be reported as started after priorities had been issued.

Building Rates

New dwelling units constructed per 10,000 of 1940 population in the 495 war-housing localities, during the 32-month period ending August 1942, are shown in table 2. The rates for all new dwelling units were 221.7 for the 148 Defense Housing Survey areas, and 128.9 for the other area. This difference indicates the more serious housing shortage and the greater proportionate increase in population in the former group. In all geographic divisions except New England the rates reflect the greater building activity in the Defense Housing Survey areas. Almost a third of the Defense Housing Survey population in New England was in the Boston area, for which the building rate was notably low because of local conditions, and another 22 percent was in areas marked by decreases in the civilian population. In the Mountain States the difference in rates between the two groups of areas was slight, because many of the areas not included in the survey had remarkably high increases in population resulting from the introduction of new industrial or military activities or from resumption of suspended mining operations.

Construction rates computed separately for publicly and privately financed units showed considerably more variation than did the rates for all dwelling units. This would be expected, since the proportions of public and private units were influenced by numerous factors other than total housing need. Among such factors are the expected post-war level of local employment, the effect of home construction stimulated by the previous war on local real-estate prices in the 1920's, attitudes toward Federal construction, local opinion regarding the desirability of a permanent increase in population, and the acceptability to local war workers of the financial terms on which private dwelling units were offered. The Federally constructed units were provided to meet the housing deficit remaining when, for these and other reasons, private construction was insufficient for the war housing need.

TABLE 2.—Publicly and Privately Financed Dwelling Units Constructed per 10,000 of Population in 495 War Housing Areas, January 1940 to August 1942

Item	United States	New England	Middle Atlantic	East North Central	West North Central
1940 population: Total 495 areas.....	64,599,579	5,535,236	16,851,489	15,666,731	3,891,450
148 Defense Housing Survey areas.....	46,305,743	4,919,591	14,633,013	8,850,794	2,362,975
347 other areas.....	18,293,836	615,645	2,218,476	6,815,937	1,528,475
<i>New dwelling units constructed</i>					
495 areas: All units.....	1,262,559	69,127	195,027	240,358	61,248
Public.....	273,796	21,928	36,961	33,710	10,801
Private.....	988,763	47,199	158,066	206,648	50,447
148 Defense Housing Survey areas: All units.....	1,026,794	59,790	179,398	177,654	41,381
Public.....	235,313	19,406	35,365	26,685	9,698
Private.....	791,481	40,384	144,033	150,969	31,683
347 other areas: All units.....	235,765	9,337	15,629	62,704	19,867
Public.....	38,483	2,522	1,596	7,025	1,103
Private.....	197,282	6,815	14,033	55,679	18,764
Units per 10,000 of 1940 population:					
Defense Housing Survey areas: All units.....	221.7	121.5	122.6	200.7	175.1
Public.....	50.8	39.4	24.2	30.1	41.0
Private.....	170.9	82.1	98.4	170.6	134.1
Other areas: All units.....	128.9	151.7	70.5	92.0	130.0
Public.....	21.0	41.0	7.2	10.3	7.2
Private.....	107.9	110.7	63.3	81.7	122.8

Item	South Atlantic	East South Central	West South Central	Mountain	Pacific
1940 population: Total 495 areas.....	6,089,601	3,122,190	4,887,446	1,444,291	7,111,145
148 Defense Housing Survey areas.....	4,334,517	1,739,976	2,739,634	838,523	5,886,720
347 other areas.....	1,755,084	1,382,214	2,147,812	605,768	1,224,425
<i>New dwelling units constructed</i>					
495 areas: All units.....	211,414	61,732	115,540	41,259	266,854
Public.....	67,031	19,196	19,004	6,942	58,223
Private.....	144,383	42,536	96,536	34,317	208,631
148 Defense Housing Survey areas: All units.....	179,559	40,708	76,023	25,014	247,267
Public.....	56,994	13,744	13,004	5,226	55,191
Private.....	122,565	26,964	63,019	19,788	192,076
347 other areas: All units.....	31,855	21,024	39,517	16,245	19,587
Public.....	10,037	5,452	6,000	1,716	3,032
Private.....	21,818	15,572	33,517	14,529	16,555
Units per 10,000 of 1940 population:					
Defense Housing Survey areas: All units.....	414.3	234.0	277.5	298.3	420.0
Public.....	131.5	79.0	47.5	62.3	93.7
Private.....	282.8	155.0	230.0	236.0	326.3
Other areas: All units.....	181.5	152.1	184.0	268.1	160.0
Public.....	57.2	39.4	27.9	28.3	24.8
Private.....	124.3	112.7	156.1	239.8	135.2

Industrial Accidents

Industrial Injuries, May 1943

REPORTS from 12,326 manufacturing plants for May listed 29,285 disabling work injuries experienced by employees during the month. The reporting plants employed 7,144,700 workers, or nearly 45 percent of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' estimate of total manufacturing employment for the month. Assuming that the reporting establishments constitute a representative sample, the total number of disabling injuries experienced by workers in all manufacturing plants of the United States during May, therefore, may be estimated as about 65,000.

The actual record of days lost from work because of these occupational injuries is not available. On the average, however, each disabling injury conservatively may be expected to result in the loss of about 20 days from work. The disabling industrial injuries experienced by manufacturing workers in May, therefore, represent the direct loss of 1,300,000 man-days of production, without any allowance for the continuing economic loss resulting from the many deaths included in the totals or from the reduced productivity of those workers who suffered permanent impairments. This direct loss is equivalent to the complete withdrawal of 50,000 workers from their manufacturing activities for the full month of May.

At the end of the reporting period, 0.4 percent of the reported injuries were known to have resulted in death and 3.2 percent had definitely developed into permanent physical impairments. It may be expected, however, that a considerable number of the injuries, which appeared to be only temporary at the end of May, will later develop into fatalities or permanent impairments.

Injury-frequency rates for May ranged from an average of 4.4 disabling injuries for each million employee-hours worked in the women's clothing industry to 72.2 in the sawmill industry. This latter frequency of 72.2 was the highest monthly rate so far recorded for the sawmill industry during 1943. Sixteen other industries also had higher frequency rates in May than in any previous month of 1943.

On the other hand 16 industries had lower frequency rates in May than in any of the earlier months of 1943.

Comparisons between industries are best made on the basis of frequency rates which apply to periods longer than a single month, since the monthly rates may vary widely because of temporary conditions which are not characteristic of the industry. In the longer period covered by the 5-month cumulative frequency rates presented in the accompanying table, these erratic fluctuations are averaged out and a relatively stable basis of comparison is attained. Six of the

77 industries for which data are available had cumulative frequency rates indicating a very high incidence of injuries. Two of these, planing mills and sawmills, had cumulative rates indicating an average of more than 66 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked. The wooden-container industry had a cumulative rate of 54, and the concrete, gypsum and plaster products, the corrugated-box, and the plate-fabrication and boiler-shop industries each had cumulative rates of over 40.

At the other end of the scale, there were 8 industries with cumulative injury-frequency rates of less than 10. In the order of their frequency rates, these industries were: Women's clothing, 4.7; sighting and fire-control equipment, 7.1; rayon and allied products (chemical), 7.4; radios and phonographs, 7.8; soap and glycerin, 8.4; men's clothing, 8.7; cement, 9.1; and iron and steel, 9.9.

Industrial Injury-Frequency¹ Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, May 1943, with Cumulative Rates for 1943

Industry ²	May 1943		1943: Cumulative frequency rate
	Number of es- tablishments	Frequency rate ³	
* Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	49	14.8	15.7
Aircraft.....	35	9.9	10.6
Aircraft parts.....	174	15.1	18.6
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over.....	363	27.1	28.7
Ammunition, small arms.....	20	17.6	19.5
Baking.....	14	15.7	17.7
Book and job printing.....	36	11.4	13.1
Boots and shoes, not rubber.....	317	14.3	14.1
Canning and preserving.....	65	19.9	19.1
Carpets and rugs.....	9	13.4	14.2
Cement.....	92	10.3	9.1
Chemicals, industrial.....	293	17.7	17.5
Clothing, men's.....	523	9.5	8.7
Clothing, women's.....	341	4.4	4.7
Coke ovens.....	19	21.8	20.8
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products.....	128	55.1	49.1
Confectionery.....	9	16.6	17.6
Construction and mining machinery.....	107	33.9	32.0
Corrugated boxes.....	93	53.2	42.4
Cotton goods.....	132	18.7	15.5
Cutlery and edge tools.....	26	24.0	21.5
Drugs, toiletries, and insecticides.....	44	23.5	22.3
Dyeing and finishing.....	53	27.7	21.6
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	628	11.3	11.0
Explosives.....	34	12.5	10.8
Fabricated structural steel.....	129	35.8	32.6
Fiber boxes.....	36	27.5	28.0
Folding boxes.....	97	24.1	22.8
Food-products machinery.....	21	27.4	31.3
Forgings, iron and steel.....	153	45.1	39.4
Foundries, iron and steel.....	611	30.6	39.5
Furniture, except metal.....	74	33.0	29.6
Furniture, metal.....	19	15.2	29.2
General industrial machinery.....	733	24.9	24.3
Glass.....	34	18.1	17.7
Guns and related equipment.....	158	17.7	17.6
Hardware.....	42	30.4	24.1
Iron and steel.....	230	8.9	9.9
Knit goods.....	54	8.8	11.3
Leather.....	24	26.0	24.7
Metalworking machinery.....	855	19.1	20.0
Motor vehicles.....	145	13.0	14.9

See footnotes at end of table.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency¹ Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, May 1943,
with Cumulative Rates for 1943—Continued*

Industry ²	May 1943		1943: Cumulative frequency rate
	Number of es- tablishments	Frequency rate ³	
Motor-vehicle parts.....	60	25.0	24.1
Nonferrous-metal products.....	403	25.1	24.7
Paints and varnishes.....	72	14.7	20.9
Paper.....	216	32.3	31.9
Paper and pulp (integrated).....	81	24.8	24.8
Petroleum refining.....	172	12.6	12.4
Planing mills.....	39	57.1	66.4
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products.....	65	41.0	41.4
Plumbers' supplies.....	22	17.5	17.8
Pottery.....	12	23.3	21.9
Pulp.....	23	35.0	32.2
Radios and phonographs.....	204	7.6	7.8
Railroad equipment.....	37	20.8	20.0
Rayon and allied products (chemical).....	16	7.6	7.4
Rubber boots and shoes.....	13	6.6	11.3
Rubber tires.....	35	15.5	13.8
Sawmills.....	34	72.2	66.1
Set-up boxes.....	252	14.8	16.1
Shipbuilding.....	194	29.6	30.0
Sighting and fire-control equipment.....	39	6.7	7.1
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	214	33.1	36.1
Small arms.....	55	12.6	10.6
Smelting and refining (nonferrous).....	170	32.2	28.0
Soap and glycerin.....	18	8.9	8.4
Stamped and pressed metal products.....	308	31.3	32.2
Steam fittings and apparatus.....	62	32.7	33.4
Stoves and furnaces, not electric.....	55	36.2	35.5
Tanks, military.....	23	12.4	11.0
Tank parts, military.....	57	23.1	22.0
Textile machinery.....	12	17.4	14.3
Tin cans and other tinware.....	47	18.6	19.3
Tools, except edge tools.....	62	29.2	21.8
Wire and wire products.....	164	22.1	22.6
Wooden containers.....	47	58.6	54.2
Woolen goods.....	172	21.9	19.0

¹ The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.

² A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.

³ Computed from all reports received for the month. Not based on identical plants in successive months.

Labor Organizations

Maintenance-of-Membership Awards of National War Labor Board ¹

Summary

THAT a considerable degree of stability in union strength has resulted from the maintenance-of-membership awards of the National War Labor Board was revealed by a survey of 31 plants made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Although most unions with maintenance-of-membership clauses in their agreements had increased their membership, the relative union strength showed no marked increase, because total employment had also increased since the adoption of the clause. Resignations of union members during the so-called "escape period" were negligible in most cases. Discharges of union members for failure to remain in good standing were not numerous, only 72 employees in 8 plants having been discharged for failure to pay their union dues.

The maintenance-of-membership clause had also assisted the enforcement of the unions' "no-strike" pledge in several instances. Improvements in employer-union relations, as reflected in the effectiveness of the grievance program, were noted in a majority of cases.

Scope of Survey

The survey was undertaken at the request of the National War Labor Board and covered 31 cases² where maintenance of union membership had been introduced through action of the Board. Field representatives visited the plants after the clause had been in operation for several months, to determine its effect on union strength and on industrial relations.

The study covered plants in nearly all of the industries producing war materials, including the lumber, aircraft, metal-mining, textile, and automobile-equipment industries, and situated in every section of the country. At each plant visited, interviews were held with company and union officials as well as a number of union and nonunion employees. Lack of time limited somewhat the number of rank-and-file employees interviewed at each plant, but in total the number was probably sufficient to gain a fairly accurate impression of individual employee reaction. In only 5 of the 31 cases had there been an "escape period" provided in the award. This relatively small number was due to the fact that the cases chosen for study necessarily

¹ Study made in Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, by Fred Joiner and associates under supervision of Florence Peterson.

² In several of the cases more than one plant was affected by action of the Board as, for example, a decision covering an association of loggers in Washington and Oregon, and another covering numerous in San Francisco.

included the earliest awards made by the Board, before provision for the 15-day escape period had been generally adopted.

Security to the Union

The basic question which must be asked in any study of maintenance-of-membership clauses is whether or not the clause has actually provided security to the union. In other words, has the union maintained its strength not only in absolute figures but also relatively to the changing number of eligible employees in the plant? It is important also to know whether dues delinquency has decreased and whether maintenance-of-membership has been enforced.

UNION STRENGTH BEFORE AND AFTER AWARD

In a majority of the cases studied, employment had increased at a fairly steady rate as a result of the expanding needs of the war program. Moreover, the turnover rate and resultant losses in union members in a majority of the plants visited were fairly high. A maintenance-of-membership award, of course, does not compel new employees to join the union. It is important, therefore, to determine whether the strength of the union relative to the total eligible employees was maintained in the months following a maintenance-of-membership award.

The present study indicated a considerable degree of stability in union strength under the maintenance-of-membership provisions, in regard both to total membership and to the relative strength of the union in the plant. In only 7 of the 31 cases covered had the union suffered a decrease in total membership during the period since maintenance of membership had been in effect. In the remaining 24 cases, an increase—in some cases a substantial increase—in the total number of union members was shown.

In about one-third of the plants covered (10 out of 31) the union suffered a decrease in relative strength. In 4 cases this decrease was so sharp that it caused the union to lose its majority status. In a few other cases the decrease in relative strength ranged from 10 to 20 percent.

Although 19 of the cases studied revealed increases in relative union strength, these increases were in many cases quite moderate, revealing in effect little more than that the union had held its own during the months following the inauguration of maintenance of membership.

RESIGNATION DURING THE "ESCAPE PERIOD"

In 2 of the 5 cases in which "escape periods" were included in the maintenance-of-membership awards, no resignations were reported during the period allowed. In 1 case, between 20 and 30 employees, representing less than half of 1 percent of the union membership, formally resigned during the escape period. In another case, 40 resignations were reported (about 10 percent of the union members) but 30 later rejoined and the total union membership increased by two-thirds immediately after the signing of the agreement. One case, however, revealed serious membership losses to the union during the escape period. In this plant, 92 employees, or one-third of the membership in the union, resigned formally during the escape period.

This severe loss nearly wiped out the union in the plant, since the remaining members almost without exception stopped paying dues and ceased all activity in the union.³

THE "MARSHALL FIELD" FORMULA

Somewhat similar to the problem of the escape period is the "Marshall Field" formula⁴ which in effect requires the union to recanvass its membership after the maintenance-of-membership clause has been awarded, allowing each member the choice of signing or refusing to sign a card stating that he agrees to be bound by the maintenance-of-membership provision and have his dues checked off by the company. Two of the plants covered had such a clause in effect. In both of these the union was in a stronger position after the maintenance-of-membership clause took effect than it was just prior to that time. The number of check-off cards signed exceeded considerably the total union membership prior to the award. This was due in large measure to the fact that wage increases and other gains had been obtained by the union at the same time as the maintenance-of-membership award, thus causing many employees to join the union. Despite these relative increases, the union in one of the two plants reported that approximately 50 employees who were previously union members refused to sign the check-off card and were thereby dropped from membership; this same union later suffered a decrease in its relative strength, owing to the turnover in personnel.

Since, under the "Marshall Field" formula, employees who fail to sign the card authorizing the check-off are not bound by the maintenance-of-membership provision, one of the unions has refused to accept into membership employees who are willing to pay dues directly to the organization but are unwilling to sign the authorization card. On the other hand, the union in the other case has allowed a few members to pay dues directly to it.

DELINQUENCY, AND ACTION TAKEN TO ENFORCE MAINTENANCE OF MEMBERSHIP

Although the maintenance-of-membership provision has aided the unions in their efforts to keep members paid up in their dues, it has by no means solved the problem of dues delinquency, particularly in those cases where this was serious prior to the Board's award.

In 13 plants delinquency remained a serious problem despite the maintenance-of-membership provision. Delinquency rates among union members in 11 cases ranged from 10 to 20 percent, and in 2 cases (where the employer had placed severe obstacles in the way of union action) the rates were 45 and 90 percent, respectively.

Several unions with severe dues problems had taken little or no action under the maintenance-of-membership clause to force delinquent members into good standing. In 24 of the 31 cases, however, the unions had initiated action with the company, against delinquent members. In many of these 24 cases a small sample of delinquent members had been selected by the union as "test" cases. In only 5 of the 31 cases covered had requests for action affected considerable numbers.

³ There was some evidence that the employer had encouraged and assisted employees to resign during the escape period.

⁴ See Monthly Labor Review, June 1942 (p. 1347).

Out of a total employment of approximately 125,000 workers in the cases covered, including 90,000 union members, only 72 employees had suffered final termination of their employment as a result of union action taken to enforce maintenance of membership.⁵ In the great majority of instances where lists of delinquents were submitted to the company, the employees involved paid up their dues following a warning by company officials that otherwise discharge would follow.

ORGANIZING NEW MEMBERS

Union officials in almost every case indicated that the maintenance-of-membership clause placed no obstacles in the way of organizing new members, among either the old employees or those newly hired. They reported that the additional factor of being required to maintain their membership after once joining the union did not deter individuals from joining, if they had made up their minds to do so. In one case where the "Marshall Field" formula was in effect, the union stated that a few employees who might otherwise have joined had refused to sign the check-off cards, since this would expose their union membership to the company officials.

Union officials in a few plants pointed out that with the maintenance-of-membership provision it had become easier to organize new employees, since prospective members were impressed with the security which the union had obtained and therefore felt that they were joining a stable organization whose existence could not be easily threatened by the employer.

Effects on Union-Management Relations

The Bureau attempted to obtain information as to whether maintenance of membership had resulted in greater stability in employer-union relations. Some light is thrown on this point in the following discussion of work stoppages, grievance adjustment, and labor-management committees, but it should be remembered that many factors other than the maintenance-of-membership clause affect such issues and programs.

WORK STOPPAGES

In 25 of the 31 cases, no stoppages, slowdowns, or other overt actions on the part of the workers, adversely affecting production, were reported since the maintenance-of-membership clause has been in effect. In one case, involving several operations, there was a short stoppage in one operation when the employer refused to put the Board's wage directive into effect. In another case, there were 2 work stoppages, neither of which exceeded 2 days. These stoppages resulted, respectively, from the discharge of a union committeeman for having solicited dues on company time, and from a wage dispute. In 4 cases there had been frequent stoppages because of delays in settling grievances, disputes over work loads, and questions of seniority; all but one of these involved only a limited number of employees in certain departments. In all these instances the union officers maintained that they were not involved in the strike action. In

⁵ 55 of these discharges occurred in a single plant where (as the employer pointed out) they constituted only a small fraction of the 18,000 total separations which the company experienced last year.

fact, with one exception, the work stoppages which did occur were terminated within a few hours through action of union leadership; in the exception, in a dispute over work loads, the stoppage lasted 11 days and was settled by a conciliator of the U. S. Department of Labor.

It was pointed out to the Bureau's investigators by several union officials that the additional power given to them by the maintenance-of-membership provision has enabled them to take strong measures to prevent stoppages from occurring. In one instance cited, the union prevented a group of workers from striking when a Negro employee was brought into the department; many workers, incensed at the union's attitude, tore up their union cards, but later rejoined when they realized that persistence in their action would mean loss of employment.

LABOR-MANAGEMENT COMMITTEES

The existence of labor-management committees to improve production and efficiency is a tangible evidence of good relations between the employers and the unions. In 22 cases such committees had been established, and in 9 this development in employer-union relations had not yet been achieved.⁶ In the majority of the plants with labor-management committees, their operation to date could not be considered successful. In several cases the parties frankly admitted that, following the formation of the committee and perhaps some initial activity, interest in the plan had lapsed and the committee had ceased functioning. It was interesting to note that many rank-and-file employees interviewed had no knowledge of the committee's activities, even though it was in existence in their plant.

GRIEVANCE ADJUSTMENT

The situation with respect to grievance adjustment is an important indication of the kind of employer-union relations which exists in any plant. It was difficult to trace changes in the grievance situation to the maintenance-of-membership clause, as such. It may be significant, however, that in 18 of the 31 plants the grievance machinery appeared to be working better than before the maintenance-of-membership clause went into effect. In 12 cases, no change was noted in the effectiveness of the grievance program, while in one case (a textile mill where severe membership losses had occurred) the grievance machinery had practically ceased to function.

In almost half of the cases, the maintenance-of-membership clause was incorporated in the first agreement signed between the parties. In some others, the bargaining machinery had been at a standstill, pending determination of the case by the National War Labor Board. The tendency in these cases was for a flood of pent-up grievances to be released following the signing of the agreement, which caused the number of grievance cases to rise quite rapidly. After the first few months, however, the number of grievances gradually declined and not uncommonly both parties felt that stability in grievance adjustment was being reached.

In about one-fourth of the cases studied, the relations between the union and the employer, as reflected in the grievance-adjustment

⁶ Included in these 9 cases was an association of hotel employers.

program, must still be considered poor. These included 4 plants where no change could be observed and 5 where some improvement had recently taken place.

Bureau representatives attempted to discover in each situation whether, in the opinion of the employer, the union was acting in a more responsible manner with regard to the number and the nature of the grievances handled; and whether, in the opinion of the union, the employer was treating the union representatives with more respect and was more willing to accept the union's recommendation on particular grievances. In most cases it was impossible to secure these admissions from either side, even in those cases where it was apparent that the grievance machinery under the new agreement was functioning better than previously. Representatives of both parties interviewed seemed more desirous of pointing out particular instances of irresponsibility or unyielding attitude rather than of considering the situation as a whole. Even where it was admitted that better relations prevailed, more credit was ascribed to a change in union leadership, in company officials, or in bargaining procedure, than to maintenance of membership. Some union officials and individual workers, however, felt that better relations had resulted because of the increased strength and security gained by the union through maintenance of membership.

Attitudes and Opinions

An important purpose of the survey was to determine the attitudes and opinions of the various parties in the light of experience gained in the actual operation of maintenance-of-membership clauses. The general opinions of employers, union representatives, and individual employees interviewed are summarized below:

ATTITUDE OF EMPLOYERS

In the great majority of the plants visited, the employers seemed to be reconciled to the maintenance-of-membership situation. In only three plants were the employers still so strongly opposed to the principle that they were obviously trying to prevent the union from making its security effective. Several employers stated that they were opposed in principle to maintenance of membership, but accepted it as a "necessary evil" during the war period.

In two of the three cases of employer opposition the maintenance-of-membership clause had been included, against the employers' wishes, in the first agreement which the companies had ever had with the union. There had been a background of intense anti-union activity, previously, in these cases, and it continued to such an extent as to keep the union weak and ineffectual. Thus, the maintenance-of-membership provision not only failed to strengthen the union, but in both cases the union was weaker at the time of the Bureau's survey than when the clause had been granted. In one of the above cases and an additional plant, the union had made some attempt to enforce the membership-maintenance provision, but the determined opposition of the employer had made enforcement practically impossible. In one case the company refused to discharge certain employees whose names the union submitted. In the other, the company took the

attitude that it would never discharge a man for refusing to pay union dues, unless ordered to do so by the impartial umpire, irrespective of the merits of the case. Since arbitration costs would cause a heavy drain on the union's treasury, the union hesitated to enforce the membership provision.

The employers who stated that they were accepting maintenance of membership merely as a wartime necessity because it had been ordered by the Federal Government, implied that they would stoutly resist the principle when allowed to do so after the war. In most cases these employers were faithfully observing the letter of the agreement and were enforcing membership where the union requested them to do so. One of these employers stated that he feared the effect of maintenance of membership on the morale of the employees. He pointed out that several employees whose names had been submitted to the company for action under the provision were extremely resentful and that quarrels had developed in the plant between these employees and active union members.

The employers who expressed no objection to maintenance of membership stated as their reason their desire to cooperate in the establishment of harmonious relations with the union. In general, this attitude seemed to flow from a genuine acceptance of collective bargaining. Although only one employer was willing specifically to attribute the establishment of harmonious relations to maintenance of membership, most of the others felt that any employer opposition to union security at this time might cause a complete breakdown in the collective-bargaining relationship. In one case the employer complained that, although he desired a strong stable union, the maintenance-of-membership clause had failed to provide this stability. He pointed out that the leadership of the union had frequently been changed and, in fact, the entire local had changed its affiliation from the American Federation of Labor to the Congress of Industrial Organizations during the period that maintenance of membership was in effect. In one case the employer was satisfied that the clause had eliminated not only friction over dues collection but also the factionalism among the union members, which had been a troublesome problem in the past. In another case the employer supported the theory that when an individual joined an organization he should be required to support it. It should be mentioned that the maintenance-of-membership clause in these latter cases had been inserted in the union agreement following mediation and not by a directive order of the War Labor Board.

ATTITUDE OF UNIONS

As might be expected, unions in general expressed considerable satisfaction with the maintenance-of-membership clause and felt that it had given them some degree of security. In only a few cases did the unions appear to be entirely satisfied with maintenance of membership as it operated in their particular plants. In the majority, the unions were dissatisfied only with the degree of union security provided by the maintenance-of-membership clause as compared with stronger clauses, such as that providing for the union shop. In four cases, however, the unions felt that they had received almost no security from maintenance of membership and had not been able to apply the clause in their particular plants.

In the cases in which the union was entirely satisfied with maintenance of membership, the union had achieved a very high degree of organization in the plant prior to the application of maintenance of membership. In two of these plants the employer-union relations prior to the maintenance-of-membership agreement had reached a stage where the employer fully accepted the union as the representative of the overwhelming majority of its employees and was bargaining with the organization on this basis. In the other plants employer-union relations had not reached this stage at the time the security clause was obtained; there the union noted an increasing acceptance of the union, following the agreement incorporating the maintenance-of-membership clause, and was pleased with the results which were ascribed almost entirely to the additional security which maintenance of membership had provided.

As noted above, the majority of local unions expressed themselves as favoring maintenance of membership, but realized the limitations of the clause and were not entirely satisfied with the degree of security which had been obtained. Most of these unions wanted the union shop and pointed out that maintenance of membership failed to bring about anything like the 100-percent organization which the union shop would have secured automatically. One union official said, "Maintenance of membership is not even a forty-second cousin to the closed shop. In fact, it is an open shop and encourages the company to continue its anti-union activity." Specific instances of company discrimination either against union members or in favor of nonunionists were submitted by several unions as evidence that the maintenance-of-membership clause had not changed the employers' attitude toward the union nor ended their attempts to drive a wedge between the union and those whom the union was attempting to organize.

These unions also pointed out that under the maintenance-of-membership clause the union, particularly in plants where labor turnover was high, was still required to spend much time organizing, collecting dues, and "tending its fences" among the employees, to the detriment of other activities which might be more valuable to the war program. Several of these locals felt that the addition of the check-off to the maintenance-of-membership clause would solve many of their present problems. In one plant where the "Marshall Field" formula was in effect, the union approved the check-off but opposed the signing of authorization cards which "requires us to organize the plant twice, once to get membership and again to get signed check-off cards."

On the other hand, union officials pointed out many benefits of maintenance-of-membership clauses to offset these adverse attitudes. Almost all stated that maintenance of membership had relieved the dues situation to some extent. In a few plants it had formerly been the practice of some union members to stop paying dues from time to time whenever they were dissatisfied with union activity on a particular grievance or while awaiting the outcome of negotiations. Also, as mentioned previously, the union leaders are now able to take a stronger position in enforcing union policy, such as the "no strike" agreement, when such policy is opposed by a few union members.

In the four plants in which the union was almost completely dissatisfied with the maintenance-of-membership clause, the circumstances were such that the union was unable to enforce the clause to

any extent. In most of these cases the union represented barely 50 percent of the employees when the clause was granted and suffered severe delinquency thereafter. Since most of these plants are manufacturing war material and have serious problems in securing manpower, the unions felt that they could not place themselves in the position of asking for the discharge of large numbers of qualified workmen and the consequent disruption of production. In addition, in enforcing membership maintenance the unions feared the effect on weaker union members of being called before the company and warned or disciplined for failure to pay dues. They stated that the employees who are critical of the union or its leadership would have an added argument by saying, "See, the union wants to get me fired." Also since new employees are not required to join, these unions hesitate to force older members to pay dues on pain of discharge. According to the union, the older members observe that new employees obtain all the benefits which the union has secured, without having to pay dues, and feel quite bitterly the injustice of their own enforced membership.

ATTITUDE OF EMPLOYEES

Bureau representatives interviewed 110 rank-and-file employees. An attempt was made in every case to secure representatives of different backgrounds, including union members and nonunionists, male and female employees, and nationality groups.

In general, the reaction of rank-and-file workers to the maintenance-of-membership clause depended upon their degree of sympathy for the union. Many union members expressed strong enthusiasm for maintenance of membership while some nonunion employees showed antipathy to it. Between these extremes were many employees, some of them dues-paying members of the local union, who were indifferent and in some cases ignorant of the maintenance-of-membership clause and its application.

Among the nonunion employees, only three were found who gave maintenance of membership as their primary reason for not joining the union, and in these three cases it was difficult to judge whether the principal objection was not the union rather than the maintenance-of-membership provision, as such. Some anti-union workers claimed that others had been "high-pressured" into joining the union or had had the union-security clause misrepresented to them and would like to resign if they could. Only four employees stated that they would like to resign from the union and there were none who claimed that the union-security clause had been misrepresented to them by union officials. A number of employees thought that it was unfair for union members to be bound by maintenance of membership while other employees in the plant were not so bound.

Several employees interviewed were not particularly conscious of the fact that the maintenance-of-membership clause was in effect at the plant. When questioned they usually admitted that copies of the agreement containing the clause had been posted on bulletin boards or handed to them, but they had not read the clause carefully and it had not been the subject of much discussion within the plant. They did not feel that the clause was particularly important and had no opinions one way or the other as to its desirability.

Several rank-and-file employees, especially those in strongly organized plants, were enthusiastic about the maintenance-of-membership clause. In general, these employees felt that the relations between the company and the union had improved under the maintenance-of-membership clause and usually pointed to some concrete gains as indicating the changed attitude of the employer.



Labor Organization in China¹

THE Chinese Labor Association (known as the CAL), which was organized in 1935 in Shanghai, succeeded the Shanghai General Labor Union. In 1939 the association became affiliated with the International Federation of Trade Unions.

The CAL includes 48 general labor unions, including both territorial and occupational organizations. Each general labor union heads a number of locals, some of which represent the workers in individual factories and others certain craft workers in particular localities. At the close of January 1943, the members totaled 422,652, estimated as being approximately 50 percent of the total number employed in factories in Free China which have over 30 workers each. A campaign is under way to reach a goal of 500,000 by the end of the current year.

Government-arsenal employees are not allowed to belong to unions, but there are numerous locals consisting of Government workers, which include postal and railroad employees.

Among the labor organizations in the CAL are the National Postal Union, the National Seamen's Congress, the Canton-Hankow Railroad Workers Union, the Changsha Trade Union Council, the Chungking Trade Union Council, the General Labor Union of the Tangshan Mining Area, and one Communist union—a general labor union formed in Kansu and Ningsia. Trade-unionism has as yet made little progress among miners.

During the war the CAL is working in close cooperation with the Government, especially with the Ministry of Social Affairs. It has not, however, relinquished the right to strike after the war at any time to achieve the association's objectives. The Ministry is supporting a bill before the Legislative Yuan which would require all employers to allow their workers to form locals and affiliate with the CAL.

The factory legislation on the statute books compares favorably with that in other countries, but the Chinese measures have never been enforced. Before the outbreak of the war, Chinese employers explained their noncompliance with factory laws on the ground that foreign establishments were not restricted by such provisions. Generally, conditions in foreign factories were better than in Chinese-owned plants but there were exceptions to the rule. With the return of more nearly normal conditions after the war ends, when all factories will be covered by Chinese laws, the CAL hopes that better compliance with labor provisions can be attained.

¹ Based on interview by J. Bartlett Richards, representative of United States Embassy at Chungking, with Chu Hsueh-fan, president of the Chinese Association of Labor, June 10, 1943 (data enclosed in letter of June 14, 1943, from Embassy).

Efforts to improve the labor laws are also planned. For example, the workmen's compensation act provides for compensation not to exceed 3 years' average wages in case of total and permanent disability, or 2 years' average wages plus \$300² in case of death. Such compensation would be inadequate, even if it could be obtained. As a matter of fact, the act has never been enforced. At present the CAL is especially interested in obtaining social-security legislation, providing for old-age pensions, disability benefits, etc., but this program has not yet been worked out in detail.

A mining-inspection law has been enacted, but there appears to be little hope for its enforcement in the war emergency. After the conflict ends, the CAL will make a special attempt to have the provisions carried out, as the situation in some of the mines, particularly the Yunnan tin mines, is regarded as deplorable.



Recognition of Trade-Unions in Egypt

EGYPTIAN workers were authorized to organize trade-unions for the protection and improvement of their material and moral conditions by an act of September 6, 1942.³ The law provides that workers engaged in the same trade or occupation or in similar trades or occupations, or trades contributing to the manufacture of the same products, may organize and will be legally recognized if the union has been duly registered. Persons excluded from the operation of the act include State officials, employees of Provincial councils, permanent members of the army, air, naval, and police forces, agricultural workers, and nurses and hospital staff on the same footing as nurses; although such groups may lawfully form associations to protect their common interests.

Only one union may be formed for the same trade or occupation in the same locality, and a union must have at least 50 members. The rules of a union must include a definition of the purpose for which it is formed, the manner in which dues are to be collected, the financial resources of the union, the proportion of the funds to be allocated to the needs of the workers (subject to a minimum of 25 percent of the annual receipts), and the disposal to be made of the funds in the event of the dissolution of the union.

Every Egyptian worker not less than 15 years of age is entitled to join the appropriate trade-union for his occupation. Foreign workers may not belong to unions unless they are permanent residents of the country, and in no case may such workers form more than 25 percent of the membership.

The unions will have power to conclude collective agreements in accordance with rules to be laid down by special legislation. They may sue and be sued, may perform any actions arising out of a collective agreement, and may exercise all the rights of civil parties in respect to offenses against the collective interests of the occupation they represent. The unions may also establish welfare, mutual-aid, social-insurance, and other beneficial institutions.

Federations of unions of the same trade or occupation or of trades contributing to the manufacture of the same products are authorized

² Chinese national currency.

³ International Labor Review (Montreal), August 1943.

by the law, but such federations may not invest funds in financial, commercial, or industrial transactions, nor may they concern themselves with political or religious matters.

Any clause in a contract of employment which restricts the workers' right to join or withdraw from any union is invalid; and an employer who dismisses or in any way penalizes a worker, with a view to forcing him to join or refrain from joining a union, or penalizes a worker for holding a trade-union office or enforcing a trade-union decision, is subject to a fine as well as being liable for damages to the worker for any loss incurred by him.

A union which persists in violating the provisions of the act, after receiving a written warning, may be dissolved by the Minister of Social Affairs. Trade-unions and trade-union federations which were in existence before the enactment of the law must conform with its provisions within 6 months of its coming into force, on pain of being dissolved.



Workers' Organizations in Mexico¹

FROM 1933 to 1941, inclusive, the number of worker organizations in Mexico under Federal jurisdiction increased from 693 to 1,139; during the same period the membership of these organizations increased from 164,120 to 335,492 persons. Such statistics of worker organizations have been collected by the Government since 1933, following the adoption of the Federal labor law in 1931.

The Federal labor law defined a union as an association of workers or employers of the same occupation, trade, or specialty, or of similar or connected occupations, trades, or specialties, organized for the study, improvement, and defense of their common interests. Four types of unions are recognized—craft, company, industrial, and mixed. Employers and workers are entitled to form unions without any previous authorization, but no one may be forced to join or not to join a union. Unions shall be composed of at least 20 workers or 3 employers. Persons who are 12 years of age or over may join a union, but only those over 16 may participate in its administration and direction; and no member who is an alien may serve on the board of directors. Married women engaged in a trade or occupation may, without authorization of their husbands, join a union and participate in the administration and direction thereof.

Unions are permitted to federate, and have done so. The principal labor federations are the Confederación de Trabajadores de México, Confederación General de Trabajadores, Confederación Regional de Obreros Mexicanos, Confederación de Obreros y Campesinos de México, and Sindicato Industrial de Mineros, Metalúrgicos y Similares de la República Mexicana.

¹ Data are from *Informaciones Sociales* (Boletín Semanario de Noticias de la Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Mexico, D. F.), February 28, 1942; *Trabajo y Previsión Social* (Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Mexico, D. F.), June 1942 (pp. 63-68); *El Popular* (Mexico D. F.), September 21, 1942; *Mexican Labor News* (Press Department of Workers' University of Mexico), April 13, 1943; *International Labor Review* (Montreal), June 1943; and U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 569 (pp. 36-38).

The following statement shows the number of worker organizations on the Federal register and their total membership, for each year from 1933 through 1941. The data do not cover employers' organizations.

	<i>Unions</i>	<i>Members</i>
1933	693	164, 120
1934	744	198, 642
1935	826	233, 483
1936	881	265, 146
1937	982	316, 191
1938	1, 005	319, 760
1939	1, 094	328, 248
1940	1, 124	330, 604
1941 ¹	1, 139	335, 492

¹ Preliminary figures, subject to revision.

The above represent only the membership of the worker organizations under Federal jurisdiction; a great many organizations, however, have never registered.

The Press Department of the Workers' University is authority for the statement that the Confederación Regional de Obreros Mexicanos and the Sindicato Industrial de Mineros, Metalúrgicos y Similares, had in April 1943 a combined membership of about 325,000 persons, and that the Confederación General de Trabajadores, the Confederación de Obreros y Campesinos de México, and the Confederación Proletaria Nacional had a total national membership of about 200,000 members—a grand total of about 525,000 members. It was stated, furthermore, that Mexico had 2,000,000 organized workers. The Third Congress of the Confederación de Trabajadores de México, held in Mexico City, March 28–April 1, 1943, was attended by 5,686 delegates, representing 3,298 organizations with a total membership of 1,280,000 persons. The 6 organizations above named thus represent a total of 1,805,000 organized workers; the remainder of the estimated 2,000,000 unionists are to be found in smaller organizations.

For the more effective collaboration of Mexico in the war effort of the United Nations, a pact of national worker unity was agreed to in Mexico on June 4, 1942. The signatories were the first 4 federations listed above, the Confederación Proletaria Nacional, and the Sindicato Mexicano de Electricistas. They agreed to suspend, during the period of emergency brought about by the war, all interunion conflict, as well as strikes and walkouts, and in addition, agreed to cooperate actively with the Government of the Republic for the prosecution of the war.

By instructions of the Secretariat of Labor and Social Welfare, the Federal Conciliation and Arbitration Council began in 1942 the revision of statistics of the worker organizations functioning in the country. It was expected that the revision would be complete by December 1, 1942.

Industrial Disputes

Absence of Monthly Strike Statistics

PRECEDING issues of the Monthly Labor Review for several years have contained estimates of total strike activity throughout the country, as prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Press clippings from about 450 newspapers have provided the leads on the many strikes not noted in the trade and union journals or in reports of the various Government agencies dealing with labor matters. The information in press clippings has been supplemented by questionnaires before the estimates were issued.

Owing to the reduced budget of the Office of War Information, the clipping service to the Bureau of Labor Statistics was discontinued on July 1, 1943. Until such time as this or similar clipping service is restored, or some other means found to secure notices about all strikes occurring in the country, the Bureau of Labor Statistics will be unable to issue its monthly strike reports. Although the Bureau continues to obtain such information as it can from other sources, such data cover only a portion of the strikes which actually occur and are not comparable with the figures issued with the aid of the clippings heretofore available. Publication of the partial and incomplete figures would be misleading.

The Coal Disputes of 1943: A Correction

THE article in the August Monthly Labor Review on the Coal Disputes of 1943 misinterpreted the wage provisions of the 1941 Anthracite Agreement. (See p. 291.) The wording of the agreement in respect to contract rates is as follows:

"The contract rates at each colliery shall be increased 7½ percent in the period May 1, 1941, to September 30, 1941, and 10 percent in the period October 1, 1941, to April 30, 1943, over and above the rates established under the agreement of September 19, 1923."

Similar provisions were embodied in the agreement in application to the rates of contract miners' laborers and also to the hourly, daily, or monthly rates. The increases in the hourly, daily, or monthly rates as distinguished from tonnage rates were applied, however, to the rates adopted in 1923 as modified by the agreement of May 7, 1936. This agreement provided for the same daily rate under the 7-hour day as had been paid previously under the 8-hour day.

The phraseology of the agreement should have been interpreted to mean that the existing rates were increased 7½ percent, effective May 1, 1941, and that the additional increase, effective October 1, 1941, was 2½ percent of the original rates, the total increase being 10 percent.

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, July 1943

THE United States Conciliation Service, during July, disposed of 1,744 situations involving 852,136 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 168 were strikes and lockouts involving 55,862 workers, 893 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 392,892 workers. Altogether, 413 disputes were certified during the month to the National War Labor Board, and in 42 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 228 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

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

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled.....	1,744	852,136
Disputes.....	1,061	448,754
Strikes.....	164	55,210
Threatened strikes.....	122	28,193
Lockouts.....	4	652
Controversies.....	771	364,699
Other situations.....	228	28,811
Arbitrations.....	73	17,609
Technical services.....	11	6,379
Investigations.....	49	3,598
Requests to conduct consent elections.....	2	435
Requests for information.....	11	19
Consultations.....	46	111
Special services of Commissioners.....	25	649
Complaints.....	11	11
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	455	374,571
To National War Labor Board.....	413	367,704
To National Labor Relations Board.....	27	4,336
To other Federal agencies.....	4	981
To Wage Adjustment Board.....	1	48
To nongovernmental agencies.....	5	1,435
To State agencies.....	5	67

¹ During the month, 162 cases involving 71,196 workers were adjusted subject to hearings officer or arbitration procedure with the hearings officer or arbiter to be selected by the National War Labor Board.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades and transportation, and the manufacture of iron and steel, transportation equipment, textiles, food, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 47 States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico (table 3).

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

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries.....	1,516	823,325	228	28,811	1,744	852,136
Agriculture.....	6	1,266	1	1	7	1,267
Building trades.....	53	26,225	6	127	59	26,352
Chemicals.....	56	26,124	11	1,243	67	27,367
Communications.....	9	5,283	1	100	10	5,383
Electrical equipment.....	37	36,213	4	3,004	41	39,217
Food.....	153	120,654	17	1,034	170	121,688
Furniture and finished lumber.....	46	6,150	9	659	55	6,809
Iron and steel.....	234	98,771	31	9,756	265	108,527
Leather.....	26	9,987	11	814	37	10,801
Lumber.....	51	9,753	3	181	54	9,934
Machinery.....	65	58,667	5	652	70	59,319
Maritime.....	9	1,670			9	1,670
Mining.....	10	1,336	2	30	12	1,366
Motion pictures.....	2	111			2	111
Nonferrous metals.....	47	38,128	5	73	52	38,201
Paper.....	14	3,694	2	102	16	3,796
Personal service.....	67	8,207	9	537	76	8,744
Petroleum.....	31	4,606	6	629	37	5,235
Printing.....	33	4,362	5	104	38	4,466
Professional.....	3	396			3	396
Rubber.....	25	9,131	6	551	31	9,682
Stone, clay and glass.....	65	11,154	5	489	70	11,643
Textile.....	83	71,072	32	947	115	72,019
Tobacco.....	3	10,738	2	53	5	10,791
Trade.....	93	26,424	10	878	103	27,302
Transportation.....	94	18,775	13	1,394	107	20,169
Transportation equipment.....	102	188,002	16	4,916	118	192,918
Utilities.....	27	4,469	2	5	29	4,474
Miscellaneous.....	72	21,957	14	532	86	22,489

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

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States.....	1,516	823,325	228	28,811	1,744	852,136
Alabama.....	13	6,448	7	170	20	6,618
Alaska.....						
Arizona.....	4	2,062			4	2,062
Arkansas.....	10	849			10	849
California.....	87	138,636	6	346	93	138,982
Colorado.....	15	1,077	1	3	16	1,080
Connecticut.....	11	18,480	3	35	14	18,515
Delaware.....	2	18,910			2	18,910
District of Columbia.....	7	723	6	957	13	1,680
Florida.....	10	3,160	2	480	12	3,640
Georgia.....	33	3,465	2	8	35	3,473
Hawaii.....	4	1,254			4	1,254
Idaho.....						
Illinois.....	186	34,862	25	4,079	211	38,941
Indiana.....	66	26,829	9	4,454	75	31,283
Iowa.....	25	6,024	1	86	26	6,110
Kansas.....	12	915			12	915
Kentucky.....	17	5,183	2	700	19	5,883
Louisiana.....	11	3,834	5	523	16	4,357
Maine.....	3	1,031			3	1,031
Maryland.....	7	8,731	4	69	11	8,800

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

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
Massachusetts.....	48	24,052	15	467	63	24,519
Michigan.....	118	65,969	20	970	138	66,939
Minnesota.....	19	8,997	3	152	22	9,149
Mississippi.....	7	1,591			7	1,591
Missouri.....	77	18,589	13	174	90	18,763
Montana.....	7	386			7	386
Nebraska.....	15	6,652			15	6,652
Nevada.....	4	7,767	1	2	5	7,769
New Hampshire.....	8	1,801	1	36	9	1,837
New Jersey.....	50	82,048	5	1,145	55	83,193
New Mexico.....	3	870	1	3	4	873
New York.....	133	63,902	9	1,088	142	64,990
North Carolina.....	10	20,208	5	534	15	20,742
North Dakota.....						
Ohio.....	138	40,079	25	8,744	163	48,823
Oklahoma.....	10	3,440	2	426	12	3,866
Oregon.....	36	5,904	2	175	38	6,079
Pennsylvania.....	133	99,270	15	346	148	99,616
Puerto Rico.....	16	4,935	1	1	17	4,936
Rhode Island.....	7	6,689	1	500	8	7,189
South Carolina.....	4	2,790	7	574	11	3,364
South Dakota.....	3	101			3	101
Tennessee.....	29	6,445	6	84	35	6,529
Texas.....	19	26,330	9	737	28	27,067
Utah.....	4	4,012			4	4,012
Vermont.....	2	148		2	3	150
Virginia.....	13	17,299	5	56	18	17,355
Washington.....	24	4,243	6	215	30	4,458
West Virginia.....	12	691			12	691
Wisconsin.....	41	15,249	2	470	43	15,719
Wyoming.....	3	395			3	395

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, 1942-43

THE United States Conciliation Service, during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1943, disposed of 17,559 situations, involving 10,974,611 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties.

Of these situations 1,701 were strikes and lockouts involving 799,465 workers; 9,457 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 4,905,237 workers. During the fiscal year 2,539 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board; jurisdiction was assumed by other agencies in 647 others. The remaining 3,215 situations included investigations, technical services, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 29 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of food, iron and steel, textiles, transportation equipment, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 48 States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and the Virgin Islands (table 3).

TABLE 1.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, July 1, 1942–June 30, 1943, by Type of Situation

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled.....	17,559	10,974,611
Labor disputes.....	11,158	5,704,702
Strikes.....	1,671	791,017
Threatened strikes.....	1,839	1,166,988
Lockouts.....	30	8,448
Controversies.....	7,618	3,738,249
Other situations.....	3,215	521,813
Investigations.....	694	103,564
Technical services.....	148	104,366
Arbitrations.....	1,009	240,116
Requests to conduct consent elections.....	33	2,586
Requests for verification of union membership.....	11	1,460
Requests for information.....	118	515
Consultations.....	787	2,612
Special services of Commissioners.....	248	66,273
Complaints.....	167	321
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	3,186	4,748,096
To National War Labor Board.....	2,539	4,313,824
To National Labor Relations Board.....	401	208,812
To other Federal agencies.....	88	94,329
To Wage Adjustment Board.....	52	63,270
To nongovernmental agencies.....	65	30,049
To State agencies.....	41	7,812

¹ During the fiscal year 1,532 cases involving 800,197 workers were adjusted, subject to approval of the wage provisions by the National War Labor Board, to hearings officer, or to arbitration procedure, with the hearings officer or arbiter to be selected also by the National War Labor Board.

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, July 1, 1942–June 30, 1943, by Industries

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All industries.....	14,344	10,452,798	3,215	521,813	17,559	10,974,611
Agriculture.....	43	139,742	6	30	49	139,772
Automobile.....	1	200	1	200	1	200
Building trades.....	643	453,014	206	31,689	849	484,703
Chemicals.....	527	197,284	105	28,457	632	225,741
Communications.....	115	242,201	30	2,435	145	244,636
Domestic and personal service.....	426	102,174	76	8,064	502	110,238
Electrical equipment.....	404	781,006	68	18,742	472	799,748
Food.....	1,328	562,699	255	49,129	1,583	611,828
Furniture, and finished lumber.....	550	135,968	66	7,018	616	142,986
Iron and steel.....	2,291	1,630,714	385	50,801	2,676	1,681,515
Leather.....	272	101,937	177	18,592	449	120,529
Lumber.....	425	330,123	77	5,097	502	335,220
Machinery.....	709	437,356	136	27,415	845	464,771
Maritime.....	94	37,453	7	146	101	37,599
Mining.....	189	643,359	19	1,930	208	645,289
Motion pictures.....	27	4,358	3	191	30	4,549
Nonferrous metals.....	589	351,960	99	15,235	688	367,195
Paper.....	189	51,819	37	2,686	226	54,505
Petroleum.....	210	71,169	85	16,434	295	87,603
Printing.....	295	62,317	49	3,441	344	65,758
Professional.....	36	14,164	6	79	42	14,243
Rubber.....	166	152,797	42	11,379	208	164,176
Stone, clay, and glass.....	580	184,333	115	16,108	695	200,441
Textile.....	733	559,826	303	40,650	1,036	600,476
Tobacco.....	63	54,001	11	6,049	74	60,050
Trade.....	838	171,909	193	20,348	1,031	192,257
Transportation.....	756	401,246	145	13,558	901	414,804
Transportation equipment.....	939	2,280,687	194	96,835	1,133	2,377,522
Utilities.....	197	87,262	62	2,355	259	89,617
Miscellaneous.....	710	209,920	251	26,720	961	236,640

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, July 1, 1942—June 30, 1943, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved
All States.....	14,344	10,452,798	3,215	521,813	17,559	10,974,611
Alabama.....	211	102,457	39	3,812	250	106,269
Alaska.....	7	4,511	2	404	9	4,915
Arizona.....	76	39,936	15	1,462	91	41,398
Arkansas.....	74	22,328	19	660	93	22,988
California.....	1,195	722,959	192	47,369	1,387	770,328
Colorado.....	120	75,913	12	2,534	132	78,447
Connecticut.....	156	192,307	44	3,046	200	195,353
Delaware.....	25	37,090	3	49	28	37,139
District of Columbia.....	84	57,208	50	6,469	134	63,677
Florida.....	190	82,168	58	8,150	248	90,318
Georgia.....	110	34,587	43	13,549	153	48,136
Hawaii.....	1	117			1	117
Idaho.....	45	17,214	5	744	50	17,958
Illinois.....	1,226	628,589	221	44,358	1,447	672,947
Indiana.....	503	250,299	123	30,344	626	280,643
Iowa.....	204	94,166	37	1,989	241	96,155
Kansas.....	114	29,001	12	736	126	29,737
Kentucky.....	160	62,982	30	3,713	190	66,695
Louisiana.....	191	89,755	55	2,046	246	91,801
Maine.....	36	98,350	30	3,979	66	102,329
Maryland.....	147	374,202	33	4,295	180	378,497
Massachusetts.....	379	213,333	263	34,789	642	248,122
Michigan.....	1,129	1,011,187	287	27,701	1,416	1,038,888
Minnesota.....	237	81,357	27	2,121	264	83,478
Mississippi.....	76	60,648	20	3,595	96	64,243
Missouri.....	481	197,249	90	10,118	571	207,367
Montana.....	82	22,451	4	544	86	22,995
Nebraska.....	80	18,551	9	1,416	89	19,967
Nevada.....	18	10,810	1	45	19	10,855
New Hampshire.....	41	11,201	31	1,328	72	12,529
New Jersey.....	568	392,767	91	37,040	659	429,807
New Mexico.....	47	16,503	5	855	52	17,358
New York.....	1,305	2,056,101	235	56,879	1,540	2,112,980
North Carolina.....	146	87,805	34	6,142	180	93,947
North Dakota.....	10	570	3	226	13	796
Ohio.....	1,361	816,733	280	30,126	1,641	846,859
Oklahoma.....	95	22,793	51	4,192	146	26,985
Oregon.....	272	203,411	38	1,519	310	204,930
Pennsylvania.....	1,183	1,099,727	227	50,239	1,410	1,149,966
Puerto Rico.....	120	294,866	73	800	193	295,666
Rhode Island.....	74	60,013	36	6,449	110	66,462
South Carolina.....	50	23,912	40	10,195	90	34,107
South Dakota.....	14	4,279	1	7	15	4,286
Tennessee.....	281	97,465	49	11,327	330	108,792
Texas.....	253	144,345	60	7,704	313	152,049
Utah.....	47	15,682	11	1,254	58	16,936
Vermont.....	10	3,650	3	98	13	3,748
Virginia.....	160	74,141	45	2,655	205	76,796
Washington.....	312	194,705	62	15,575	374	210,280
West Virginia.....	172	62,075	37	5,130	209	67,205
Wisconsin.....	440	135,740	76	11,902	516	147,642
Wyoming.....	25	2,536	3	134	28	2,670
Virgin Islands.....	1	53			1	53

Labor Laws and Decisions

State Workmen's Compensation Legislation in 1943¹

ADVANCES made in workmen's compensation legislation by the 1943 State legislatures far surpass those of any other recent year. Of the 44 legislatures which met in regular session, 39 materially strengthened their laws.²

Legislatures concentrated on remedying workmen's compensation inadequacies emphasized by accelerated war production. Occupational-disease legislation in 5 States affords protection to thousands of additional workers in war plants, where industrial expansion, use of new processes and chemicals, and lengthened hours have increased exposure to industrial diseases. Nineteen States raised the level of benefit payments under their acts. The creation of second-injury funds in 6 more States should stimulate the employment of physically handicapped workers. Other improvements include numerous amendments which extend coverage of workmen's compensation laws, provide for rehabilitation of the injured, insure prompter payment of compensation, and improve procedure of administrative agencies.

Occupational Diseases

Occupational diseases are now covered, for the first time, in Arizona and Oregon. A contributing factor in the passage of the Oregon law was a report made by a committee investigating fume hazards in a large shipbuilding company in that State, stressing the immediate need for providing care for those who have become ill as a direct result of exposure to industrial hazards.

The new Oregon act establishes general coverage of occupational diseases, i. e., all diseases arising out of employment are compensable. The benefits equal those prescribed in the workmen's compensation law. If a worker is permanently and totally disabled by an occupational disease, he will receive \$50 a month, with small additional allowances for dependent children. In the event of an injury causing temporary total disability, his compensation will equal two-thirds of his wages but not more than \$97 a month. The small benefits are partially offset, however, by the provision for payment during the whole period of disability or, in case of death, during life of the widow. A medical board is created by the act, consisting of one doctor appointed by the Industrial Accident Commission, another by the claimant, and a third by these two; to this board a worker, dissatisfied by an award, may appeal. The law makes no provision for review of the medical board's findings.

¹ Prepared in Division of Labor Standards of the United States Department of Labor.

² The legislatures of Missouri, New Jersey, and Wisconsin were still in session at the date of writing (mid-August) but legislation which these States had already enacted in this field is included in this article.

The Arizona law, although it does not cover all diseases arising out of employment, includes a very comprehensive schedule of diseases. The act establishes a special fund for occupational diseases. Coverage is compulsory for employers of 3 or more, but employees are given the right to reject the act. This latter provision, like the one in the State workmen's compensation act, came into existence because of a clause in the State constitution to the effect that an injured worker's right to elect the course he would pursue should never be abridged or denied.

Three other States (Nebraska, Michigan, and Minnesota) which previously had some degree of occupational-disease protection revised their laws to provide all-inclusive coverage. Nebraska very materially extended the scope of protective coverage. Formerly, compensation was payable only for diseases incurred in smelting, metal refining, and battery manufacturing. The old laws of both Minnesota and Michigan, on the other hand, included fairly detailed schedules of occupational diseases which had become outmoded.

In the transition to general coverage, Michigan and Minnesota enacted special provisions pertaining to silicosis. Benefits, instead of being based on two-thirds of the average weekly wage as for other injuries, are limited to a graduated scale beginning at \$500 for disability resulting during the first month after the act became effective and increasing at the rate of \$50 per month.³ Neither State allows payment of compensation for partial disability from silicosis. Furthermore, under the Minnesota act, silicosis may not be presumed to be due to the nature of the employment unless the worker has been exposed to the inhalation of silica dust over a period of at least 5 years, the last 3 of which must have been within the State.

The new Nebraska law retains the same benefits and procedure for silicosis cases as for all other accidents or diseases. However, the general provision specifying that, to be compensable, the disability must commence within the 2 years subsequent to termination of employment, may preclude the payment of compensation in many cases of silicosis which develop slowly.

A few States also amended specific provisions of laws relating to occupational disease. In Illinois, compensation for occupational diseases contracted after July 1, 1943, is increased 17½ percent, instead of 10 percent as had been voted by the legislature in 1941.⁴ The level of benefit payments was raised in Indiana also. Ohio eliminated the requirement that in order to be eligible for occupational-disease compensation, an employee must have been a resident of the State for 90 days preceding contraction of the disease. This step affords protection to workers entering Ohio for war jobs.

Further legislation to compensate for industrial diseases may result from investigations authorized by legislatures in Kansas, Nevada, and New Jersey. The Virginia Legislature, meeting in 1942 and 1944, has also authorized such an investigation.

Second Injuries

The action of 6 State legislatures (Maine, Michigan, Washington, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Rhode Island) in establishing second-injury

³ In Michigan the aggregate payable for silicosis is \$4,000; in Minnesota the aggregate is the same as under the workmen's compensation act—i. e., \$12,000 for permanent total disability and \$7,500 for death.

⁴ Similar increases were made in compensation for industrial accidents.

funds represents a major achievement. Previously only 14 States had created such funds. These funds should encourage fuller utilization of the services of handicapped workers in war production. Many employers have believed that hiring physically handicapped workers results in markedly higher workmen's compensation costs. If a once-injured person is injured a second time, the employer often is liable for payment of compensation for a permanent total disability. Under the second-injury acts, the employer is liable only for the most recent injury. The employee, however, is guaranteed the full compensation for his actual disability, because the fund assumes the excess compensation cost for the combined injuries.

In 5 of the 6 States with new second-injury funds, the laws follow the usual pattern as to types of injuries covered. Under these statutes the second-injury funds assume liability for payment if a second injury, in conjunction with a preexisting condition, results in permanent total disability. The Oklahoma law, on the other hand, is considerably broader in scope and application. The fund takes over the compensation liability for second injuries resulting in less than permanent total disability. The act covers "any accidental personal injury which results in additional permanent disability so that the degree of disability caused by the combination of both disabilities is materially greater than that which would have resulted from the subsequent injury alone."

Although some of the second-injury funds enacted in previous years limit payment of compensation to workers whose previous disability was due to an occupational injury, most of the new acts are not so restricted. The Rhode Island act, for example, states that the prior handicap may be the result of a personal injury, disease, or congenital condition. In Oklahoma a physically impaired person is defined as one whose original disability was incurred by accident, disease, birth, military action, or any other cause. Under provisions of such breadth, physically handicapped workers can be utilized in war production regardless of whether or not their initial injuries were caused by an accident at work.

Methods of financing the second-injury funds in these 6 States differ materially. Maine, Michigan, and Missouri adopted the customary procedure of supporting the fund entirely by payments into the fund in every case of death where there are no dependents entitled to compensation.

In Rhode Island the fund will be raised partly by such payments and partly by a 1-percent premium tax on self-insurers and carriers. Although the excise-tax principle has been used frequently to support workmen's compensation administrative cost, it has never before been applied to a second-injury fund.

In Oklahoma, insurance carriers and self-insurers will contribute 1 percent of the compensation awards for the previous year and the handicapped worker will contribute 1 percent of his award, a provision which deviates from the basic principle of workmen's compensation that industry should pay the full cost of compensation and charge it to production. The provision was accepted as a compromise when it appeared that a bill permitting workers to waive their rights to compensation might be substituted for the second-injury fund measure.

Washington, an exclusive-fund State, provided for the equivalent of a second-injury fund by charging the employer's accident-experience account only for the normal effect of the second injury and charging the excess cost to a subdivision of the State fund.

In contrast to the above six States, two others (New Hampshire and Indiana) adopted measures allowing waivers of workmen's rights to compensation in case of second injuries. The New Hampshire law, effective until 6 months after the war, permits handicapped workers who wish to enter a contract of employment to waive in writing any rights to workmen's compensation that they or their dependents have for any subsequent injury attributable in a material degree to the existing handicap. The Indiana act also provided for partial waivers at the time of employment.

Compensation Benefits

Scales of compensation benefits were liberalized by almost half the States which amended their workmen's compensation laws this year. Levels of maximum weekly benefits received the widest revision. When wages are high and employment steady, a low fixed weekly maximum operates to give the worker a declining percentage of his wages as compensation. An injured worker earning \$38 a week and living in a State with a flat weekly maximum of \$18 would receive only about 47 percent of his wages in compensation, even though the majority of State laws specify 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ percent as the proportion of average wages to be paid as compensation. To correct such an injustice 11 State legislatures raised their weekly maxima.

Connecticut achieved a new high level of compensation payments by raising the top limits from \$25 to \$30 a week. A similar increase was provided in California, but the change will be in effect only for the duration of the war. The maximum was increased in Wisconsin from \$21 to \$24.50 for temporary disability and in Maryland from \$20 to \$23 for permanent and temporary disability.

Maine, Michigan, New Hampshire, and North Carolina raised the maximum weekly benefits from \$18 to \$21. The effect of the North Carolina amendment, however, is problematical because it fails to increase the total maximum benefits. In Florida, which also had an \$18 maximum, a worker may now receive up to \$22. In Indiana, \$18.70 may now be paid instead of \$16.50. Although Nevada raised the weekly maximum only slightly, a rise from 60 to 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ percent in the proportion of wages allowed as compensation will mean a fairly substantial increase.

At the same time the minimum weekly amounts which may be paid in compensation benefits were increased in Florida, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, North Dakota, and Wisconsin.

Many of the above States revised upwards the maximum and minimum benefits for death and disability cases. Exceptional progress was made in North Dakota when the \$15,000 limitation on compensation for death and disability was lifted, and payment will hereafter be made to dependents for life. In South Dakota the total maximum death benefits were raised from \$3,000 to \$5,000 and the total minimum benefits from \$1,650 to \$2,400.

Michigan changed the method for computing compensation payments. As part of a thorough revision of the workmen's compensa-

tion act, a full-time wage base was adopted. In that State the weekly wage must now be calculated by multiplying the hourly rate by 40, instead of the daily wage by 6. This is the minimum formula that may be used.

North Carolina made the outstanding improvement in compensation for schedule injuries. The new legislation raises substantially compensation benefits for all major schedule injuries and requires schedule benefits to be paid in addition to benefits for temporary disability.

Significant increases in benefits for major schedule injuries were also adopted in Connecticut, Florida, Michigan, and Wyoming. In Connecticut, maximum allowances for loss of an arm were raised from \$5,625 to \$8,250 with proportionate increases for other losses. Only one other State, Wisconsin, provides higher allowances for schedule injuries. Increases of approximately 20 percent for major schedule injuries were voted in Florida and Wyoming. The revision of the Michigan law incorporated substantial increases in the total amounts for certain injuries, but this State still deducts temporary disability payments from the benefits for permanent partial disability.

Larger sums for medical-hospital care were provided by several legislatures. Florida now permits further medical attention beyond the \$1,000 limit, upon the initiative of the Florida Industrial Commission or upon application of any interested party. South Dakota increased the allowance for medical care from \$100 to \$200 and the total for medical and hospital services from \$300 to \$400. The allowance for medical and hospital care in Maryland was raised from \$500 to \$750, with an additional \$250, at the discretion of the commission, for further hospital care. Vermont, one of the States with low medical-hospital allowances, extended the maximum amount for medical care from \$50 to \$75 and for hospital care from \$150 to \$300. The maximum period for medical attention was also extended from 14 to 60 days and for hospital care from 30 to 60 days. The period begins from the first day of treatment but not later than 90 days from the date of injury.

New legislation in Indiana and Montana requires employers to furnish injured workers with artificial members. Enactments in New Hampshire and Maine require employers to replace broken or injured artificial appliances. In Maryland, broken eyeglasses must be replaced. In Tennessee the employer must designate a group of three or more reputable physicians, from which the injured employee shall have the privilege of selecting the operating surgeon or attending physician. Employees in Delaware, upon filing of notice and approval of the Delaware Industrial Accident Board, may choose a doctor other than the one furnished by the employer and receive from the employer the reasonable costs of the physician's services.

California doubled the amount allowed for burial expenses. Smaller, but substantial, increases for such expenses were made in Connecticut, Delaware, Indiana, Michigan, Montana, and Nevada.

Maine amended its 7-day waiting-period provision to add a requirement that if a disability lasts 6 consecutive weeks, compensation is to be paid from the day the disability began. In Michigan, the waiting period for retroactive payment was reduced from 6 to 4 weeks and in Illinois from 30 to 28 days.

Coverage of Acts

The chief accomplishments in broadening coverage of workmen's compensation laws were made by Massachusetts and Michigan. Both these States changed from elective to compulsory acts. In Massachusetts, after November 15, employers of more than 6 must provide their employees with workmen's compensation protection; in Michigan, employers of more than 7 must provide coverage. Both States provide criminal penalties for the employer who fails to insure compensation, if he has more than the minimum number of employees. Moreover, in Massachusetts, in any action by an employee to recover damages for personal injury, the employer is civilly liable if it is proved simply that the injury arose out of and in the course of employment.

An amendment in Vermont extended coverage of the workmen's compensation law to employers of 8 or more instead of 11 or more. Today only three other States (Georgia, Missouri, and South Carolina) have laws with numerical exemptions of more than 8.

California established a comprehensive plan for workmen's compensation coverage for civilian defense workers, to be administered by the State fund. Workers totally disabled in performance of their civilian defense duties will receive in compensation a maximum of \$20 and a minimum of \$6.50 a week. The maximum amount for disability or death is \$3,600. Medical care is limited to \$2,500 for any one injury. This law provides that if the United States Government furnishes assistance or relief under any Federal statute or regulation, State benefits are to be reduced by the amount of the Federal benefits.

Additional groups of workers will receive the benefits of the workmen's compensation laws through minor increases in coverage in Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.

Insurance of Liability

Massachusetts, in changing over to a compulsory workmen's compensation law, also made provision for self-insurance; heretofore, insurance could be provided through private insurance companies only. In order to qualify as a self-insurer, an employer in Massachusetts must deposit with the State treasurer not less than \$10,000. The law requires the Massachusetts Department of Industrial Accidents to determine from time to time the liabilities of a self-insurer, both incurred or to be incurred, because of personal injuries to employees, and authorizes the Department to require the deposit of additional securities. The Department may also make detailed rules and regulations governing self-insurers. In the event of failure to make payments of compensation or for any other reasonable cause the license of self-insurers may be revoked.

In Oregon several laws affecting the insurance provisions of the workmen's compensation law were approved. One of these increases the legal reserve so that only funds in excess of 4½ million dollars, instead of in excess of one-half million dollars, will be rebated to the employers contributing. A new amendment reducing the minimum fee for insurance in the State fund from \$10 to \$5 should encourage voluntary insurance for farm labor and domestics. Still another

amendment protects employers forced out of business by the war, by guaranteeing the continuance of their merit rating provided that they re-enter the same occupation within a year after the war. In this State a movement to make the exclusive State fund competitive failed. The legislature created a commission to study the question and to report its findings to the next session.

Nevada eliminated the merit-rating plan enacted in 1939 and restored the plan in effect prior to that time, which does not provide a detailed schedule of merit rating and does not allow debit charges for unfavorable accident experience.

The Indiana law was weakened, from the employee's standpoint, by making insurance policies expire automatically 1 year from their effective date and specifying particularly that the termination of the policy shall be effective as to the employees covered. Previously the law provided that any termination of the insurance policy was not effective as to employees covered until 10 days after notice of such termination had been received by the State Industrial Board.

Rehabilitation of Injured Workers

Rhode Island continued its extensive program of legislative improvement by providing a plan for a rehabilitation clinic under the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor. Under the plan, which is comparable in scope to the Ontario rehabilitation program, a curative center will be established to make available to injured workers "all possible modern curative treatment." A building, the necessary equipment, and a trained medical staff will be financed by a fund built up in the same manner as the newly adopted second-injury fund. An excise tax of 1 percent will be placed on gross premiums of insurance carriers, and payments of \$750 will be required in death cases where there are no dependents entitled to compensation. The legislation also provides for turning over to the fund penalties collected for violations of the workmen's compensation act.

The rehabilitation provision of the North Dakota law was broadened to allow the State Workmen's Compensation Bureau in its discretion to provide such course of study, training or education as may be needed to rehabilitate the injured employee.

Prevention of Accidents and Diseases

The new law in Oregon provides that employers electing not to be covered by the workmen's compensation act will be compelled to pay to the State Industrial Accident Commission 2½ percent of the base-rate contribution for his particular industry to be used to carry out safety rules and regulations. The commission may waive such payment with respect to any industry which is carrying out a safety program as adequate as that required by the Department of Labor and the State Industrial Accident Commission.

The Washington Legislature authorized a direct pay-roll charge by the State fund as a penalty for violations of State safety regulations.

Maryland added a penalty clause for failure to comply with State rules and regulations for occupational-disease control.

Payment of Compensation

Prompt payment of compensation should result from recent legislation enacted in several States. In Kansas, if compensation benefits are not paid to the employees when due and after written demand for payment has been made, the full amount of the award becomes due and payable at once. The Minnesota Legislature established severe penalties for failure to pay compensation or file notice of denial of liability within 30 days. The detailed revision of the Michigan law includes a provision making the employer directly responsible for prompt payment of compensation.



Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor ¹

Fair Labor Standards Act

RIGHTS under Wage-Hour Act not protected by Civil Rights Statute.—A Federal district court for the Eastern District of New York dismissed a criminal indictment against employers and union officials who were charged with depriving workers of rights guaranteed to them by the Fair Labor Standards Act (*United States v. Berke Cake Co.*²).

The court sustained objections to an indictment under the Federal Civil Rights Statute (18 U. S. C. 51) which accused employers and officials of a union with conspiring to intimidate employees by discharge or threat of discharge, in order to prevent their filing suits for unpaid wages under the Wage-Hour Act. This coercion was claimed to have been carried out by union officials who attempted to influence employees to sign waivers or releases of claims and to discontinue any suits brought by them under the act. The indictment alleged that the union threatened, if these demands were rejected, to refuse to accept dues payments from members and to certify these individuals as delinquent in the payment of dues. This delinquency, it was claimed, was used by the employers as a basis for the discharge of or for imposing unfavorable working conditions upon the employees.

The court stated that the Civil Rights Statute, entitled "Offenses against Elective Franchise and Civil Rights of Citizens," has as its purpose the protection of those rights of citizens which are guaranteed by the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Federal Constitution. Since the Fair Labor Standards Act applies to aliens as well as citizens, the court concluded that the Civil Rights Statute was not intended to protect the rights which the Wage-Hour Act conferred.³ The court also observed that the Fair Labor Standards Act (29 U. S. C. 216) contains provisions of a criminal and civil nature designed to protect employees from the conspiracy charged in the indictment.

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 special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative 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 50 Fed. Supp. 311 (E. D. N. Y., June 18, 1943).

³ Compare the following cases in which various rights were held to be within the protection of the Civil Rights Law: *United States v. Waddell*, 112 U. S. 76 (right to make a homestead entry); *United States v. Lancaster*, 44 Fed. 885 (right to be protected in the execution and enforcement of a decree of a United States Circuit Court); *Motes v. United States*, 178 U. S. 458 (right and privilege to aid in the execution of the laws by giving information to the proper authorities of violations of such laws).

Agent of employer liable for unpaid overtime.—In *Brennan v. Community Service Society of New York*,⁴ the court held that, for the purpose of determining liability under the Fair Labor Standards Act, the statutory definition of "employer" included the agent of the principal.

The plaintiffs, elevator operators seeking to recover unpaid overtime compensation under section 16(b) of the act, instituted suit against the real-estate agent who managed the building for the owner. The defendant contended that an agent cannot be held liable under the common law for the obligations of a disclosed principal. The court, however, rejected this argument and stated that the common-law rule was inapplicable in the present case. Section 3(d) of the act defines "employer" as "any person acting directly or indirectly in the interest of an employer * * *." The court held that Congress was impelled, "for reasons of public policy," to extend liability under the act beyond the doctrine of the common law.⁵ It then added that the burden of proving that the building manager was an "employer" within the meaning of the act rested upon the plaintiffs.

Public Contracts

The purchase by Government contractors or subcontractors of prison-made goods for purposes of war production has been held permissible under appropriate circumstances in an opinion of the United States Attorney General.⁶ The statutes prohibiting interstate shipment of convict-made goods were held inapplicable to the Federal Government in an earlier opinion of the Attorney General.⁷ Since Government procurement of war materials is carried on principally by contractors and subcontractors, it was reasoned that the immunity possessed by the Government should apply to contractors and subcontractors to the extent necessary to carry out the Government's procurement program.

In this connection it was clearly pointed out that the direct employment of convict labor by Government contractors or subcontractors is not permitted. It was also stated that a contractor, subcontractor, or broker may purchase prison-made goods only where sufficient materials cannot be obtained on the open market, the amount, however, being limited to the requirements of the specific contract. The opinion also held that, in order to carry out the purposes of statutes designed to prevent competition with goods produced by free labor, the purchases must be made "at prices substantially equivalent to the current market price of the commodity in question."

National Labor Relations Act

Special grievance procedure for individual employees held not unfair labor practice.—The Federal Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit held, in *National Labor Relations Board v. North American Aviation, Inc.*,⁸ that an employer may establish two separate grievance procedures in a plant without violating the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act.

⁴ N. Y. City Court, Spec. Term, Part I, N. Y. County (June 22, 1943), 6 Wage Hour Rept. 696.

⁵ *Accord Greenberg, etc. v. Arsenal Building Corp., et al.*, — F. Supp. — (E. D. N. Y., July 12, 1943); *Kejer, etc. v. Hopes Estates, Inc., et al.*, — Fed. Supp. — (E. D. N. Y.).

⁶ Op. Atty. Gen. Vol. 40, No. 65 (June 20, 1942, released for publication June 3, 1943).

⁷ Op. Atty. Gen. Vol. 40, No. 45 (May 6, 1942).

⁸ — Fed. (2d) — (June 24, 1943).

A union had a collective-bargaining agreement with the employer which, among other provisions, included machinery for the settlement of grievances and, in the event of failure to settle the issues, for arbitration proceedings. During the period when the contract was in effect, the employer issued a statement to all of its employees informing them of their right to present any grievances to it directly, without resorting to the grievance machinery, and that resort to arbitration proceedings could be had, if no agreement was reached. The union charged the company with an unfair labor practice and a violation of the collective-bargaining agreement.

The company contended that although the National Labor Relations Act guarantees collective-bargaining rights, section 9 (a) of the act also provides that individual employees may present grievances to the employer. Furthermore, it was observed that the collective-bargaining agreement specifically reserved to employees, or a group thereof, the privilege of presenting grievances to the company in accordance with section 9 (a) of the National Labor Relations Act.

The National Labor Relations Board, in support of its order requiring the company to cease and desist from maintaining a dual system for settling grievances, argued that the maintenance of the dual system would lead to confusion and disharmony in labor relations and that the purposes of the act would not be served thereby, since the existence of a grievance procedure available for individual employees would, in effect, nullify the beneficial effect of the collective agreement.

The court concluded that one of the purposes of the act was the preservation of an individual's right to present grievances to his employer notwithstanding the existence of other grievance machinery provided for in a collective-bargaining agreement, and that the procedure prescribed by the company for the settlement of grievances of individuals not represented by the union, therefore, did not constitute an unfair labor practice.

Employer may penalize employee refusing to act as strikebreaker.—The National Labor Relations Board in a split decision held that an employer may deny work and compensation during a strike to an employee for refusing to perform the work of a striker (*In re Pinaud, Inc.*).⁹ An employee who desired to remain neutral during a strike wanted to continue her duties but refused to perform the work previously done by a striker. She was given severance pay and directed to leave the premises. She then instituted proceedings with the Board, claiming that her discharge was discriminatory under section 8 (3) of the act.

The Board held that the employer was not justified in discharging the employee for her participation in the strike, but also held that he was not required to permit her to remain on the job while refusing to obey his instructions. Back pay was ordered from the date of the strike's termination, rather than from the date of attempted discharge. Application for reinstatement after the strike was held unnecessary because it would have been futile. This ruling modified a former ruling of the Board requiring back payment from the date of the dismissal.¹⁰ Chairman Millis, in his dissent, stated that one of the purposes of the act is to prevent the spread of a labor dispute to employees who desire to remain aloof from the controversy, free

⁹ 51 N. L. R. B. No. 53, 12 Labor Relations Reporter 785.

¹⁰ See *In re United Biscuit Co. of America*, 38 N. L. R. B. No. 51; *In re Niles Fire Brick Co.*, 30 N. L. R. B. No. 61; *In re Rapid Roller Co.*, 33 N. L. R. B. No. 108.

from possible coercion by an employer; and in his opinion this purpose could be best served by ordering back pay from the date of the employee's dismissal.

Cost of moving and increased rental included in order of reinstatement.—The National Labor Relations Board held that equitable reinstatement of employees who had been discriminatorily discharged should be accompanied by the payment of expenses occasioned by their eviction from company houses (*In re Industrial Mills, Inc.*¹¹). The Board reasoned that since the company houses could be rented only by employees of the company, occupancy of the houses was a right attached to their employment and when employees were denied that right, they were entitled to recover the expenses caused by the improper eviction.

War Labor Board

Payment for grievance time limited.—The National War Labor Board in the case, *In re McQuay-Norris Mfg. Co.*,¹³ denied a union's request that union representatives be paid for time spent in handling grievances.

In discussing the principles it would apply in connection with this question, the Board indicated that generally it would direct payment of grievance time only when the parties had established such practice in the past. Otherwise, the unions should pay their own representatives, unless there was a "positive showing that management is responsible for unnecessary and unusual delays in the handling of grievances." In requests for this type of order, the Board stated, the union would have the burden of showing that the new system of payment would not be abused by its representatives.

Maintenance-of-membership clause denied by regional board.—A maintenance-of-membership clause was refused to a union by the Boston Regional War Labor Board, on the ground that the bylaws of the union were "far too dangerous to guard safely" the rights of employees.¹⁴

The union bylaws provided that members could be fined, expelled, or suspended for violating rules which forbade making false statements about an officer or member, for using profane language, for becoming intoxicated, for refusal to obey the chairman at union meetings, and for revealing the proceedings of a local or shop meeting. The regional board declared that the powers conferred by these by-laws were too loosely defined, that the penalties for infractions were too severe in relation to the offenses, and that union members were unaware of the significance of and the dangers inherent in the bylaws "to their individual means of livelihood." For these reasons it refused to sanction the bylaws by ordering the maintenance-of-membership clause.

The regional board also found that, in having engaged in a wartime strike, the union had demonstrated instability and irresponsibility.

Denial of employer's plea of illegality of contract.—The San Francisco Regional War Labor Board rejected an employer's contention that he was not required to discharge certain employees under a closed-shop agreement because the closed-shop contract had been negotiated

¹¹ 50 N. L. R. B. No. 125, 12 National Labor Relations Rept. 750.

¹³ 9 War Labor Board Reports 538.

¹⁴ *In re Sargent & Co., Inc.*, 9 War Labor Board Reports 652.

when the union did not represent a majority of his employees.¹⁵ The regional board answered the assertion that the contract was void by stating that the National Labor Relations Board had not passed upon the legality of the contract and that, in any event, the company could not plead its own unfair labor practice to avoid the contract.

Unemployment Compensation

A union, certified by the National Labor Relations Board as the bargaining unit for the employees, called a strike to recruit new members from a minority union in the plant. As a result of the work stoppage, the members of the minority group were unable to continue their work, which depended on materials supplied by the striking union. The strike ceased after the minority group became affiliated with the majority union. The minority group then filed claims for unemployment benefits.

The Washington State unemployment-compensation law prohibits the payment of benefits to an employee who is "participating in, or financing or directly interested in the labor dispute which caused the stoppage of work."¹⁶ The State Commission of Unemployment Compensation had concluded that the minority group had a "direct interest" in the dispute inasmuch as the outcome of it would have a bearing on their working conditions—namely, their membership in the union—and had therefore denied benefits.

The Washington Supreme Court, however, in *Wicklund v. Commission of Unemployment Compensation*,¹⁷ declared that the provision of the statute embraces only "those employees directly interested in furtherance of the dispute by participation and activity therein."¹⁸ The court held that a labor dispute did not exist between the employer and the minority union and that this group had not actively participated in the strike, although the members changed their union affiliation before work was resumed. The court distinguished the instant case from *In re St. Paul & Tacoma Lumber Co.* (110 Pac. (2d) 877), in which it was held that nonunion members who refused to pass through a picket line maintained by a striking union were disqualified from benefits under the Washington statute; that refusal was deemed not an involuntary action but rather an active participation in the dispute.

Decisions of State Courts

Peaceful picketing limited to "lawful" objective.—In a suit against a union and its officers, the bill of complaint asked for invalidation of a contract with the union and for an injunction against union interference with the plaintiff's business. It was alleged that the union obtained the contract by duress, forcing the employer (a theater owner) to employ musicians whom it did not need. The duress was claimed to have been exerted by means of the union's threat to call a

¹⁵ *In re Pearson Candy Co., Ltd.*, 9 War Labor Board Reports 679.

¹⁶ Wash. Rem. Rev. Stat. (Supp.) 9998—105 (e).

¹⁷ — Pac. (2d) — June 16, 1943.

¹⁸ Compare, *Members of Iron Workers' Union v. Industrial Commission of Utah, et al.*, — Pac. (2d) — where members of a minority union were held disqualified from receiving benefits although they claimed that they had not voted for the strike and were prevented from working by the striking majority union. The State commission found that the purpose of the strike was to gain higher wages. The court held that since the majority union had been designated in a consent election as the bargaining agent of all employees, the "interest" of the majority group disqualified the minority as well as the majority group.

strike of the stage hands on the opening night of a theatrical production and to picket the theater if musicians were not hired. The trial court had found that a "labor dispute" existed and that no coercion or duress was present in obtaining the contract.

Disagreeing with the trial court's decision, the Supreme Court of Michigan, in *Lafayette Dramatic Productions, Inc., v. Ferentz*,¹⁹ held that the validity of the contract depended upon whether the actions of the union were related to legitimate labor objectives. In determining this question the court used the test of whether the union's demand to employ musicians had a "reasonable connection with any dispute or controversy relating to wages, health, safety, the right of collective bargaining or the protection of labor from abuses." It concluded that the demand of the union that the theater owner employ unneeded union musicians did not meet this test and constituted duress because it invaded the employer's right to conduct its business without unjust interference and its right to the free flow of labor.²⁰ The court also held that the case did not involve a "labor dispute" within the meaning of the State Mediation Act²¹ so as to give the State Labor Mediation Board jurisdiction of the question.

The Supreme Court of Minnesota had before it a similar question in *Glover v. Minneapolis Building Trades Council*.²² An injunction was sought to restrain picketing by a union which had demanded that the employer let his work to a union contractor. The employer was engaged in the building of houses for sale and employed union labor in their construction, with the exception of a part of the work which he personally performed. When the employer refused to refrain from working and to subcontract the work to an individual or firm employing union labor, his premises were picketed by the union. In refusing an injunction, the court held that the picketing was an exercise of freedom of speech guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution.²³

State minimum-wage law prohibits consideration of tips as wages.—The Supreme Court of California in *California Drive-In Restaurant Association v. Clark, Chief of Division of Industrial Welfare of California*,²⁴ held that tips received by waitresses in a "drive-in" eating establishment could not be credited against their compensation in determining whether the minimum wage established by an order under a State law had been paid.

The restaurant association operated roadside establishments which were patronized by motorists who were served by "car hops." The tips paid to these "car hops" constituted their wages, but when they fell below the minimum wage fixed by the Industrial Welfare Commission, the employer supplied the difference. A wage order issued in 1923 under the State minimum-wage law²⁵ prohibited the crediting of tips as wages in determining the minimum wage. A State tipping law enacted in 1929 required an employer to post a notice when tips were credited against wages.²⁶ The restaurant association argued

¹⁹ — N. W. (2d) — (April 8, 1943).

²⁰ Compare *Opera on Tour, Inc. v. Weber*, 285 N. Y. 348, 321 N. E. (2d) 349, certiorari denied, 314 U. S. 716, Act No. 176, Mich. Pub. Laws (1939) (Comp. Laws Supp. 1940, Sec. 8628-1 et seq.).

²¹ — N. W. (2d) — (July 9, 1943).

²² Accord *American Federation of Labor v. Swing*, 312 U. S. 321; *Senn v. Tile Layers' Protective Union*, 301 U. S. 468; *Bakery & Pastry Drivers, etc. v. Wohl*, 315 U. S. 769.

²³ — Pac. (2d) —, 7 Lab. Cas. 61672 (June 16, 1943).

²⁴ Order 12 A, effective June 8, 1923, issued under authority of Calif. Stat. 1913, p. 632, sec. 6, as amended by Stats. 1921, p. 378.

²⁶ Calif. Stat. 1929, p. 1971, Labor Code sec. 350-356.

that the tipping law, with which it had complied, superseded the section of the wage order prohibiting the crediting of tips as wages.

In rejecting the plaintiff's argument, the court pointed out that the courts did not favor repeal by implication and a repeal would be accomplished only if the wage order and statute were irreconcilable in purpose and effect. Moreover, the past failure of State officials to enforce the prohibition in the wage order against crediting tips as wages was held not to sanction an incorrect administrative interpretation. The court observed that the purpose of the wage order was to regulate the working conditions of females and minor employees in eating establishments. The posting statute, on the other hand, was not directed at these aims, and did not legalize the crediting of tips in determining whether the minimum wage was paid. The court found that the statute was intended to protect the public against fraud by informing it when tips were retained by the employer. However, the posting did not condone the practice, prohibited by the wage order, of crediting tips as wages to satisfy the statutory minimum, although they might have been credited if the contract of employment called for guaranteed earnings above the minimum.

The court also held that the inclusion of tips as wages might be permissible under other laws,²⁷ that their exclusion by the wage order was not unconstitutional, and that it was a reasonable police regulation to maintain the health and welfare of employees.

Union found guilty of unfair labor practice.—Two employees brought an action before the Wisconsin Employment Relations Board charging a union and its representative with unfair labor practices within the meaning of the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act. The State statute guarantees to employees the right to refrain from joining or assisting any labor organization. It also declares it an unfair labor practice for an individual or group of employees to coerce or intimidate another employee in the enjoyment of that right. It was charged that the union had attempted by intimidation, coercion, and threats to compel employees to become members. The Board issued a cease and desist order, which, among other things, enjoined "continuous solicitation of membership if objected to" and interference "in any other manner or in any other way." On appeal to the trial court and to the State supreme court, the Board's ruling was upheld. (*Christoffel et al. v. Wisconsin Employment Relations Board et al.*, 10 N. W. (2d) 197 (June 16, 1943).

With reference to the Board's injunction against "continuous solicitation of membership if objected to," the State supreme court held that the "continuous" and "persistent" nature of the solicitation hindered the employees in the exercise of their legal right not to join the union, and constituted an unfair labor practice.

The court also held that a part of the Board's order which contained a general prohibition against intimidation "in any other manner or in any other way" was not so indefinite as to render it invalid. The

²⁷ *Williams v. Jacksonville Terminal Co.*, 315 U. S. 386, which was cited by the Restaurant Association for the proposition that tips may be considered as wages under the Fair Labor Standards Act was distinguished by the court on the ground that, unlike the Federal statute there involved, the California minimum-wage law specifically delegated to the administrative agency of the State the duty and power of issuing wage orders in accordance with the standards prescribed. In the Jacksonville Terminal case the United States Supreme Court stated that the Fair Labor Standards Act did not prohibit the inclusion of tips in wages and that in the case before it, the question whether tips should be so considered "is not for judicial decision."

union argued that the words of the order were so broad that the employees would not know what acts were prohibited. The court, however, decided that union members were under the same obligation as employers to determine the difference between peaceful and coercive action.

The argument of the union that the National Labor Relations Board had taken jurisdiction of the dispute, thereby depriving the State board of jurisdiction, was rejected on the ground that the National Board did not have before it this particular issue. The court also stated that the National Labor Relations Act is concerned only with the unfair labor practices of employers, while the State statute related to unfair labor practices of employees. Since no conflict was deemed to exist between the State and Federal statutes regulating employment relations, the court held that the State law was valid. The court's opinion did not discuss the question of whether the injunction restrained activities of the union guaranteed under the National Labor Relations Act.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Wages in Lead and Zinc Mines and Mills in the Tri-State Area, June 1943¹

Summary

WORKERS in a representative sample of lead and zinc mines and mills in the Tri-State area received straight-time average hourly earnings in June 1943 ranging from 57.1 cents for watchmen to \$1.127 for muckers. Workers in 14 occupations, accounting for 52.5 percent of the total workers, had average earnings ranging from 80 to 90 cents an hour. Average hourly earnings for maintenance workers ranged from 80.3 cents an hour for class B carpenters to \$1.021 an hour for class A electricians. Entrance rates paid to male common labor ranged from 62.5 cents to 75.9 cents an hour.

The labor force in the Tri-State mines and mills was composed exclusively of males. About one-fourth of the workers studied were employed in mines and mills operating under union agreements.

Tri-State Area Lead and Zinc Mining and Milling

The Tri-State mining area covers approximately 2,000 square miles and occupies parts of four adjoining counties in three States—Jasper and Newton Counties in Missouri, Cherokee County in Kansas, and Ottawa County in Oklahoma. The greatest concentration of ore deposits is in the territory around Picher, Okla. The mining operations of the Tri-State area are confined almost exclusively to lead-zinc ore. The area was first important as a source of lead, but beginning in the 1870's the production of zinc assumed greater importance.

The ores mined in the area contain a much larger proportion of zinc than lead, and in 1941 the Tri-State area was the source of approximately one-third of the national output of zinc and nearly one-tenth of the output of lead. Production of lead and zinc was increased during the first World War and peak production was reached for both metals during the years immediately following the close of hostilities. The output for the area declined very gradually after 1926. Production in 1941 was greater than in any year since 1929.

The Tri-State mining field has been in continuous operation for nearly 100 years. Most of the mines are on Indian lands which the operators hold on long-term leases. Good climate and shallow ore bodies are important factors favorable to mining operations in this district. The depth of the ore bodies ranges from the surface to about

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Edith M. Olsen under the direction of Victor S. Baril.

400 feet. The mild winters of the region make it possible to carry on the work throughout the year.

The ores from mines in the Tri-State area are, however, increasingly difficult to extract and are declining in quality. With the depletion of known reserves of ore and the accompanying deterioration in the grade of ore being mined, it is becoming a more costly operation.

The strategic importance of lead and zinc, coupled with the decline in the grade of ore, renders the problem of labor supply during the war one of great importance. Because of the importance of lead and zinc to the war effort, Federal agencies have taken steps to increase or at least maintain output of the metal mines during the next few years. In 1941 the Federal Government granted high priority ratings on mine supplies and equipment and increased the ceiling prices of lead and zinc. In February 1942, the premium-price plan was established jointly by the Office of Price Administration and the War Production Board.² This price plan, administered by OPA, was designed to encourage the extraction of marginal ores by paying a premium in excess of the prevailing ceiling prices on all production over the quotas set by the two agencies. Since the original premium-price plan was formulated, revisions have been made in both the production quotas and the premium prices.

Only in comparatively recent years has central milling of ore been carried on in the Tri-State mining area. Originally, the landowners required that the ore from each mine should be concentrated at the mine site. In about the last 15 years, however, central milling operations have been established, whereby ore from several properties may be brought to a central mill for processing, thus making the operation more economical.

Scope and Method of Study

The present study of the wage structure of the Tri-State lead and zinc producing operations is based on data collected in a Nation-wide survey of the nonferrous-metals industry undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the National War Labor Board. This survey will cover mines, mills, smelters, and refineries, and will include establishments engaged in the mining or processing of all nonferrous metals other than precious metals.

The wage data included in the present analysis relate to typical pay-roll periods in June 1943 and were gathered by experienced field representatives of the Bureau from pay-roll and other plant records. Average hourly earnings, exclusive of premium overtime payments and shift differentials, were obtained for key occupations in the mines and mills. Several criteria were used in the selection of occupations for study, and the data for the occupations chosen are believed to provide useful bench marks for an appraisal of the wage structure of the industry. In order to secure maximum uniformity in the classification of occupations in the plants covered by the survey, standard job descriptions were used in all establishments.

In addition to occupational average hourly earnings, information was obtained on the method of wage payment for each occupation, and on unionization, shift operation, normal hours of work, and the entrance rates paid to male common labor. Other general plant

² Office of Price Administration Release No. PM 2458, February 9, 1942.

information needed for interpreting the basic earnings data was also obtained.

Altogether, 38 lead and zinc mines in the Tri-State area were covered by the study, together with 17 mills operated in connection with these mines. As noted above, some of the companies in the area mill ores from mining properties owned by other operators with no milling facilities.

Several of the companies included in the survey operate two or more mines, but for purposes of analysis the individual mines of companies operating multiple units have, in general, been considered as separate establishments. A mill operated in conjunction with a mine has been considered part of the same establishment. The 38 establishments surveyed are believed to employ approximately one-third of the workers in the industry and locality. In the selection of this sample, careful consideration was given to size of establishment, location, and corporate affiliation.

The Labor Force

The individual mines and mills in the Tri-State area are comparatively small in terms of numbers of workers employed. The establishments covered employed from 20 to 200 workers. With the exception of office employees, the labor force in the Tri-State mines and mills included in the study was composed exclusively of male workers. The occupational structure varied slightly among the various establishments. This variation is indicated by the number of establishments represented in the earnings data shown for the occupations listed in table 2. Although most of the important processing occupations, both in mining and milling, are represented by a large number of establishments, some types of workers, such as conveyor operators, motormen, and certain categories of maintenance men, were found in a relatively small number of plants.

Unionization.—Workers were represented by labor unions in three of the companies included in the study, and union negotiations were in progress in one additional company at the time of the survey. All three of the unionized companies were operating under agreements with the International Union of Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers, a C. I. O. affiliate. These companies operated a total of 6 mines and 3 mills and employed approximately one-fourth of the workers for whom occupational wage data were obtained.

Method of Wage Payment

Three methods of wage payment were used in the Tri-State mines—time rates, piece rates, and bonus rates. Most of the mining operations in the area paid day rates rather than hourly rates to those workers compensated on a time basis. Incentive-wage payments, designed to increase production and efficiency, were made to approximately 30 percent of the total number of workers studied. Straight piece rates were generally paid only to muckers; the workers in this occupation were paid on a piece-rate basis in all but one of the mines included in the survey. A bonus plan, by which the workers received a guaranteed minimum rate plus a bonus rate for production above a given quota, was used in the payment of a considerable number of

drilling-machine operators, cagers, loading-machine operators, hoistmen, and trammers.

All workers in the 17 mills covered were paid on a time basis. As in the mining operations, day rates were used predominantly. For the purposes of the present survey, average hourly earnings have, of course, been calculated both for the mines and mills.

Earnings data for underground workers represent earnings for the total hours in the mine, including travel time but excluding formal lunch periods. The average hourly earnings of drilling-machine operators and muckers, for instance, are based on actual hours of work at the face of the mine, plus the time spent in traveling to and from the face. Where the underground workers were given formal lunch periods and allowed to leave the job, the time spent for such lunch periods was not considered as time worked. On the other hand, where workers did not have a formal lunch period, but ate on the job, no adjustment was made in the hours of work.

Overtime provisions.—Employees in all of the establishments studied were paid time and a half for all work above 40 hours a week; this overtime rate was also applied to hours worked in excess of 8 a day in 10 establishments. Twenty establishments paid double time and 2 paid time and a half for work on the seventh consecutive workday. All holiday work was paid for in 17 establishments at the rate of time and a half and in 2 establishments at double time. Twenty-four of the 38 establishments were operating on a multiple-shift basis, but only 19.3 percent of the workers studied were employed on the second and third shifts. One establishment reported premium payment to workers on the second or third shifts.

Common Labor Entrance Rates

Table 1 shows the entrance rates paid to male common labor in the mines and mills reporting established entrance rates for these workers. As indicated by this table, the entrance rates for common labor ranged from 62.5 cents to 75.9 cents an hour. There was no marked difference between the average rates paid to common labor in union plants and those in nonunion plants.

TABLE 1.—Minimum Entrance Rates for Male Common Labor in Lead and Zinc Mines and Mills, in Tri-State Area, June 1943

Number of establishments with specified rate	Minimum entrance rate		Number of establishments with specified rate	Minimum entrance rate	
	Mines	Mills		Mines	Mills
1 establishment.....	\$0. 625		3 establishments.....	\$0. 725	\$0. 706
1 establishment.....	. 650	\$0. 650	4 establishments.....	. 725	. 725
2 establishments.....	. 656		1 establishment.....	. 756	
1 establishment.....	. 694	. 725	3 establishments.....	. 756	. 719
7 establishments.....	. 719		1 establishment.....	. 756	. 744
2 establishments.....	. 719	. 719	1 establishment.....	. 759	
1 establishment.....	. 720		1 establishment.....	(1)	
1 establishment.....	. 720	. 690	1 establishment.....	(2)	
2 establishments.....	. 725		1 establishment.....	(2)	(2)
4 establishments.....	. 725				
1 establishment.....	. 725	. 688			

¹ None.

² Not reported.

Average Hourly Earnings by Occupation

Straight-time average hourly earnings for 26 occupational groups, which include a total of 1,735 employees, are shown in table 2. The straight-time average earnings ranged from 57.1 cents an hour for watchmen to \$1.127 an hour for muckers. The relatively high average earnings shown for muckers, who constituted over one-fifth of the workers for whom occupational earnings are shown, reflect the payment of piece-rate earnings for this occupation in all but one of the establishments. Production drilling-machine operators, who constituted the second largest occupational group, earned an average of 81.4 cents an hour. Working foremen in the processing departments received an average of \$1.031 an hour. The average hourly earnings for maintenance occupations ranged from 80.3 cents an hour for class B carpenters to \$1.021 an hour for class A electricians. Workers in 14 occupations, accounting for 52.5 percent of the total workers, had average earnings ranging from 80 to 90 cents an hour.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings,¹ Selected Occupations, Lead and Zinc Mines and Mills, Tri-State Area, June 1943

Occupation	Number of establishments	Number of workers	Straight-time hourly earnings		
			General average	Lowest plant average	Highest plant average
Maintenance:					
Blacksmiths.....	27	28	\$0.845	\$0.719	\$0.943
Carpenters, Class A.....	16	26	.875	.813	1.125
Carpenters, Class B.....	13	21	.803	.725	.905
Electricians, Class A.....	6	7	1.021	.906	1.442
Electricians, Class B.....	10	14	.869	.813	.914
Machinists, Class A.....	8	15	.912	.906	1.000
Machinists, Class B.....	12	36	.830	.813	.875
Maintenance men, general.....	7	13	.815	.815	.815
Supervision: Working foremen, processing departments.....	28	70	1.031	.810	1.250
Processing—Mining:					
Cagers, inside.....	34	72	.862	.750	1.020
Drilling-machine operators, production.....	35	286	.814	.762	.985
Drilling-machine operators, special.....	10	15	1.043	.791	1.380
Loading-machine operators.....	24	89	.864	.771	.965
Muckers.....	29	360	1.127	.863	1.311
Pumpmen.....	12	25	.790	.625	.850
Trackmen, inside.....	30	88	.817	.760	.875
Processing—Milling:					
Crusher operators.....	16	44	.758	.690	.867
Flotation operators.....	16	45	.822	.781	.901
Helpers, processing machines.....	5	91	.738	.690	.800
Jig operators.....	16	87	.814	.765	.940
Material movement:					
Hoistmen.....	33	87	.849	.750	.939
Motormen, inside.....	7	19	.807	.780	.819
Trammers.....	28	113	.745	.656	.911
Conveyor operators.....	4	12	.725	.719	.744
Truck drivers I.....	8	28	.766	.744	.813
Custodial: Watchmen.....	18	44	.571	.300	.690

¹ Excludes premium pay for overtime and night-shift work.

In addition to average hourly earnings by occupation, table 2 also shows the highest and lowest plant average earnings for each occupation. The range between the highest and the lowest plant averages was substantial in most of the occupations. It should be emphasized, however, that these ranges show the extremes in plant earnings by occupation, and as such have limited significance. Also, these ranges in plant occupational earnings do not necessarily coincide with ranges

in the earnings of individuals within each of the occupations. The lowest and highest plant averages for working foremen, for example, were 81 cents and \$1.25 an hour, respectively, but individual working foremen earned as low as 75 cents an hour and as high as \$1.58 an hour. There was no consistent relationship between unionization and average hourly earnings by occupation.

A detailed study of earnings in the nonferrous-metals industry was made in August 1941, and the wage data were revised in June 1942 on the basis of general wage-change information.³ It is important to point out that the previous study included the entire State of Missouri in the Tri-State district, whereas the present study, as noted earlier, includes only Jasper and Newton Counties. The wage data presented in the present survey are not, therefore, strictly comparable with those contained in the earlier report for the Tri-State district.

³ See Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 729: Wage Structure of the Nonferrous Metals Industry, 1941-42.

Earnings in Selected Occupations in Machinery Manufacture, San Francisco Bay Area, March 1943¹

Summary

PLANTS manufacturing various types of industrial machinery and fittings in the San Francisco Bay area have been greatly affected by the requirements of wartime production. Employment has expanded and the length of the average workweek has increased materially. Straight-time average hourly earnings for male workers in a selected group of occupations ranged from 78 cents for guards to \$1.52 for class A tool and die makers, according to a recent survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Woman workers had average earnings of about 76 cents as class C bench assemblers and \$1.38 as class A engine-lathe operators.

Bay-Area Machinery Industry

The San Francisco Bay area (San Francisco, San Mateo, Alameda, Marin, and Contra Costa Counties) contains many establishments engaged in manufacturing of various types of industrial machinery, machine fittings, engines, and turbines. Within this area, a considerable measure of labor mobility exists. The Bureau of Labor Statistics recently conducted a survey of wages for selected occupations in a balanced sample of machinery plants in the bay area.² The data collected relate to March 1943, and were obtained by experienced field representatives of the Bureau from pay-roll and other plant records. Detailed wage data were secured only for workers employed on the first shift in the occupations selected for study.³

The 24 plants included in the sample, as indicated above, were in no sense homogeneous as to product. Fifteen of the plants produced machinery and machine fittings, including centrifugal pumps, dairy sterilizers, hydraulic air and steam pressure control valves, welding and torch equipment, and a number of other products. Another group of plants was engaged in the manufacture of internal-combustion and Diesel engines and turbines. Operations in several establishments were confined largely to making machinists' precision tools.

Production in these plants has, in general, been stimulated greatly by wartime demand. Employment data for 22 of the 24 plants were available for September 1942 as well as for March 1943. During this comparatively short period, employment in the 22 plants increased by an average of 24 percent. The greater part of this increase in employment occurred in the relatively large plants in the sample. In fact, in the medium-sized plants (those having from 51 to 250 workers) as a group, the number of workers actually declined.

At the time of the wage survey, employees on the first shift in all 24 plants combined averaged almost 54 hours of work a week. There were only 5 plants in which weekly hours of first-shift employees averaged less than 50. Moreover, 17 of the 24 establishments were

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis, Region XIII, San Francisco.

² Approximately a 20-percent balanced sample was used.

³ The occupations were selected as representative of key departments and processes. The wage data were gathered on the basis of uniform job descriptions.

operating on the basis of two or more shifts in March 1943. Six of the seven plants operating single shifts employed fewer than 50 workers each at the time of the wage survey. For all plants combined, about 74 percent of the workers were employed on the first shift, 22 percent on the second, and only 4 percent on the third.

The machinery industry in the area is highly unionized. At the time of the wage survey, 21 of the 24 plants included in the sample reported the existence of collective-bargaining agreements—15 with A. F. of L. affiliates and 6 with C. I. O. unions.

Average Hourly Earnings

The basic occupational wage data derived from the survey are shown in the accompanying table. Among male workers in the selected occupations, average hourly earnings, excluding premium pay for overtime and night-shift work, ranged from approximately 78 cents for guards to \$1.52 for class A tool and die makers. Average earnings of less than \$1.00 were found in only four male occupations. In eight of the male occupations for which data are shown, average hourly earnings amounted to \$1.25 or more.

It was possible to show earnings data for female workers in only two occupations. Class C bench assemblers averaged about 76 cents an hour and class A engine-lathe operators about \$1.38. This latter figure is slightly in excess of the corresponding average for men.

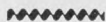
The lowest and highest plant average hourly earnings in each occupation are also shown in the table. In every occupation, the difference between these two averages is substantial. It must be emphasized that the plant average hourly earnings shown are the extremes, and as such have limited significance.

Average Hourly Earnings¹ of First-Shift Workers in Selected Occupations in San Francisco Bay Area Machinery Plants, March 1943

Occupation	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings		
		All establishments	Lowest plant average	Highest plant average
Male workers:				
Working foremen	49	\$1.458	\$1.050	\$1.750
Carpenters, class A	16	1.147	1.050	1.300
Machinists, class A	78	1.311	1.150	2.000
Tool and die makers, class A	32	1.522	1.390	1.600
Assemblers, bench, class A	112	1.220	1.110	1.410
Assemblers, bench, class B	82	1.016	.900	1.280
Assemblers, floor, class A	116	1.287	1.130	1.500
Drill-press operators, single spindle, class A	54	1.137	.950	1.400
Drill-press operators, single spindle, class B	33	1.073	.950	1.280
Engine-lathe operators, class A	90	1.353	1.280	1.665
Engine-lathe operators, class B	48	1.250	.920	1.310
Engine-lathe operators, class C	11	1.080	.700	1.250
Milling-machine operators, class A	78	1.310	.950	1.650
Milling-machine operators, class B	37	1.132	.900	1.280
Screw-machine operators, automatic, class A	11	1.255	1.050	1.333
Screw-machine operators, hand, class A	28	1.134	1.110	1.280
Screw-machine operators, hand, class B	14	1.044	.900	1.200
Inspectors, class A	27	1.225	1.050	1.400
Stock clerks	50	.946	.600	1.200
Truck drivers	12	.961	.923	1.063
Guards	39	.778	.500	.950
Watchmen	11	.826	.411	.870
Female workers:				
Assemblers, bench, class C	20	.756	.625	.950
Engine-lathe operators, class A	18	1.384	1.110	1.500

¹ Exclusive of premium pay for overtime and night-shift work.

Differences in product among the 24 plants from which wage data were obtained have already been indicated. These product differences were reflected in differences in occupational structure among the plants surveyed. Differences in occupational structure also resulted from variations in plant size and in production methods. Not all of the occupations covered, therefore, were found in all plants. This fact may help to explain certain of the relationships among the occupational average earnings shown in the table. For example, the female engine-lathe operators, whose average earnings exceeded those of similarly employed male workers, were employed in relatively high-wage plants. The relationship between the average earnings of guards and watchmen may also be explained on this general basis.



Salaries of Federal Employees, October 1942¹

Summary

IN October 1942, 53 percent of the 1,437,000 Federal employees covered in a congressional survey were working in the clerical, administrative, and fiscal service; 19 percent in the Postal Service; 10 percent in the craft, protective, and custodial service; 9 percent in subprofessional jobs; and 7 percent in professional and technical jobs. These percentages are exclusive of trade and manual employees for whom data were not available.

For the professional service the median annual salary fell in the \$3,000–\$3,799 class; for the Postal Service, in the \$2,000–\$2,499 class; and for the subprofessional service, in the \$1,800–\$1,999 class. The median salary for all other groups was in the \$1,440–\$1,619 class.

As of October 1942, 95 percent of the Federal Government workers earned from \$1,200 to \$4,499 a year. Only 3 percent received less than \$1,200 and only 2 percent \$4,500 or more. Almost a fourth of the workers had salaries of \$1,440 to \$1,619 and a fifth (mainly postal clerks and carriers) received from \$2,000 to \$2,499.

Although there was a smaller proportion of employees in the higher salary brackets for the war agencies taken as a whole than for all other agencies, the war agencies exclusive of the War and Navy Departments had a greater proportion of employees receiving \$2,500 or over a year. At the \$2,500 level and above were 27 percent of the employees of these agencies, as compared with 10 percent for the War Department, 16 percent for the Navy Department, and 16 percent for all other agencies.

Inside the Washington, D. C., metropolitan area there was a higher proportion of employees at salary rates in the \$1,440–\$1,999 class and at \$2,500 and over than outside the Washington area.

In general the agencies with the highest proportion of workers in the upper salary brackets were those requiring the services of many legal, financial, and technical experts, while the agencies with the highest proportion of workers in the lower salary brackets were those with many routine clerical or custodial activities.

A higher proportion of subprofessional employees received salaries of less than \$1,800 and a slightly higher proportion of the professional

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

employees received salaries of \$3,800 and over in October 1942 as compared with December 1938. In the craft, protective, and custodial grades, only 2 percent received salaries of \$1,199 or less in October 1942, as compared with 37 percent in December 1938.

Coverage and Method

The present study of Federal salaries covers 1,437,000 persons, or 53 percent of the total of 2,705,000 employees in the executive branch of the Federal Government in October 1942. The figures were collected by the Joint Committee on Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures of the 78th Congress of the United States.² Data were obtained by service and grade, as determined by the Classification Act of 1923 as amended, or by special legislation or Executive order; and the salary distribution was derived by placing all employees of a given grade in the salary group in which the base pay for the grade fell.³ For example, an employee in grade 2 of the clerical, administrative, and fiscal service, base pay for which is \$1,440, was classified in this study in the salary class \$1,440-\$1,619, although, with administrative pay raises over a number of years, the salary for a CAF-2 employee may be as high as \$1,800.

This method of deriving the salary distribution might seem to lead to an understatement of Federal salaries. As a matter of fact, the opposite is probably nearer the truth. The base pay for almost all grades coincides with or is very near the lower limit of the salary class. For example, the base pay of professional grade 1 is \$2,000, which is the lower limit of the salary class \$2,000-\$2,499; and the base pay of grade 2 is \$2,600, which is near the lower limit of the class \$2,500-\$2,999, and so on. The choice of salary classes, then, coupled with the fact (which is a matter of common knowledge) that salaries are concentrated near the base pay for the grade, means that actually the distribution tends to make salaries appear higher than they are.

Because the salary distribution represents base pay rather than actual salaries, and the series is therefore discrete rather than continuous, median salaries would not be significant and were not computed.

There were 1,072,000 clerical-mechanical and industrial and skilled employees who were paid not a fixed rate per annum but an hourly or daily rate and who therefore had to be omitted from a salary study of this type. Over 90 percent of these trade and manual workers, or 983,000, were in the War and Navy Departments, 45,000 were substitutes and other hourly employees in the Post Office Department, and the others were mainly in the Tennessee Valley Authority (25,000), Government Printing Office (7,000), Bureau of Printing and Engraving (7,000) and Bureau of the Mint (1,400) of the Treasury Department, and in the Bureau of Reclamation (1,900) and Bonneville Power Administration (1,000) of the Department of the Interior.

There were also omitted from the salary study 196,000 employees who were in ungraded positions or for whom data were not reported by salary or grade. Of this group, the 38,000 employees in The Panama Canal and many of the 2,600 in the Public Buildings Administra-

² Senate Document No. 66, 78th Cong. 1st sess.: Federal Personnel, additional report of the Joint Committee on Reduction of Nonessential Federal Expenditures.

³ For a small number of employees whose salaries are not determined either by the Classification Act of 1923 as amended, or by special legislation or Executive order, data were obtained by salary group.

tion (FWA) were probably trade and manual workers. The War Department had 31,000 employees of this type, the Agriculture Department and Selective Service System each had 23,000; the Federal Security Agency had 20,800 in the U. S. Employment Service and 12,500 in the National Youth Administration; the Department of the Interior had a total of 12,000, mainly in the Office of Indian Affairs, Geological Survey, Division of Territories and Island Possessions, and Bureau of Reclamation. There were 6,700 in the Department of Commerce and 4,600 in the Post Office Department. The rest were distributed among the other agencies.

The salary study was practically complete for the professional; subprofessional; clerical, administrative, and fiscal; craft, protective, and custodial services; and for employees whose salaries are determined by special legislation or Executive order. However, relatively few workers in unclassified positions, trade and manual employees, and other workers paid on an hourly or daily basis have been included.

Comparisons between the salary distributions in December 1938⁴ and October 1942 are difficult because of these omissions, and comparisons were made only for subgroups where coverage was essentially identical. It should be noted that whereas the December 1938 study was based on a 25-percent sample, the 1942 study, except for the omissions noted, was based on complete reports.

Legislation providing overtime pay for certain Federal employees for work in excess of 40 hours per week had not yet been passed at the time the 1942 salary study was made. Public Law No. 821 of the 77th Congress, later continued by Public Law No. 49 of the 78th Congress, first became effective December 1, 1942, and in effect raised the salaries of the Federal employees to which the law was applicable by approximately 20 percent. The second law was more liberal than the first, in that it granted overtime pay to persons receiving \$5,000 or more a year on that part of their salary not exceeding \$2,900. These overtime pay acts excepted roughly the trade and manual workers, since they are usually paid on an hourly or daily basis, and their wages are adjusted periodically in accordance with prevailing rates by wage boards, and therefore the acts applied roughly to the group of employees covered in the 1942 salary study.

Employment and Salaries by Service

Clerical, administrative, and fiscal employees formed the largest group of employees in the executive branch of the Federal Government for whom salary data were available in October 1942 (table 1). Over 765,000, or 53 percent, were in this category. Postal employees formed the next largest group, with 266,000. The craft, protective, and custodial service and subprofessional service included about the same number, 139,000 and 133,000, or 10 and 9 percent, respectively. The professional group totaled slightly less than 100,000.

Employees in professional, technical, and scientific jobs received the highest salaries in October 1942. Their median salary fell in the group \$3,000–\$3,799, as compared with \$2,000–\$2,499 for the Postal Service, \$1,800–\$1,999 for the subprofessional service, and \$1,440–\$1,619 for all other groups (table 2).

⁴ See Monthly Labor Review, January 1941 (pp. 66-85): Occupations and Salaries in Federal Employment.

Although professional-service employees received the highest salaries, 71 percent of them were concentrated at the 3 lowest grades in the salary range—from \$2,000 to \$3,799. Included in the 29 percent receiving \$3,800 or over, were 15 percent in the \$3,800–\$4,499 class, and 8 percent in the \$4,500–\$5,499 group. The remaining 6 percent received \$5,500 or over, but only 0.5 percent received \$8,000 or more.

TABLE 1.—*Employment in War and Other Agencies of Federal Government, by Service, October 1942*¹

Service	All agencies	War agencies				All other agencies
		Total	War Department	Navy Department	Other war agencies ²	
Total	2,704,733	1,885,361	1,189,833	529,835	165,693	819,372
Total for whom salary data were available	1,437,412	807,619	579,446	124,165	104,008	629,793
Professional	97,541	51,121	31,652	13,110	6,359	46,420
Subprofessional	132,858	85,958	73,654	10,871	1,433	46,900
Clerical, administrative, and fiscal	765,473	566,714	406,037	85,587	75,090	198,759
Craft, protective, and custodial	139,468	86,405	68,103	14,597	3,705	53,063
Postal employees	266,282					266,282
Other	35,790	17,421			17,421	18,369
Total for whom salary data were not available	1,267,321	1,077,742	610,387	405,670	61,685	189,579
Clerical-mechanical, and industrial and skilled employees	1,071,512	982,580	579,471	402,982	127	88,932
Other	195,809	95,162	30,916	2,688	61,558	100,647

¹ Excludes personnel receiving \$1 per annum.

² Covers Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Board of Economic Warfare, and Selective Service System.

Subprofessional employees were rather evenly distributed over the range of grades. Seventeen percent were at the lowest grade, falling in the \$1,200–\$1,439 salary class, and 12 percent were at the highest grade, in the \$2,500–\$2,999 interval. The median salary fell in the class, \$1,800–\$1,999.

The range of clerical, administrative, and fiscal grades was wide, from \$1,200 to \$8,000 and over, but 70 percent of the employees were concentrated in the \$1,200–\$1,799 salary range. Nine percent received salaries falling in the \$1,800–\$1,999 class, and 10 percent, \$2,000–\$2,499. The other 11 percent received \$2,500 or more. Two percent received salaries of \$4,500 or over and a tenth of 1 percent received \$8,000 or over.

Although several agencies used craft, protective, and custodial grades established by special legislation which permitted higher salaries than the grades established by the Classification Act of 1923 as amended, 97 percent of the employees in the craft, protective, and custodial group were concentrated in the salary class \$1,200–\$2,499. In the \$1,200–\$1,439 class alone there were 48 percent. Two percent received annual salaries from \$720 to \$1,199, while 0.3 percent received salaries of \$3,000 or over.

Over 63 percent of the postal employees received salaries in the \$2,000–\$2,499 class. Another group, amounting to 14 percent of the total and consisting mainly of fourth-class postmasters and other part-time and temporary help, received less than \$1,200 a year. Ninety-nine percent of the postal employees received salaries of less than \$3,000.

The salary distribution of employees in grades established by Executive order or by special legislation, and certain unclassified employees who were reported by salary group, appears in the last column of table 2. The salary range of this miscellaneous group of Federal employees was rather wide. Primarily because of the inclusion of a large number of veteran members of the Veterans' Administration who received \$600 a year plus maintenance items, the \$1,199-and-under salary class included 11 percent of the total. The proportion of employees in the salary classes from \$3,000 upward was consistently higher than that of any other group, with the exception of the professional service; and in the \$8,000-and-over class the proportion was higher than in the professional group.

TABLE 2.—Percentage Distribution of Federal Employees by Service and Salary, October 1942

Salary class	All groups	Professional	Subprofessional	Clerical, administrative, and fiscal	Craft, protective, and custodial	Postal ¹	All other employees for whom salary data were reported
\$1,199 and under	3.1				2.1	14.3	11.1
\$1,200-\$1,439	14.9		17.2	13.0	47.6	5.2	32.9
\$1,440-\$1,619	23.1		10.9	37.4	13.2	3.2	12.7
\$1,620-\$1,799	13.8		16.6	19.2	15.7	2.1	5.0
\$1,800-\$1,999	9.0		17.9	9.2	11.0	6.3	6.1
\$2,000-\$2,499	21.8	20.2	25.9	9.6	9.5	63.1	14.0
\$2,500-\$2,999	6.6	25.9	11.5	5.1	.6	4.5	5.7
\$3,000-\$3,799	3.7	24.8		3.2	.1	.9	4.4
\$3,800-\$4,499	1.9	14.6		1.4	.1	.3	2.4
\$4,500-\$5,499	1.3	8.6		1.1	.1	.1	3.2
\$5,500-\$6,499	.5	4.0		.5	(2)	(2)	1.0
\$6,500-\$7,999	.2	1.4		.2		(2)	.6
\$8,000 and over	.1	.5		.1		(2)	.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.00	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Covers all employees of the Post Office Department for whom data were available, including those in professional, subprofessional, and other services.

² Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Salaries in War and Other Agencies

The most common salary for the war-agency employees fell in the \$1,440-\$1,619 class. Over a third of the War Department employees, a fourth of the Navy Department employees, and slightly less than a fourth of the employees of all other war agencies fell in this class. The most common salary for workers in all other agencies, was from \$2,000 to \$2,499; this salary class (which contained 36 percent of the employees) was, however, weighted heavily by postal employees (table 3).

The war agencies had only 0.4 percent in the class receiving \$1,199-and-under, compared with 7 percent in all other agencies. The employees in the latter group were mainly fourth-class postmasters, who usually are on a part-time basis, and veteran members of the Veterans' Administration, who receive \$600 a year plus maintenance. Except for this lowest salary group, there was a higher proportion of employees in the higher salary brackets in all other agencies than in the war agencies as a whole. However, at the \$2,500 level and above, the war agencies, exclusive of the War and Navy Departments,

had a much greater proportion of workers in the higher salary brackets than any other group. For example, 27 percent of their employees received salaries of \$2,500 or more, as compared with 10 percent in the War Department, 16 percent in the Navy Department, and 16 percent in all other agencies. Also, 8 percent of their employees received salaries of \$4,500 or more, as contrasted with 0.5 percent in the War Department, 0.7 percent in the Navy Department, and 3 percent in all other agencies.

The relationships between these salary distributions may lie partially in the composition of the groups. The Navy Department employed the largest proportion of professional persons, 11 percent of the reported Navy total. The War Department employed almost 2½ times as many, but they represented only 5 percent of the reported total. In the other war agencies, 6 percent were in the professional service, and in all other agencies, 7 percent.

The craft, protective, and custodial service accounted for 12 percent of War and Navy Department reported totals, 4 percent of those of other war agencies, and 8 percent of those of all other agencies.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Employees in War and Other Agencies of Executive Branch of Federal Government, by Salary, October 1942

Salary class	All agencies	War agencies			All other agencies
		War Department	Navy Department	Other war agencies ¹	
\$1,199 and under.....	3.1	0.1	1.2	1.0	6.7
\$1,200-\$1,439.....	14.9	18.2	16.0	18.0	11.2
\$1,440-\$1,619.....	23.1	34.3	25.1	22.6	12.4
\$1,620-\$1,799.....	13.8	17.9	19.0	14.4	8.9
\$1,800-\$1,999.....	9.0	9.2	8.4	10.1	8.7
\$2,000-\$2,499.....	21.8	10.6	14.6	7.4	36.0
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	6.6	5.7	8.6	7.2	6.9
\$3,000-\$3,799.....	3.7	2.5	4.5	6.4	4.2
\$3,800-\$4,499.....	1.9	1.0	1.9	4.9	2.2
\$4,500-\$5,499.....	1.3	.4	.5	4.1	1.7
\$5,500-\$6,499.....	.5	.1	.2	2.4	.7
\$6,500-\$7,999.....	.2	(2)	(2)	1.0	.3
\$8,000 and over.....	.1	(2)	(2)	.5	.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Covers Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Board of Economic Warfare, and Selective Service System.

² Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

The proportions of reported total employees in the subprofessional service were as follows: War Department, 13 percent; Navy Department, 9 percent; other war agencies, 1 percent; and all other agencies, 7 percent. For the clerical, administrative, and fiscal service, the proportions were 70, 69, 73, and 32 percent of the respective totals. (Seventeen percent of the employees in other war agencies were in grades established by Executive order.)

Thus, although it is true that the agencies with the greatest proportion of workers in the higher salary brackets employed the smallest proportion of the lowest-paid help, they did not employ a higher proportion of professional and subprofessional personnel, and type of service is therefore not the decisive factor in determining the salary distributions of these groups.⁵

⁵ For a further discussion of this point, see section on distribution of salaries in individual agencies, p. 573.

Salaries Inside and Outside Washington (D. C.) Metropolitan Area

Excluding the Post Office and Agriculture Departments for which data were not available by location, there was a greater concentration of employees at salary rates from \$1,440 to \$1,999 a year and at \$2,500 and over in the Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area than there was outside. Or conversely, a larger proportion of employees outside the Washington area received salaries of \$1,439 or less, and from \$2,000 to \$2,499 (table 4).

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Federal Employees Inside and Outside Washington (D. C.) Metropolitan Area, by Salary, October 1942¹

Salary class	All agencies	War agencies			All other agencies
		War Department	Navy Department	Other war agencies ²	
Inside Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area					
\$1,199 and under.....	(³)				(³)
\$1,200-\$1,439.....	10.6	6.2	9.1	6.9	14.6
\$1,440-\$1,619.....	32.2	48.4	36.9	23.8	25.4
\$1,620-\$1,799.....	20.0	22.1	23.7	20.3	18.1
\$1,800-\$1,999.....	10.0	8.5	9.7	10.1	10.8
\$2,000-\$2,499.....	8.5	5.9	7.4	7.8	10.4
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	5.0	3.3	5.1	5.4	5.8
\$3,000-\$3,799.....	4.2	2.4	4.1	5.6	4.7
\$3,800-\$4,499.....	3.3	1.5	2.3	5.8	3.5
\$4,500-\$5,499.....	3.0	.9	1.1	6.3	3.4
\$5,500-\$6,499.....	1.9	.5	.5	4.5	1.9
\$6,500-\$7,999.....	.8	.2	.1	2.2	.9
\$8,000 and over.....	.5	.1	(³)	1.3	.5
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Outside Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area					
\$1,199 and under.....	0.7	0.1	1.4	1.5	1.8
\$1,200-\$1,439.....	19.3	19.4	17.3	23.8	18.4
\$1,440-\$1,619.....	27.2	32.9	22.9	22.0	16.8
\$1,620-\$1,799.....	15.7	17.5	18.1	11.3	11.7
\$1,800-\$1,999.....	9.3	9.2	8.2	10.1	9.8
\$2,000-\$2,499.....	13.1	11.1	15.9	7.1	18.8
\$2,500-\$2,999.....	7.0	5.9	9.3	8.1	8.2
\$3,000-\$3,799.....	4.1	2.5	4.6	6.8	7.0
\$3,800-\$4,499.....	1.9	.9	1.8	4.5	3.6
\$4,500-\$5,499.....	1.1	.4	.4	2.9	2.6
\$5,500-\$6,499.....	.4	.1	.1	1.3	.9
\$6,500-\$7,999.....	.1	(³)	(³)	.4	.3
\$8,000 and over.....	.1	(³)	(²)	.2	.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Excludes Post Office and Agriculture Departments for which data by location were not available.

² Covers Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, The Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Board of Economic Warfare, and Selective Service System.

³ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

For example, inside the Washington metropolitan area 62 percent of the employees received salaries from \$1,440 to \$1,999, as compared with 52 percent in these salary classes outside. Similarly, there were 19 percent receiving salaries of \$2,500 or over inside the Washington area, as compared with 15 percent outside. Corresponding percentages for the salary group of \$5,500 and over were 3 and 0.6. Approximately 13 percent of the employees outside the Washington area received salaries from \$2,000 to \$2,499, as compared with only 9 percent of those inside the area.

Tabulations were not made by service inside and outside the Washington (D. C.) metropolitan area and therefore an explanation cannot be made in terms of service.

An exception to the above pattern of greater concentration of employees in the \$1,440-\$1,999 and \$2,500-and-over salary classes inside the Washington area must be noted in the case of the war agencies other than the War and Navy Departments. In these agencies salaries were consistently higher in the Washington area. Here again, however, the tabulations are not sufficiently detailed to permit an explanation.

Distribution of Salaries in Individual Agencies

Fifteen agencies had median salaries in the range \$2,000-\$2,499. Only 4 agencies had median salaries in higher groups. The National Mediation Board had the highest, between \$3,800 and \$4,499, while for the Executive Office of the President, the Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation, and the Federal Trade Commission the median salary fell in the group \$2,500-\$2,999 (table 5).

At the other extreme were 8 agencies with median salaries in the \$1,440-\$1,619 salary class—the War Department, Office of Price Administration, Selective Service System, Federal Security Agency, Federal Works Agency, Government Printing Office, Smithsonian Institution, and the Veterans' Administration. From another viewpoint, 45 percent of the employees of the Veterans' Administration received salaries of \$1,439 or less, while over a third of the employees of the Office of Price Administration, Federal Security Agency, and Federal Works Agency received \$1,439 or less.

The agencies with the greater proportion of their workers at the higher salary levels and the proportions of their workers who received salaries of \$4,500 or more were as follows: National Mediation Board, 46 percent; Executive Office of the President, 33 percent; Tax Court of the United States, 27 percent; Federal Trade Commission, 24 percent; Bituminous Coal Consumers' Counsel and Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation, 21 percent; Reconstruction Finance Corporation, 20 percent; Securities and Exchange Commission and Tariff Commission, 19 percent; Board of Economic Warfare, 18 percent; Federal Power Commission, 17 percent; Office for Emergency Management, 14 percent; National Labor Relations Board, 13 percent; Interstate Commerce Commission and Department of State, 12 percent; and National Capital Park and Planning Commission, 11 percent.

TABLE 5.—Employment and Salary Distribution in Executive

Federal agency	Total number of employees	Number for whom salary data were not reported	Total reported		Percent of employees receiving specified salaries		
			Number	Percent	\$1, 190 and under	\$1, 200 to \$1, 439	\$1, 440 to \$1, 619
All agencies.....	2, 704, 733	1, 267, 321	1, 437, 412	100.0	3.1	14.9	23.1
War agencies.....	1, 885, 361	1, 077, 742	807, 619	100.0	.4	17.8	31.4
War Department.....	1, 189, 833	610, 387	579, 446	100.0	.1	18.2	34.3
Navy Department.....	529, 835	405, 670	124, 165	100.0	1.2	16.0	25.1
Other war agencies.....	165, 693	61, 685	104, 008	100.0	1.0	18.0	22.6
Maritime Commission.....	6, 601	-----	6, 601	100.0	-----	5.6	21.9
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.....	2, 844	-----	2, 844	100.0	.1	17.3	14.0
The Panama Canal.....	38, 434	38, 155	279	100.0	-----	12.2	17.9
Office for Emergency Management.....	39, 369	395	38, 974	100.0	(1)	8.0	23.2
Office of Censorship.....	11, 910	-----	11, 910	100.0	-----	10.7	22.3
Office of Price Administration.....	35, 720	-----	35, 720	100.0	2.9	35.2	20.6
Office of Strategic Services.....	1, 044	-----	1, 044	100.0	-----	7.5	20.0
Board of Economic Warfare.....	2, 717	-----	2, 717	100.0	-----	3.3	25.1
Selective Service System.....	27, 054	23, 135	3, 919	100.0	(1)	19.1	42.1
All other agencies.....	819, 372	189, 579	629, 793	100.0	6.7	11.2	12.4
Executive Office of the President.....	919	113	806	100.0	-----	4.2	6.2
Department of State.....	7, 665	2, 259	5, 406	100.0	-----	3.9	8.0
Department of the Treasury.....	69, 222	9, 883	59, 339	100.0	(1)	9.8	22.1
Department of Justice.....	29, 574	10	29, 564	100.0	.3	2.4	23.2
Post Office Department.....	316, 302	50, 020	266, 282	100.0	14.3	5.2	3.2
Department of the Interior.....	42, 798	15, 210	27, 588	100.0	2.7	8.2	14.3
Department of Agriculture.....	76, 624	22, 553	54, 071	100.0	(1)	6.1	17.6
Department of Commerce.....	25, 887	6, 654	19, 233	100.0	(1)	4.5	18.5
Department of Labor.....	5, 819	-----	5, 819	100.0	-----	4.7	19.0
Alley Dwelling Authority.....	242	-----	242	100.0	-----	20.3	16.9
American Battle Monuments Commission.....	6	-----	6	100.0	-----	-----	33.3
Bituminous Coal Consumers' Counsel.....	59	3	56	100.0	-----	1.8	12.5
Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System.....	448	448	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation.....	160	5	155	100.0	-----	2.6	8.4
Civil Service Commission.....	7, 617	-----	7, 617	100.0	-----	11.9	29.9
Employees' Compensation Commission.....	530	-----	530	100.0	-----	9.6	37.9
Export-Import Bank of Washington.....	65	16	49	100.0	20.4	2.1	8.2
Federal Communications Commission.....	2, 174	-----	2, 174	100.0	-----	3.9	10.2
Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.....	2, 727	1, 408	1, 319	100.0	-----	5.5	20.3
Federal Power Commission.....	675	-----	675	100.0	-----	3.1	13.9
Federal Security Agency.....	66, 968	35, 764	31, 204	100.0	.5	35.6	20.0
Federal Trade Commission.....	593	-----	593	100.0	-----	4.0	6.7
Federal Works Agency.....	27, 124	9, 054	18, 070	100.0	(1)	36.9	22.9
General Accounting Office.....	8, 022	-----	8, 022	100.0	-----	8.3	22.2
Government Printing Office.....	8, 022	7, 710	312	100.0	-----	17.6	43.3
Interstate Commerce Commission.....	2, 750	-----	2, 750	100.0	-----	4.1	14.5
National Archives.....	445	-----	445	100.0	-----	15.7	13.7
National Capital Park and Planning Commission.....	18	-----	18	100.0	-----	11.1	-----
National Housing Agency.....	16, 214	2, 224	13, 990	100.0	-----	11.1	22.3
National Labor Relations Board.....	888	-----	888	100.0	-----	4.4	20.8
National Mediation Board.....	28	-----	28	100.0	-----	3.6	3.6
Railroad Retirement Board.....	1, 870	-----	1, 870	100.0	-----	15.8	29.4
Reconstruction Finance Corporation.....	7, 396	-----	7, 396	100.0	.1	1.6	8.1
Securities and Exchange Commission.....	1, 389	-----	1, 389	100.0	-----	4.9	16.0
Smithsonian Institution.....	837	7	830	100.0	-----	24.8	27.6
Tariff Commission.....	351	-----	351	100.0	-----	4.6	6.0
Tax Court of the United States.....	130	-----	130	100.0	-----	5.4	6.1
Tennessee Valley Authority.....	41, 096	25, 755	15, 341	100.0	8.2	13.2	19.9
Veterans' Administration.....	45, 718	483	45, 235	100.0	3.7	41.8	16.4

1 Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Branch of Federal Government, by Agency, October 1942

Percent of employees receiving specified salaries—Continued											Federal agency
\$1,620 to \$1,799	\$1,800 to \$1,999	\$2,000 to \$2,499	\$2,500 to \$2,999	\$3,000 to \$3,799	\$3,800 to \$4,499	\$4,500 to \$5,499	\$5,500 to \$6,499	\$6,500 to \$7,999	\$8,000 and over		
13.8	9.0	21.8	6.6	3.7	1.9	1.3	0.5	0.2	0.1	All agencies.	
17.6	9.2	10.8	6.3	3.3	1.6	.9	.4	.2	.1	War agencies.	
17.9	9.2	10.6	5.7	2.5	1.0	.4	.1	(1)	(1)	War Department.	
19.0	8.4	14.6	8.6	4.5	1.9	.5	.2	(1)	.5	Navy Department.	
14.4	10.1	7.4	7.2	6.4	4.9	4.1	2.4	1.0	.5	Other war agencies.	
13.4	7.9	9.9	15.2	16.1	5.5	3.1	1.1	.3	(1)	Maritime Commission.	
11.7	7.0	24.2	16.3	5.1	1.8	1.4	.7	.3	.1	National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.	
24.7	8.9	18.3	9.7	5.4	-----	1.4	.7	.4	.4	The Panama Canal.	
18.3	8.2	6.1	7.9	7.2	7.4	6.7	4.0	1.9	1.1	Office for Emergency Management.	
19.6	35.1	9.6	1.4	6.2	.3	.2	.1	.1	(1)	Office of Censorship.	
7.8	4.2	6.2	6.8	6.3	4.4	3.2	1.7	.5	.2	Office of Price Administration.	
18.3	13.5	11.9	9.1	6.6	5.5	3.1	2.3	1.1	1.1	Office of Strategic Services.	
20.1	9.9	6.8	5.3	6.0	5.9	6.3	6.4	3.2	1.7	Board of Economic Warfare.	
17.5	11.4	6.5	1.7	.9	.2	.3	.1	.1	.1	Selective Service System.	
8.9	8.7	36.0	6.9	4.2	2.2	1.7	.7	.3	.1	All other agencies.	
15.0	9.5	10.3	8.1	7.3	6.7	11.4	10.7	5.5	5.1	Executive Office of the President.	
14.1	7.1	34.2	9.7	6.0	4.6	5.0	2.8	2.3	2.3	Department of State.	
13.9	6.6	26.4	9.4	5.4	2.4	2.6	.9	.4	.1	Department of the Treasury.	
13.2	12.0	19.8	5.3	14.3	4.1	3.3	1.2	.7	.2	Department of Justice.	
2.1	6.3	63.1	4.5	.9	.3	.1	(1)	(1)	(1)	Post Office Department.	
16.7	13.0	19.3	10.5	7.3	4.0	2.5	1.1	.3	.1	Department of the Interior.	
15.2	12.8	15.7	15.6	8.2	3.9	3.2	1.3	.3	.1	Department of Agriculture.	
16.7	15.5	20.3	8.7	7.2	4.0	2.6	1.5	.4	.1	Department of Commerce.	
15.6	5.0	26.4	13.3	6.3	4.5	3.4	1.2	.4	.2	Department of Labor.	
21.1	11.6	8.3	6.2	10.7	1.6	2.1	.8	.4	-----	Alley Dwelling Authority.	
50.0	-----	-----	16.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	American Battle Monuments Commission.	
19.7	10.7	10.7	7.1	10.7	5.4	8.9	8.9	3.6	-----	Bituminous Coal Consumers' Council.	
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	Board of Governors of the Federal Reserve System.	
7.7	11.0	19.3	11.0	7.7	11.6	8.4	3.9	5.2	3.2	Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation.	
13.5	10.4	10.4	14.2	5.1	1.5	1.6	1.0	.3	.2	Civil Service Commission.	
16.6	7.3	7.2	10.4	4.0	2.3	.4	3.0	.7	.6	Employees' Compensation Commission.	
4.1	24.5	24.5	2.0	4.1	2.0	2.0	4.1	2.0	-----	Export-Import Bank of Washington.	
14.8	19.4	15.0	13.7	12.8	4.9	3.1	1.7	.5	-----	Federal Communications Commission.	
14.7	4.9	20.5	9.8	11.5	7.0	2.4	1.7	.5	1.2	Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation.	
14.2	10.4	11.0	8.3	12.4	9.5	10.7	4.9	1.2	.4	Federal Power Commission.	
12.3	9.2	7.9	4.5	4.5	2.4	1.9	.8	.3	.1	Federal Security Agency.	
19.4	9.1	7.4	6.6	11.5	11.1	14.2	7.1	1.7	1.2	Federal Trade Commission.	
7.5	9.9	7.4	3.2	4.8	3.6	2.3	.9	.4	.2	Federal Works Agency.	
16.6	8.6	20.4	13.9	6.1	2.1	.9	.6	.2	.1	General Accounting Office.	
20.8	5.0	5.1	2.3	.6	-----	.3	-----	-----	-----	Government Printing Office.	
16.5	10.9	10.3	11.8	8.7	16.1	6.0	3.9	1.4	.8	Interstate Commerce Commission.	
12.1	11.7	17.1	10.1	9.7	2.5	5.2	1.8	.2	.2	National Archives.	
11.1	11.1	22.2	11.1	5.6	16.7	-----	11.1	-----	-----	National Capital Park and Planning Commission.	
17.2	6.6	8.4	12.1	8.3	6.4	5.0	1.8	.5	.3	National Housing Agency.	
15.5	6.3	4.4	5.7	15.0	14.4	7.1	5.1	.8	.5	National Labor Relations Board.	
-----	3.6	10.7	10.7	-----	21.4	14.3	10.7	10.7	10.7	National Mediation Board.	
15.7	10.7	14.6	6.8	2.6	1.2	1.5	1.0	.4	.3	Railroad Retirement Board.	
10.8	16.9	13.0	10.5	11.5	7.9	11.7	3.2	1.8	2.9	Reconstruction Finance Corporation.	
19.6	7.1	6.1	5.5	10.3	11.6	10.4	5.2	2.4	.9	Securities and Exchange Commission.	
10.8	12.9	12.9	2.5	3.0	.7	3.3	1.0	.4	.1	Smithsonian Institution.	
13.9	11.7	15.1	8.3	12.0	9.4	7.1	6.0	4.5	1.4	Tariff Commission.	
13.1	16.9	20.8	3.1	4.6	3.1	8.4	5.4	.8	12.3	Tax Court of the United States.	
14.7	6.7	19.0	8.5	4.7	2.4	1.3	.8	.4	.2	Tennessee Valley Authority.	
11.6	12.3	5.8	1.5	1.6	2.9	1.7	.6	.1	(1)	Veterans' Administration.	

Salaries of \$8,000 or more were received by 12 percent of the employees of the Tax Court of the United States, by 11 percent of those of the National Mediation Board, by 5 percent of those of the Executive Office of the President, and by 3 percent of those of the Board of Investigation and Research—Transportation and the Reconstruction Finance Corporation.

The agencies with the larger proportion of their employees in the upper salary brackets, it will be observed, are those which require the services of many legal, financial, and other technical experts, while the agencies with the larger proportion of their staff in the lower salary brackets are those with many clerical and custodial but few technical activities.

Comparison of Federal Salaries, December 1938 and October 1942

The professional service showed a slightly higher proportion of employees in the upper salary classes in October 1942 than in December 1938, 29 percent receiving salaries of \$3,800 or over in October 1942, as compared with 27 percent in December 1938. The professional employees receiving less than \$2,000 a year in 1938 were in unclassified positions which were not covered by the present study.

In December 1938, 35 percent of the subprofessional employees received salaries of less than \$1,800 a year, as compared with 45 percent in October 1942 (table 6). No subprofessional employees received less than \$1,200 in October 1942, as compared with 6 percent in December 1938. This was the result of legislation effective August 1, 1942, raising the minimum salary of full-time subprofessional employees from \$1,020 to \$1,200 a year. In December 1938, a smaller proportion of the employees were concentrated in the \$1,200 to \$1,799 range, and because of the inclusion of nonclassified employees, 6 percent received salaries of \$3,800 or over. The October 1942 distribution, on the other hand, stops at the \$2,500–\$2,999 class in which the base pay for the highest subprofessional grade falls.

TABLE 6—Percentage Distribution of Selected Groups of Federal Employees, by Salary, December 1938 and October 1942

Salary class	October 1942			December 1938 ¹		
	Professional	Sub-professional ²	Craft, protective, and custodial ³	Professional	Semi-professional	Service
\$1,199 and under			2.1	1.2	6.1	37.4
\$1,200–\$1,799		44.7	76.5	2.3	28.9	42.3
\$1,800–\$1,999		17.9	11.0	2.7	20.8	6.8
\$2,000–\$3,799	70.9	37.4	10.2	67.3	38.7	12.6
\$3,800 and over	29.1		.2	26.5	5.5	.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Adapted from table 4, Occupations and Salaries in Federal Employment, in Monthly Labor Review for January 1941.

² Called "semiprofessional" in December 1938.

³ Called "service" in December 1938.

In the craft, protective, and custodial service in October 1942, there was a greater proportion of employees in the middle salary range and a smaller proportion in the lower and higher ranges. This is most conspicuous for the lowest salary class, \$1,199 and under, in which 37 percent of the employees fell in 1938 and only 2 percent in 1942. This percentage decline was mainly the result of Public Law No. 694 of the 77th Congress, effective August 1, 1942, which raised the base pay levels of classified positions of service employees by \$120 to \$200 a year. As in the subprofessional group, certain employees in unclassified positions received pay higher than the top salary for classified jobs and are shown in the upper brackets in the 1938 study but not in the present distribution.

Because of the segregation in the earlier study of postmasters and assistants from postal clerks and carriers, and clerical from managerial and administrative employees, comparisons of salary distributions cannot be made for the postal service and the clerical, administrative, and fiscal service of the present study. No comparisons are possible for the trade and manual group because it was excluded from the present study.



Pay of Members of Army and Navy Women's Corps

THE demand for personnel for war work is multiplying the number of feminine wage earners and greatly changing their occupational makeup. One of the developments of this movement has been the rapid expansion of the women's services of the Armed Forces, notably the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC)¹ and the women appointed for the Women's Volunteer Emergency Service as a branch of the Naval Reserve (WAVES). On June 1, 1943, the first-named organization had a membership of 62,500, the second was 17,000 strong, and both bodies were expecting large numbers of new members.²

Qualifications.—For entrance into these auxiliaries the following qualifications are required:

For the WAACS: Must be a citizen of the United States, between 21 and 45 years of age, between 5 and 6 feet tall, weighing at least 100 pounds, must pass intelligence and physical tests, must be single, or married without children under 14.

For the WAVES: Must be a citizen, must pass physical and aptitude tests, must be single, or married (but not to a man in armed forces), and must leave no children under 18. After training period, the volunteer is free to marry anyone but a man in the Navy and may hold her status as a Naval Reserve. Enlisted WAVES are required to have at least a high-school diploma, or to have taken business-school courses and had supplementary experience which together would be comparable to a high-school education. The eligible ages range from 20 to 36.

¹ An act of July 1, 1943, substituted the Women's Army Corps (WAC) for the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC). The ages for entrance in the new corps are from 20 to 50 and eligibles must be between 4 feet 10 inches and 6 feet tall. The members are given actual instead of equivalent army rank.

² Data are from United States Office of War Information, War Jobs for Women, Washington, D. C., November 1942; also data received by telephone from that office; catalog of exhibit, Women in War Work, prepared by Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania, in cooperation with United States War Manpower Commission—Woman's Program, United States Department of Labor—Women's Bureau, and United States Office of War Information, arranged by Ladies Home Journal, Curtis Publishing Co., Philadelphia, February 1943.

The qualifications for an officer in the WAVES are: Not under 20 nor over 50 years of age, a graduate of an accredited university or college or must have had 2 years of administrative or technical experience in professional or business fields supplementing 2 college years.

Types of work.—The WAACS are assigned to various army jobs and thus liberate men to fight. These women are called upon to serve as accountants, aircraft warners, bakers, bookkeepers, bookkeeping-machine operators, camera technicians, cashiers, chauffeurs, classification specialists, clerks, cooks, draftsmen, librarians, machine-record operators, messengers, messenger-center clerks, mimeograph operators, motor-vehicle dispatchers, musicians, photo-laboratory technicians, postal clerks, radio operators, radio repairers, sales clerks, statisticians, stenographers, stock-record clerks, telegraph printer operators, telephone operators, teletypists, truck drivers, typists, and weather observers.

Except in a few occupations training is not required.

At present, however, several schools are training women along the lines of their special aptitudes.

The WAVES were at first to include 1,000 officers and 10,000 enlisted women. Recently the Navy has reported that it will employ as many as will be required. This branch of the Naval Reserve especially desires women who have had education and experience in accounting; aeronautical engineering; astronomy; business statistics; civil, electrical, mechanical, and radio engineering; electronics; mathematics; metallurgy; modern languages; or physics.

Practical knowledge of the following subjects is reported as possibly helpful: Architecture, business administration, chemical engineering, chemistry, commerce, economics, English, finance, geography, geology, history, industrial engineering, journalism, library science, mineralogy, political science, psychology, and transportation.

Included in experience which the Navy regards as desirable for the WAVES are supervisory jobs in telegraph and cable offices and maintenance work on teletype machines.

Among those asked to enroll are business-machine demonstrators, junior executives, licensed radio operators, lexicographers, personnel supervisors, statisticians, typewriting teachers, and ultra-high-frequency engineers. The first training schools for this women's auxiliary service were in radio, storekeeping, and Navy clerical work.

Remuneration.—The pay prescribed by law for members of the two women's auxiliary corps described above is as follows:³

³ Members of the Women's Army Corps receive the same pay as the members of the preceding organization, in accordance with their actual Army rank corresponding with their former equivalent Army status.

Pay Scale of Members of the WAACS and the WAVES, 1943¹

Corps and rank	Equivalent Army rank	Base pay
<i>WAACS</i>		
Officers:		<i>Per month</i> ¹
Director	Colonel	\$333.33
Assistant director	Lieutenant colonel	291.67
Field director	Major	250.00
First officer	Captain	200.00
Second officer	First lieutenant	166.67
Third officer	Second lieutenant	150.00
Enrolled members:		
Chief leader	Master sergeant	138.00
First leader	First sergeant	138.00
Technical leader	Technical sergeant	114.00
Staff leader	Staff sergeant	96.00
Technician, third grade	Technician, third grade	96.00
Leader	Sergeant	78.00
Technician, fourth grade	Technician, fourth grade	78.00
Junior leader	Corporal	66.00
Technician, fifth grade	Technician, fifth grade	66.00
Auxiliary, first class	Private, first class	54.00
Auxiliary	Private	50.00
Officers:		<i>Per year</i> ²
Lieutenants—		
Senior grade		2,400.00
Junior grade		2,000.00
Ensign		1,800.00
		<i>Per month</i> ³
Chief petty officer		126.00
Apprentice seaman		50.00

¹ In addition, subsistence—food, clothes, living quarters, dental and medical care—is provided.

² Upon entrance a cash allowance is made of \$250 for uniforms, and rent and subsistence allowances are granted in addition to base pay.

³ Upon entrance a cash allowance is made of \$200 for uniforms. Subsistence and quarters allowance of \$2.75 per day is provided in addition to base pay.



Salaries in Public Libraries, 1941-42

SALARIES paid in public libraries varied widely from city to city in 1942. For example, salaries of department heads in public libraries in cities of over 200,000 population ranged from \$1,140 to \$4,320; of branch and subbranch librarians, from \$840 to \$3,800; of catalogers, from \$960 to \$3,000; and of clerical assistants, from \$600 to \$2,442. The low and the high salaries for these four positions are shown in the following table giving data from a compilation of public-library statistics published by the American Library Association.¹

¹ A. L. A. Bulletin (Chicago), April 1943.

Annual Salaries for Specified Positions in Public Libraries in Cities of Over 200,000 Population, 1941-42

City	Department heads		Branch and subbranch librarians		Catalogers		Clerical assistants		Working hours per week
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	
United States and Canada:									
High.....	\$3,400	\$4,320	\$2,904	\$3,800	\$2,220	\$3,000	\$1,860	\$2,442	44
Median.....	2,147	2,975	1,610	2,151	1,500	1,784	900	1,500	40
Low.....	1,140	1,676	840	1,148	960	1,214	600	900	35
<i>United States</i>									
Akron, Ohio.....	1,860	2,640	1,740	2,040	1,620	1,620	720	1,080	38½
Atlanta, Ga. ¹	2,310	2,310	1,320	1,980	1,584	1,584	1,254	1,452	40
Baltimore, Md.....	2,500	3,400	1,600	2,080	1,380	1,840	840	1,480	42
Birmingham, Ala. ²	1,140	2,820	930	1,920			1,080	1,080	40
Boston, Mass. (circulation division).....	2,875	3,475	2,275	2,525			1,040	1,852	42
Buffalo, N. Y.....	2,835	3,255	1,785	2,415			780	2,100	37¾
Chicago, Ill.....	1,920	3,660	1,740	3,600	1,860	3,000	900	2,060	39¾
Cincinnati, Ohio ¹	2,000	3,200	1,400	1,880	1,350	1,700	836	1,900	40
Cleveland, Ohio ³	2,900	4,200	2,600	3,300	1,740	3,000	1,080	2,300	40
Dallas, Tex.....	1,380	1,920	1,200	1,560	1,380	1,380	660	960	41
Dayton, Ohio ⁴	2,100	3,300	1,260	2,520	2,040	2,280	720	1,080	40
Denver, Colo.....	1,800	2,500	1,200	1,560	1,200	1,500	600	960	38
Detroit, Mich.....	3,300	4,320	2,904	3,300			1,122	2,442	43
Houston, Tex.....	1,920	2,220	900	1,680	1,500	1,500	660	1,020	40
Indianapolis, Ind.....	1,980	3,000	1,590	2,988	960	1,680	930	1,440	42
Kansas City, Mo.....	1,880	2,880	1,740	2,400	1,440	1,740	780	1,080	44
Los Angeles, Calif. (city).....	2,400	3,120	1,980	2,700	1,500	1,920	1,260	1,920	40
Los Angeles, Calif. (county).....			1,140	1,908	1,500	1,992	1,020	1,740	40
Louisville, Ky. ¹	2,100	2,460	1,620	1,920			780	1,320	40
Memphis, Tenn.....	1,680	2,220	840	1,850	1,380	1,680	720	1,080	42
Milwaukee, Wis.....	2,400	3,600	1,800	2,220	2,220	2,220	900	1,500	40
Minneapolis, Minn. ³	2,400	3,000	1,860	2,500	1,260	1,860	900	1,380	38½
New Orleans, La.....	1,541	1,676	1,016	1,148	1,082	1,214	900	900	42
New York City ⁵	2,195	4,000	1,800	2,820	1,320	2,220	660	2,280	40
N. Y. P. L. circulation department ⁶	2,400	3,600	2,160	2,820	1,500	2,220	660	2,280	40
Brooklyn.....	2,820	4,000	2,100	2,820	1,560	2,220	820	2,040	40
Queens.....	2,195	3,600	1,800	2,820	1,320	1,980	840	1,500	40
Newark, N. J.....	1,500	3,900	1,600	3,200	2,000	2,300	1,000	2,300	39
Oakland, Calif.....	2,340	2,520	1,860	1,980	1,860	1,860	1,260	1,800	40
Oklahoma City, Okla.....	1,560	2,100	1,200	1,500	1,500	1,500			44
Omaha, Nebr.....	1,500	2,220	1,380	1,740	1,260	1,380	1,260	1,260	40½
Philadelphia, Pa.....	2,250	2,950	1,700	2,050	1,600	1,750	1,200	2,050	35
Pittsburgh, Pa. ⁵	1,732	4,000	1,872	2,184	1,440	1,872	900	1,680	40
Old City.....	3,000	4,000	1,872	2,184	1,440	1,872	900	1,680	40
Allegheny ⁵	1,732	2,310	2,079	2,079	1,701	1,701			42
Providence, R. I. ⁵	1,820	2,600	1,508	1,976	1,300	2,100	988	988	40
Elmwood, P. L. ⁵					2,100	2,100			44
Providence, F. L.....	1,820	2,600	1,508	1,976	1,300	1,508	988	988	40
Rochester, N. Y.....	1,860	3,360	1,860	2,300	1,620	1,620	840	1,600	37½
St. Louis, Mo.....	1,710	3,600	1,500	2,190	1,350	2,160	600	1,200	40
St. Paul, Minn.....			1,601	2,118	1,818	1,818	943	1,962	39
San Antonio, Tex.....	1,884	1,884	1,080	1,500					40
San Diego, Calif.....	2,580	2,580	2,100	2,208	2,100	2,100	1,140	1,536	42
San Francisco, Calif.....	2,340	3,000	1,920	2,340	1,800	2,040	1,860	2,160	42
Seattle, Wash.....	2,400	2,940	1,800	2,460	1,560	1,980	900	1,500	40
Syracuse, N. Y.....	1,500	2,300	1,500	2,100	1,300	1,500	720	1,200	39½
Toledo, Ohio.....	2,340	2,820	1,400	2,320	1,200	1,740	780	1,080	38½
Washington, D. C.....	3,400	3,800	1,800	3,800	1,800	2,100	1,260	1,920	44
Youngstown, Ohio ¹	2,400	3,300	1,020	1,920	1,620	1,620	1,020	1,560	38
<i>Canada</i>									
Vancouver, B. C.....	2,220	2,400	1,920	1,920	1,380	1,680	780	900	41
Winnipeg, Man.....	1,920	1,920	1,560	1,560	1,260	1,260	1,500	1,500	38

¹ Serves city and county.² Serves city and part of county.³ Excludes statistics for county departments.⁴ Provides extension service to all residents of county not served by local library.⁵ Omitted from high, median, and low as shown for United States and Canada.⁶ Serves 3 boroughs—Bronx, Manhattan, and Richmond.

Employment and Wages In São Paulo, Brazil, 1942 and 1943¹

FIGURES compiled by the State Federation of Industries in the Brazilian State of São Paulo show the number of persons employed in the following eight industrial groups: Food, textiles, metallurgy, chemicals, building and construction (including quarries), graphic arts and miscellaneous, urban transportation, and light and power. Of the 336,439 workers in these industries, 202,352 (60.1 percent) were employed in the city of São Paulo, and 134,087 (39.9 percent) in the rest of the State. Persons shown as engaged in other employments in the city of São Paulo numbered 5,757, and in the rest of the State 63,960, making a total of 406,156 persons in classified employments—5.6 percent of the entire State population. The number in these classified employments in the city of São Paulo constituted over 20 percent of its total population.

For 20 classes of workers in 17 leading domestic and foreign companies in the city of São Paulo and suburbs, the lowest hourly wage rate, that for bricklayers, was 1 milreis per hour. The highest monthly rate was 2,000 milreis for foremen and the highest hourly rate, also for foremen, was 4 milreis. Wide variation in wage rates exists between different classes of workers in the same enterprise and between the same classes of workers in different companies.

Employment

Data showing the number of workers employed in certain industries in the Brazilian State of São Paulo, compiled by the State Federation of Industries, are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Number of Workers Employed in Specified Industries, in City of São Paulo and Elsewhere in State of São Paulo, 1943*

Industry	Persons employed		
	Total	São Paulo city	Elsewhere in State
All industries.....	336, 439	202, 352	134, 087
Food (cold storage, coffee, meat packing houses, sugar, flour mills, bakeries, dairy, etc).....	57, 700	35, 500	22, 200
Textiles (cotton, silk, wool, jute, miscellaneous).....	111, 500	61, 000	50, 500
Metallurgy (steel mills, foundries, machine shops, electrical material).....	61, 800	38, 800	23, 000
Chemical (rubber, chemical products, soap, paint, oils, leather, glass, paper mills).....	20, 500	14, 000	6, 500
Building and construction (buildings and building construction, cement, ceramics, quarries, sawmills).....	66, 400	38, 700	27, 700
Paper, printing, newspapers, and miscellaneous.....	6, 000	4, 000	2, 000
Streetcars and other urban transportation.....	3, 520	3, 234	286
Light and power.....	9, 019	7, 118	1, 901

For the State of São Paulo, the manufacturing industry employing the greatest number of persons was textiles, with 27.4 percent of the industrial population; other industries each employing more than 10 percent of the industrial population were building and construction

¹ Data are from reports of Cecil M. P. Cross, United States consul general, and Julian S. Duncan, junior economic analyst, at São Paulo, Brazil; and *Estadística* (Journal of the Inter-American Statistical Institute, Mexico, D. F.), March 1943.

(16.3 percent), metallurgy (15.2 percent), food (14.2 percent), and railways (11.5 percent). These 5 industrial groups gave employment to 84.6 percent of the classified industrial workers in the State.

Figures collected by the United States consulate general at São Paulo obtained the following data for certain other employments.

	Persons employed
Entire State.....	63, 960
Railways ¹	47, 000
State militia.....	8, 700
Telephone.....	4, 332
Police force.....	3, 928
City of São Paulo.....	5, 757
Water and sewage.....	2, 950
Fire department.....	1, 212
Night watchmen.....	800
Gas.....	795

¹ Estimate based on figures for 1939.

Wage Rates

Data on wages above minimum wage rates and changes since the beginning of the war are fragmentary. Some figures, however, have been compiled by the United States consulate general in São Paulo for 17 leading domestic and foreign companies which are believed to pay the highest wages in São Paulo. From available data on wage increases since January 1, 1941, for 27 of the most important firms in São Paulo, it appears that the increases made by these 17 selected companies amount to more than 10 percent. A substantial proportion of the firms made their cost-of-living adjustment in the form of an increase in wages. On the other hand, the data on wage increases in all industrial establishments in the State show an average of approximately 10 percent, usually paid in the form of a bonus, which is less likely to be permanent than are wage increases.

The minimum and maximum hourly rates of pay of 20 classes of workers for the 17 companies are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Minimum and Maximum Hourly and Monthly Rates of Pay in 17 Companies in São Paulo, 1942-43

Class of worker	Rate of pay		Class of worker	Rate of pay	
	Per hour	Per month		Per hour	Per month
Laborers:	<i>Milreis</i> ¹	<i>Milreis</i> ¹	Automobile sol-	<i>Milreis</i> ¹	<i>Milreis</i> ¹
Unskilled.....	1. 100-1. 500	-----	derers.....	1. 500- 3. 000	-----
Semiskilled.....	1. 100-1. 700	-----	Welders.....	1. 400- 3. 000	-----
Skilled.....	1. 100-2. 800	-----	Electricians.....	1. 700- 3. 500	600. 000
Truck,skilled.....	1. 350-2. 400	-----	Bricklayers.....	1. 000-11. 400	-----
Watchmen.....	1. 100-2. 100	300. 000-450. 000	Assistant brick-	-----	-----
Painters.....	1. 200-3. 000	-----	layers.....	1. 100- 2. 100	-----
Carpenters.....	1. 200-2. 500	-----	Blacksmiths.....	1. 300- 3. 000	-----
Joiners.....	1. 500-3. 000	600. 000-700. 000	Foremen.....	2. 200- 4. 000	550. 000-2, 000. 000
Mechanics:	-----	-----	Assistant fore-	-----	-----
Adjustment.....	1. 600-5. 500	-----	men.....	1. 700- 2. 800	400. 000-1, 000. 000
Automobile.....	1. 600-3. 000	600. 000-650. 000	Gangers.....	1. 100- 4. 000	500. 000- 700. 000
Assistant.....	1. 100-2. 500	350. 000-450. 000			

¹ Official exchange rate of Brazilian milreis (equivalent to the monetary unit "cruzeiros," effective from November 1, 1942) for 1942-May 1943=6.06 cents in United States currency.

Wage and Hour Regulation

Wage Orders Under Fair Labor Standards Act¹

40-Cent Rate for Cottonseed and Peanut-Crushing Industry

BEGINNING August 16, 1943, the minimum rate of pay became 40 cents an hour for workers in the cottonseed and peanut-crushing industry, by order of the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. As defined in the wage order, the industry consists of the manufacture from cottonseed and peanuts of crude oil and byproducts, including (but without limitation) cake, hulls, and linters. Not included in the industry is the manufacture of feeds.

40-Cent Wage for Vegetable Fats and Oils Industry

By wage order, effective August 16, 1943, 40 cents an hour became the minimum wage in the vegetable fats and oils industry. The industry, as defined, includes the extraction of crude oils and fats from vegetable materials (other than cottonseed and peanuts) and the refining and processing of all vegetable fats and oils, including those derived from cottonseed and peanuts, into oleomargarine, cooking and other edible fats and oils, and into inedible fats and oils. Also included is the manufacture of the byproducts of the industry including (but without limitation) hulls, cake, meal, and soap stock. The industry does not include the manufacture of essential oils; feeds; nitrated, sulphonated, and similarly processed oils; mixtures principally composed of animal fats and oils or containing petroleum; and crude, refined, or processed wood and gum naval stores.

Changes in Wages and Hours in Agriculture in England and Wales

CHANGES made in minimum agricultural wage rates in England and Wales benefited woman employees by extending the principle of the guaranteed minimum weekly wage to women employed in agriculture in every county.² The change became effective on June 20, 1943, from which date women over 18 years of age were to receive a minimum of 45s. a week for a 50-hour week during 8 months of the year, and for a 48-hour week in the remaining 4 winter months.

¹ Data are from Federal Register (Washington), August 3, 1943.

² Data are from Report No. 443 by Alton T. Murray, assistant agricultural attaché, United States Embassy, London; and the Economist (London), June 19, 1943.

In five areas where the hours of work are shorter, the minimum wage is to be reduced proportionately.

No change was made in the guaranteed wage of adult male workers, whose weekly rate of pay was raised to 60s. in December 1941. However, a claim for an 80s. minimum was to be discussed by the Wages Board in July.

For juvenile males the minimum weekly wage proposed is 56s. for those aged 20 years; 52s. for 19-year-olds; 48s. for 18-year-olds; and proportionately less for younger workers. Minimum standards were also fixed for females under the age of 18 years. For children under the age of 14 the rate is 5d. an hour.

Basic hours were reduced to 52 per week in the 8 "summer" months and 48 in winter, on an average for the whole year. Overtime compensation is at the rate of 1s. 5d. per hour for men and 1s. 1d. for women, on the 5 weekdays. On the weekly half-days, Sundays, and public holidays, the overtime rate of pay is 1s. 9d. per hour for men and 1s. 4d. for women. Rates for casual and part-time workers will be at least pro rata to the appropriate weekly minimum.

None of the rates established prevent the payment of higher rates.

Special wages or extra payments were continued in 13 areas where workers are engaged in tending animals, in order to cover the longer hours of work required. Such payments were brought into closer relation with the overtime rates, with the result that wages of employees engaged in tending animals were raised in most of the areas concerned.

In a few areas the hourly rates for casual and part-time work were increased slightly over the proportionate weekly minimum rates; in all other areas the proportionate rates applied.

Provision was made for the liberalization of the paid-vacation policy. In a number of areas holidays with pay fixed under the Holidays with Pay Act were increased to 4 days a year. Elsewhere existing provisions for 1 week's paid vacation were continued. In general, the Agricultural Wages Board's decision, that work on not less than four public holidays should be defined as overtime, is being observed. In a few areas only three such holidays are so specified, but any existing provisions for public holidays in excess of four remain in effect.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

Changes in Cost of Living in Large Cities, July 1943

WITH meat prices cut back by the OPA and vegetables seasonally lower, the cost of living for city workers dropped 0.8 percent from mid-June to mid-July—its first substantial decline since the attack on Pearl Harbor. Retail food prices as a group, representing about two-fifths of total living costs, declined by 2.0 percent. Clothing costs rose 0.5 percent. Other costs, including housefurnishings, utility rates and services, were stable or increased moderately.

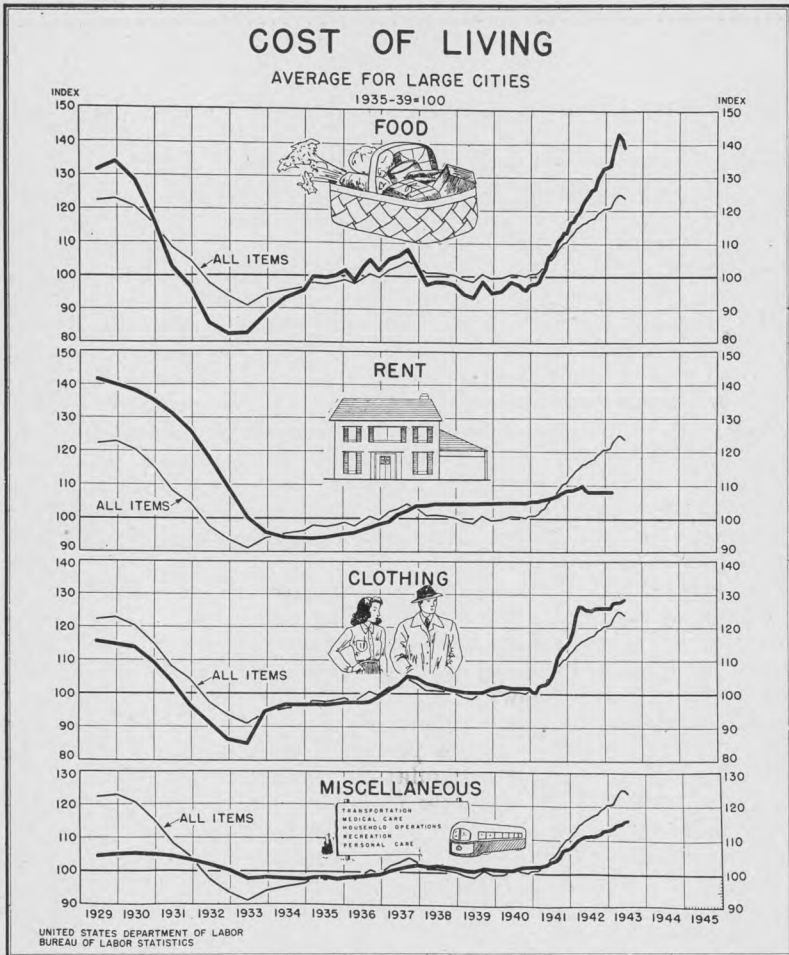
Until this summer, the rise in living costs had been almost uninterrupted since Germany invaded Poland, only two previous declines having occurred—one during the 3-month period immediately after the outbreak of war, following a speculative rise in food costs, and the other, a small decline of 0.2 percent, from May to June of this year. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of the cost of living on July 15 was at 123.8 percent of its 1935–39 average, about 5 percent above September 1942 and 23 percent above January 1941, base date of the “Little Steel” formula.

The substantial declines for most meats in July resulted from reductions in maximum prices ordered by the OPA. They included a drop of 8½ percent for beef and veal, 8 percent for pork, and 4 percent for lamb. Prices of chickens, which were not affected by the OPA cutback, were down fractionally—0.5 percent. There were continued reports of acute shortages of beef and poultry in many areas. Fresh-fish prices rose 4 percent from mid-June to mid-July, but were subject to an OPA regulation on July 22, establishing maximum retail prices below the July 15 level. On the average, prices of meat, including fish, were down 5.5 percent.

Victory-garden produce and larger commercial supplies helped to accelerate the normal summer decline in vegetable prices which in almost all cases was greater than usual from June to July. Cabbage prices declined 35 percent, beets 27 percent, white potatoes 15 percent, lettuce 11 percent, sweetpotatoes 5 percent, and onions 2 percent. Prices of spinach, on the other hand, rose 42 percent, with supplies extremely scarce in some cities. Despite the many summer reductions, fresh-vegetable prices as a group were still about 40 percent above those of July 1942.

Aside from spinach and fresh fish, the only important price increases among foods were seasonal advances of 5 percent for eggs, a greater-than-seasonal increase of 10 percent for oranges, and smaller advances for dried fruits and some cereals.

Clothing prices in July were, on the average, about 0.5 percent above those of June, mainly because of a fairly widespread substitution of higher-priced lines of women's percale house dresses, men's business shirts, and chambray work shirts.



The cost of miscellaneous goods and services rose 0.2 percent, with medical expenses and charges for beauty- and barber-shop and laundry services somewhat higher than in June. The higher costs for laundry services were the result of local adjustments in maximum charges by the OPA, in most cases because of higher labor costs.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities on July 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: August 15.....	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: January 15.....	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
1942: May 15.....	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
July 15.....	117.0	124.6	125.3	108.0	106.3	122.8	111.1
September 15.....	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
1943: June 15.....	124.8	141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4	115.7
July 15.....	123.8	139.0	128.6	(2)	107.7	125.4	115.9

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
² Rents not surveyed in July.

TABLE 2—Percent of Change ¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities, Specified Periods

Period	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent ²	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
June 15, 1943, to July 15, 1943...	-0.8	-2.0	+0.5	(3)	0	0	+0.2
Sept. 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943...	+5.1	+9.8	+2.2	0	+1.4	+1.5	+4.0
July 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943...	+5.8	+11.6	+2.6	0	+1.3	+2.1	+4.3
May 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943...	+6.7	+14.3	+1.9	-1.7	+2.7	+2.6	+4.5
Jan. 15, 1941, to July 15, 1943...	+22.8	+42.1	+27.7	+2.9	+6.8	+25.3	+13.7
Aug. 15, 1939, to July 15, 1943...	+25.6	+48.7	+28.2	+3.5	+10.5	+24.7	+15.4

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.
² Changes through June 15, 1943.
³ Rents are surveyed at quarterly dates—Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, Dec. 15.

TABLE 3.—Percent of Change ¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities, June 15 to July 15, 1943, by Groups

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	² -0.8	³ -2.0	⁴ +0.5	⁵ 0	⁴ 0	⁴ +0.2
New England: Boston.....	-1.3	-3.1	+6	0	0	+2
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo.....	-1.3	-3.2	+2	0	0	0
New York.....	0	-2	+9	-1	0	0
Philadelphia.....	-1.0	-2.4	+8	0	0	0
Pittsburgh.....	-1.0	-2.6	+2	0	+6	+3
East North Central:						
Chicago.....	-1.0	-2.4	+5	0	0	0
Cincinnati.....	-6	-1.6	+8	0	+2	0
Cleveland.....	-1.2	-3.0	+6	0	0	0
Detroit.....	-6	-2.0	+3	0	0	+6
West North Central:						
Kansas City.....	⁶ -9	⁶ -2.8	+1.4	0	0	+2
Minneapolis.....	-7	-2.1	+2	0	0	+2
St. Louis.....	⁷ -5	⁷ -1.3	+3	0	0	+1
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore.....	-1.7	-4.1	+9	0	0	0
Savannah.....	-1	-5	+1.4	+1	0	0
Washington, D. C.....	-6	-1.8	+3	0	0	+1
East South Central: Birmingham.....	-2	-7	+2	0	0	+1
West South Central: Houston.....	-6	-1.9	+8	0	+2	+3
Mountain: Denver.....	-7	-1.8	+1	+7	0	+1
Pacific:						
Los Angeles.....	-1.0	-3.0	0	0	-1	+1.0
San Francisco.....	-1.0	-2.7	-2	-1	-3	+9
Seattle.....	-1.5	-3.9	+4	0	+3	+6

¹ Based on indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

² Rents are surveyed at quarterly dates—Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, Dec. 15.

³ Based on prices for 56 cities collected on the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.

⁴ Based on data for 21 cities.

⁵ Based on data for 34 cities.

⁶ Indexes for June revised: All items 121.8; food 135.8.

⁷ Indexes for June revised: All items 123.7; food 143.5.

TABLE 4.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities, Specified Periods

City	Percent of change from—				
	July 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943	Aug. 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943	Jan. 1, 1942, to July 15, 1943	May 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943	Sept. 15, 1942, to July 15, 1943
Average: Large cities	+5.8	+25.6	+22.8	+6.7	+5.1
New England: Boston	+3.8	+23.8	+21.3	+6.0	+3.4
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo	+4.3	+28.0	+23.7	+4.6	+4.6
New York	+7.5	+25.1	+22.6	+9.3	+6.4
Philadelphia	+5.4	+25.4	+23.6	+6.9	+4.9
Pittsburgh	+6.0	+25.6	+22.1	+6.7	+5.2
East North Central:					
Chicago	+5.6	+24.5	+21.4	+5.5	+4.8
Cincinnati	+5.9	+27.0	+24.1	+6.6	+4.7
Cleveland	+7.1	+27.7	+25.2	+7.5	+6.8
Detroit	+6.3	+27.9	+24.8	+6.1	+6.4
West North Central:					
Kansas City	+6.1	+22.4	+22.7	+5.8	+5.2
Minneapolis	+4.2	+21.4	+18.9	+4.4	+3.6
St. Louis	+5.8	+25.5	+21.9	+6.5	+5.6
South Atlantic:					
Baltimore	+6.2	+27.6	+25.0	+6.5	+5.1
Savannah	+8.7	+33.1	+30.4	+9.3	+8.3
Washington, D. C.	+5.7	+24.7	+23.1	+7.2	+5.0
East South Central: Birmingham	+7.6	+28.0	+24.1	+6.2	+6.1
West South Central: Houston	+5.0	+21.6	+20.1	+5.4	+3.8
Mountain: Denver	+5.7	+24.3	+22.6	+6.1	+4.6
Pacific:					
Los Angeles	+4.2	+24.4	+22.0	+5.8	+2.7
San Francisco	+7.7	+28.3	+25.1	+8.3	+5.4
Seattle	+5.4	+25.8	+23.6	+4.1	+2.9

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, July 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	² 123.8	³ 139.0	⁴ 128.6	⁵ 107.7	⁴ 125.4	⁴ 115.9
New England: Boston	120.2	132.5	124.0	118.4	119.8	112.4
Middle Atlantic:						
Buffalo	126.1	140.5	127.8	104.8	126.6	121.6
New York	123.8	141.1	129.1	110.6	119.0	115.0
Philadelphia	122.6	135.8	128.5	105.8	123.9	114.8
Pittsburgh	123.6	138.6	131.8	110.3	124.3	114.5
East North Central:						
Chicago	122.9	136.7	124.3	103.2	120.4	113.8
Cincinnati	123.6	137.0	133.7	103.8	128.8	116.8
Cleveland	127.7	145.0	131.6	113.5	125.1	115.3
Detroit	126.0	138.8	129.7	108.8	123.0	122.7
West North Central:						
Kansas City	⁶ 120.7	⁶ 132.0	127.1	107.9	120.3	116.9
Minneapolis	121.0	131.3	128.0	101.9	125.8	118.4
St. Louis	⁶ 123.1	⁶ 141.6	129.3	106.2	117.6	112.4
South Atlantic:						
Baltimore	125.9	146.3	128.6	106.7	129.0	114.3
Savannah	132.2	153.0	132.4	113.2	121.5	122.6
Washington, D. C.	123.0	140.1	135.9	105.3	131.5	120.3
East South Central: Birmingham	126.1	140.9	129.5	102.4	121.8	116.0
West South Central: Houston	122.5	137.4	130.4	92.8	123.0	118.3
Mountain: Denver	122.6	138.4	124.3	100.4	121.9	116.2
Pacific:						
Los Angeles	125.0	142.4	129.6	94.2	119.2	118.4
San Francisco	127.4	145.7	127.3	92.1	118.7	124.3
Seattle	126.2	140.9	130.9	101.9	121.2	123.5

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—Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, Dec. 15.

³ Based on prices for 56 cities collected on the Tuesday nearest the 15th of the month.

⁴ Based on data for 21 cities.

⁵ Based on data for 34 cities.

⁶ Indexes for June revised; see footnotes 6 and 7, table 3.

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of Living¹ in Large Cities, 1935 to June 1943

Year	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	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
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	124.1	140.6	127.9	108.0	107.5	124.8	114.9
May 15	125.1	143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	125.1	115.3
June 15	124.8	141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4	115.7
July 15	123.8	139.0	128.6	(²)	107.7	125.4	115.9

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities
² Rents collected at quarterly dates—Mar. 15, June 15, Sept. 15, and Dec. 15.



Food Prices in July 1943

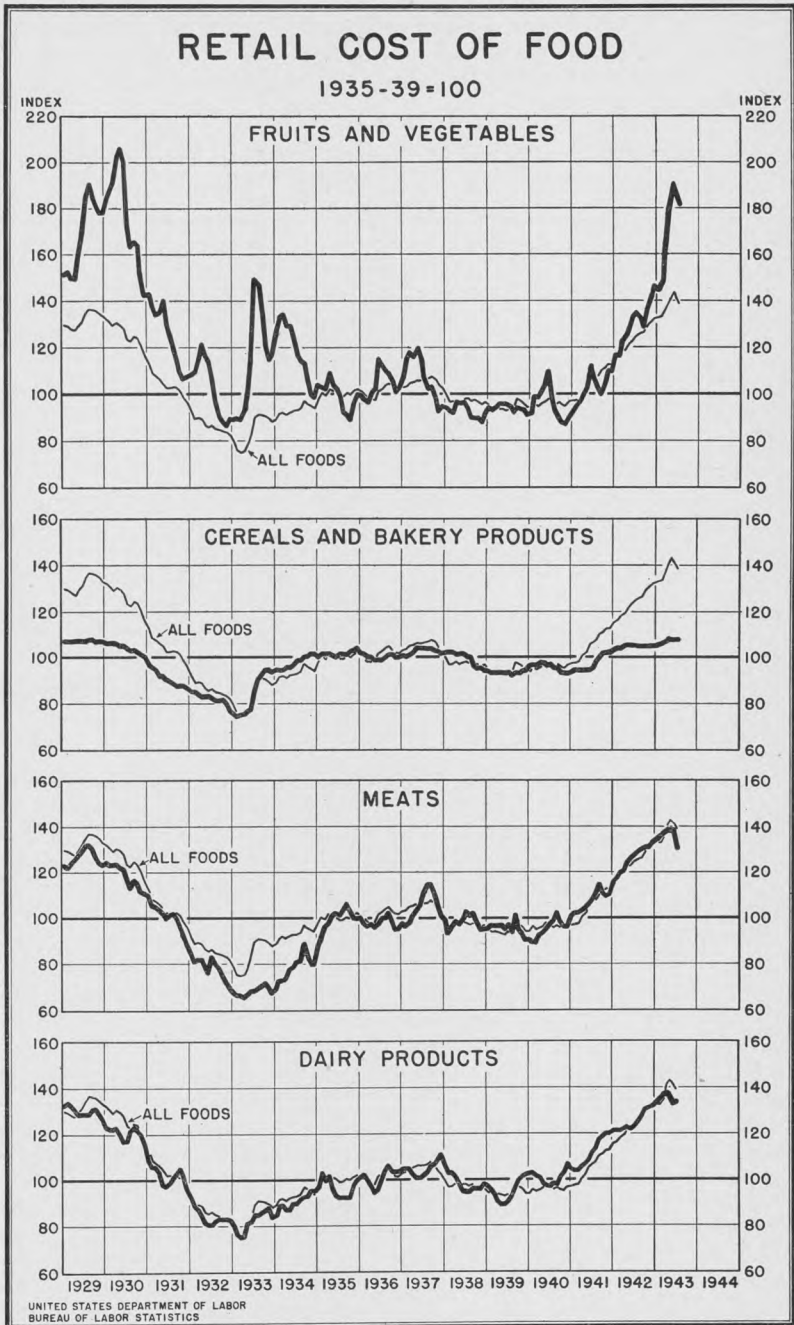
PERCENTAGE increases in retail food costs on July 13, compared with June 1943, July and September 1942, January 1941, and August 1939, are presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Percent of Change in Retail Prices of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ in Specified Periods, by Commodity Groups

Commodity group	Percent of change from—				
	June 15, 1943, to July 13, 1943	Sept. 15, 1942, to July 13, 1943	July 14, 1942, to July 13, 1943	Jan. 14, 1941, to July 13, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to July 13, 1943
All foods	-2.0	+9.8	+11.6	+42.1	+48.7
Cereals and bakery products	+1	+2.1	+2.4	+13.4	+15.2
Meats	-5.5	+1	+2.5	+29.3	+36.6
Beef and veal	-8.5	-4.6	-2.8	+9.9	+20.7
Pork	-8.1	-7.0	-5.6	+33.9	+31.0
Lamb	-4.3	+2.1	+2.6	+38.3	+38.2
Chickens	-5	+9.5	+16.5	+50.6	+54.8
Fish, fresh and canned	+3.6	+23.8	+29.2	+75.5	+109.1
Dairy products	+1	+4.9	+9.0	+27.4	+43.8
Eggs	+5.1	-1.0	+18.0	+57.7	+69.3
Fruits and vegetables	-3.5	+39.8	+33.6	+94.3	+96.2
Fresh	-4.1	+48.8	+39.4	+107.6	+108.9
Canned	0	+5.4	+6.6	+42.8	+42.5
Dried	+3	+10.9	+18.5	+59.6	+76.1
Beverages	0	+6	+1.4	+37.0	+31.2
Fats and oils	0	+4.8	+5.4	+57.5	+49.7
Sugar and sweets	0	-4	-1	+32.7	+32.3

¹ The number of cities included in the index was changed from 51 to 56 in March 1943, with the necessary adjustments for maintaining comparability. At the same time the number of foods in the index was increased from 54 to 61.





Details by Food Groups

Indexes of retail food costs, by commodity groups, are shown in table 2 for July 1943, August 1939, and important intervening months. The accompanying charts show the trends in the cost of all foods for January 1913 through July 1943, and for major groups for January 1929 through July 1943.

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56¹ Large Cities Combined,² by Commodity Groups, in Specified Months

Commodity group	[1935-39=100]					
	1943		1942		1941	1939
	July 13 ³	June 15	Sept. 15	July 14	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods.....	139.0	141.9	126.6	124.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products.....	107.6	107.5	105.4	105.1	94.9	93.4
Meats.....	130.7	138.3	130.6	127.5	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal.....	120.2	131.4	126.0	123.6	109.4	99.6
Pork.....	115.3	125.4	124.0	122.1	86.1	88.0
Lamb.....	136.5	142.7	133.7	133.0	98.7	98.8
Chickens.....	146.4	147.2	133.7	125.7	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned.....	208.3	201.1	168.2	161.2	105.1	93.1
Dairy products.....	133.9	4 133.7	127.7	122.8	118.7	99.6
Eggs.....	153.6	146.2	155.2	130.2	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables.....	181.3	4 187.8	129.7	135.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh.....	193.9	4 202.1	130.3	139.1	93.4	92.8
Canned.....	130.5	4 130.5	123.8	122.4	91.4	91.6
Dried.....	159.0	4 158.6	143.4	134.2	99.6	90.3
Beverages.....	124.5	124.5	123.8	122.8	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils.....	126.5	4 126.5	120.7	120.0	80.3	84.3
Sugar and sweets.....	126.5	126.5	127.0	126.6	95.3	95.6

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

² Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) 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.

⁴ Revised.

Cereals and bakery products.—The index for the group edged up slightly, as soda crackers advanced by 1.7 percent and corn meal by 1.8 percent, and smaller increases were reported for wheat flour and macaroni. Decreases occurred in the prices of corn flakes and vanilla cookies. The group as a whole was only 2.4 percent above July 1942.

Meats.—The effects of reduced ceilings on meats were reflected in the July index, which dropped by 5.5 percent. Beef and veal, pork, and lamb, decreased by 8.5, 8.1, and 4.3 percent, respectively. Chickens, unaffected by the OPA cutback, decreased slightly, and reports indicated a slowing up of black-market activities in poultry. Prices of fresh fish rose 4 percent over mid-June. The regulation placing ceilings on fresh fish was not effective until July 22.

Among the meat cuts most commonly sold, there were decreases of from 8 to 11 percent for hamburger, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, beef stew meat, veal cutlets, smoked ham, and pork chops. There were smaller decreases for all other cuts of meat that are priced by the Bureau, except pork sausage and bologna, which showed slightly higher prices. Canned pink salmon declined by about 1 percent.

Dairy products.—The index for the dairy-products group was pushed up slightly by an increase of 1.2 percent for butter, following a decline of 9.2 percent during the preceding month. By mid-July, butter prices were 14 percent above July 1942 and 66 percent above August 1939. Cheese prices declined moderately, while prices of fresh and evaporated milk were unchanged.

Eggs.—Egg prices moved up seasonally, as provided for in the OPA ceiling regulations. The increase over the month was 5.1 percent, the average being 18 percent above July 1942 and 69 percent above August 1939. All cities surveyed reported increases, ranging from 0.9 percent in Charleston, S. C., to 9.6 percent in Norfolk.

Fruits and vegetables.—The seasonal decline of 4.1 percent for fresh fruits and vegetables between June and July brought the index for the group as a whole down by 3.5 percent. Canned products remained stable and there was a small increase for dried fruits and vegetables. Fresh produce in July was about 40 percent above July 1942.

Prices of fresh apples decreased by 8.7 percent, the first reduction since September 1942, while oranges and grapefruit increased by 9.6 and 13.6 percent, respectively. The decrease for apples was less than the usual seasonal trend and the increases in citrus fruits were larger than usual. Fresh-vegetable prices were down, cabbage by 35 percent, potatoes by 15 percent, lettuce by 11 percent, and sweetpotatoes by 5 percent. A 42-percent increase for spinach was more than the usual seasonal rise. Canned peaches and grapefruit juice showed slight increases, while canned green beans and peas went down, on the average. There was a moderate increase for dried prunes.

Beverages.—A slight increase in tea prices was not large enough to change the index for the group. Coffee prices were unchanged.

Fats and oils.—The index for the group was unchanged from June to July, as oleomargarine and hydrogenated shortening increased moderately and lard, salad dressing, and peanut butter did not change.

Sugar and sweets.—Small increases occurred in the prices of corn sirup and molasses, but the lack of change in sugar prices held the index for the group at the same level as in June. Sugar prices were the same as in July 1942, and 1.4 percent below September 1942.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ June and July 1943, July 1942, and January 1941

Article	1943		1942	1941
	July 13 ²	June 15	July 14	Jan. 14
Cereals and bakery products:				
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat..... 10 pounds.....	61.4	61.1	50.9	41.4
Macaroni..... pound.....	15.6	15.5	14.1	13.8
Wheat cereal ³ 28 ounces.....	23.3	23.2	24.1	23.5
Corn flakes..... 8 ounces.....	6.6	6.7	7.2	7.1
Corn meal..... pound.....	5.7	5.6	4.8	4.2
Rice ³ do.....	12.6	12.6	12.3	7.9
Rolled oats..... do.....	8.6	8.6	8.7	7.1
Flour, pancake ³ 20 ounces.....	10.5	10.5	(1)	(1)
Bakery products:				
Bread, white..... pound.....	8.9	8.9	8.7	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat..... do.....	9.7	9.7	9.5	8.7
Bread, rye..... do.....	10.0	10.0	9.7	9.0
Vanilla cookies..... do.....	28.5	29.3	27.9	25.1
Soda crackers..... do.....	18.0	17.7	16.5	15.0
Meats:				
Beef:				
Round steak..... do.....	42.3	47.0	43.6	38.6
Rib roast..... do.....	34.1	37.6	33.9	31.5
Chuck roast..... do.....	29.1	31.7	29.2	25.2
Stew meat ³ do.....	31.2	34.9	(1)	(1)
Liver..... do.....	36.8	37.6	(1)	(1)
Hamburger..... do.....	28.7	32.1	(1)	(1)
Veal:				
Cutlets..... do.....	46.3	50.7	54.1	45.2
Roast, boned and rolled ³ do.....	35.5	38.0	(1)	(1)

See footnotes at end of table.

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TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ June and July 1943, July 1942, and January 1941—Continued

Article	1943		1942	1941
	July 13 ²	June 15	July 14	Jan. 14
Meats—Continued.				
Pork:				
Chops..... pound	Cents 38.3	Cents 41.9	Cents 42.4	Cents 29.1
Bacon, sliced..... do	42.7	45.7	39.2	30.1
Ham, sliced..... do	53.2	58.8	59.0	45.1
Ham, whole..... do	36.3	39.8	37.7	26.2
Salt pork..... do	23.1	24.7	23.9	16.7
Liver ³ do	22.6	23.5	(4)	(4)
Sausage ³ do	38.5	38.1	(4)	(4)
Bologna, big ³ do	34.6	34.1	(4)	(4)
Lamb:				
Leg..... do	40.5	41.8	37.4	27.8
Rib chops..... do	40.5	49.3	47.3	35.0
Poultry: Roasting chickens..... do	44.5	44.4	39.8	31.1
Fish:				
Fish (fresh, frozen)..... do	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Salmon, pink..... 16-oz. can	23.9	24.1	21.7	15.7
Salmon, red ³ do	41.0	41.6	40.3	26.4
Dairy products:				
Butter..... pound	51.1	50.5	44.7	38.0
Cheese..... do	38.1	38.5	33.9	27.0
Milk, fresh (delivered)..... quart	15.5	15.5	15.0	13.0
Milk, fresh (store)..... do	14.4	14.4	13.5	11.9
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) ³ do	15.1	15.1	14.5	12.7
Milk, evaporated..... 14½-oz. can	10.1	10.1	8.7	7.1
Eggs: Eggs, fresh..... dozen	54.2	51.7	46.1	34.9
Fruits and vegetables:				
Fresh fruits and vegetables:				
Fruits:				
Apples..... pound	13.6	14.9	8.5	5.2
Bananas..... do	11.7	11.7	10.4	6.6
Oranges..... dozen	47.9	43.7	36.6	27.3
Grapefruit ³ each	10.0	8.7	7.6	(7)
Vegetables:				
Beans, green..... pound	16.1	15.8	10.4	14.0
Cabbage..... do	6.5	10.0	4.6	3.4
Carrots..... bunch	8.3	8.3	7.0	6.0
Lettuce..... head	13.5	15.2	12.5	8.4
Onions..... pound	8.8	9.0	4.9	3.6
Potatoes..... 15 pounds	71.5	84.3	58.9	29.2
Spinach..... pound	14.5	10.2	9.4	7.3
Sweetpotatoes..... do	17.2	18.1	7.3	5.0
Beets ³ bunch	8.5	11.6	(4)	(4)
Canned fruits and vegetables:				
Fruits:				
Peaches..... No. 2½ can	26.9	26.5	23.5	16.5
Pineapple..... do	28.0	28.3	27.3	20.9
Grapefruit juice..... No. 2 can	14.3	14.1	10.9	(7)
Vegetables:				
Beans, green..... No. 2 can	14.6	14.8	13.8	10.0
Corn..... do	14.0	14.0	12.8	10.7
Peas..... do	14.9	15.1	15.5	13.2
Tomatoes..... do	12.6	12.6	11.9	8.4
Soup, vegetable ³ 11-oz. can	13.1	13.1	(4)	(4)
Dried fruits and vegetables:				
Fruits: Prunes..... pound	16.7	16.5	12.7	9.6
Vegetables:				
Navy beans..... do	10.0	10.0	8.9	6.5
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle ³ ounce	3.7	3.7	(4)	(4)
Beverages:				
Coffee..... pound	30.0	30.0	28.6	20.7
Tea..... ¼ pound	21.9	21.6	22.4	17.6
Cocoa ³ ½ pound	9.1	9.4	10.2	9.1
Fats and oils:				
Lard..... pound	19.0	19.0	17.0	9.3
Shortening other than lard:				
In cartons..... do	19.9	20.0	19.6	11.3
In other containers..... do	24.8	24.6	25.3	18.3
Salad dressing..... pint	25.2	25.2	25.2	20.1
Oleomargarine..... pound	23.7	23.6	22.3	15.6
Peanut butter..... do	33.1	33.1	26.0	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad ³ pint	30.4	30.4	(4)	(4)
Sugar and sweets:				
Sugar..... pound	6.8	6.8	6.8	5.1
Corn sirup..... 24 ounces	15.7	15.6	14.8	13.6
Molasses ³ 18 ounces	15.7	15.5	14.6	13.4
Apple butter ³ 16 ounces	13.0	12.9	(4)	(4)

¹ Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.² Preliminary.³ Not included in index.⁴ First priced February 1943.⁵ Revised.⁶ Composite prices not computed.⁷ First priced October 1941.

Details by Cities

Between June 15 and July 13 the average retail costs of food declined in 54 of the 56 cities included in the survey. The largest decreases were reported for Manchester (4.7 percent), Winston-Salem (4.4 percent), Portland, Oreg., (4.2 percent), and Baltimore (4.1 percent). Greater-than-average decreases in fruits and vegetables were reported in the four cities, and declines of more than 6 percent in meat prices were shown in Manchester and Winston-Salem. Cities showing increases in the all-foods index were New Orleans and Jacksonville, where large increases were reported for fresh fruits and vegetables, following substantial reductions earlier in the season.

When compared with September 1942, the increase in food costs varies from 2.6 percent in Seattle to 16.8 percent in Knoxville. The increase over last July ranges from 6.6 percent in Los Angeles to 20.3 percent in Knoxville. In comparison with August 1939, immediately before the outbreak of war, the amount of increase by cities varies from 32.6 percent in Minneapolis to 61.4 percent in Knoxville.

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,¹ June and July 1943, July 1942, and January 1941

[1935-39=100]

City	1943		1942	1941	City	1943		1942	1941
	July 13 ²	June 15	July 14	Jan. 14		July 13 ²	June 15	July 14	Jan. 14
United States.....	139.0	141.9	124.6	97.8	West North Central—Continued.				
New England:					Wichita ⁴	146.7	149.7	129.2	97.2
Boston.....	132.5	136.8	122.6	95.2	South Atlantic:				
Bridgeport.....	139.1	143.8	124.9	96.5	Atlanta.....	141.5	143.9	122.7	94.3
Fall River.....	135.6	140.8	124.8	97.5	Baltimore.....	146.3	152.5	128.3	97.9
Manchester.....	136.6	143.4	126.0	96.6	Charleston, S. C.....	136.4	139.0	125.0	95.9
New Haven.....	138.2	143.1	124.2	95.7	Jacksonville.....	152.5	151.7	133.1	98.8
Portland, Maine.....	136.1	140.6	124.4	95.3	Norfolk ³	150.4	151.7	129.8	95.8
Providence.....	135.8	139.7	125.4	96.3	Richmond.....	136.9	139.6	123.6	93.7
Middle Atlantic:					Savannah.....	153.0	153.8	132.0	100.5
Buffalo.....	140.5	145.2	127.8	100.2	Washington, D. C.....	140.1	142.7	125.3	97.7
Newark.....	141.2	142.1	125.1	98.8	Winston-Salem ⁴	133.6	139.7	119.2	93.7
New York.....	141.1	141.4	122.8	99.5	East South Central:				
Philadelphia.....	135.8	139.2	122.9	95.0	Birmingham.....	140.9	141.9	121.2	96.0
Pittsburgh.....	138.6	142.3	124.1	98.0	Jackson ⁴	148.1	149.6	131.0	105.3
Rochester.....	134.8	138.6	125.5	99.9	Knoxville ⁴	156.7	158.5	130.3	97.1
Scranton.....	139.6	144.4	125.3	97.5	Louisville.....	134.9	139.5	122.4	95.5
East North Central:					Memphis.....	147.7	148.3	125.5	94.2
Chicago.....	136.7	140.0	122.8	98.2	Mobile.....	148.6	149.8	130.0	97.9
Cincinnati.....	137.0	139.2	124.2	96.5	West South Central:				
Cleveland.....	145.0	149.5	126.7	99.2	Dallas.....	135.5	136.6	120.9	92.6
Columbus, Ohio.....	130.8	134.5	118.4	93.4	Houston.....	137.4	140.0	128.2	102.6
Detroit.....	138.8	141.6	125.0	97.0	Little Rock.....	135.2	140.1	124.7	95.6
Indianapolis.....	137.0	140.3	125.5	98.2	New Orleans.....	153.8	152.2	133.2	101.9
Milwaukee.....	136.2	138.7	122.0	95.9	Mountain:				
Peoria.....	143.2	146.9	130.0	99.0	Butte.....	138.9	140.6	122.7	98.7
Springfield, Ill.....	144.2	146.4	129.0	96.2	Denver.....	138.4	141.0	124.4	94.8
West North Central:					Salt Lake City.....	142.2	144.1	129.2	97.5
Cedar Rapids ⁴	139.6	143.3	126.4	95.9	Pacific:				
Kansas City.....	132.0	135.8	118.3	92.4	Los Angeles.....	142.4	146.8	133.6	101.8
Minneapolis.....	131.3	134.1	122.1	99.0	Portland, Oreg.....	145.7	152.1	135.2	101.7
Omaha.....	133.3	137.7	119.8	97.9	San Francisco.....	145.7	149.8	126.6	99.6
St. Louis.....	141.6	143.5	126.0	99.2	Seattle.....	140.9	146.6	130.9	101.0
St. Paul.....	131.2	133.7	118.9	98.6					

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases 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.

⁵ Revised.

Annual Average Indexes, 1913 to July 1943

Annual average indexes of food costs for the years 1913-42 and monthly indexes for January 1942 through July 1943 are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ 1913 to July 1943

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1927	132.3	1941	105.5	October	129.6
1914	81.8	1928	130.8	1942	123.9	November	131.1
1915	80.9	1929	132.5			December	132.7
1916	90.8	1930	126.0				
1917	116.9	1931	103.9	1942			
1918	134.4	1932	86.5	January	116.2		
1919	149.8	1933	84.1	February	116.8	1943	
1920	168.8	1934	93.7	March	118.6	January	133.0
1921	128.3	1935	100.4	April	119.6	February	133.6
1922	119.9	1936	101.3	May	121.6	March	137.4
1923	124.0	1937	105.3	June	123.2	April	140.6
1924	122.8	1938	97.8	July	124.6	May	143.0
1925	132.9	1939	95.2	August	126.1	June	141.9
1926	137.4	1940	96.6	September	126.6	July	139.0

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

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Coal Prices in June 1943

RETAIL prices of bituminous coal increased 1.6 percent between March and June 1943, while those of Pennsylvania anthracite showed little change. The discontinuance of the transportation tax, which resulted in decreases of 2 to 5 cents a ton in practically all cities, was offset by increases in maximum prices in a few cities.

Bituminous-coal prices advanced more than 25 cents a ton in 8 cities. In Indianapolis an average increase of about 30 cents a ton was due to a temporary relief order granted by the Office of Price Administration. Prices of lake-cargo coals in Milwaukee, Minneapolis, and St. Paul were increased by amounts ranging from 40 cents to about \$1.05 per ton, under the extension to these cities of maximum price regulations previously allowed for Appalachian coals in other areas. The increases were allowed in order to cover higher production costs, including longer working hours per week at the mines. Higher prices of eastern high-volatile coals in Peoria, Birmingham, and Mobile, and eastern and western high-volatile coals in Memphis reflected the application of increases in maximum prices to cover higher production costs which had become effective earlier in the year in many cities. The average increases ranged from about 30 cents a ton in Birmingham to 40 cents in Mobile.

Pennsylvania anthracite prices advanced between 40 and 50 cents a ton in Milwaukee, Minneapolis, and St. Paul during the 3-month period, March to June, as a result of extending to these cities the increases which occurred in other cities in January 1943. Minor decreases in average prices of Arkansas and Colorado anthracites were due to the discontinuance of the transportation tax. New Mexico anthracite prices were unchanged.

Average prices of coal, together with indexes for bituminous coal and stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite are presented in the accompanying table for June and March 1943 and for June 1942.

Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined, June and March 1943 and June 1942

Kind of coal	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 lbs.			Index of retail price (October 1922-September 1925=100)			Percent of change, June 15, 1943, compared with—	
	1943		1942	1943		1942	1943	1942
	June 15 ¹	Mar. 15	June 15	June 15 ¹	Mar. 15	June 15	Mar. 15	June 15
Bituminous coal (35 cities)—old series ²	\$9.98	\$9.83	\$9.49	101.4	99.8	96.6	+1.6	+5.0
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities)—new series: ³								
Stove.....	13.08	13.08	12.41	92.9	92.9	88.1	0	+5.4
Chestnut.....	13.14	13.13	12.48	93.5	93.4	88.8	+1	+5.3
Pea.....	11.19	11.21	10.55	-----	-----	-----	-.2	+6.1
Buckwheat.....	9.11	9.11	8.57	-----	-----	-----	0	+6.3
Western anthracite:								
Arkansas (6 cities).....	14.50	14.53	13.60	-----	-----	-----	-.2	+6.6
Colorado (1 city).....	15.93	15.97	15.85	-----	-----	-----	-.3	+5
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 and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from August 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.

Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in July 1943

THE reaction in commodity prices in primary markets¹ continued through July and the Bureau of Labor Statistics comprehensive index of nearly 900 price series dropped 0.6 percent. Decreases of over 2 percent for foods and 1 percent for farm products largely accounted for the decline, which placed the all-commodity index at the lowest level reached since February, 103.2 percent of the 1926 average.

Office of Price Administration action in rolling back prices for meats, together with seasonally lower prices for fresh fruits and vegetables, were largely responsible for a decline of 2.2 percent for foods in July. These factors also contributed to a decline of 1 percent in primary market prices for farm products. In addition, housefurnishing goods dropped 0.2 percent and metals and metal products 0.1 percent. The miscellaneous commodity group index advanced 0.5 percent as a result of higher prices for barrels; and the building materials and chemicals and allied products groups each increased 0.1 percent. The indexes for hides and leather products, textile products, and fuel and lighting materials remained unchanged at June levels.

Weakening prices for agricultural commodities caused the raw materials group to decline 0.6 percent. Manufactured commodity prices fell 0.5 percent, while semimanufactured commodities remained unchanged at the June average.

Primary market prices for commodities other than farm products fell 0.4 percent in July, while commodities other than farm products and foods rose 0.1 percent.

Seasonally lower prices for fruits and vegetables (particularly apples, potatoes, onions, and dried beans), together with lower prices for cattle, sheep, hogs, cotton, and hay, brought average prices for farm products down 1 percent. Higher loan values for certain grains caused prices to rise substantially. The increases ranged from a little more than 2 percent for wheat to nearly 13 percent for rye. Increased prices were also reported for eggs, citrus fruits, alfalfa seed, and tobacco.

Led by decreases of over 5 percent for meats, which resulted from the Office of Price Administration roll-back in retail prices, and nearly 4 percent for fruits and vegetables, average wholesale prices for foods dropped 2.2 percent. Sharp declines occurred in prices for potatoes in most markets, for apples at New York and Chicago, and for butter, fresh beef and pork, veal, mutton, and lamb. Higher prices were reported for canned asparagus and spinach, for dried apricots, and for flour and oatmeal.

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.

There were no price changes reported for hides and leather products and textile products in July.

Minor increases occurred in prices for coal and kerosene in some areas. Higher prices were reported for gasoline at certain North Texas and Pennsylvania refineries.

Average wholesale prices for metals and metal products dropped 0.1 percent as a result of lower quotations for butts.

Increased ceiling prices for lumber brought the building materials group index up 0.1 percent. Quotations were higher for maple flooring, Douglas fir timbers, and several types of western pine, and spruce and cypress lumber. Turpentine continued to advance.

The increase of 0.1 percent in the chemicals and allied products group resulted from higher prices for potash and for stearic acid.

Reduced quotations for dinnerware brought average prices for housefurnishing goods down 0.2 percent. The furniture market remained steady.

Advancing prices for Pennsylvania neutral oil caused the index for miscellaneous commodities to rise 0.5 percent in July.

During the 12-month period, July 1942 to July 1943, the composite index rose 4.6 percent. Rising prices for farm products, with a net gain of 18.7 percent, were largely responsible for the advance. Food prices advanced over 8 percent; chemicals and drugs, 3.5 percent; miscellaneous commodities, 2.8 percent; and fuel and lighting materials, 2.5 percent. Increases of less than a half of 1 percent were recorded for textile products and building materials after July of last year. Three groups declined fractionally—hides and leather products, 0.3 percent; housefurnishing goods, 0.2 percent; and metals and metal products, 0.1 percent. Average prices for raw materials in July were 13.5 percent above the corresponding month of a year ago and manufactured commodities were 1 percent higher.

Marked increases have been recorded in prices for a wide range of commodities since August 1939. In the approximately 4 years of war, prices for farm products have risen nearly 105 percent, led by increases of 125 percent for grains and over 93 percent for livestock and poultry. Foods were 59.5 percent above the August 1939 level, with fruits and vegetables up almost 136 percent; dairy products, 60 percent; and meats, over 43 percent. Other outstanding price increases were 151 percent for industrial fats and oils, 119 percent for cattle feed, 114 percent for drugs and pharmaceuticals, 72 percent for cotton goods, 52 percent for lumber, 50 percent for hides and skins, and 49 percent for woolen and worsted goods.

Percentage comparisons of the July 1943 level of wholesale prices with June 1943, July 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, July 1943, with Comparisons for June 1943, July 1942, and August 1939

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	July 1943	June 1943	Percent of change	July 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of increase
All commodities.....	103.2	103.8	-0.6	98.7	+4.6	75.0	37.6
Farm products.....	125.0	126.2	-1.0	105.3	+18.7	61.0	104.9
Grains.....	116.0	113.8	+1.9	89.1	+30.2	51.5	125.2
Livestock and poultry.....	127.6	128.6	-1.0	117.8	+8.3	66.0	93.3
Other farm products.....	124.8	127.2	-1.9	101.5	+23.0	60.1	107.7
Foods.....	107.2	109.6	-2.2	99.2	+8.1	67.2	59.5
Dairy products.....	108.9	109.5	-0.6	96.0	+13.4	67.9	60.4
Cereal products.....	93.8	93.6	+0.2	87.2	+7.6	71.9	30.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	138.0	143.6	-3.9	98.5	+40.1	58.5	135.9
Meats.....	105.9	111.6	-5.1	113.4	-6.6	73.7	43.7
Other foods.....	97.1	97.0	+0.1	91.9	+5.7	60.3	61.0
Hides and leather products.....	117.8	117.8	0	118.2	-0.3	92.7	27.1
Shoes.....	126.4	126.4	0	126.4	0	100.8	25.4
Hides and skins.....	116.0	116.0	0	118.5	-2.1	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	97.4	0	97.1	+0.3	67.8	43.7
Clothing.....	107.0	107.0	0	107.2	-0.2	81.5	31.3
Cotton goods.....	112.6	112.6	0	112.7	-0.1	65.5	71.9
Hosiery and underwear.....	70.5	70.5	0	69.7	+0.8	61.5	14.6
Rayon.....	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	6.3
Silk.....	(1)	(1)				44.3	
Woolen and worsted goods.....	112.5	112.5	0	111.0	+1.4	75.5	49.0
Other textile products.....	98.7	98.7	0	98.2	+0.5	63.7	54.9
Fuel and lighting materials.....	81.0	81.0	0	79.0	+2.5	72.6	11.6
Anthracite.....	89.6	89.5	+0.1	85.7	+4.6	72.1	24.3
Bituminous coal.....	116.5	116.4	+0.1	109.8	+6.1	96.0	21.4
Coke.....	122.4	122.4	0	122.1	+0.2	104.2	17.5
Electricity.....	(1)	(1)		62.7		75.8	
Gas.....	(1)	79.1		81.4		86.7	
Petroleum and products.....	62.8	62.6	+0.2	60.6	+3.6	51.7	21.5
Meals and metal products.....	103.7	103.8	-0.1	103.8	-0.1	93.2	11.3
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.....	97.1	97.3	-0.2	97.2	-0.1	95.1	2.1
Motor vehicles.....	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	21.9
Nonferrous metals.....	86.0	86.0	0	85.6	+0.4	74.6	15.3
Plumbing and heating.....	90.4	90.4	0	94.1	-3.9	79.3	14.0
Building materials.....	110.7	110.6	+0.1	110.3	+0.4	89.6	23.5
Brick and tile.....	99.0	99.0	0	98.0	+1.0	90.5	9.4
Cement.....	93.6	93.6	0	94.2	-0.6	91.3	2.5
Lumber.....	137.1	136.3	+0.8	132.9	+3.2	90.1	52.2
Paint and paint materials.....	102.0	102.0	0	100.7	+1.3	82.1	24.2
Plumbing and heating.....	90.4	90.4	0	94.1	-3.9	79.3	14.0
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	101.3	101.7	-0.4	103.8	-2.4	89.5	13.2
Chemicals and allied products.....	100.1	100.0	+0.1	96.7	+3.5	74.2	34.9
Chemicals.....	96.4	96.4	0	96.5	-0.1	83.8	15.0
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	165.2	165.2	0	129.1	+36.1	77.1	114.3
Fertilizer materials.....	79.3	78.6	+0.7	78.5	+0.1	65.5	21.1
Mixed fertilizers.....	85.8	85.8	0	82.8	+3.0	73.1	17.4
Oils and fats.....	102.0	102.0	0	104.2	-2.1	40.6	151.2
Housefurnishing goods.....	102.6	102.8	-0.2	102.8	-0.2	85.6	19.9
Furnishings.....	107.1	107.3	-0.2	108.0	-0.8	90.0	19.0
Furniture.....	98.1	98.1	0	97.5	+0.6	81.1	21.0
Miscellaneous.....	92.3	91.8	+0.5	89.8	+2.8	73.3	25.9
Automobile tires and tubes.....	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	20.7
Cattle feed.....	149.7	150.6	-0.9	136.3	+9.8	68.4	118.9
Paper and pulp.....	104.3	104.3	0	100.5	+3.8	80.0	30.4
Rubber, crude.....	46.2	46.2	0	46.3	-0.1	34.9	32.4
Other miscellaneous.....	96.3	94.9	+1.4	93.3	+3.2	81.3	18.5
Raw materials.....	113.6	114.3	-0.7	100.1	+13.5	66.5	70.8
Semimanufactured articles.....	92.8	92.8	0	92.8	0	74.5	24.6
Manufactured products.....	99.6	100.1	-0.5	98.6	+1.0	79.1	25.9
All commodities other than farm products.....	98.3	98.7	-0.4	97.0	+1.3	77.9	26.2
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	96.9	96.8	+0.1	95.7	+1.3	80.1	21.0

¹ Data not available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to July 1943

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1942, and by months from July 1942 to July 1943, 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
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	98.8
1942:											
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
May	125.7	110.5	117.8	97.4	80.8	103.8	110.5	100.2	102.7	91.9	104.1
June	126.2	109.6	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.8	110.6	100.0	102.8	91.8	103.8
July	125.0	107.2	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.7	110.7	100.1	102.6	92.3	103.2

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to July 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	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1942:					
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	July.....	100.1	92.8	98.6	97.0	95.7
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	August.....	101.2	92.7	98.9	97.5	95.6
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	September.....	102.2	92.9	99.2	97.7	95.5
1936.....	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	October.....	103.0	92.7	99.4	97.9	95.5
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	November.....	103.9	92.6	99.4	97.9	95.8
						December.....	106.1	92.5	99.6	98.1	95.9
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	1943:					
1939.....	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	January.....	108.2	92.8	100.1	98.5	96.0
1940.....	71.9	79.1	81.6	80.8	83.0	February.....	109.6	92.9	100.3	98.7	96.2
1941.....	83.5	86.9	89.1	88.3	89.0	March.....	112.0	93.0	100.5	99.0	96.5
1942.....	100.6	92.6	98.6	97.0	95.5	April.....	112.8	93.1	100.6	99.1	96.6
						May.....	114.0	93.0	100.7	99.2	96.7
						June.....	114.3	92.8	100.1	98.7	96.8
						July.....	113.6	92.8	99.6	98.3	96.9

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly changes in wholesale prices by groups of commodities during June and July 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, June and July, 1943

[1926=100]

Commodity group	July 31	July 24	July 17	July 10	July 3	June 26	June 19	June 12	June 5
All commodities.....	102.8	102.9	102.9	103.0	103.0	103.1	103.5	104.0	103.9
Farm products.....	124.3	124.8	125.0	126.0	125.9	126.2	127.0	127.6	126.3
Foods.....	106.4	107.0	106.5	107.3	107.6	108.0	109.0	110.9	110.6
Hides and leather products.....	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4	118.4
Textile products.....	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9
Fuel and lighting materials.....	81.6	81.8	81.6	81.5	81.5	81.4	81.4	81.4	81.4
Metals and metal products.....	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.8	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9	103.9
Building materials.....	110.8	110.6	110.6	110.5	110.4	110.4	110.4	110.4	110.4
Chemicals and allied products.....	100.1	100.1	100.1	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2	100.2
Housefurnishing goods.....	104.2	104.4	104.4	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.3	104.2
Miscellaneous.....	92.1	92.1	91.6	91.6	91.6	91.6	91.8	91.7	91.7
Raw materials.....	113.0	113.3	113.4	114.0	114.0	114.2	114.5	114.8	114.1
Semimanufactured articles.....	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.7	92.9	92.9	92.9
Manufactured products.....	99.8	99.8	99.6	99.6	99.7	99.7	100.0	100.7	100.9
All commodities other than farm products.....	98.2	98.3	98.1	98.1	98.1	98.1	98.4	98.9	99.1
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	97.1	97.1	97.0	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9	96.9

Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing and Mining, June 1943

THE total separation rate in June 1943 in all manufacturing was 7.04 per hundred employees. The increase of 0.47 over the May rate was largely due to a rise in the quit rate from 4.81 in May to 5.17 in June. The total separation rate was 0.58 higher than a year ago, an increase of 1.32 in the quit rate being partially offset by a reduction of 0.71 in lay-offs.

The rise in quit rates from May to June was general. The rates in 6 of 20 major industry groups were at least 0.50 higher. In automobiles the quit rate was 0.72 greater and in food and kindred products 0.95 greater. In only 6 groups were rates 0.15 or less above those of May. The discharge rate (0.61 per hundred employees) for all manufacturing rose by only 0.06 from May.

In coal mining, separation rates declined sharply again, reflecting smaller quit rates. Bituminous-coal mining lost only 3.19 employees per 100, as compared with 4.35 in May and 6.25 in April. In anthracite mining the trend was much the same, the separation rate being 2.10 in June, 2.71 in May, and 3.54 in April. In metalliferous mining, separations increased, largely because of more quits and more lay-offs, from 6.02 in May to 6.63 in June.

TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates in Manufacturing Industries¹

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Separation:												
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	7.54	6.57	² 7.04						
Quit:												
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	5.41	4.81	² 5.17						
Discharge:												
1942	.30	.29	.33	.35	.38	.38	.43	.42	.44	.45	.43	.46
1943	.52	.50	.57	.53	.55	² .61						
Lay-off ³												
1942	1.61	1.39	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.21	1.05	.87	.68	.78	.65	.70
1943	.74	.54	.52	.64	.45	² 0.50						
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	.96	.76	² 0.76						
Accession:												
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	7.43	7.18	² 8.30						

¹ Turnover 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, labor turnover data refer to all employees whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. Certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered by the labor turnover survey and the sample is not as extensive as that of the employment survey which includes a larger number of small plants.

² Preliminary.

³ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

In the 20 selected war industries for which the publication of data is restricted to the quit rate alone, 17 industries showed higher rates in June than in May.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates, by Major Industry Group, June 1943

Industry group	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943
<i>Durable goods</i>						
Iron and steel and their products.....	5.38	5.17	3.82	3.54	5.86	5.12
Machinery, except electrical.....	5.61	5.00	3.84	3.45	6.35	5.13
Automobiles.....	5.59	4.75	3.68	2.96	9.59	7.15
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	7.74	7.13	5.63	5.11	10.22	7.95
Lumber and timber basic products.....	7.86	7.57	5.83	5.74	8.37	7.85
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	10.74	10.39	8.70	8.20	11.29	9.99
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	6.40	6.72	4.50	4.50	7.82	6.37
Electrical machinery.....	5.09	4.38	3.79	3.27	6.91	5.37
Ordnance.....	7.69	8.20	4.41	4.26	8.23	7.08
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	7.20	7.04	4.98	4.88	9.70	8.85
<i>Nondurable goods</i>						
Textile-mill products.....	7.72	7.41	6.29	6.04	7.37	6.75
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	7.41	6.55	6.18	5.67	6.89	5.60
Leather and leather products.....	7.45	6.66	5.92	5.48	6.64	5.13
Food and kindred products.....	10.75	9.41	8.09	7.14	12.97	11.02
Paper and allied products.....	8.12	7.75	6.25	5.88	9.45	8.40
Chemicals and allied products.....	5.72	5.30	4.20	3.71	8.04	7.05
Petroleum and coal products.....	3.01	2.85	2.09	1.77	5.03	3.35
Rubber products.....	6.63	6.23	5.45	5.01	8.02	7.12
Tobacco manufactures.....	8.23	8.08	6.85	6.81	8.28	6.50
Miscellaneous industries.....	4.16	4.11	2.91	2.89	5.18	5.09

¹ Preliminary figures.

TABLE 3.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates in Selected Manufacturing Industries, June 1943

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943
Iron and steel and their products:						
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	4.08	3.59	2.71	2.35	4.03	3.46
Gray-iron castings.....	8.39	7.87	6.27	5.94	7.79	7.05
Steel castings.....	8.09	8.37	6.29	6.34	8.18	7.96
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	7.12	5.67	4.12	3.53	5.96	6.57
Tin cans and other tinware.....	12.27	11.42	9.98	9.53	18.65	17.69
Wire products.....	4.62	5.07	3.21	3.14	3.75	2.52
Cutlery and edge tools.....	6.30	7.41	5.44	5.23	7.50	8.68
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	6.84	6.03	5.30	4.92	7.63	6.63
Hardware.....	5.59	5.33	4.25	3.97	7.43	6.14
Plumbers' supplies.....	5.15	4.78	3.71	3.27	5.12	4.17
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment.....	9.35	12.73	6.50	6.00	10.98	7.73
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	5.43	5.84	4.20	4.43	5.74	5.55
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	8.90	9.66	6.35	6.28	12.16	10.74
Fabricated structural metal products.....	7.83	8.39	5.42	5.11	10.39	9.19
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	6.10	5.42	4.64	4.04	8.01	6.31
Forgings, iron and steel.....	5.45	4.93	3.98	3.48	7.52	6.75
Firearms (60 caliber and under) ²	-----	-----	5.10	4.85	-----	-----
Machinery, except electrical:						
Engines and turbines ²	-----	-----	3.86	3.04	-----	-----
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	4.55	3.42	3.29	2.29	7.36	3.96
Machine tools ²	-----	-----	2.98	3.35	-----	-----
Machine-tool accessories ²	-----	-----	3.80	3.11	-----	-----
Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified ²	-----	-----	3.49	2.71	-----	-----

¹ Preliminary figures.

TABLE 3.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates in Selected Manufacturing Industries, June 1943—Continued

Industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943
Machinery, except electrical—Continued.						
Textile machinery.....	3.59	2.87	2.83	2.12	7.22	3.40
General industrial machinery, except pumps.....	6.72	5.71	4.91	4.23	8.61	6.41
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	5.62	5.05	3.94	3.38	6.13	4.71
Automobiles:						
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers.....	5.41	4.31	3.69	2.80	11.44	8.19
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories.....	5.72	5.29	3.67	3.21	8.29	6.87
Nonferrous metals and their products:						
Aluminum and magnesium products ²			5.72	5.05		
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining ²			9.17	8.82		
Primary smelting and refining, except aluminum ² and magnesium.....			3.54	2.88		
Primary smelting and refining, including aluminum and magnesium.....	8.88	8.09	6.67	6.15	11.70	10.82
Rolling, drawing, and alloying of nonferrous metals, except aluminum and magnesium ²			4.14	4.13		
Lighting equipment.....	8.03	4.75	4.96	3.61	8.32	6.42
Lumber and timber basic products:						
Sawmills.....	7.94	7.23	5.86	5.57	8.00	7.58
Planing and plywood mills.....	7.13	7.87	5.23	5.50	8.50	7.14
Furniture and finished lumber products:						
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings.....	10.52	10.82	8.40	8.49	10.49	9.98
Stone, clay, and glass products:						
Glass and glass products.....	6.37	6.90	4.23	4.57	9.23	7.43
Cement.....	4.88	6.74	3.01	3.09	3.82	4.60
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	7.51	7.78	5.91	5.62	6.94	6.87
Pottery and related products.....	7.80	7.17	5.08	5.49	7.51	5.96
Electrical machinery:						
Electrical equipment for industrial use ²			3.08	2.73		
Radios, radio equipment, and phonographs ²			5.48	4.71		
Communication equipment, except radios ²			3.15	2.46		
Ordnance:						
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment ²			3.52	3.55		
Ammunition, except for small arms ²			5.28	5.18		
Tanks ²			4.41	3.57		
Transportation equipment, except automobiles:						
Aircraft ²			4.54	4.23		
Aircraft parts ²			3.22	2.98		
Shipbuilding and repairs ²			6.20	6.20		
Textile-mill products:						
Cotton.....	8.42	7.96	6.92	6.59	7.81	7.30
Silk and rayon goods.....	8.58	8.26	7.27	6.88	8.38	7.53
Woolen and worsted, except dyeing and finishing.....	6.42	5.78	4.58	4.18	5.28	4.66
Hosiery, full-fashioned.....	5.05	5.47	4.36	4.67	5.68	4.14
Hosiery, seamless.....	7.76	8.74	6.68	7.49	7.87	7.11
Knitted underwear.....	7.75	7.93	6.84	6.85	7.82	7.29
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	6.11	6.01	4.80	4.47	6.14	5.29
Apparel and other finished textile products:						
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats.....	5.79	4.89	4.39	3.66	5.15	3.97
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing, and allied garments.....	8.08	6.91	7.04	6.41	7.48	6.14
Women's clothing, except corsets.....	7.63	7.63	6.39	6.25	6.71	6.60
Leather and leather products:						
Leather.....	5.28	5.08	4.03	3.76	3.88	3.37
Boots and shoes.....	7.88	6.87	6.29	5.74	7.17	5.34
Food and kindred products:						
Meat products.....	10.67	9.26	7.42	6.52	11.99	11.11
Grain-mill products.....	8.97	8.54	7.33	6.93	11.17	9.52
Paper and allied products:						
Paper and pulp.....	6.68	6.47	5.10	4.87	7.62	6.74
Paper boxes.....	11.35	9.32	8.72	6.89	13.69	10.37
Chemicals and allied products:						
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	5.73	5.54	3.87	4.01	8.31	5.73
Rayon and allied products.....	4.26	4.82	3.13	3.29	5.54	4.66
Industrial chemicals, except explosives.....	4.35	3.90	2.94	2.68	6.39	4.96
Explosives ²			3.26	2.75		
Small-arms ammunition ²			5.21	3.86		
Products of petroleum and coal:						
Petroleum refining.....	2.85	2.67	1.97	1.62	4.67	3.26
Rubber products:						
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	4.47	4.10	3.45	2.87	7.59	6.62
Rubber footwear and related products.....	9.52	7.85	8.44	6.77	10.58	6.99
Miscellaneous rubber industries.....	7.01	6.91	5.74	5.68	7.65	7.40

¹ Preliminary figures.² Quit rates only are given for strategic war industries; publication of other turnover data has been restricted.

TABLE 4.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates in Mining Industries, June 1943

Mining industry	Total separation		Quit		Total accession	
	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943	June 1943 ¹	May 1943
Bituminous coal.....	3.19	4.35	2.38	3.31	2.71	3.32
Anthracite.....	2.10	2.71	1.38	1.88	1.93	2.77
Metalliferous.....	6.63	6.02	4.76	4.43	6.09	6.13

¹ Preliminary figures.

Building Operations

Building Construction in Urban Areas of the United States, July 1943

THE dollar valuation of building construction work started during July 1943 in all urban areas of the United States was 9 percent less than during the previous month. The decrease of 27 percent in the value of Federal awards was partially offset by a 5-percent increase in the value of private building construction work started. Both new residential building and additions, alterations and repairs to existing structures rose approximately 5 percent while the valuation of new nonresidential buildings started in July was 28 percent lower than in June.

When compared with July 1942 the current month's valuation of total building construction started in urban areas represents a decline of 68 percent. All classes of construction shared in the decrease, with new nonresidential building registering a decline of 86 percent and new residential building and additions, alterations, and repairs showing decreases of 16 and 13 percent, respectively. The value of Federal building construction contracts awarded declined 86 percent from the July 1942 total, while the valuation of building permits issued for private building declined only 19 percent.

Comparison of July 1943 With June 1943 and July 1942

The volume of Federally financed and other building construction in urban areas of the United States in June and July 1943 and July 1942 is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, July 1943*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	July 1943	Percent of change from—		July 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		June 1943	July 1942		June 1943	July 1942
All building construction	58,577	-3.2	-0.5	\$98,543	-8.5	-67.7
New residential	11,994	+4.1	+7.8	44,371	+5.2	-15.7
New nonresidential	7,054	-6.4	-20.9	31,700	-28.0	-86.0
Additions, alterations, and repairs	39,529	-4.6	+1.8	22,472	+4.8	-12.7

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which permits were issued or contracts awarded during July 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 Financing and of Dwelling, July 1943

Type of financing and of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	July 1943	Percent of change from—		July 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		June 1943	July 1942		June 1943	July 1942
All dwellings	14,506	+1.9	-12.8	\$42,566	+1.7	-15.7
Privately financed	11,086	-2.9	-13.6	35,574	-2	-11.7
1-family	7,497	+8	-18.9	26,012	+2.8	-12.7
2-family ¹	1,408	-16.5	+23.6	3,952	-10.7	+21.8
Multifamily ²	2,181	-5.0	-11.0	5,609	-5.1	-22.8
Federally financed	3,420	+21.8	-10.0	6,992	+12.2	-31.4

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

Comparison of First 7 Months of 1942 and 1943

Permit valuations and contract values reported in the first 7 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 7 Months of 1942 and 1943

Class of construction	Valuation (in thousands of dollars) of—					
	All construction, first 7 months			Federal construction, first 7 months		
	1943	1942	Percent of change	1943	1942	Percent of change
All construction	742,592	1,974,342	-62.4	383,954	1,187,280	-67.7
New residential	335,955	628,919	-46.6	133,634	198,246	-32.6
New nonresidential	287,373	1,156,126	-75.1	240,350	965,454	-75.1
Additions, alterations, and repairs	119,264	189,297	-37.0	9,970	23,580	-57.7

The number and valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and contracts awarded during the first 7 months of 1943 are compared with similar data for 1942 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Financing and of Dwelling, First 7 Months of 1943 and 1942

Type of financing and of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	First 7 months of—		Percent of change	First 7 months of—		Percent of change
	1943	1942		1943	1942	
All dwellings	126,958	186,968	-32.1	\$329,268	\$620,363	-46.9
Privately financed	66,006	129,528	-49.0	201,723	436,172	-53.8
1-family	44,649	98,055	-54.5	145,521	343,855	-57.7
2-family ¹	8,661	10,479	-17.3	23,369	28,033	-16.6
Multifamily ²	12,696	20,994	-39.5	32,833	64,284	-48.9
Federal	60,952	57,440	+6.1	127,545	184,191	-30.8

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

Construction From Public Funds, July 1943

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during June and July 1943 and July 1942 on all construction projects, and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau, is shown in table 5. This table includes all other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, June and July 1943 and July 1942

Source of funds	Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started (in thousands)		
	July 1943 ¹	June 1943 ²	July 1942 ²
Total.....	\$571,097	\$2,710,211	\$444,535
War public works.....	4,481	5,474	432
Regular Federal appropriations.....	545,961	2,695,424	433,321
Federal Public Housing Authority.....	20,655	9,313	10,782

¹ Preliminary; subject to revision.

² Revised.

Coverage and Method

The Bureau of Labor Statistics recently 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 comparisons, the data cover all building construction in the urban areas of the United States which, by Census definition, includes all incorporated places with 1940 populations of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated minor civil divisions. The principal advantage of the change is that figures for every month are comparable, since estimates are made for any cities in the urban area which fail to report in a particular month. As in the past, the value of building-construction contracts awarded by the Federal Government is combined with information obtained from building-permit reports. The contract value of this Federally financed construction in urban areas as reported to the Bureau was \$32,373,000 in July 1943, \$44,491,000 in June 1943, and \$224,049,000 in July 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 and 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.

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

Summary of Reports for July 1943

THE number of employees in nonagricultural establishments in July totaled 38,370,000. This was 1,136,000 above the level of a year ago. Although the July figure was slightly lower than that reported for June, there was a continued increase in manufacturing employment and there were seasonal declines in retail trade.

Industrial and Business Employment

Total wage-earner employment in all manufacturing industries increased 61,000 during the month. The durable and nondurable groups shared equally in the increase.

The increase of 31,000 wage earners in durable-goods employment resulted primarily from expanded employment in the transportation, automobile, and electrical-machinery groups. Employment in these groups increased 48 percent, 34 percent, and 31 percent, respectively, from July 1942.

The increase in employment in the nondurable group was due almost entirely to the seasonal expansion of the canning industry. Employment in this industry alone increased about 50,000 between June and July. Seasonal declines of about 30,000 wage earners in the textile and apparel groups offset part of the increase of 62,000 in the food group.

Employment in bituminous-coal mining continued to decline, reaching a level more than 1 percent below that of June 1943 and almost 15 percent below that of July 1942. With the exception of iron, each of the metal-mining industries had lower employment in July 1943 than in either June 1943 or July 1942. The metalliferous-mining group as a whole employed 96,000 wage earners in July as compared with 109,000 a year ago.

The extreme labor shortage is reflected in the declines in employment in laundries and in dyeing and cleaning establishments. In July, laundries employed 1 percent fewer wage earners than in June and almost 5 percent fewer workers than in July 1942. Employment in dyeing and cleaning establishments declined more than 2 percent during the month but was only slightly below July 1942.

Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group ¹

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	July 1943	June 1943	May 1943	July 1942	July 1943	June 1943
All manufacturing.....	13,882	13,821	13,696	12,564	169.5	168.7
Durable goods.....	8,281	8,250	8,159	7,003	229.3	228.5
Nondurable goods.....	5,601	5,571	5,537	5,561	122.3	121.6
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,713	1,718	1,718	1,612	172.7	173.3
Electrical machinery.....	708	702	695	542	273.4	270.9
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,252	1,251	1,243	1,094	236.9	236.7
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,302	2,288	2,241	1,559	1450.1	1441.6
Automobiles.....	686	676	660	513	170.4	167.9
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	415	415	410	381	181.0	180.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	485	482	479	559	115.3	114.8
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	361	358	356	374	109.9	109.1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	359	360	357	369	122.2	122.5
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,220	1,233	1,239	1,293	106.6	107.8
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	832	850	863	866	105.3	107.7
Leather and leather products.....	328	333	337	374	94.7	96.0
Food.....	1,015	953	914	1,052	118.8	111.5
Tobacco manufactures.....	89	89	90	94	95.0	95.7
Paper and allied products.....	317	317	312	302	119.4	119.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	334	334	329	325	101.7	101.8
Chemicals and allied products.....	739	741	737	613	256.5	257.2
Products of petroleum and coal.....	126	125	124	129	118.8	118.5
Rubber products.....	193	189	186	153	159.6	156.4
Miscellaneous industries.....	408	407	406	360	166.8	166.3

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 shown in mimeographed releases for December 1942 and prior months. Estimates and indexes for the period January 1939 to November 1942 comparable with the data in the above table are available upon request.

Public Employment

Employment of 3,115,000 persons in July 1943 in the regular Federal services—executive, legislative, and judicial—represented an increase from July 1942 of 693,000, but a decrease over June 1943 of 24,000. Employment in the War Department alone declined 33,000 during the month, and in the war agencies other than the War and Navy Departments it declined 1,000. The Navy Department, on the other hand, showed an employment increase of approximately 8,900. Most of these changes took place outside the Washington, D. C., metropolitan area.

Employment on construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds amounted to 2,415,000 in July 1943, or 13,000 less than in June. Decreases were reported on public housing, non-residential building, war production facilities and public works, and on airport construction projects, but these were partially offset by increases on public roads and ship construction and repair projects. In July 1943 there were 281,000 more workers engaged on Federally financed construction than in July 1942.

The only projects still operated by the Work Projects Administration in July were located in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, but because of the distance, personnel data have not yet been received. In June 1943 there were 42,000 WPA project workers on these islands.

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 WPA program, from its Washington office.

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 the Work Projects Administration program 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		
	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942
Regular Federal services:						
Executive ¹	3, 106, 499	3, 130, 034	2, 413, 180	\$572, 687, 000	\$576, 894, 000	\$389, 969, 927
War agencies ²	2, 311, 423	2, 337, 754	1, 573, 653	414, 304, 000	419, 020, 000	251, 579, 093
Other agencies.....	795, 076	792, 280	839, 527	158, 383, 000	157, 874, 000	138, 390, 834
Judicial.....	2, 651	2, 624	2, 653	767, 776	753, 344	672, 070
Legislative.....	6, 026	6, 168	6, 526	1, 488, 725	1, 508, 934	1, 368, 607
Construction projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations ³	2, 126, 968	2, 117, 788	2, 048, 552	512, 115, 100	515, 507, 400	408, 522, 100
War.....	2, 069, 468	2, 057, 497	1, 939, 078	500, 961, 800	503, 812, 600	390, 511, 600
Other.....	57, 500	60, 291	109, 474	11, 153, 300	11, 694, 800	18, 010, 500
Public housing.....	90, 000	92, 941	27, 029	14, 511, 900	14, 995, 658	4, 196, 598
War public works.....	12, 250	12, 379	13, 253	1, 798, 900	1, 817, 697	1, 531, 300
Financed by RFC.....	186, 000	205, 135	45, 286	40, 579, 700	44, 747, 342	9, 598, 155
War.....	185, 800	204, 896	43, 492	40, 539, 700	44, 705, 902	9, 236, 292
Other.....	200	239	1, 794	40, 000	41, 440	361, 863
Work Projects Administration projects:						
War.....	(4)	42, 437	525, 146	(4)	(4)	42, 481, 522
Other.....	(4)	(4)	241, 504	(4)	(4)	19, 209, 148
Other.....	(4)	(4)	283, 642	(4)	(4)	23, 272, 374

¹ Includes employees in United States navy yards and on force-account construction, who are also included under construction projects. Data for June and July 1943 are not strictly comparable with those for July 1942 and with the series previously published, in that the figures for June and July 1943 include approximately 7,000 employees of the War Shipping Administration who were previously unreported, and exclude employees of the War Department on terminal leave (about 14,000) who were previously included.

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 Data not available.



Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, June 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 and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board, 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.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Divisions*

[In thousands]

Industry division	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
Total estimated employment ¹	2 38,485	38,262	38,336	36,665
Manufacturing	16,056	15,911	15,956	14,302
Mining	835	837	850	921
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction	1,277	1,299	1,328	1,991
Transportation and public utilities	3,653	3,587	3,552	3,484
Trade	6,371	6,331	6,423	6,606
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4,355	4,349	4,337	4,324
Federal, State, and local government, excluding Federal force-account construction	2 5,938	5,948	5,890	5,037

¹ Estimates exclude proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, public emergency employees, and personnel in the armed forces.

² Preliminary.

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 April, May, and June 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 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. The 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 Industries¹

[In thousands]

Industry ²	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
All manufacturing	13,821	13,696	13,735	12,282
Durable goods	8,250	8,159	8,145	6,823
Nondurable goods	5,571	5,537	5,590	5,459
<i>Durable goods</i>				
Iron and steel and their products	1,718	1,718	1,729	1,599
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	521.3	522.4	522.8	549.1
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	81.9	82.2	83.2	87.5
Malleable-iron castings	26.8	26.9	27.2	28.2
Steel castings	84.0	84.1	85.5	74.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	16.4	17.2	18.0	21.5
Tin cans and other tinware	32.3	30.4	29.4	35.5
Wire drawn from purchased rods	36.6	36.9	37.0	31.2
Wirework	33.0	32.6	32.5	31.8
Cutlery and edge tools	21.2	21.5	21.7	20.8
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	28.1	28.0	28.2	27.5
Hardware	45.7	44.6	44.5	44.7
Plumbers' supplies	23.5	23.5	23.6	23.4
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	53.2	53.1	52.6	46.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	59.9	59.4	59.4	47.9
Stam ped and enameled ware and galvanizing	89.8	88.9	87.5	75.0
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	69.4	69.4	70.2	60.8
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding and trim	12.6	12.2	12.1	11.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	29.0	28.7	28.6	24.9
Forgings, iron and steel	40.4	40.3	40.5	34.7
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	26.9	26.6	25.3	15.6
Screw-machine products and wood screws	49.6	49.1	49.1	45.5
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	8.1	7.3	6.9	7.5
Electrical machinery	702	695	695	528
Machinery, except electrical	1,251	1,243	1,237	1,078
Machinery and machine-shop products	493.3	490.8	487.3	418.0
Tractors	50.6	49.5	49.2	44.8
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	37.7	35.9	35.1	36.4
Textile machinery	28.1	28.2	28.0	30.8
Pumps and pumping equipment	77.2	76.2	75.6	66.4
Typewriters	11.9	12.1	12.3	13.3
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	34.8	34.6	34.0	28.9
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	13.5	12.5	11.6	7.2
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.1
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	53.8	52.9	52.8	31.5
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	2,288	2,241	2,221	1,443
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts	9.6	9.8	9.9	9.8
Automobiles	676	660	653	485
Nonferrous metals and their products	415	410	411	378
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	46.2	45.0	44.1	36.0
Clocks and watches	25.3	24.5	24.9	26.8
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	16.3	16.3	16.6	16.9
Silverware and plated ware	11.9	11.8	11.8	11.4
Lighting equipment	23.8	23.5	23.1	21.1
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	30.4	29.8	30.2	27.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Lumber and timber basic products.....	482	479	480	555
Sawmills and logging camps.....	264.1	262.5	262.3	311.5
Planing and plywood mills.....	81.9	81.1	81.8	86.5
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	358	356	360	381
Mattresses and bedsprings.....	18.2	17.9	17.9	19.5
Furniture.....	167.4	166.0	168.2	174.4
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	29.5	29.5	30.2	32.3
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	12.2	11.1	12.2	12.0
Wood preserving.....	10.4	10.7	10.6	13.1
Wood, turned and shaped.....	22.0	21.7	22.1	25.1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	360	357	359	376
Glass and glassware.....	88.5	86.9	86.9	84.5
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	11.2	11.1	11.4	11.9
Cement.....	24.4	24.5	24.8	29.8
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	51.5	51.2	52.2	67.0
Pottery and related products.....	42.9	43.7	44.4	44.4
Gypsum.....	4.7	4.5	4.5	5.3
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	11.6	11.3	11.5	10.6
Lime.....	9.6	9.5	9.6	11.1
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	12.3	12.1	12.3	14.0
Abrasives.....	23.8	23.2	22.8	16.0
Asbestos products.....	22.3	22.1	22.0	22.1
<i>Nondurable goods</i>				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,233	1,239	1,254	1,298
Cotton manufactures, except small wares.....	487.8	489.9	497.0	508.9
Cotton small wares.....	17.0	17.2	17.2	17.8
Silk and rayon goods.....	95.8	96.0	96.8	105.9
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	168.0	169.8	171.0	183.2
Hosiery.....	117.0	117.6	119.6	126.2
Knitted cloth.....	11.9	11.9	11.7	12.2
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	33.2	32.4	32.6	31.1
Knitted underwear.....	42.4	42.6	43.2	45.7
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	68.2	68.7	69.5	67.9
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	23.2	23.4	23.8	22.7
Hats, fur-felt.....	10.0	10.2	10.3	10.7
Jute goods, except felts.....	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Cordage and twine ³	17.2	17.2	17.1	16.9
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	850	863	889	873
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	231.0	233.7	239.9	247.9
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	60.5	60.9	62.5	68.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	12.9	12.8	12.9	13.8
Work shirts.....	18.1	18.2	18.4	18.8
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	238.6	240.9	248.7	228.9
Corsets and allied garments.....	16.4	16.5	16.9	18.4
Millinery.....	17.0	19.5	22.0	15.7
Handkerchiefs ³	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	17.0	17.7	18.3	16.0
House furnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	13.4	13.9	14.3	14.2
Textile bags ³	14.5	14.8	15.7	14.6
Leather and leather products.....	333	337	346	377
Leather.....	46.3	46.9	47.4	50.6
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	17.3	17.6	18.1	18.3
Boots and shoes.....	185.2	187.3	192.9	214.2
Leather gloves and mittens.....	14.5	14.6	15.1	15.0
Trunks and suitcases.....	13.6	13.5	14.3	15.3
Food.....	953	914	910	947
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	159.1	154.0	155.8	173.6
Butter.....	23.5	22.9	21.6	23.4
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	14.6	13.5	12.9	14.9
Ice cream.....	17.2	15.5	14.4	18.9
Flour.....	28.1	27.6	28.0	24.8
Feeds, prepared.....	22.1	22.3	21.9	18.6
Cereal preparations.....	10.1	9.9	9.6	8.4
Baking.....	251.2	247.2	247.0	244.6
Sugar refining, cane.....	14.3	13.2	13.2	13.0
Sugar, beet.....	4.5	4.2	4.1	4.8
Confectionery.....	52.3	53.2	54.9	47.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	28.4	26.6	25.4	23.8
Malt liquors.....	46.8	44.6	43.6	41.6
Canning and preserving.....	107.5	91.7	89.9	119.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

[In thousands]

Industry	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>				
Tobacco manufactures.....	89	90	93	92
Cigarettes.....	32.2	32.3	33.9	28.2
Cigars.....	43.3	43.9	45.2	50.6
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	8.1	8.0	8.2	7.6
Paper and allied products.....	317	312	312	312
Paper and pulp.....	151.9	149.0	149.0	160.3
Paper goods, other.....	48.9	48.2	48.4	45.4
Envelopes.....	10.5	10.4	10.4	9.9
Paper bags.....	12.1	12.1	12.2	13.0
Paper boxes.....	84.3	83.4	82.8	74.2
Printing, publishing, and allied products.....	334	329	330	325
Newspapers and periodicals.....	113.6	113.5	113.7	116.1
Printing, book and job.....	130.4	127.1	127.6	122.6
Lithographing.....	24.7	24.4	24.5	23.4
Bookbinding.....	29.5	29.1	29.0	27.9
Chemicals and allied products.....	741	737	744	600
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	29.7	28.9	28.8	30.3
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	45.8	44.2	43.8	36.6
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	11.0	11.0	11.1	10.4
Soap.....	12.9	13.0	13.4	13.9
Rayon and allied products.....	51.6	51.1	51.6	52.2
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	115.6	113.5	113.0	111.8
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	6.3	6.4	6.4	6.4
Cottonseed oil.....	12.7	14.1	16.4	9.3
Fertilizers.....	18.7	24.4	29.1	18.1
Products of petroleum and coal.....	125	124	123	128
Petroleum refining.....	80.8	79.9	79.0	80.2
Coke and byproducts.....	25.2	25.0	25.1	27.0
Paving materials.....	1.7	1.6	1.3	2.0
Roofing materials.....	9.5	9.4	9.1	10.2
Rubber products.....	189	186	186	146
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	85.0	83.3	83.0	61.6
Rubber boots and shoes.....	22.2	21.7	21.7	17.2
Rubber goods, other.....	72.7	72.1	72.2	60.1
Miscellaneous industries.....	407	406	403	361
Photographic apparatus.....	28.8	28.2	27.9	23.4
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	10.0	9.9	9.5	6.9
Games, toys, and dolls.....	15.8	15.6	15.3	21.8
Buttons.....	10.9	10.7	11.1	13.1

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-earner data for 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.

³ Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:

Cordage and twine.—Number of wage earners for March 1943 to 16.9.

Handkerchiefs.—Number of wage earners for December 1942 to 4.0.

Textile bags.—Number of wage earners for February and March 1943 to 16.4 and 16.2, respectively.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-earner Employment and of Wage-earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average = 100]

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
All manufacturing	168.7	167.2	167.7	149.9	317.9	313.5	309.7	234.5
Durable goods	228.5	225.9	225.6	188.9	442.9	437.1	430.4	312.1
Nondurable goods	121.6	120.9	122.0	119.2	195.8	192.6	191.7	158.7
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products	173.3	173.2	174.4	161.2	305.6	303.5	301.7	241.5
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	134.2	134.5	134.6	141.3	275.7	222.2	217.4	192.9
Gray-iron and semisteel castings	140.1	140.7	142.3	149.7	261.4	264.8	263.1	237.4
Malleable-iron castings	148.4	148.9	151.0	156.2	273.7	274.0	278.0	228.0
Steel castings	279.0	279.4	284.3	246.3	498.3	495.1	499.9	383.3
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	99.4	104.2	108.7	129.9	170.1	178.6	185.0	208.0
Tin cans and other tinware	101.8	95.7	92.7	111.9	160.6	150.1	143.2	142.3
Wire drawn from purchased rods	166.3	168.1	168.3	142.1	273.9	274.6	278.5	196.3
Wirework	108.7	107.2	107.1	104.7	202.6	199.6	199.9	162.7
Cutlery and edge tools	137.4	139.4	141.0	134.8	271.5	267.6	277.9	214.8
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	183.7	182.9	184.3	179.6	338.0	337.2	339.5	292.7
Hardware	128.1	125.2	125.0	125.3	249.0	242.1	238.7	203.3
Plumbers' supplies	95.3	95.2	95.8	95.1	165.9	161.8	162.0	131.9
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	115.3	115.1	113.9	100.1	195.6	194.1	188.7	139.1
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	197.7	196.0	195.9	158.1	362.6	358.9	359.5	260.1
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	161.6	160.0	157.5	135.0	298.5	299.0	292.5	206.6
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal-work	195.3	195.5	197.6	171.1	362.0	356.1	355.3	257.9
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding and trim	162.8	157.9	155.7	141.6	287.1	277.3	263.9	206.0
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	202.7	200.4	200.0	174.2	371.5	370.4	358.7	268.0
Forgings, iron and steel	263.1	262.2	263.7	226.0	493.6	501.1	504.8	380.0
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted	321.6	317.5	302.1	186.5	603.3	597.2	602.1	298.2
Screw-machine products and wood screws	293.3	290.2	289.9	268.9	547.1	553.2	544.4	446.4
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums	133.8	120.6	114.4	123.3	254.4	222.2	214.7	185.0
Electrical machinery	270.4	268.3	268.4	203.6	470.2	458.9	454.7	317.2
Machinery, except electrical	236.7	235.2	234.1	204.0	428.0	427.2	422.3	337.9
Machinery and machine-shop products	243.8	242.6	240.9	206.6	435.8	434.2	429.3	335.2
Tractors	161.8	158.2	157.2	143.3	237.2	244.9	242.5	197.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	135.6	129.1	126.2	130.8	264.3	248.4	238.0	194.5
Textile machinery	128.3	128.5	127.7	140.6	229.2	225.2	228.9	219.2
Pumps and pumping equipment	318.5	314.6	311.8	274.0	647.4	645.2	632.8	526.2
Typewriters	78.1	74.4	75.6	82.0	143.8	144.7	145.3	130.0
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	177.0	175.6	172.8	146.6	342.3	338.1	327.7	239.1
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic	181.3	166.8	156.0	97.0	298.8	289.1	263.9	152.4
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial	134.3	134.4	135.1	128.5	280.6	278.1	274.0	223.5
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment	152.9	150.5	150.2	89.7	254.5	250.3	243.8	132.4
Transportation equipment except automobiles	1441.6	1412.0	1399.3	909.1	2777.8	2736.7	2692.9	1585.5
Motoreycles, bicycles, and parts	137.1	139.9	141.7	140.1	247.2	255.0	252.8	219.6
Automobiles	167.9	164.0	162.3	120.6	305.8	297.1	286.7	193.4
Nonferrous metals and their products	180.9	178.8	179.2	164.9	325.0	322.0	318.5	253.0
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	167.2	162.9	159.7	130.4	285.5	276.5	264.5	183.0
Clocks and watches	124.5	120.7	122.6	132.0	236.7	233.9	235.7	224.3
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	112.6	113.2	114.8	117.1	170.9	170.6	174.2	151.1
Silverware and plated ware	98.1	96.9	97.1	94.1	171.4	167.1	166.6	131.8
Lighting equipment	116.2	114.7	112.6	103.0	203.5	204.6	198.2	156.4
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified	162.3	159.0	161.3	147.7	284.1	288.4	279.9	219.3
Lumber and timber basic products	114.8	114.0	114.1	132.0	200.8	196.1	186.2	190.2
Sawmills and logging camps	91.7	91.2	91.1	108.2	163.8	160.4	151.4	158.9
Planing and plywood mills	112.8	111.7	112.6	119.1	181.1	175.5	169.9	159.5
Furniture and finished lumber products ²	109.1	108.6	109.8	116.2	181.1	178.9	177.9	161.3
Mattresses and bedsprings	99.4	97.6	97.7	106.2	155.8	152.9	147.8	134.0
Furniture	105.1	104.9	105.6	109.6	174.2	171.5	171.5	153.1
Wooden boxes, other than cigar	116.3	116.4	119.1	127.5	201.4	204.9	197.2	188.7
Caskets and other morticians' goods ³	97.6	94.4	98.4	96.7	153.9	148.5	156.6	127.3
Wood preserving	92.6	95.1	94.0	116.9	178.6	183.4	178.2	177.2
Wood, turned and shaped	100.1	98.6	100.7	114.0	167.1	163.7	162.0	159.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-earner Employment and of Wage-earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>								
Stone, clay, and glass products	122.5	121.5	122.3	128.1	190.2	187.7	185.3	167.6
Glass and glassware	126.7	124.5	124.4	121.0	185.2	182.8	180.6	150.5
Glass products made from purchased glass	111.6	110.8	114.3	118.8	163.9	160.5	160.0	145.1
Cement	102.3	102.8	104.0	125.3	146.3	145.3	141.4	161.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	90.8	90.3	91.9	117.9	139.5	137.9	137.6	154.8
Pottery and related products	129.4	131.9	134.1	134.0	190.4	191.2	192.6	170.9
Gypsum	94.7	91.9	90.4	106.5	162.3	154.6	147.2	142.4
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool	143.2	139.6	141.5	130.1	231.4	231.3	225.8	274.8
Lime	101.1	100.2	101.8	117.9	176.3	180.2	179.2	165.8
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	66.4	65.5	66.3	75.6	88.2	92.1	88.3	86.2
Abrasives	307.6	300.5	294.2	206.8	500.0	474.5	461.6	305.5
Asbestos products	140.5	138.8	138.7	139.0	262.6	257.0	253.6	211.0
<i>Nondurable goods</i>								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures	107.8	108.3	109.6	113.4	179.4	180.7	181.2	161.1
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares	123.2	123.7	125.5	128.5	211.3	216.0	217.7	195.9
Cotton smallwares	127.4	128.9	128.8	133.8	215.8	223.3	223.6	207.0
Silk and rayon goods	79.9	80.1	80.8	88.4	135.3	135.4	135.0	128.2
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing	112.6	113.8	114.6	122.7	206.8	205.0	205.4	186.9
Hosiery	73.6	73.9	75.2	79.3	107.5	108.2	108.3	93.1
Knitted cloth	108.6	108.8	106.9	112.0	172.7	173.8	168.0	148.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves	118.0	115.3	115.9	110.4	214.0	203.4	198.0	144.6
Knitted underwear	110.1	110.6	112.1	118.5	183.6	184.1	184.9	167.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted	102.0	102.8	104.0	101.5	158.6	158.8	161.7	132.4
Carpets and rugs, wool	90.8	91.3	93.2	88.8	143.8	146.9	147.3	123.9
Hats, fur-felt	69.0	70.3	70.6	73.9	113.8	118.9	120.9	91.3
Jute goods, except felts	111.9	111.9	111.8	110.6	197.2	199.1	193.2	161.9
Cordage and twine ³	141.8	141.9	141.3	139.7	236.6	237.9	234.4	211.8
Apparel and other finished textile products	107.7	109.3	112.6	110.6	161.7	164.3	174.8	132.9
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified	105.6	106.9	109.7	113.4	159.1	162.8	169.7	143.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear	85.9	86.4	88.7	96.6	138.2	136.0	138.7	136.2
Underwear and neckwear, men's	80.0	79.4	79.9	85.5	138.8	137.9	136.2	117.6
Work shirts	134.6	135.4	137.1	139.5	226.7	233.0	236.8	209.2
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified	87.8	88.7	91.6	84.3	130.6	131.0	143.8	92.3
Corsets and allied garments	87.4	88.2	89.8	97.8	136.5	137.3	137.1	123.0
Millinery	70.1	80.2	90.7	64.6	80.0	96.7	122.8	58.7
Handkerchiefs ³	76.5	77.4	79.6	82.0	123.1	126.1	129.4	129.7
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads	100.8	104.9	108.5	94.7	163.0	168.0	167.8	128.5
House furnishings, other than curtains, etc	126.4	130.6	134.5	133.5	213.8	219.6	228.4	176.9
Textile bags ³	120.8	123.3	131.1	121.4	180.4	181.9	194.1	150.3
Leather and leather products	96.0	97.0	99.8	108.6	150.8	153.0	155.9	148.3
Leather	97.9	99.2	100.4	107.2	149.0	150.3	151.4	144.4
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	91.5	93.2	96.2	97.1	138.2	138.2	140.9	126.8
Boots and shoes	84.9	85.9	88.5	98.2	134.4	137.3	141.0	136.8
Leather gloves and mittens	144.8	146.0	151.1	150.2	227.0	222.4	228.2	197.7
Trunks and suitcases	163.5	162.5	171.7	183.5	259.2	256.1	248.2	207.1
Food	111.5	106.9	106.5	110.8	168.5	158.5	150.3	139.7
Slaughtering and meat packing	132.1	127.8	129.3	144.0	200.9	190.5	170.4	171.8
Butter	130.9	127.3	120.5	130.5	185.9	174.3	163.2	159.5
Condensed and evaporated milk	150.9	139.1	132.9	153.7	233.1	202.7	188.9	201.3
Ice cream	109.5	98.9	91.7	120.0	142.9	127.1	118.1	138.5
Flour	113.4	111.2	112.9	100.2	176.4	163.0	165.1	122.4
Feeds, prepared	143.7	144.8	142.4	120.5	230.7	235.7	227.3	163.2
Cereal preparations	135.4	132.2	129.2	112.1	219.5	218.1	214.5	147.1
Baking	108.9	107.1	107.1	106.0	151.6	147.8	143.4	129.9
Sugar refining, cane	101.2	92.9	92.9	92.6	141.4	124.6	119.5	111.0
Sugar, beet	43.2	40.0	39.7	46.1	64.3	58.3	59.2	65.8
Confectionery	105.2	106.9	110.3	95.3	158.7	158.0	161.4	122.5
Beverages, nonalcoholic	133.6	124.9	119.4	112.1	168.6	148.9	140.4	129.1
Malt liquors	129.8	123.6	120.9	115.2	181.8	165.3	155.9	136.4
Canning and preserving	79.9	68.2	66.9	89.1	135.3	117.0	114.1	132.5
Tobacco manufactures	95.7	96.3	99.9	99.0	149.3	144.4	146.8	133.0
Cigarettes	117.6	117.8	123.6	102.9	158.7	155.3	156.7	141.2
Cigars	85.1	86.2	88.7	99.5	147.8	141.0	144.3	129.2
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff	88.1	87.4	89.8	83.1	124.7	122.7	125.1	113.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-earner Employment and of Wage-earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>								
Paper and allied products.....	119.5	117.7	117.7	117.7	181.9	178.0	175.5	149.4
Paper and pulp.....	110.5	108.4	108.4	116.6	174.6	170.3	167.2	152.8
Paper goods, other.....	129.9	128.0	128.6	120.7	187.2	181.4	182.0	142.6
Envelopes.....	121.0	119.4	119.4	114.2	173.9	169.5	167.6	131.6
Paper bags.....	109.0	109.3	110.3	117.4	172.0	166.9	165.6	152.4
Paper boxes.....	121.9	120.6	119.7	107.2	179.5	178.5	175.6	130.6
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	101.8	100.4	100.6	99.0	126.4	123.0	121.7	110.2
Newspaper and periodicals.....	95.7	95.7	95.8	87.9	112.0	110.7	109.8	106.7
Printing, book and job.....	103.2	100.6	101.0	97.0	131.4	126.1	123.9	107.8
Lithographing.....	94.9	93.7	94.3	89.9	123.6	117.9	119.7	97.8
Bookbinding.....	114.3	112.7	112.4	108.3	174.2	170.7	168.1	142.4
Chemicals and allied products.....	257.2	255.8	258.3	208.3	432.5	425.2	423.6	306.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	105.7	102.8	102.4	107.7	160.5	154.9	147.1	134.3
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	167.0	161.4	159.9	133.5	233.8	227.8	225.2	158.8
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	105.9	105.8	106.9	100.5	143.0	141.9	141.3	117.6
Soap.....	94.8	95.5	99.1	102.5	140.1	136.3	140.1	128.5
Rayon and allied products.....	106.9	105.8	106.8	108.1	163.6	160.3	157.3	142.4
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	166.2	163.2	162.4	160.7	274.0	265.4	261.8	221.0
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	159.2	160.4	160.7	162.4	266.3	265.7	262.9	237.1
Cottonseed oil.....	83.3	93.1	108.0	61.4	142.3	151.2	176.7	78.7
Fertilizers.....	99.8	129.8	154.8	96.2	188.2	243.8	291.8	144.5
Products of petroleum and coal.....	118.5	117.3	116.0	120.7	189.2	182.3	173.9	150.0
Petroleum refining.....	111.0	109.7	108.4	110.1	175.2	170.5	162.8	134.7
Coke and byproducts.....	116.2	115.2	115.7	124.2	189.0	177.7	169.2	156.8
Paving materials.....	67.8	66.2	55.3	82.4	120.0	107.0	94.3	120.4
Roofing materials.....	118.2	117.1	113.1	126.8	196.0	184.5	181.0	182.0
Rubber products.....	156.4	153.9	153.8	120.7	264.0	250.9	248.1	164.5
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	157.1	153.9	153.3	113.8	256.5	243.9	240.2	151.1
Rubber boots and shoes.....	149.7	146.5	146.5	115.8	259.7	247.9	243.8	164.5
Rubber goods, other.....	140.5	139.2	139.5	116.1	241.0	228.7	228.0	163.7
Miscellaneous industries.....	166.3	166.0	164.9	147.6	296.7	296.2	290.3	210.1
Photographic apparatus.....	166.5	163.1	161.8	135.5	264.8	256.6	252.1	191.9
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	130.7	130.5	124.8	90.3	257.6	261.8	235.8	121.1
Games, toys, and dolls.....	84.4	83.7	81.8	117.0	143.1	148.6	140.5	158.9
Buttons.....	99.5	97.6	101.0	119.0	174.5	171.5	173.5	174.8

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 in the data for earlier months:

Furniture group—March 1943 pay-roll index to 174.9.

Caskets and other morticians' goods—March 1943 pay-roll index to 146.9.

Cordage and twine—March 1943 employment index to 140.0.

Handkerchiefs—December 1942 employment and pay-roll indexes to 82.2 and 122.8, respectively; January, February, and March 1943 pay-roll indexes to 121.1, 124.1, and 128.6.

Textile bags—February and March 1943 employment indexes to 136.9 and 134.8, respectively.

TABLE 4.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	[In thousands]			
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
Anthracite mining	71.6	72.3	73.6	74.9
Bituminous-coal mining	379	383	394	437
Metal mining	97.6	97.8	99.3	109.9
Iron	33.9	33.4	33.1	32.1
Copper	30.9	31.4	32.0	32.0
Lead and zinc	18.8	18.9	19.2	19.9
Gold and silver	7.2	7.5	8.1	19.4
Miscellaneous metal mining	6.8	6.6	6.8	6.5
Hotels ¹	344	341	359	335
Power laundries	270	267	267	271
Dyeing and cleaning	86.8	85.2	84.4	87.2
Class I steam railroads ^{1,2}	1,382	1,351	1,345	1,293

¹ Data include salaried personnel.² Source: Interstate Commerce Commission.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

[1939 average=100]¹

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942
Coal mining:								
Anthracite	86.5	87.3	88.8	90.4	102.0	127.1	150.2	142.9
Bituminous	102.3	103.4	106.2	118.0	144.0	176.4	189.9	201.3
Metal mining	110.6	110.9	112.6	124.6	172.2	170.2	167.5	170.4
Iron	167.9	166.2	164.7	159.7	271.0	261.5	247.7	234.9
Copper	129.7	131.9	134.7	134.5	212.6	213.2	210.3	188.6
Lead and zinc	120.7	121.7	124.0	128.5	204.3	202.6	206.7	197.9
Gold and silver	28.9	30.1	32.6	78.2	36.9	38.4	36.8	87.9
Miscellaneous ²	172.5	166.1	171.2	162.4	266.7	263.6	268.5	219.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	98.8	98.2	98.2	117.2	169.5	166.3	162.8	169.2
Crude-petroleum production ^{2,3}	82.6	81.6	82.1	87.4	117.2	111.5	109.6	103.2
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph	124.7	123.2	122.8	122.1	144.5	143.2	139.4	131.0
Electric light and power	85.8	85.7	86.6	98.5	107.5	106.4	106.4	113.1
Street railways and busses	117.7	117.5	117.1	107.2	155.9	153.8	152.0	128.6
Wholesale trade	95.8	95.1	96.5	101.4	126.5	124.3	125.1	118.9
Retail trade	99.0	98.5	100.8	102.3	120.9	117.7	119.0	114.5
Food	105.7	105.3	106.3	112.1	130.0	128.1	126.4	126.7
General merchandising	112.9	112.7	116.4	109.0	132.3	128.7	133.0	121.4
Apparel	111.8	110.7	120.6	106.2	139.6	129.2	139.8	119.1
Furniture and housefurnishings	68.5	68.1	68.6	83.0	88.7	86.2	85.8	95.8
Automotive	63.1	62.5	62.0	67.5	84.8	84.1	83.0	80.1
Lumber and building materials	92.1	91.3	91.2	99.5	123.1	119.8	118.0	119.5
Hotels (year-round) ⁴	106.7	105.6	105.1	103.8	137.9	134.8	132.1	119.0
Power laundries	119.6	118.4	118.4	119.8	154.6	153.8	150.7	138.6
Dyeing and cleaning	128.6	128.2	125.1	129.2	182.9	178.1	176.2	160.5
Class I steam railroads ⁴	139.9	136.6	136.1	130.9	(6)	(6)	(6)	(6)
Water transportation ⁵	143.0	131.8	124.9	90.4	326.7	307.7	288.0	180.0

¹ Mimeographed report showing revised data (1939=100) January 1939–November 1942 for each industry available on request.² Revisions have been made as follows in the data for earlier months:*Miscellaneous metal mining*—February 1943 employment and pay-roll indexes to 182.1 and 276.3.*Crude-petroleum production*—February 1943 employment index to 82.0.³ Does not include well drilling or rig building.⁴ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips, not included. Data include salaried personnel.⁵ Source—Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.⁶ Not available.⁷ 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		
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943
All manufacturing	\$43.35	\$43.22	\$42.48	45.2	45.3	45.0	Cents	Cents	Cents
Durable goods	49.37	49.35	48.67	46.8	47.0	46.8	105.5	105.0	104.0
Nondurable goods	34.41	34.11	33.58	42.8	42.8	42.5	80.4	79.7	79.0
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Iron and steel and their products	48.08	47.65	47.08	46.5	46.4	46.2	103.4	102.7	101.9
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	49.62	49.12	47.95	44.6	44.1	43.5	112.8	112.0	110.9
Steel castings	49.61	49.18	48.87	46.9	46.9	47.1	105.9	104.8	103.7
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	36.39	36.46	36.52	43.4	43.4	43.9	84.4	84.5	83.0
Tin cans and other tinware	36.94	36.74	35.96	44.6	44.6	44.1	82.6	82.3	81.7
Wirework	46.37	46.36	46.49	47.9	47.8	48.1	95.9	95.9	95.6
Cutlery and edge tools	41.55	40.36	41.46	47.2	46.2	47.3	88.5	87.6	87.7
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	44.67	44.60	44.27	48.6	48.4	48.7	92.1	92.4	91.1
Hardware	42.78	42.65	42.04	48.1	48.1	48.2	89.0	88.7	87.2
Plumbers' supplies	44.84	43.87	43.49	47.8	47.5	47.2	93.8	92.4	92.2
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified	42.36	42.11	41.74	46.2	46.2	46.2	91.8	91.2	90.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	47.33	47.14	47.17	48.2	48.5	48.6	98.3	97.4	97.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	43.96	44.48	44.21	46.7	47.0	47.1	93.7	94.2	93.4
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork	52.31	51.43	50.32	49.7	49.4	48.8	105.1	103.9	103.3
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	46.21	46.62	45.22	47.0	47.5	46.7	99.6	99.4	98.0
Forgings, iron and steel	55.82	56.87	57.08	48.0	48.6	48.9	116.3	117.1	116.5
Firearms	56.93	56.45	57.36	48.3	48.4	48.4	117.6	116.5	118.6
Electrical machinery	45.73	45.60	45.17	47.1	47.3	47.0	97.1	96.4	96.1
Electrical equipment	48.01	47.99	47.55	47.4	47.8	47.4	101.3	100.5	100.2
Radios and phonographs	39.48	39.42	39.03	46.1	46.3	46.1	85.6	85.1	84.6
Communications equipment	41.59	41.43	41.05	46.3	46.4	46.1	89.8	89.3	89.0
Machinery, except electrical	52.48	52.54	52.14	49.6	49.8	49.8	105.8	105.5	104.7
Machinery and machine-shop products	51.21	51.34	51.01	49.6	49.5	49.7	104.0	103.7	103.0
Engines and turbines	58.11	58.52	57.32	50.4	50.9	50.3	116.1	115.8	114.3
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors	51.87	50.47	49.83	48.1	47.8	47.7	107.7	105.5	104.5
Tractors	51.34	51.93	51.76	46.8	47.2	47.1	109.7	110.1	109.9
Machine tools	54.09	54.76	54.69	51.1	51.8	52.0	105.8	105.7	105.1
Textile machinery	46.60	45.71	46.86	50.4	50.3	51.3	92.4	90.9	91.4
Typewriters	47.31	46.78	46.26	49.5	49.4	49.8	95.6	94.7	92.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines	58.78	58.41	57.64	50.2	50.1	49.7	118.1	117.5	117.0
Transportation equipment, except automobiles	56.00	56.29	55.77	47.1	47.5	47.5	118.9	118.5	117.4
Locomotives ²	59.68	58.39	55.94	48.7	47.8	46.9	122.5	122.2	119.2
Cars, electric and steam-railroad	48.26	50.99	48.54	43.8	45.6	44.4	110.0	111.5	108.9
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines	49.57	59.67	49.69	46.5	46.8	47.3	107.2	106.3	105.2
Aircraft engines	60.59	61.16	60.02	47.9	48.8	48.3	126.5	125.2	124.3
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding	59.80	60.04	59.50	47.6	47.8	47.7	125.3	125.5	124.6
Automobiles	57.10	57.00	55.77	4.62	46.3	45.9	123.6	123.1	121.5
Nonferrous metals and their products	47.47	47.76	45.85	47.0	47.1	46.8	101.0	101.4	100.1
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals	45.77	45.51	44.42	45.6	44.7	44.2	101.4	102.9	100.7
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals except aluminum	52.24	52.12	51.78	48.0	48.1	48.0	110.0	109.2	108.5
Clocks and watches	39.18	39.96	39.62	45.9	46.3	46.1	85.6	86.6	86.1
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings	39.26	38.96	39.21	45.5	45.5	45.9	84.9	84.3	84.4
Silverware and plated ware	45.93	45.09	44.80	46.6	46.8	47.2	98.7	96.4	95.1
Lighting equipment	45.39	46.06	45.83	46.1	46.0	46.0	98.6	100.2	99.3
Aluminum manufactures	49.55	49.74	48.44	47.4	47.6	47.2	104.6	104.7	102.6
Lumber and timber basic products	32.81	32.24	30.82	44.4	43.8	43.1	73.9	73.6	71.5
Sawmills and logging camps	31.98	31.51	29.75	44.1	43.4	42.5	72.6	72.5	69.9
Planing and plywood mills	35.42	34.68	33.05	45.5	45.1	43.9	78.1	77.1	75.5

See footnotes at end of table.

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

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TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Specified Months—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>									
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	\$33.00	\$32.74	\$32.13	44.6	44.6	44.6	74.0	73.4	72.2
Furniture.....	33.68	33.14	32.86	44.4	44.3	44.6	76.1	75.2	74.0
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	36.46	36.25	35.57	43.2	43.0	42.7	84.4	84.3	83.3
Glass and glassware.....	36.87	36.96	36.53	41.4	41.6	41.5	89.1	88.9	88.2
Cement.....	38.22	37.73	36.19	43.0	42.7	41.6	89.0	88.4	87.1
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	31.17	30.99	30.17	41.4	40.6	40.4	74.8	75.6	74.7
Pottery and related products.....	33.91	33.27	32.74	41.5	40.9	40.8	81.7	81.5	80.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	35.04	37.08	35.19	41.8	43.1	42.4	82.9	84.8	82.1
Asbestos products.....	44.98	44.25	43.93	48.5	48.2	48.2	93.3	92.9	91.7
<i>Nondurable goods</i>									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	27.66	27.79	27.54	41.6	41.9	41.7	66.5	66.4	66.0
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	24.32	24.78	24.54	41.3	41.9	41.8	58.9	59.1	58.8
Cotton smallwares.....	31.56	32.24	32.28	43.8	44.2	44.8	72.2	72.9	72.2
Silk and rayon goods.....	27.00	27.12	26.67	41.9	42.1	41.9	64.4	64.3	63.7
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	33.97	33.56	33.39	42.0	41.7	41.7	80.9	80.4	80.1
Hosiery.....	26.75	26.76	26.45	38.6	38.9	38.8	69.6	68.9	68.4
Knitted cloth.....	31.57	31.73	31.21	43.2	43.6	43.3	72.7	72.5	71.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	29.90	29.07	28.16	42.5	41.2	40.5	68.8	68.5	67.3
Knitted underwear.....	24.65	24.66	24.41	41.6	41.7	41.4	59.3	59.0	58.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	32.20	32.03	32.19	44.5	44.4	44.5	72.3	72.0	72.2
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	36.40	36.89	36.36	42.3	43.2	43.1	86.2	85.6	84.6
Hats, fur-felt.....	37.69	38.86	39.47	40.4	41.6	42.0	93.6	93.5	93.3
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	26.63	26.61	27.44	38.1	38.4	39.0	69.9	69.3	70.4
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified ²	28.53	28.92	29.31	38.3	38.8	39.3	74.3	74.5	74.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	22.13	21.63	21.58	38.0	37.4	37.5	58.3	57.6	57.5
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	23.58	23.60	23.28	37.0	37.9	37.7	63.7	62.2	61.8
Work shirts.....	18.60	19.02	19.09	37.7	38.4	39.1	48.4	48.1	47.7
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	31.57	31.45	33.31	37.9	38.1	39.0	82.5	80.8	83.7
Corsets and allied garments.....	27.25	27.08	26.60	41.3	41.6	41.6	66.1	65.3	64.1
Millinery.....	27.74	29.31	32.94	29.7	31.6	34.4	81.5	80.9	84.2
Leather and leather products.....	29.93	30.03	29.69	39.8	40.2	40.2	75.2	74.7	73.9
Leather.....	37.52	37.41	37.24	42.9	42.9	42.8	87.6	87.5	87.3
Boots and shoes.....	28.02	28.24	28.15	38.7	39.3	39.5	72.1	71.7	70.9
Food.....	36.05	35.63	34.12	44.9	44.7	43.3	80.3	79.7	78.8
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	41.90	41.09	36.40	47.8	47.3	43.0	87.8	87.1	84.8
Butter.....	31.30	30.18	29.85	47.7	46.6	46.5	64.9	65.0	64.3
Ice cream.....	35.67	35.06	35.36	46.8	45.8	46.3	73.4	73.4	73.3
Flour.....	37.89	36.94	37.07	48.8	47.7	47.3	78.4	78.2	78.4
Baking.....	35.76	35.40	34.42	44.7	44.7	43.8	80.1	79.3	78.7
Sugar refining, cane.....	33.73	32.08	30.78	41.3	40.1	39.3	81.0	80.0	78.2
Sugar, beet.....	36.84	36.17	37.20	38.9	38.0	39.6	95.0	95.2	93.9
Confectionery.....	27.91	27.54	27.04	42.0	41.4	41.7	67.0	66.6	65.2
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	33.20	31.72	31.09	44.2	43.4	43.1	76.5	73.7	72.4
Malt liquors.....	48.61	46.70	45.34	46.4	44.7	43.4	105.9	105.1	104.4
Canning and preserving.....	26.95	27.45	27.23	39.0	39.9	39.3	69.6	69.7	70.0
Tobacco manufactures.....	26.45	25.29	24.80	41.0	40.2	40.0	64.5	62.9	62.0
Cigarettes.....	28.94	27.99	26.91	40.5	40.1	39.2	70.8	69.8	68.6
Cigars.....	24.98	23.49	23.35	41.7	40.5	40.0	60.0	57.9	57.1
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	25.00	24.64	24.45	39.1	39.2	39.1	63.9	62.9	62.6
Paper and allied products.....	36.47	36.21	35.79	45.7	45.6	45.3	79.8	79.4	79.0
Paper and pulp.....	40.06	39.58	38.87	46.8	46.8	46.2	85.1	84.5	84.2
Paper boxes.....	32.47	32.49	32.28	44.4	44.6	44.5	73.4	73.1	72.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	40.42	39.86	39.32	40.1	39.9	39.8	100.8	99.9	98.8
Newspapers and periodicals ²	44.66	44.29	43.79	37.1	37.0	36.9	118.8	117.7	116.8
Printing, book and job.....	38.12	37.63	36.81	41.5	41.3	41.0	92.0	91.2	89.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Specified Months—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943
							Cents	Cents	Cents
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>									
Chemicals and allied products.....	\$42.04	\$41.50	\$41.00	45.7	45.6	45.5	92.0	91.0	90.1
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	44.15	43.50	41.63	47.1	47.0	45.7	92.9	92.8	91.3
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	33.19	33.63	33.58	43.0	44.0	44.0	77.0	76.3	76.8
Soap.....	42.15	40.69	40.34	44.7	43.7	43.5	94.3	93.1	92.7
Rayon and allied products.....	37.13	36.78	35.73	42.1	41.9	41.4	88.4	87.7	86.3
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	49.23	48.53	48.10	46.3	46.0	45.7	106.4	105.5	105.3
Explosives and safety fuses.....	48.04	47.74	47.44	47.5	47.2	47.1	101.2	101.1	100.8
Ammunition, small-arms.....	41.99	42.07	42.07	46.5	46.5	46.5	90.3	90.4	90.5
Fireworks.....	(²)	34.50	33.49	(³)	43.1	43.4	(³)	80.0	77.3
Cottonseed oil.....	23.31	22.00	22.08	48.8	47.6	48.4	47.5	46.2	45.8
Fertilizers.....	27.01	26.61	26.23	43.6	44.0	44.8	61.9	60.5	58.6
Products of petroleum and coal.....	51.48	49.93	48.33	45.6	44.5	43.5	112.9	112.2	111.1
Petroleum refining.....	53.89	53.42	51.58	45.2	44.6	43.5	120.4	119.6	118.3
Rubber products.....	47.10	45.63	45.01	46.0	45.4	45.1	102.4	100.5	99.8
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	54.60	53.15	52.54	46.2	45.6	45.2	118.3	116.7	116.2
Rubber boots and shoes.....	39.18	38.25	37.59	45.3	45.4	45.1	86.4	84.1	83.3
Rubber goods, other.....	40.56	38.88	38.77	45.9	45.1	45.1	88.6	86.4	85.8
Miscellaneous industries.....	40.83	40.83	40.37	46.5	46.4	46.4	87.8	88.0	87.0
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment.....	51.40	51.44	50.74	51.5	51.1	51.3	99.8	100.6	99.0

NONMANUFACTURING

Coal mining:							Cents	Cents	Cents
Anthracite.....	\$30.32	\$37.39	\$43.40	28.1	36.1	41.2	104.5	103.7	106.0
Bituminous.....	31.81	39.51	41.39	28.3	35.6	36.9	112.4	111.9	112.8
Metal mining.....	44.39	43.43	42.57	44.9	44.3	43.9	98.3	98.4	96.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	36.79	36.12	35.62	47.1	46.3	46.0	77.8	78.1	77.6
Crude-petroleum production.....	48.25	46.32	45.27	42.6	41.0	41.2	109.3	109.7	106.9
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph.....	35.41	35.53	34.99	41.8	42.0	41.3	85.7	85.5	85.0
Electric light and power.....	43.77	42.98	42.17	41.7	40.8	40.8	103.8	105.1	103.4
Street railways and busses.....	44.40	43.52	43.14	49.4	49.0	48.9	88.0	87.6	87.0
Wholesale trade.....	39.22	38.86	38.41	42.5	41.7	41.8	92.6	93.4	92.3
Retail trade.....	25.13	24.42	24.23	41.6	40.9	40.7	67.3	66.3	65.7
Food.....	30.46	30.13	29.42	43.1	42.0	41.9	68.3	67.6	66.7
General merchandising.....	20.78	20.44	20.35	37.5	36.6	36.8	55.3	54.6	54.3
Apparel.....	26.90	25.19	25.01	37.6	36.9	36.5	71.7	68.4	68.3
Furniture and house furnishings.....	35.18	34.63	34.31	44.4	44.1	44.1	81.9	80.9	79.5
Automotive.....	37.08	37.12	36.83	47.5	47.4	47.4	78.9	79.0	78.9
Lumber and building materials.....	34.65	34.09	33.40	44.1	43.3	43.3	81.2	81.2	80.4
Hotels (year-round).....	20.00	19.75	19.46	44.6	44.4	44.6	45.1	44.8	44.0
Laundries.....	23.64	23.87	23.48	44.2	44.4	44.4	54.6	54.5	53.6
Dyeing and cleaning.....	29.15	28.93	28.87	45.3	45.0	45.7	65.3	64.9	64.1
Brokerage.....	54.25	50.89	51.74	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
Insurance.....	41.36	41.35	40.26	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
Building construction.....	48.65	47.46	47.00	39.5	38.1	38.1	123.0	124.0	123.5

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of 1 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. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² Revisions have been made in the data for earlier months as follows:

Locomotives.—September 1942 to March 1943 average weekly earnings to \$53.29, \$54.92, \$58.07, \$59.19, \$58.74, \$58.70, and \$57.42; average weekly hours to 47.8, 47.4, 48.0, 49.1, 48.3, 48.6, and 47.8; average hourly earnings to 111.5, 115.8, 117.9, 120.4, 121.7, 120.8, and 120.1 cents. Data for September 1942 and subsequent months are comparable with averages published for August 1942 and earlier months.

Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.—December 1942, January 1943, and March 1943 average weekly hours to 37.0, 37.2, and 39.1, respectively; March 1943 average hourly earnings to 73.8 cents.

Newspapers and periodicals.—March 1943 average weekly hours and average hourly earnings to 37.1 hours and 115.6 cents. Revised data not strictly comparable with previously published averages. Comparable figures for February 1943 are 36.9 hours and 115.1 cents.

³ Not available.

Civilian Labor Force, July 1943

A SEASONAL upswing of 900,000 between June and July 1943 brought civilian employment to a new high of 54,300,000, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. At the same time, the civilian labor force showed an increase equal to the expansion in employment, while the volume of unemployment remained unchanged at 1,200,000.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force, by Employment Status and Sex, in Selected Months, July 1940–July 1943¹

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Sex and employment status	Estimated number (millions of persons)				
	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942	July 1941	July 1940
Both sexes.....	55.5	54.6	56.8	56.6	56.9
Unemployed ²	1.2	1.2	2.8	5.7	9.3
Employed.....	54.3	53.4	54.0	50.9	47.6
Nonagriculture.....	42.2	41.5	42.3	40.2	36.8
Agriculture.....	12.1	11.9	11.7	10.7	10.8
Males.....	37.8	37.3	41.6	42.6	43.1
Unemployed ²6	.6	1.7	3.7	6.3
Employed.....	37.2	36.7	39.9	38.9	36.8
Nonagriculture.....	27.4	27.1	30.2	29.5	27.0
Agriculture.....	9.8	9.6	9.7	9.4	9.8
Females.....	17.7	17.3	15.2	14.0	13.8
Unemployed ²6	.6	1.1	2.0	3.0
Employed.....	17.1	16.7	14.1	12.0	10.8
Nonagriculture.....	14.8	14.4	12.1	10.7	9.8
Agriculture.....	2.3	2.3	2.0	1.3	1.0

¹ All data exclude persons in institutions.

² Includes persons on public emergency projects.

Large numbers of teen-age boys and girls found jobs during June and July following the close of the school term, and the 2,300,000 increase in employment of 14- to 19-year-olds largely accounted for the record employment level registered by the Census in July 1943.

Students on vacation found employment both in agricultural and nonagricultural pursuits. Agricultural employment reached a new high of 12,100,000 in the Census series for the second consecutive month. The increase in agriculture between June and July was confined entirely to male workers, owing mainly to the large number of boys taking farm jobs and the law deferring necessary agricultural workers from the draft.

Nonagricultural male employment, which had been declining since August 1942, increased by 300,000 between June and July 1943. At the same time, the number of women engaged in nonagricultural industry increased by 400,000 to a new high of 14,800,000. As in the case of agriculture, the 700,000 increase in nonagricultural employment was largely a result of youngsters going to work during the school vacation.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment and Unemployment, by Age and Sex, in June and July 1943 and July 1942¹

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Employment status and age	Estimated number (millions of persons)								
	Total			Male			Female		
	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942	July 1943	June 1943	July 1942
Total civilian labor force.....	55.5	54.6	56.8	37.8	37.3	41.6	17.7	17.3	15.2
14-19 years.....	7.8	6.9	8.4	4.2	3.8	5.4	3.6	3.1	3.0
20-24 years.....	5.0	5.1	6.5	2.1	2.2	3.8	2.9	2.9	2.7
25-34 years.....	11.3	11.5	12.2	7.5	7.5	8.8	3.8	4.0	3.4
35-44 years.....	12.0	11.9	11.7	8.5	8.4	8.8	3.5	3.5	2.9
45-54 years.....	10.0	9.9	9.4	7.7	7.7	7.5	2.3	2.2	1.9
55-64 years.....	6.6	6.5	6.2	5.4	5.3	5.2	1.2	1.2	1.0
65 years and over.....	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.1	.4	.4	.3
Total persons employed.....	54.3	53.4	54.0	37.2	36.7	39.9	17.1	16.7	14.1
14-19 years.....	7.3	6.4	7.4	4.0	3.6	4.9	3.3	2.8	2.5
20-24 years.....	4.9	5.0	6.2	2.1	2.1	3.7	2.8	2.9	2.5
25-34 years.....	11.2	11.4	11.9	7.4	7.5	8.6	3.8	3.9	3.3
35-44 years.....	11.9	11.8	11.3	8.5	8.4	8.6	3.4	3.4	2.7
45-54 years.....	9.9	9.8	9.1	7.6	7.6	7.3	2.3	2.2	1.8
55-64 years.....	6.4	6.3	5.8	5.3	5.1	4.8	1.1	1.2	1.0
65 years and over.....	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.0	.4	.3	.3
Total persons unemployed ²	1.2	1.2	2.8	.6	.6	1.7	.6	.6	1.1
14-19 years.....	.5	.5	1.0	.2	.2	.5	.3	.3	.5
20-24 years.....	.1	.1	.3	(3)	.1	.1	.1	(3)	.2
25-34 years.....	.1	.1	.3	.1	(3)	.2	(3)	.1	.1
35-44 years.....	.1	.1	.4	(3)	(3)	.2	.1	(3)	.2
45-54 years.....	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	.2	(3)	(3)	.1
55-64 years.....	.2	.2	.4	.1	.2	.4	(3)	(3)	(3)
65 years and over.....	.1	.1	.1	.1	(3)	.1	(3)	.1	(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

SEPTEMBER 1943

Coal Industry

The first century and a quarter of American coal industry. By Howard N. Eavenson. Pittsburgh, Pa., the author, Koppers Building, 1942. 701 pp., maps, charts. \$8.

A comprehensive account of the development of the coal industry in the United States, dealing with its growth, State by State, and the factors that influenced development. The book contains a great deal of quoted material that is difficult of access in the original. Titles of books that contain no data on coal are included in the reference list to save other students from consulting them.

Sixty-first coal report of Illinois, 1942. Springfield, Department of Mines and Minerals, 1943. 235 pp.

Statistical analysis of mine operations covering production and labor aspects.

First report of Committee on the Recruitment of Juveniles in the Coal-Mining Industry [Great Britain]. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1942. 20 pp. 4d.

The decline in the rate of recruitment for the British coal-mining industry in recent years has been such as to present a serious prospect as regards the future supply of skilled workers. The committee was appointed, therefore, to inquire into and make recommendations on opportunities for training and advancement, and the general welfare of juvenile workers in the industry, including wages and conditions of work.

Cooperative Movement

Consumer cooperatives in America. By Wallace J. Campbell. New York, Co-operative League, 1943. 32 pp., bibliography, illus. 2d ed. 10 cents.

Popular discussion of what the cooperatives are doing today in various fields of activity in the United States.

The cooperative movement in the Americas—an international symposium. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1943. 59 pp. 25 cents.

A series of short-wave radio broadcasts to South America, made during the summer of 1942, including an address by a representative of the International Labor Office on the need for international pooling of cooperative experience and ideas, and speeches on the development of cooperation in the United States and various Latin American countries by representatives of those countries. In an introduction to the volume the chief of the Cooperation Service of the International Labor Office discusses the work of that office in collecting information on cooperatives.

Agricultural cooperatives in Latin America. By Jane Powell. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, 1942. 24 pp.; mimeographed. (Series on cooperatives, No. 18.)

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries. The amounts do not include postage, and also they are subject to change.

- The agricultural cooperative movement in Peru.* By Alejandro MacLean y Estenós. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, 1943. 16 pp.; mimeographed. (Series on cooperatives, No. 21.)
- Rural credit in El Salvador.* By José Valle. Washington, Pan American Union, 1943. 17 pp.; mimeographed. (Series on cooperatives, No. 20.)
- Mainly a discussion of the rural credit cooperatives being promoted by the Mortgage Bank of El Salvador, in a program inaugurated at the end of 1940. Contains bylaws and a discussion of the aims and purposes of the associations.

Cost and Standards of Living

Rural family spending and saving in wartime. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, 1943. 163 pp. (Department of Agriculture miscellaneous publication No. 520.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.

El costo de la vida. (In Revista de Economía Argentina, Buenos Aires, April 1943, pp. 116-122.)

This article includes background material showing the method used by the Argentine Bureau of Labor in establishing a cost-of-living index for Buenos Aires in 1933; tables showing index numbers (with 1939 as base) from 1939 through 1942 by years, and from January 1942 through February 1943 by months, for food, housing, clothing, furniture, lighting, miscellaneous expenses, and total of all items; and comparative total indexes for 1939 through October 1942 for the United States, Argentina, Switzerland, and Great Britain.

El costo de la vida obrera en América. By Ana Mekler. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Labor and Social Information, 1943. 139 pp., bibliography; mimeographed.

Compilation of cost-of-living indexes for the American Republics for various years through 1942, with sources and methods of construction.

Report of the Cost of Living Committee, Lagos, Nigeria. London, Crown Agents for the Colonies (also obtainable from Government Printer, Lagos, Nigeria), 1942. 155 pp. 7s. 6d.

The committee was appointed to consider the adequacy of rates of pay of labor, and of African Government servants and employees, in the township of Lagos. In its report it discusses measures taken to counteract increases in living costs and makes recommendations for future action.

Economic and Social Problems

Basic criteria of price policy. By Edwin G. Nourse. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1943. 52 pp. (Chapter XI of the forthcoming book, *Price-Making in a Democracy*; pamphlet No. 51.) 25 cents.

The major criterion of price policy by management is described as the maintenance of full employment. Various plans by managements of industrial enterprises for post-war action are described and some of their limitations are mentioned. It is stated that in addition to the technological function of adjusting the types of production to consumers' demands, a major function of management is that of perfecting "a scheme of disbursements that will bring the cost structure, the price structure, and the income structure of the economy into continuous working balance."

The dynamics of business: An analysis of trends, cycles, and time relationships in American economic activity since 1700 and their bearing upon governmental and business policy. By Norman J. Silberling. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943. 759 pp., charts. \$5.

Analyzes long-term trends of production, price levels, and income in the United States, and discusses cyclical movements in agriculture, building, production, trade, finance, and wages. Chapters of particular labor interest are: Consumer income use and merchandising cycles; Industrial labor productivity, wage income, and employment; and Cyclical stabilization of wage income.

The effect of the war on income, wages, and living costs. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1943. 22 pp., charts; mimeographed.

Social aspects of industry: A survey of labor problems. By S. Howard Patterson. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943. 536 pp., charts. 3d ed. \$3.

The book is divided into six parts: The background of labor problems; Problems of income; Human conservation and labor legislation; Collective bargaining and labor organizations; The approach of the employer; Comprehensive programs of economic reconstruction.

Handicapped Workers

"*Handicapped line*" produces for war. By Elsa F. Rampendahl. (In Domestic Commerce, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, July 1943, pp. 8, 9; illus. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Lists types of work which persons with specified disabilities are stated to be doing successfully, and in some cases more efficiently than normal workers, and discusses briefly the program of the Federal Government for rehabilitating and placing physically handicapped workers.

The physically disabled and war manpower. By Tracy Copp. (In Public Welfare, Chicago, June 1943, pp. 176-180. 50 cents.)

Discusses the extent to which the vocational-rehabilitation services of the different States and the United States Government have been employed in the present manpower emergency, and the need for these services for both the industrial and the war disabled.

The physically handicapped—their rehabilitation and employment in Connecticut. By James H. Biram, M. D. (In Industrial Medicine, Chicago, July 1943, pp. 448-450. 50 cents.)

Housing and Home Ownership

Builders of 1-family houses in 11 areas, 1940 and 1941. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 7 pp. (Serial No. R. 1524; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, April 1943.) Free.

Background, extent, and consequences of "federalization" of savings and loan associations. By J. Russell Boner. Urbana, [University of Illinois?], 1942. 16 pp.

Abstract of a doctoral thesis. Traces briefly the development of building and loan associations prior to the depression, situation of the associations, efforts of Congress to safeguard home ownership, and developments after passage of the Federal Act authorizing incorporation of savings and loan associations under Federal charter, in 1933. The author states that the technical quality of savings and loan management has been "markedly improved by Federal supervision of member associations of the Federal Home Loan Bank system, especially in those associations which have their accounts insured with the Federal Savings and Loan Corporation."

Home financing through savings and loan associations. By Charles M. Torrance. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 9 pp. (Serial No. R. 1538; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, May 1943.) Free.

Ten years of Federal savings and loan associations, June 13, 1933, to June 13, 1943. (In Federal Home Loan Bank Review, U. S. Federal Home Loan Bank Administration, Washington, June 1943, pp. 255-265, 279; charts. 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Reviews the experience of what is described as a new system of local thrift and home-financing institutions.

Transportation problems and war housing. Washington, U. S. National Housing Agency, Division of Urban Studies, 1942. 16 pp.; mimeographed. (Bull. No. 9.)

Describes transportation problems and measures for improving conditions, thus reducing the need for new housing.

Income

Estimates of national output, distributed income, consumer spending, saving, and capital formation. By Marvin Hoffenberg. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, May 1943. 74 pp., charts. (Review of Economic Statistics, Vol. XXV, No. 2.)

Among the outstanding recent statistical developments are those in the general field of national income and related aggregates. It is stated in the foreword that existing estimates are frequently used without much understanding of their purposes and limitations. As an aid in the understanding and adequate use of the several statistical series in this field, the present study, prepared in the Post-War Labor Problems Division of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, presents

the series in parallel columns and describes each series in terms of what it is supposed to measure and how it is constructed. The series included in the study originated in the Department of Commerce, the Securities and Exchange Commission, the Federal Reserve Board, the National Bureau of Economic Research, and the National Industrial Conference Board.

Income in selected professions. By Edward F. Denison. (In Survey of Current Business, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, July 1943, pp. 25-28; chart. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

In 1942 the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce conducted surveys of economic conditions in five professions—dentistry, law, medicine, private-duty nursing, and veterinary medicine. The article listed presents data on incomes of veterinarians during the period 1938-41. The other professions will be covered in subsequent articles.

State income payments in 1942. By Daniel Creamer and Charles F. Schwartz. (In Survey of Current Business, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, June 1943, pp. 10-22. 15 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Indexes of total income payments by State are given for 1929, 1941, and 1942. A tabulation of per capita income by State covers the years 1929, 1933, and 1939-42. Detailed statistics are given regarding pay rolls in manufacturing and Government and in various groups of manufacturing industries. There is a section on net income of farm operators. The basic table gives State income payments by type of payment for 1929, 1933, and 1939-42. The four types of payment included are net salaries and wages; other labor income; entrepreneurial income; and dividends, interest, etc. The figures of income payments by State are payments to individuals on a "where-received" basis, but in the computation of estimates of per capita income payments the income figures of certain States were converted to a residence basis, as, for example, when a portion of total income payments attributed to New York was allocated to New Jersey.

Studies in the national income, 1924-1938. Edited by A. L. Bowley. Cambridge, England, University Press, 1942. 255 pp., bibliography. (National Institute of Economic and Social Research, London, Economic and social studies, I. 15s. (\$5, Macmillan, Toronto).)

Shows the complexities of defining the term, national income; estimates income in Great Britain, both money and real; and discusses in detail new methods of measurement.

Industrial Relations

Fair labor standards and the contract system: Background and some current problems. By Irving Richter and Sarah Ginsberg. (In Social Service Review, Chicago, March 1943, pp. 23-37. \$1.25.)

Traces the difficulties in enforcing fair labor standards in sweated contract shops, with particular reference to problems arising under recent regulatory measures.

Sixth annual report of the New York State Labor Relations Board, for the year ended December 31, 1942. Albany, 1943. 89 pp., charts.

Decisions of the Board—and of courts in cases to which the Board was a party—are classified and analyzed by question or controversy.

Public regulation of labor relations—the Wisconsin experiment. By Charles C. Killingsworth. (In American Economic Review, 722 Jackson Place NW., Washington, June 1943, pp. 247-263. \$1.25.)

Comparison of the operation of the Wisconsin Employment Peace Act and the National Labor Relations Act.

Strikes in 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 31 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 741; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, May 1943 with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The right to strike in South Africa—an historical analysis. By Ellison Kahn. (In South African Journal of Economics, Johannesburg, March 1943, pp. 24-47. 6s.)

Analysis of laws and regulations.

The rules of practice and procedure of the Labor Court of Ontario. Toronto, T. E. Bowman (Government printer), 1943. 15 pp.

The Labor Court was established by the Ontario Collective Bargaining Act of 1943, which was summarized in the Monthly Labor Review for July 1943 (p. 58).

International Labor Conditions

Labor conditions in war contracts, with special reference to Canada, Great Britain, and the United States. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1943. 74 pp. (Studies and reports, series D, No. 23.) 2d ed. 25 cents.

Revision and expansion of a report published in March 1942. The present edition contains information received by the International Labor Office up to May 1, 1943.

"*The origins of the International Labor Organization*" and the problems of the next peace settlement. By Carter Goodrich. New York, Columbia University Press, 1943. 7 pp.

Labor Legislation and Court Decisions

Court decisions on teacher tenure reported in 1942. Washington, National Education Association of the United States, Committee on Tenure, May 1943. 39 pp. 25 cents.

Kentucky labor laws, revised 1942. Frankfort, Department of Industrial Relations, [1943?]. 16 pp.

Annual report on dispensations from the [New York] labor law, December 8, 1941, to December 7, 1942. Albany, Department of Labor, Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, 1943. 65 pp.; mimeographed.

Rhode Island labor laws. Providence, Department of Labor, 1942. 177 pp.

A falta grave e a força maior na legislação trabalhista Brasileira. By J. Pinto Antunes. (In *Revista do Trabalho*, Rio de Janeiro, November 1942, pp. 13-20.)

Summary and discussion of Brazilian legislation concerning dismissal of a worker because of a serious offense committed by him, or on account of force majeure.

Recopilación y codificación laboral. By Juan Bernaldo de Quiros. (In *Trabajo*, Ministerio del Trabajo, Habana, Cuba, April 1943, pp. 463-473.)

Brief historical account of the construction of labor codes now in effect in various countries, especially in Latin America, and a discussion of the feasibility of codification of labor legislation.

Labor Organizations and Their Activities

International Federation of Trade Unions—report on activities, 1942-43; meeting of Emergency International Trade Union Council—summary of proceedings. London, International Federation of Trade Unions, 1943. 20 pp.

The pamphlet includes discussion of post-war plans for the international trade-union movement.

The treatment of unionism by the [U. S.] War Labor Board. By Walter L. Daykin. (In *Iowa Law Review*, Iowa City, March 1943, pp. 451-483. \$1.)

Lista de sindicatos obreros de América. Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Labor and Social Information, 1943. 22 pp.; mimeographed.

A listing, by country, of labor organizations in Latin America which receive publications of the Division of Labor and Social Information of the Pan American Union. Some organizations are listed for all republics except El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, and Nicaragua.

Twenty-second annual report of Amalgamated Union of Building Trade Workers of Great Britain and Ireland, 1942. London, 1943. 75 pp.

Contains membership and financial statistics.

Nutrition

Food and planning. By John R. Marrack. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1943. 285 pp.

The author discusses food requirements and the effect of deficiencies; nutritive value of different foods; food control and supplies in the last war; food planning during the present war; the present position in Britain and Germany; and planning a system that will insure the nutrition of all peoples after the end of the war.

Manual of industrial nutrition. Washington, U. S. Food Distribution Administration, Nutrition and Food Conservation Branch, 1943. 25 pp.

The bulletin contains the national nutrition program for industry, discusses basic considerations for an in-plant nutrition program, and makes suggestions for in-plant feeding and the conservation of essential food factors in the preparation of foods for human consumption.

Old-Age Retirement and Assistance

Annual report of the Railroad Retirement Board, for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1942. Washington, 1943. 199 pp., charts.

Contains an account of the organization and management of the Board and the contributions and benefits paid under the Railroad Retirement Act and the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act, which the Board administers.

Special report of Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Welfare in regard to an investigation and study of the administration of the old age assistance law and of the benefits received by recipients of such assistance. Boston, 1943. 175 pp., charts.

Pensiones a la Vejez. By Manuel Ossorio y Florit. (In Previsión Social, Ministerio de Salubridad, Previsión y Asistencia Social, Santiago de Chile, October-December 1942, pp. 158-165.)

Comparison of old-age pension systems in various countries with respect to amount of benefit, age at retirement, etc., with special application to Argentina.

Personnel Management

Personnel organization: Wartime problems and post-war trends. By L. H. Hill, Lawrence A. Appley, M. B. Folsom. New York, American Management Association, 1943. 34 pp. (Personnel series No. 63.)

The Tennessee Valley Authority: A study in public administration. By C. Herman Pritchett. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1943. 333 pp., maps, charts. \$3.50.

Deals almost entirely with the administrative aspects of the TVA program (for power production and regional planning and development) and its development. One chapter, however, covers personnel administration—the problem, merit system, personnel management, and collective bargaining.

Post-War Reconstruction

Economic problems of the post-war world: Democratic planning for full employment. By Alvin H. Hansen and Laurence E. Leamer. Washington, National Education Association, 1942. 64 pp. (Problems in American life, unit No. 10.) 30 cents.

This pamphlet was prepared for use by teachers in secondary schools, but the first part analyzes post-war problems in a manner that may be of interest to others as well as teachers. Points of emphasis include adaptations to meet changing conditions; planning for the maintenance of full employment on the basis of a "high-consumption economy"; long-range programs for developing national resources, new industries, increased educational facilities, low-cost housing, etc.; and the bearing of debt and tax policies on post-war problems.

Post-war mass employment in public works: Part I, Power and water resources; Part II, Communication, transportation, and other improvements. By Tadeusz B. Spitzer. (In Public Utilities Fortnightly, Washington, June 24, 1943, pp. 795-804; July 8, 1943, pp. 15-24. 75 cents each.)

The author proposes a program of world-wide public works designed to "insure employment for the masses of people over a period of from 25 to 50 years, one that would, at the same time, shape the outlines and environment for private promotion and initiative." He makes specific suggestions as to projects which might be undertaken in various parts of the world.

Post-war planning of World War I. By Stella Stewart. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 18 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

Administration of relief abroad: I, Foreign relief and rehabilitation—a bibliography. Compiled by Sigrid Holt. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1943. 23 pp. 20 cents.

The publications listed deal almost entirely with civilian relief and rehabilitation. Reports on various topics of labor interest are included.

Foreign relief and rehabilitation—a selected list of references. Compiled by Grace Hadley Fuller. Washington, Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, February 1943. 28 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

Social Security

Farmers and farm laborers in employment covered by old-age and survivors insurance. By Fred Safer, John Useem, and Walter Quinn. (In Social Security Bulletin, U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, June 1943, pp. 18-24. 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

This article, and an earlier article on the same subject in the Social Security Bulletin of July 1941, give the conclusions derived from surveys of the effects of old-age and survivors insurance on farm workers. These workers participate to a considerable extent in the program because the wages which they earn when they shift temporarily into industrial or commercial jobs are taxable. They are required to make contributions at the same rate as other insurable workers, but there is little likelihood, it is stated, that most of them will be able to meet the conditions for obtaining the benefits accruing to insured workers. The removal of the existing disadvantages would require, it is stated, not only an extension of the system to agriculture but also the adoption of measures to overcome the handicaps that would result from late entrance into the system or previous intermittent participation in it.

Freedom from want. New York, Womans Press, 1943. 17 pp.; mimeographed. (Public Affairs News Service Bull. No. 5, series No. 7.) 18 cents.

Review of the social-insurance plan for Great Britain proposed in the Beveridge report, and of the U. S. National Resources Planning Board reports, and a summary of the Wagner bill for a unified social-security system in the United States.

Situación financiera de la Caja de Seguro Obligatorio [Chile]. (In Previsión Social, Ministerio de Salubridad, Previsión y Asistencia Social, Santiago de Chile, October-December 1942, pp. 195-202; chart.)

Financial report of the Chilean Compulsory Insurance Fund for the year ending June 30, 1942, with a statement of financial problems of the fund and proposed solutions.

El nuevo plan del seguro social de empleados públicos y empleados de banco [Ecuador]. By F. A. López Arteta. (In Boletín de Informaciones y de Estudios Sociales y Económicos, Instituto Nacional de Previsión, Quito, March 1943, pp. 1-7.)

Summary of provisions of the new scheme of social insurance for civil and banking employees in Ecuador, with respect to sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, survivors' benefits, dismissal compensation, burial benefits, loans, and administration.

El seguro de maternidad en América Latina. By R. Aladár Méta; translated by A. Ferrero. (In Boletín del Museo Social Argentino, Buenos Aires, March-April 1943, pp. 94-106.)

Brief summary of maternity and sickness insurance in Chile, Peru, and Venezuela, and of maternity insurance in Cuba and Argentina, with some statistics, preceded by a general discussion of maternity insurance in Europe.

Vacations with Pay

Wartime influences on vacation policies. By Elmer W. Earl, Jr. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 16 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 56.)

Férias na indústria e seu aproveitamento. By José Osmir de França Guimarães. (In Economia, São Paulo, Brazil, March 1943, pp. 1-4.)

Digest of legislation providing paid vacations in industry in many countries; discussion of the part the State and the employer play in the granting of vacations; and a statement of the present situation regarding paid vacations in the Brazilian State of São Paulo.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Union wages and hours in the baking industry, June 1, 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 61 pp., chart. (Bull. No. 735; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February 1943, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The economic status of the members of the American Chemical Society. Report of Committee on Economic Status, prepared by Andrew Fraser, Jr. Washington, American Chemical Society, [1943?]. 39 pp., charts. (Reprinted from Chemical and Engineering News, Vol. 20, Nos. 22, 23, 24, 1942.)

The name of the author of this report was incorrectly given as Arthur Fraser, Jr., in a brief notice published in the Monthly Labor Review for June 1943 (p. 1255).

Incentive compensation in wartime. New York, American Management Association, 1943. 31 pp. (Production series No. 146.)

State regulation of agricultural wages in foreign countries. By Edward J. Rowell and Samuel Liss. Washington, U. S. Farm Security Administration, Labor Division, 1942. 45 pp.; mimeographed.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

Health, welfare, and related aspects of community war services. Washington, U. S. Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, 1942. 15 pp.

The pamphlet outlines ways in which community organization can promote effective cooperative action by local, State, and Federal government agencies and private organizations in the fields of community health and welfare.

Operating under manpower controls. By Paul V. McNutt and others. New York, American Management Association, 1943. 42 pp. (Personnel series No. 64.)

Wartime orders in council affecting labor. Ottawa, Department of Labor of Canada, June 1943. 115 pp. Rev. ed.

Superseding a pamphlet of the same title issued in April 1942, this pamphlet contains the full text or summaries of all Orders in Council in the labor field passed by the Canadian Government as a result of war conditions and which were still in effect in June 1943.

New Zealand's role in the Pacific. By David and Shirley Jenkins. (In Foreign Policy Reports, Foreign Policy Association, New York, June 1, 1943, pp. 66-75. 25 cents.)

Deals with the labor as well as other aspects of New Zealand's wartime role, giving in particular statistics of manpower and information on manpower and price controls.

Women in Industry

I took a war job. By Josephine von Miklos. New York, Simon and Schuster, 1943. 223 pp. \$2.

Account of the experiences of a successful professional woman who, for patriotic reasons, deserted commercial designing and photography for essential manual wartime employment.

Step-by-step training of women in 100 service maintenance jobs. South Bend, Ind., Studebaker Corp., [1943?]. 105 pp.

Wanted: Women in war industry; the complete guide to a war factory job. By Laura Nelson Baker. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1943. 215 pp., illus. \$2.50.

Tells of the great numbers of jobs now being done and of others which will have to be done by women in war industries, how to train for these jobs, and how to get them. Considerable space is given to the employment of women in occupations usually filled by men.

Women at work in wartime. By Katherine Glover. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1943. 31 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlet No. 77.) 10 cents.

Women in war work. An exhibit prepared by the Franklin Institute in cooperation with Woman's Program, War Manpower Commission; Women's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor; Office of War Information. Arranged by Ladies' Home Journal, Curtis Publishing Co. [Philadelphia, Curtis Publishing Co.?], 1943. 82 pp., charts, illus.

Gives data on the composition of the woman labor force in certain war plants, war industries in which women are engaged, the growing need for womanpower, and related subjects.

Fifty facts about British women at war. New York, British Information Services, 1943. 23 pp., illus.

Highlights of women's activities in industry, transportation, and various other fields.

General Reports

Inter-American statistical yearbook, 1942. New York, Macmillan Co., [1942]. 1066 pp. \$10.

The second number of this yearbook of comparative statistical data for the Americas (including Canada and the United States), published in the four official languages, English, French, Portuguese, and Spanish, and covering population, production, social questions, public health, education, etc. The section of the volume devoted to social questions includes figures on the gainfully occupied population, employment and unemployment, wages, working hours, prices, cost of living, cooperatives, labor organizations, and ratifications of International Labor Conventions.

Report on progress of the WPA program, [fiscal year ending] June 30, 1942. Washington, U. S. Work Projects Administration, 1943. 90 pp., charts, illus.

One chapter of the report is devoted to the war activities of the Work Projects Administration and another to its vocational-training activities. The remainder of the report brings up to date previous statements on employment, expenditures, and accomplishments.

British eastern and central Africa; British Empire in Africa—general; British West Africa; The Union of South Africa. Selected lists of references, compiled by Helen F. Conover. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1943. 52, 37, 32, and 77 pp., respectively; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

References on labor matters are included.

Annual report and balance sheet of South African Trades and Labor Council, for period January 1 to December 31, 1942. Johannesburg, 1943. In English and Dutch; English, 28 pp.

Gives a brief account of wartime labor legislation and activities.

Labor in Australia. By Lloyd Ross. New York, Institute of Pacific Relations, American Council, 1943. 48 pp., map. 5 cents.

Traces the development of trade-unionism and protective labor measures.

Inflation—a supplementary list of references. Compiled by Florence S. Hellman. Washington, U. S. Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, January 1943. 43 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

Includes references to material on cost of living, forced savings, prices and price control, wages, etc.

The office library of an industrial relations executive, 1943. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1943. 33 pp. 4th ed. (Bibliographical series No. 72.)

Collective bargaining, employment problems, training of employees, wages and hours, labor legislation, social insurance, and trade unions, are among the subjects covered by the references listed in this pamphlet.

Worker morale and maximum productivity, with a section on woman workers. By M. M. Olander and others. New York, American Management Association, 1943. 40 pp. (Personnel series No. 67.)

Subjects covered by the papers reproduced in this pamphlet include absenteeism, nutrition, full utilization of manpower, woman workers, and care of children of working mothers.

